



The effect of dataset size and the process of big data mining for investigating solar-thermal desalination by using machine learning

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ABSTRACT

Machine learning's application in solar-thermal desalination is limited by data shortage and inconsistent analysis. This study develops an optimized dataset collection and analysis process for the representative solar still. By ultra-hydrophilic treatment on the condensation cover, the dataset collection process reduces the collection time by 83.3 %. Over 1,000 datasets are collected, which is nearly one order of magnitude larger than up-to-date works. Then, a new interdisciplinary process flow is proposed. Some meaningful results are obtained that were not addressed by previous studies. It is found that Radom Forest might be a better choice for datasets larger than 1,000 due to both high accuracy and fast speed. Besides, the dataset range affects the quantified importance (weighted value) of factors significantly, with up to a 115 % increment. Moreover, the results show that machine learning has a high accuracy on the extrapolation prediction of productivity, where the minimum mean relative prediction error is just around 4 %. The results of this work not only show the necessity of the dataset characteristics' effect but also provide a standard process for studying solar-thermal desalination by machine learning, which would pave the way for interdisciplinary study.

1. Introduction

The problem of safe drinking water is becoming increasingly serious due to the unbalanced distribution of water resources and environmental pollution, which leads to many problems, especially the health problems of residents in underdeveloped areas [1,2]. Seawater desalination technology plays an important role in solving this problem [3]. Among the seawater desalination technologies, solar-thermal desalination (STD) has drawn much attention in the last decades [4,5], especially for small-scale and micro-scale systems [6,7], because of its simplicity, low investment cost, portability, and so on [8,9].

Accurate productivity prediction and factor analysis are important to STD, which not only help to evaluate their practical potential but also provide guidance for future optimization [10]. Conventional productivity prediction and factor analysis rely on a physics-based modeling

approach, which provides a fundamental understanding of the physics process. Nevertheless, it is difficult to accurately predict or analyze a practical system with only a physics-based model, because many factors cannot be easily depicted by a physics-based model, hence many assumptions or half-empirical correlations are needed, such as the factors that cannot be quantitatively described or is correlated indirectly [11]. Thus, physics-based models are good only for very simple systems.

On the other hand, machine learning (ML) methods provide a prediction and analysis approach regardless of the complexity of the system. Therefore, ML has attracted much attention in many scientific fields, such as chemistry, physics, materials science, biology, and so on [12,13], because of its advantages in massive data analysis capabilities, saving labor, economic costs, and time. The application of ML methods has been well-studied in many solar energy fields, such as solar thermal collectors [14], solar cells [15], and solar radiation forecasting [16]. Therefore, an interdisciplinary study between ML and STD may also

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Nomenclature	
AF	Formula of activation function
b	Bias in BP-ANN
B	List of regression coefficients
C_1	Average values of productivity in $R_1(j)$ in RF
C_2	Average values of productivity in $R_2(j)$ in RF
D	Normalized dataset
e	Label of node
E	Output error signal in BP-ANN
E_{min}	Threshold of root mean square error in BP-ANN
f_i	Predicted value in ML
H_F	Fan height above the basin
GI	Gini impurity
h	Hyperparameters of BP-ANN
i	Label of neurons in current layer in BP-ANN
j	Label of sample in RF
k	Number of independent variables
l	Label of neurons in previous layer in BP-ANN
m	Number of neurons in current layer in BP-ANN
M	label of regions in RF
\dot{m}	Productivity
m_t	Total mass of the collected freshwater increases with time
n	Number of DTs in RF
N	Sample size
N_M	Number of elements in region M in RF
o_M	Average output value in DT
\hat{p}_e	Estimated probability that sample belongs to any class at node e in RF
P_F	Power of the fan
q	Dimension label
$R(j)$	Regions sliced by j_{th} sample
$R_M(j)$	Region of label M in RF
R_l	Random number
R^2	Coefficient of determination
Δt	Given period
T_{amb}	Ambient temperature
T_g	Glass cover temperature
T_{ss}	Solar still types
T_w	Water temperature
VIM_i^{DT}	Importance of one variable at node e in RF
w	Weight between current layer and previous layer
x	Input value
X	Array of experimental independent variables
y	True productivity
\bar{y}	Average productivity of datasets
y^{MLR}	Predicted value in MLR
y^{neu}	Output of current neurons
y^{NN}	Predicted value in BP-ANN
y^{RF}	Predicted value in RF
Y_i	One of productivity
Y	List of productivity
<i>Greek letters</i>	
α_q	Value of q_{th} neuron in first layer
β	Regression coefficient
β_h	Value of h_{th} neuron in second layer
δ	relative prediction error
$\bar{\delta}$	mean relative prediction error
δ^e	Error signal between current layer and previous layer
η	Scale coefficient
ANN	Artificial neural network
BO	Bayesian optimization
BP-ANN	Backpropagation artificial neural network
CART	Classification and regression trees
DT	Decision tree
ML	Machine learning
MLR	Multiple linear regressions
RF	Random forest
STD	Solar-thermal desalination
XPS	Extruded polystyrene

have great potential.

Various algorithms have been applied to fit the results of STD systems in the past decades, including artificial neural networks (ANNs) [17], random forest (RF) [18,19], hybrid fuzzy-neural algorithms [20], modified krill herd (MKH) algorithm [21], modified random vector functional link (RVFL) [22], and so on. For example, Noe et al. [23] found that up to 89 % of the predictions were within 20 % of actual production by using ANN based on 312 datasets. Mashaly et al. [24] developed a back propagation ANN model for the prediction of solar still performance, with a coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.93 for predicting the productivity of seawater desalination. Later, they compared multi-layer perceptron neural networks and multiple linear regressions. The results showed that the average value of R^2 for the multi-layer perceptron model was higher by 11.23 % than for the multiple linear regressions model [25]. Recently, more efforts have been made to further optimize the conventional algorithms, such as developing the Imperialist Competition Algorithm enhanced ANN algorithm [26], optimizing ANN by using Harris Hawks Optimizer [27,28] and Levenberg Marquardt algorithm [29,30], and so on. The best-reported R^2 reaches up to nearly 1 [31,32].

However, most previous investigations only focused on enhancing the fitting accuracy of a given dataset, such as increasing R^2 or decreasing the relative errors of productivity prediction [33]. The application of ML is quite limited and far from becoming an essential tool. One of the reasons is the insufficient dataset size, usually less than 200 due to the time-consuming data collection process [23,34]. Such a

small dataset makes it impossible to carry out more discussion. On the other hand, the ML analysis conditions vary across different works, leading to difficulties in drawing systematic conclusions. For instance, the dataset sizes and ranges differ in various works, making direct comparisons challenging [35]. Therefore, it is vital to propose a general and reasonable process to enrich the results and make them more comparable across different works.

The main objectives of this work are: (1) to explore a representative new method for speeding up and expanding the dataset collection of STD systems; (2) to propose an optimized standard process flow for analyzing STD systems by the ML method, which tries to eliminate the inconsistency across different works as much as possible; (3) to explore more possibility of interdisciplinary study that beyond the limitation of conventional fitting.

In this work, firstly, the representative STD systems, a few solar stills, were designed and optimized for collecting a large dataset of productivity, temperatures, and other factors. Then, it was proposed that a standard process flow of analyzing STD systems by using ML, which consists of seven steps. Lastly, several important aspects of the interdisciplinary study were explored, such as the effect of the dataset size on the prediction accuracy of productivity, the effect of the dataset range on the importance analysis of various influence factors, and the performance of productivity prediction by extrapolation.

2. Experimental platform and ML algorithms

Solar still, which is a typical small-scale STD system, is built as an example of investigating dataset collection and ML analysis. The solar still is a simple, low-cost, micro-scale STD system that requires minimal maintenance and has been extensively researched in recent decades [36, 37]. The dataset collection involves three different types of solar stills: single-slope, double-slope, and pyramid, which are the most popular types of solar still [38]. The basic working principle of a solar still is as follows: the seawater in the basin is heated by solar radiation and evaporates. The vapor rises due to natural or forced convection and condenses on the glass cover, which is cooler than the vapor [39]. The condensate then slides down the glass cover by gravity and is collected in bottles. For more details on solar stills, please refer to [40,41].

Based on the experimental platform (Fig. 1a and 1b) and the thermodynamic processes of solar stills [42,43], potential features affecting productivity can be identified and utilized as inputs for machine learning models. Three main types of factors can be considered: (1) temperature factors, including water temperature (T_w), glass cover temperature (T_g), and ambient temperature (T_{amb}); (2) air convection factors, including fan power (P_F) and fan height above the basin (H_F); and (3) geometry factor, i.e., the type of solar still (T_{ss}). T_w and T_g primarily depend on the heating power of the system. T_{amb} is regulated by a thermostat cover above the glass cover, which can vary between 10°C

and 35°C. Validation of the thermostat cover can be found in previous work [43]. A fan is mounted in the vapor chamber of the solar still, and P_F and H_F can be adjusted to investigate the impact of air convection within the solar still. The bottom of the solar still measures 25 cm × 25 cm and is insulated with a 4 cm layer of XPS (extruded polystyrene) foam. Additionally, a random number list, R_i , is generated by the computer for use as a reference. The list of devices used is presented in Table 1.

It is necessary to control each factor precisely to optimize the experimental procedures and investigate the effect of each factor. Therefore, the stable artificial environment, instead of the real environment, is used in this work. Herein, electrical heating is used for simulating solar energy, which provides stable power input and shows the steady-state performance of the system [44]. The power density of electrical heating ranges from 0 W/m² to 1,000 W/m². Besides, the ambient temperature is stably controlled by the thermostat cover as aforementioned. Therefore, the data range can be easily controlled as compared to conventional platforms.

In a conventional solar still system, the freshwater condenses as droplets as shown in Fig. 1c. The total mass of the collected freshwater increases with time (m_t). The instantaneous freshwater productivity (\dot{m}) can be obtained from the freshwater mass difference ($m_{t+\Delta t} - m_t = \Delta m$) during a given period (Δt), i.e., $\dot{m} = \Delta m / \Delta t$. However, Δm fluctuates with time, thus \dot{m} would be intrinsically unstable, especially under a

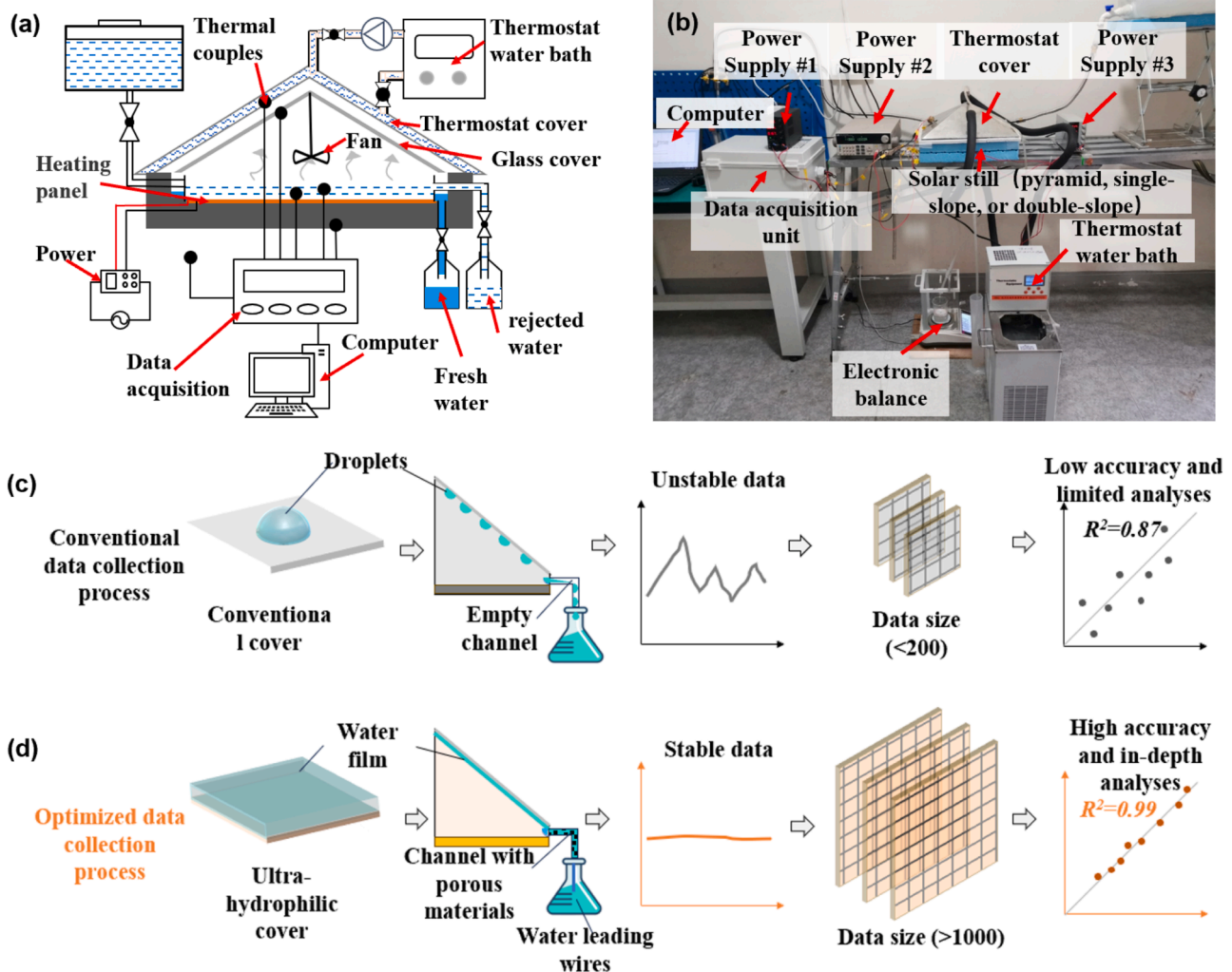


Fig. 1. (a) Schematic diagram of the experimental platform. (b) Photo of the experimental platform. Pyramid, double slope, and single slope solar still are tested in turn in the setup by substituting the cover of solar still. (c) Schematic diagram of the conventional data collection processes. (d) Schematic diagram of the optimized data collection processes.

Table 1
Specifics of devices and sensors in the experiments.

Name	Brand	Type	Function	Range	Error
Fan	LFFAN	LFS0512SL	Enhancing convection	0 ~ 4800 RPM	-
Electronic balance	ANHENG	AH-A503	Measuring productivity	0 ~ 500 g	± 0.01 g
Power supply #1 & #3	WANPTEK	NPS3010W	DC power supply	0 ~ 30 V	± 0.1 %
Power supply #2	ITECH	IT6932A	Programmable power supply	0 ~ 60 V	± 0.03 %
Data acquisition unit	CAMPBELL SCIENTIFIC	CR1000X&AM25T	Dataset collection	25 Channels	-
Thermostat water bath	QIWEI	DHC-2005-A	Controlling the ambient temperature	-20 ~ 99.9°C	± 0.2 °C
Heating panel	BEISITE	Custom-made	Heating the water	0 ~ 2000 W/m ²	-
Thermal couple	ETA	T-K-36-SLE	Measuring the temperature	-200 ~ 260°C	± 1.1 °C

small period as shown in Fig. 2a. When the period is 5 mins ($\Delta t = 5$ mins), the instantaneous productivity in conventional solar still ranges from 23 g/h to 43 g/h, although the thermal equilibrium state has been reached. The productivity fluctuates by 70% around the average value, thus completely unstable. For $\Delta t = 15$ mins, the productivity ranges from 27 g/h to 37 g/h, and the fluctuation remains as high as 18.5%. The fluctuation decreases to 10% when $\Delta t = 30$ mins. Therefore, in a conventional system, a long collecting time is inevitable to obtain just one single reliable dataset.

After a careful evaluation of the data collection process, it was found that the unstable productivity of the conventional system resulted from the fluctuating falling frequency and size of freshwater droplets. To solve this problem, the glass cover is treated to be ultra-hydrophilic, which enables film condensation and avoids the unstable droplets in previous works. In this work, anti-fog coating (Rain-X, Illinois Tools Works Inc.) is used for ultra-hydrophilic treatment. More details about the ultra-hydrophilic glass cover can be found in our previous work [40]. The glass cover is recoated every week, due to the surface may exhibit degradation. The stability is verified every day before and after the

experiments. Besides, the condensate from the ultra-hydrophilic glass cover flows continuously to a bottle through a fibrous water channel and a water-leading wire, as shown in Fig 1c. The weight of the collected condensate is recorded by the electronic balance every 10 seconds. After optimization, the instantaneous productivity ranges from 29.5 g/h to 33.5 g/h when $\Delta t = 5$ mins, which fluctuates by only 7%. It is even better than that of $\Delta t = 30$ mins in conventional solar still of previous works. Thus, the dataset collection time is saved by around 83.3% as compared to conventional systems, from 30 mins to 5 mins. Fig. 2b compares the standardized normal productivity distribution of different conditions. The productivity of the proposed system (film-wise) at $\Delta t = 5$ mins is much more stable than that of the conventional system (drop-wise) even when its Δt is as long as 30 mins.

Due to the significantly reduced dataset collection time, more datasets can be collected. Massive datasets are collected by changing the experimental condition. For example, datasets can be obtained automatically and continuously by changing the fan power (Fig. 2c). The stepwise fan power is controlled by the programable power supply. The corresponding productivity and temperatures in the stable state are

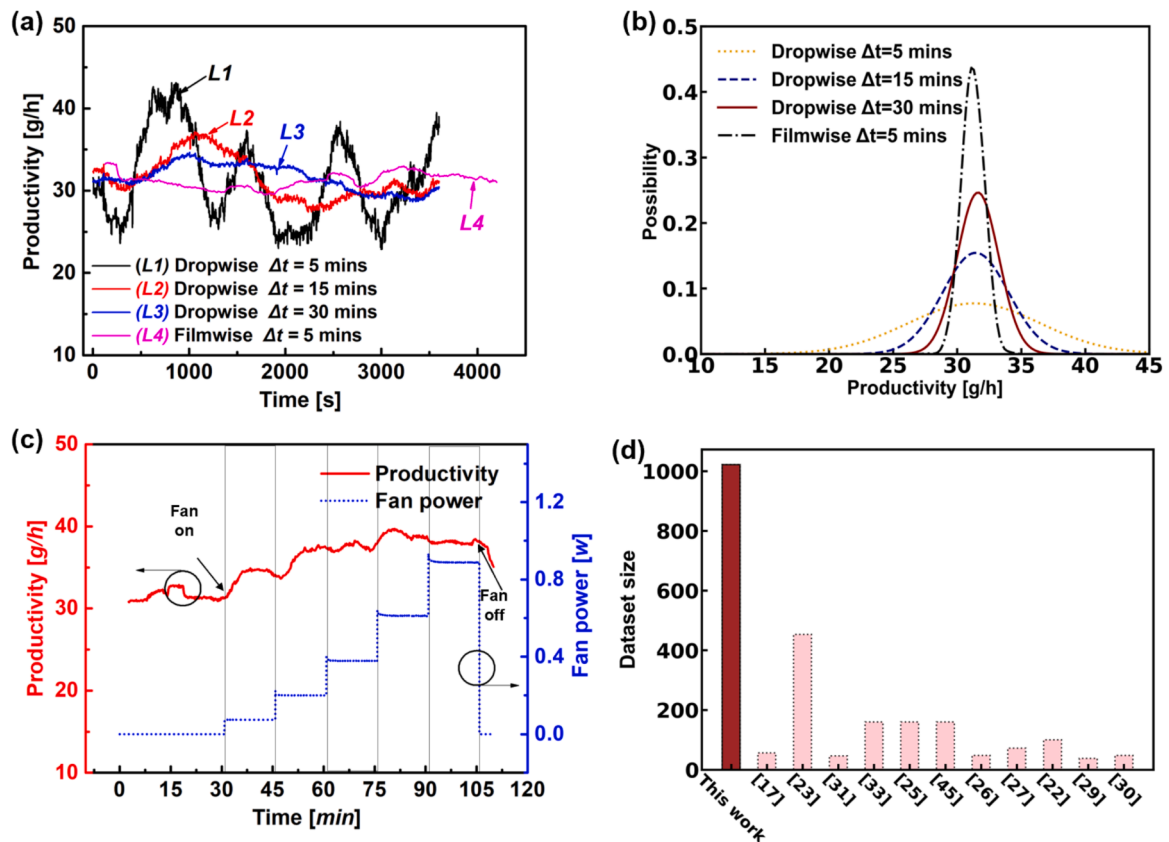


Fig. 2. (a) Hourly productivity under different periods. (b) Standardized normal distribution of productivity. (c) The productivity of solar still with stepped fan power. (d) The dataset size collected from the solar still in this work and the references.

recorded in the computer for further analysis. Then, one set of data that includes \dot{m} , T_w , T_g , T_{amb} , P_F , H_F , and T_{ss} are successfully obtained. In this work, 1022 data were collected for analysis, which is ten times greater than the average number of datasets in previous works as shown in Fig. 2d. The diversity, integrality, and representativeness were considered when collecting the data. For example, the typical working temperature range for solar stills is from 10°C to 80°C, therefore the datasets cover all the typical temperatures. The difference between the conventional experimental platforms and the optimized platform in this work is shown in Table 2.

To analyze the dataset from the solar still, three different algorithms were used and compared, including multiple linear regressions (MLR), backpropagation artificial neural network (BP-ANN), and random forest (RF).

(1) MLR model

MLR is an algorithm based on the least squares method that has been widely used in STD [25,46]. It has the advantages of speediness and convenience. MLR is derived through the utilization of the least squares method, which aims to minimize the sum of squared residuals. The equation for multiple linear regression can be expressed in matrix form as follows

$$y^{MLR} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 x_2 + \dots + \hat{\beta}_k x_k \quad (1)$$

$$X^T X \hat{B} = X^T Y \quad (2)$$

where y^{MLR} is the predicted value, x is the input value, β is the regression coefficient. In the MLR model, the input dataset X is an array containing several experimental independent variables, such as T_w , T_g , T_{amb} , P_F , H_F , and T_{ss} . Y represents the list of productivity. The array \hat{B} represents the list of regression coefficients, which are determined through the fitting process using the dataset. Once \hat{B} has been fitted using the dataset, the productivity can be predicted using the MLR model. The detailed calculation processes can be found in ‘‘Supporting Information S3’’. For the approaches, theoretically, they can be used for all physical models. However, some considerations or limitations should be noted, details in Supporting Information S4 to S6.

(2) BP-ANN model

ANN is a popular neural algorithm in the field of STD due to its high accuracy [47]. ANN belongs to the black-box model, and the specific formulas cannot be obtained. The principle of ANN is similar to the information transmission of biological neurons. BP-ANN is a type of ANN in which the signal is forward propagated and the error is backpropagated. The model is continually revised through continuous error feedback. Then a high-precision predicting model is obtained. The variables in BP-ANN are the values of neurons in the input layer. In this work, the number of neurons in the input layer is 6, corresponding to 6 independent variables of experiments, which serve as the input features of the neural network. By calculating the values of neurons in the hidden layer with their corresponding weights, the final result is obtained as the

Table 2
Comparison of the conventional platform and optimized platform.

Specifications	Conventional [22,27,45]	Optimized
Collection time for a dataset	> 30 mins	5 mins
Ambient temperature range	Uncontrolled	Controlled
Heating power range	Uncontrolled	Controlled
Fan power control	Manual	Automatic
Glass cover wettability	Hydrophilic	Ultra-hydrophilic
Water collection pipe	Empty pipe	A pipe full of porous materials
Freshwater flow	Droplets	Stream
Dataset size	<200	1,022

value of the output layer that has only one node. This value represents the predicted productivity based on the given independent variables and the BP-ANN model.

A five-layer perceptron with 3 hidden layers was used in this work. When a training sample is input, the output error signal E , of the BP-ANN model is

$$E = \frac{1}{2}(y^{NN} - y)^2 \quad (3)$$

where y^{NN} and y are the predicting and true values.

Utilizing the BP-ANN algorithm, the model propagates the error signal back through the network and adjusts the weights between nodes, and the resulting updated outcome is represented as

$$w' = w + \Delta w = w - \frac{\partial E}{\partial w} \quad (4)$$

where w is the weight between the current layer and the previous layer according to the backpropagation. The activation function employed in this study is the unipolar sigmoid function. The weight adjustment is performed according to

$$\Delta w_{il} = \eta \delta_l^e y_i^{neu} \quad (5)$$

where i is the label of the neurons in the current layer, and l is the label of the neurons in the previous layer. y_i^{neu} is the output of the neuron using the activation function in the current layer; $\eta \in (0, 1)$ is the scale coefficient, a larger η means a faster convergence speed but the local optimum may not be obtained, and a smaller η means higher accuracy and slower convergence speed. δ is the error signal between the current neural network layer and the previous layer, the results can be calculated by reverse iteration (Supporting Information Eq. S20).

The bias can be represented as

$$b' = b + \Delta b = b - \frac{\partial E}{\partial b} \quad (6)$$

where b is the bias between the current layer and the previous layer according to the backpropagation. The bias is performed according to

$$\Delta b_j = \eta \sum_{j=1}^m \delta_j \quad (7)$$

For the training set with a sample size of N , the root mean square error is used as the total error of the model,

$$E_{RME} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left[\frac{1}{2} (y_i^{NN} - y_i)^2 \right]} \quad (8)$$

When $E_{RME} < E_{min}$ is satisfied or the maximum number of iterations is reached, the training ends, and the artificial neural network prediction model is obtained. The forward pass prediction process between the first and second layers is

$$\beta_h = AF \left[\sum_{i=1}^{m_1} (w_{ih}^2 x_i - b_h^1) \right] \quad h = 1, 2, \dots, m_2 \quad (9)$$

where m_1 is the number of neurons in the first layer, β_h is the value of the h_{th} neuron in the second layer, α_q is the value of the q_{th} neuron in the first layer. AF is the activation function. A similar process happens between the second and third layers, as shown in Fig. 3. All neurons are computed in the forward process, resulting in the final output. Please refer to the ‘‘Supplementary Information S3’’ for detailed calculation procedures.

The overall flow chart of using BP-ANN for predicting the productivity of the STD system is shown in Fig. 4. The initial input consists of over 1,000 experimental datasets that comprise six independent variables and one dependent variable, \dot{m} . To ensure consistent sample

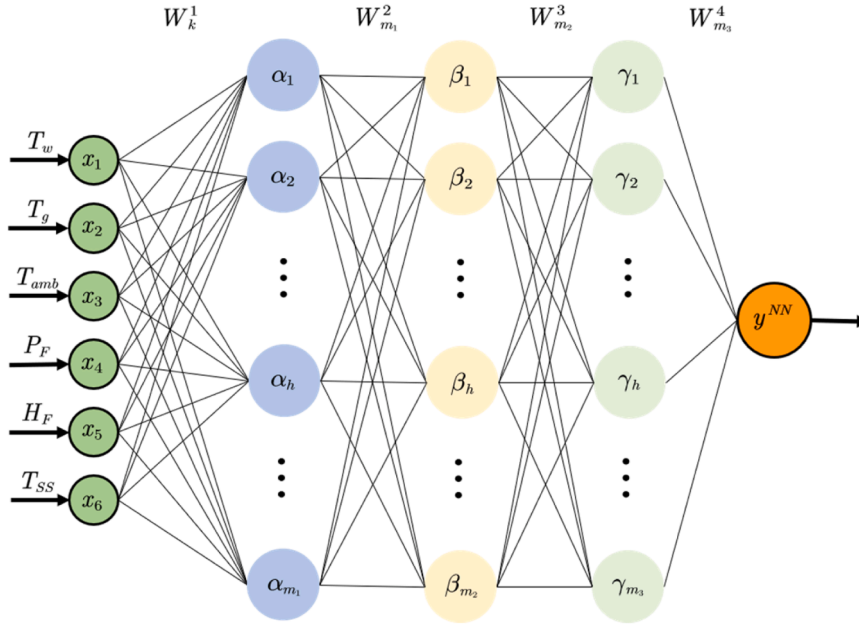


Fig. 3. Schematic diagram of BP-ANN algorithm.

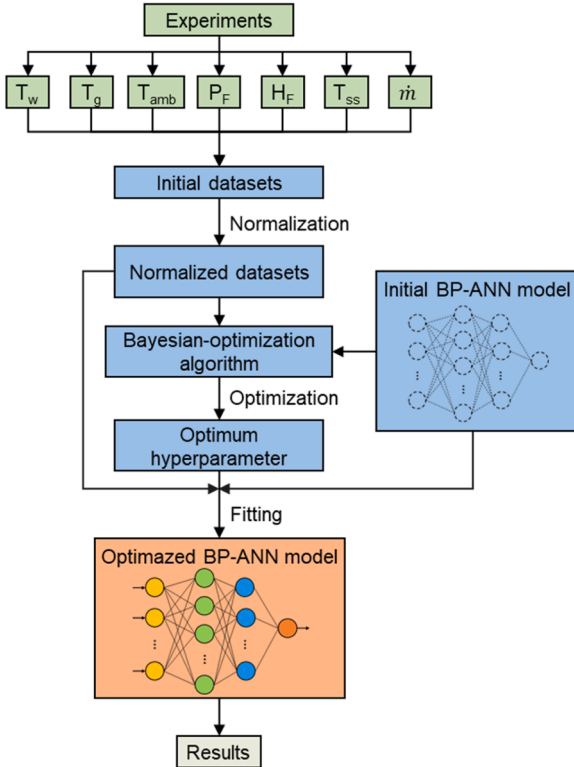


Fig. 4. The flow chart of using BP-ANN for productivity prediction of the STD system.

spacing, the initial dataset undergoes a data normalization process (Supporting Information S1). The initial BP-ANN model solely comprises BP-ANN algorithms, which are unable to make predictions before training. Bayesian optimization (BO) is employed to modify the BP-ANN model, providing optimized hyperparameters such as 'hidden_layer_sizes', 'Activation', and 'Solver' [48,49]. For more details, please refer to the "Supporting Information Table S1".

The BO process for BP-ANN is illustrated in Fig. 5. The optimization

process for RF with BO is similar. The initial BP-ANN model and normalized datasets are inputted to construct the adjustment function as

$$R^2 = BPNN(h_1, h_2, h_3, h_4, h_5, D) \quad (10)$$

where R^2 is the coefficient of determination, $h_1 \sim h_5$ are the hyperparameters of BP-ANN, and D is the normalized dataset, which is constant in the fitting process.

The purpose of BO in this work is to find the optimum hyperparameters that can obtain the maximum R^2 . BO is especially suitable for "black box" function optimization problems, that is, the dimension is relatively high, and the function value is difficult to obtain [50]. Firstly, the computer generates the random data points of the adjustment function within the defined domain. Based on the probabilistic surrogate model, the prediction function and confidence interval for the adjustment function are established. The acquisition function is employed to predict the quasi-optimal hyperparameters. If the threshold, defined as the maximum number of iterations in this work, is not met, the R^2 is calculated using the quasi-optimal hyperparameters. A new data point is generated based on this R^2 value and added to the existing data points of the adjustment function. The process is then repeated. Once the threshold is met, the quasi-optimal hyperparameters are considered the final optimum hyperparameters and are outputted. In this work, the probabilistic surrogate model is based on Gaussian process regression, while the acquisition function is based on the upper confidence bound. Details in "Supporting Information S7".

(3) RF model

In recent years, the RF algorithm has been one of the most popular algorithms and has been widely used in Kaggle Competitions and academic dataset analysis [51], as well as in the field of STD [19]. RF is an ensemble learning method, which integrates multiple decision tree (DT) models. Based on the bagging, datasets are divided into numerous bootstrap samples to fit the DT models. The predicted result of RF is obtained by averaging the results of the DT models. The DT models of RF are independent of each other and can be calculated in parallel. Therefore, RF usually has a higher model training speed when dealing with large-scale datasets [52].

There are two main functions of RF for analyzing the STD system, including predicting the productivity and ranking the importance of influence factors:

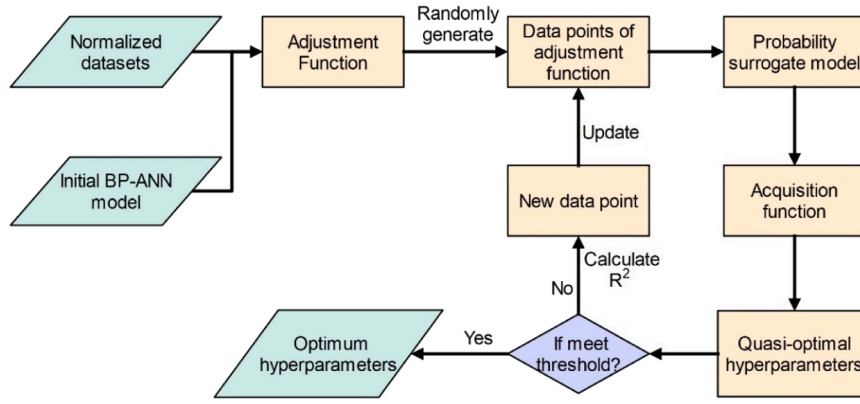


Fig. 5. Schematic diagram of the Bayesian optimization process.

a) Productivity prediction

RF is constructed by classification and regression trees (CART), which provides a flexible and powerful algorithm for regression tasks, offering interpretability, robustness, and handling of nonlinear relationships and mixed data types [53]. Utilizing the CART algorithm, a binary DT is constructed to partition each dimension into two regions. The output values are obtained within each region of the tree. Based on the heuristic algorithm, one sample, such as the j th sample, will be chosen as the slicing variable and slicing point, which defines two regions, $R_1(j)$ and $R_2(j)$

$$R_1(j) = \{X_{jq} | y \leq y_j\} \quad R_2(j) = \{X_{jq} | y > y_j\} \quad (11)$$

where, q is the dimension label, which is an integer in the range $[1, k]$, and k is the number of the independent variables. X, y are the input variables. In this work, the input dataset X is an array containing experimental independent variables such as $T_w, T_g, T_{amb}, P_F, H_F,$ and T_{ss} . y is the corresponding productivity, \dot{m} . The DT uses the principle of minimizing the squared error

$$MIN = \min_j \left[\min_{c_1} \sum_{x_i \in R_1(j)} (y_i - c_1)^2 + \min_{c_2} \sum_{x_i \in R_2(j)} (y_i - c_2)^2 \right] \quad (12)$$

where c_1 and c_2 are the average values of y in $R_1(j)$ and $R_2(j)$, respectively.

Traversing the variable j , the optimal segmentation point can be obtained for fixed input variables. Repeating the above process $N - 1$ times, the input space can be divided into N^k regions. The average output value, o_M , of each region is

$$o_M = \frac{1}{N_M} \sum_{y_j \in R_M(j)} y_j, \quad M = 1, 2, \dots, N^k \quad (13)$$

where M is the label of the regions; $R_M(j)$ is the region of label M ; N_M is the number of elements in the region M . The output of the decision tree model is

$$f(X_i) = o_M, \quad X_i \in R_M(j) \quad (14)$$

The output y^{RF} of the RF model is

$$y^{RF} = F(X_i) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f_k(X_i) \quad (15)$$

where n is the number of DTs in the RF model.

After fitting the RF model, the prediction model $F(X_i)$ is obtained. If an input dataset X' is provided, the predicted productivity y' can be expressed as

$$y' = F(X') \quad (16)$$

b) Importance ranking

The quantitative importance of feature factors is calculated by using the Gini impurity. Based on the binary decision tree, the Gini impurity is

$$GI_e = 2\hat{p}_e(1 - \hat{p}_e) \quad (17)$$

where \hat{p}_e is the estimated probability that the sample belongs to any class at node e .

The importance of variable X_i at node e , VIM_i^{DT} , that is, the change in Gini impurity before and after the branch of node e is

$$VIM_{ie}^{DT} = GI_e - GI_l - GI_r \quad (18)$$

where GI_l and GI_r is the Gini impurity of the two new nodes split by node e .

By calculating all the VIM_i^{DT} about variable X_i , the importance of the variable X_i in the random forest can be obtained. The specific calculation processes can be found in "Supplementary Information S3". The overall flow chart of using RF for predicting productivity and calculating the factor importance (weighted value) of the STD system is similar to that of BP-ANN, as shown in "Supporting Information Fig. S1 and Fig. S2".

To evaluate the prediction accuracy, three indicators were used in this work, namely relative prediction error (δ), mean relative prediction error ($\bar{\delta}$), and the coefficient of determination (R^2). The definitions are shown in Table 3, which are the most typical evaluation metrics in STD field. In Table 3, y_i is the experimental productivity of dataset i , f_i is the predicted productivity of dataset i , \bar{y} is the average productivity of all calculated datasets. Meanwhile, the calculation used the 5-fold cross-validation as discussed in "Supporting Information S8". The fitting process with the optimal hyperparameter was performed 10 times with different training and testing datasets that were split randomly. The output evaluation indicators are the mean of these 10 results. Although this method may slightly reduce the accuracy of the fitted machine learning model, it mitigates the overfitting problem and significantly enhances the model's generalization ability.

Table 3

The definitions of main evaluation indicators.

Evaluation indicators	Expression
Relative prediction error (δ)	$\delta = \frac{y_i - f_i}{y_i} \times 100\%$
Mean relative prediction error ($\bar{\delta}$)	$\bar{\delta} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \delta$
Coefficient of determination (R^2)	$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - f_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}$

3. Results and discussions

Besides optimizing the data collection process for better analysis. The dataset characteristics also should be considered, which may have significant effects on the interdiscipline between ML and STD. However, it was overlooked in previous works. Therefore, dataset characteristics should be considered in the whole process of interdisciplinary study, making the process more general and standard, which is crucial for promoting ML to be a general tool for analyzing STD. Fig. 6 illustrates the optimized process flow of the interdisciplinary study proposed by this work. The optimized process flow consists of seven steps:

- (1) First, the main purpose of the study should be determined. Currently, the main applications of ML include predicting values, searching extreme values, and analyzing influence factors. Other applications might also be explored in the future.
- (2) Secondly, it is suggested to establish an experimental platform that is designed especially for massive dataset collection, which is the key step. Generally, in the previous studies, the platforms weren't intentionally optimized, thus usually a quite small dataset (< 200) was collected due to the limitation of the conventional setup.
- (3) The datasets, obtained from the designed STD platform, are preprocessed, such as normalization, shuffle, removal of invalid datasets, and so on.
- (4) Algorithm selection, which is based on the purpose of the study and the characteristics of datasets.
- (5) The algorithm should be optimized by using optimizers for choosing proper hyperparameters, such as "max_depth", "max_features", and "n_estimators" in RF. The optimizers include Bayesian, genetic algorithm, Harris Hawks Optimizer, etc.
- (6) Importantly, "independence verification" of dataset characteristics should be carried out, which is missing in previous studies on STD systems. To select the best algorithm and give a consistent result, the dependence of dataset characteristics, such as size, range, factors, etc. should be checked carefully. In the review of previous works, there are some inconsistent conclusions, partially due to missing the step of independence verification. It is easier to obtain valuable and universal conclusions with independence verification.
- (7) Finally, the desired results are outputted. The conventional process only provides a single value of R^2 or other simple indicators. More meaningful results can't be obtained, such as productivity extrapolation.

Based on the optimized data collection process and interdisciplinary process flow, the effect of dataset size on the prediction of productivity by using BP-ANN, MLR, and RF was first investigated. A series of

datasets were randomly selected from the entire dataset to represent different dataset sizes. The results are shown in Fig. 7. The R^2 of the testing set in BP-ANN is as high as 0.96 based on 100 datasets (Fig. 7a). The R^2 of the testing set increases from 0.96 to 0.99 when the dataset size increases from 100 to 1,000, which indicates great predicting accuracy of BP-ANN under large dataset size (Fig. 7b). On the other hand, the R^2 of the testing set of MLR slightly increases from 0.94 to 0.95 when the dataset size increases from 100 to 1,000 (Fig. 7c and d). The R^2 of RF shows the most significant improvement with the increases in the dataset size. The R^2 of the testing process is as low as 0.87 for 100 datasets and as high as 0.98 for 1,000 datasets, which is comparable to BP-ANN. (Fig. 7e and f).

As shown in Fig. 8, the results show that their performance varies a lot when the dataset size ranges from one hundred to one thousand. The R^2 of three algorithms under different dataset sizes are summarized in Fig. 8a. For BP-ANN and MLR, the R^2 of the testing sets (more important than training sets) slightly increases with the dataset size. However, it dramatically increases for RF. In general, BP-ANN has a better performance than the others. However, the performance of MLR and RF, superiority strongly depends on the dataset size. RF will be better than MLR when the dataset size is larger than 400.

Therefore, the choice of the algorithm should consider the effect of dataset size on the accuracy. The results with a small dataset make an incomplete conclusion. Some previous studies with a dataset size smaller than one hundred cannot take a comprehensive consideration.

Although BP-ANN outperforms RF in accuracy, the mean fitting time of BP-ANN is 5.9 times longer than that of RF. This is because RF consists of many independent decision trees, which can be computed in parallel, hence the increased computational speed. Therefore, given the training speed, RF might be a better choice when the dataset size is much larger than 1,000. Thus, the interdisciplinary research of ML and STD should consider the influence of dataset size to reach more generalizable conclusions.

In comparison to the clear trends of dataset size effect found in this work, the results collected from the references are quite inconsistent as shown in Fig. 8b. This is because different works have different optimization models, working conditions, analyzing standards, and so on, which makes it difficult to compare with each other. Therefore, a successful and comprehensive investigation of the STD system by ML relies on a consistent analysis and sufficient dataset, which is difficult to obtain or conclude by collecting the results of current references. This emphasizes the importance of designing a rational experimental system for systematical dataset collection, as well as a standard process flow for ML analysis.

Fig. 8c shows the percentage of predicted productivity that are within 10% of error, i.e., $|\delta| \leq 10\%$, by using BP-ANN, MLR, and RF. For BP-ANN, the percentages of δ within $\pm 10\%$ are 74.2%, 90.8%, and 93.4% for 100, 400, and 1000 datasets, respectively. Besides, 70% and

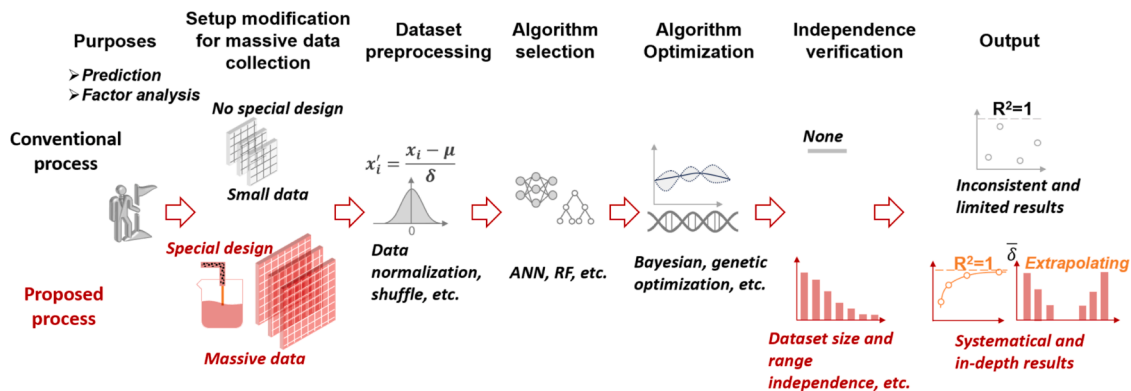


Fig. 6. Process flow for the interdisciplinary study between machine learning and solar-thermal desalination. The proposed new process flow will enable more reliable, systematic, and in-depth analyses compared to the conventional process flow in previous studies.

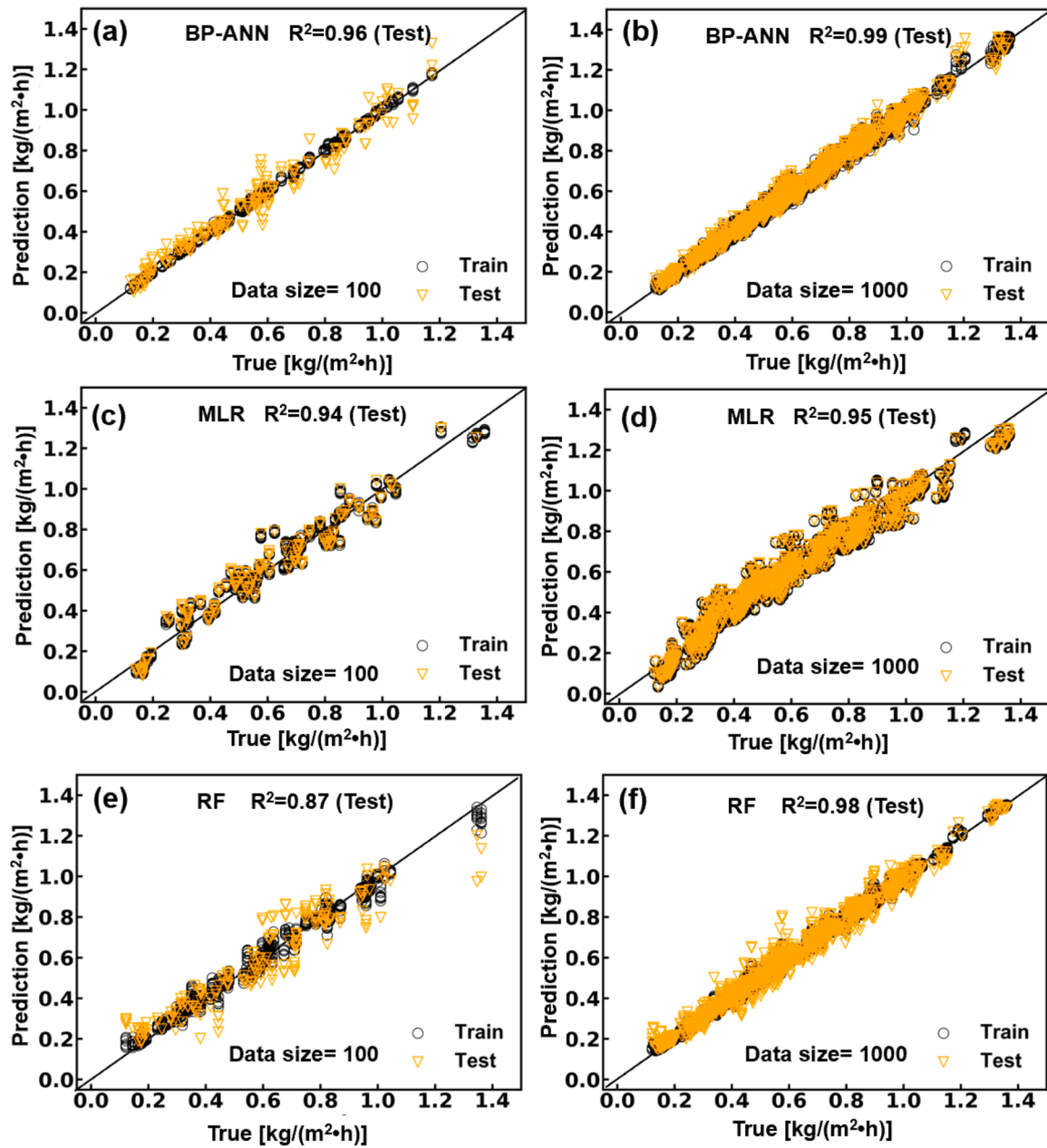


Fig. 7. Prediction and the true value of productivity by using (a) BP-ANN and 100 data points, (b)BP-ANN and 1,000 data points, (c) MLR and 100 data points, and (d) MLR and 1,000 data points, (e)RF and 100 data, (f) RF and 1,000 data. The R^2 in the figure is the value of the testing set.

99.6 % of the δ are less than $\pm 5\%$ and $\pm 20\%$, respectively, when the dataset size is more than 600 (Fig. 8d). In contrast, by using MLR, only 60 % to 70 % of the δ are less than $\pm 10\%$, even with a dataset size as high as 1,000. On the other hand, for RF, as the dataset size increases from 100 to 1,000, the percentage of results for δ within $\pm 10\%$ rises from 50.9 % to 90.2 %. This is comparable to BP-ANN when the dataset size reaches 1,000, which is similar to the performance based on R^2 .

The results show that the performance of prediction might vary a lot although the dataset size only ranges from several hundred to one thousand. Therefore, the choice of the algorithm should consider the dataset size and its effect on the accuracy, time cost, and other factors of each algorithm. Without a comprehensive consideration, previous studies with a small dataset size may suggest that BP-ANN outperforms RF, but the impact analysis of dataset size indicates that RF may be more time-effective when the dataset size exceeds one thousand. Thus, the interdisciplinary research of ML and STD should fully consider the

influence of dataset size to reach more generalizable conclusions.

Secondly, besides the dataset size, the dataset range is another factor that affects the interdiscipline between ML and STD. Great dataset range indicates that the dataset covers all the possible conditions in practical applications, such as a wide water temperature or ambient temperature range. Herein, the factor importance (weighted value), which could guide the system optimization by selecting the important factors of the desalination system for future optimization [18], is taken as an example of studying the effect of dataset range.

The factor importance is obtained by analyzing the connection between productivity and factors by using the RF algorithm. Fig. 9a shows the importance of T_w , T_g , T_{amb} , P_F , T_{ss} , and H_F in predicting productivity. The importance of the T_w , T_g , T_{amb} , P_F , and T_{ss} is relatively stable in different dataset sizes. This might be because the dataset range is the same for different dataset sizes. As aforementioned, different dataset sizes are obtained by randomly selecting a given amount of dataset from

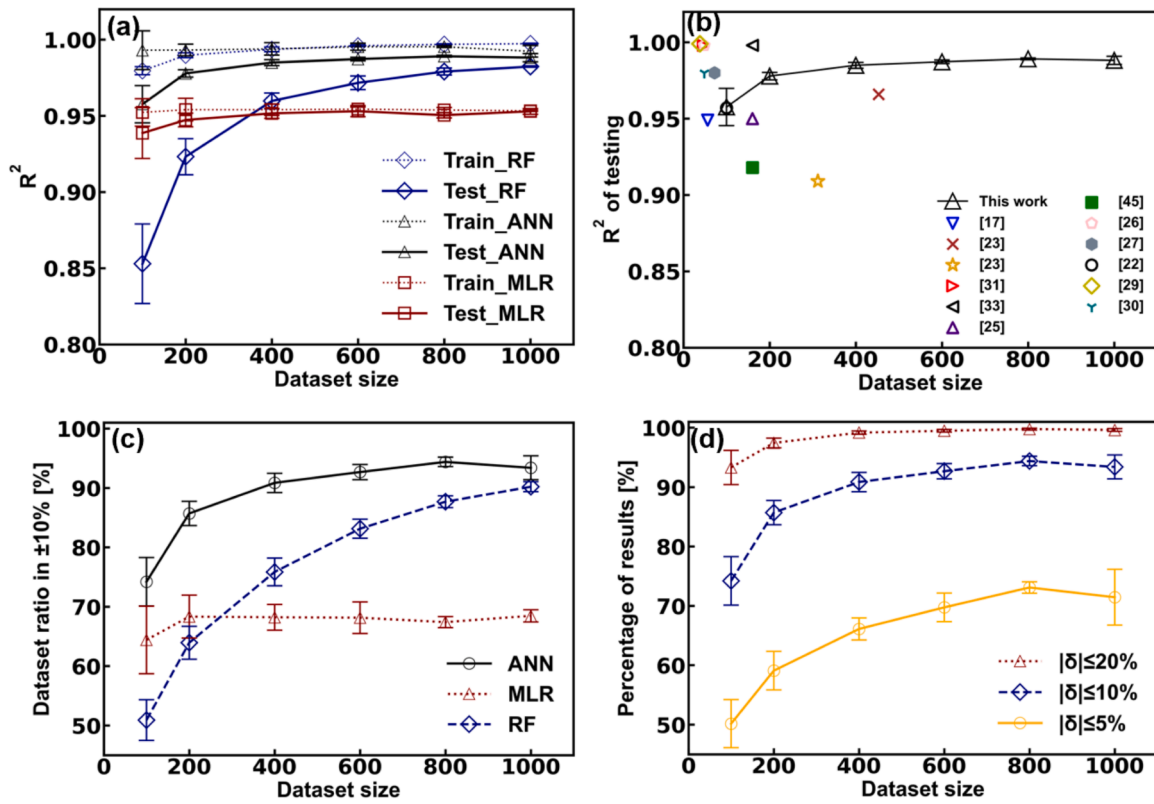


Fig. 8. The results of predicting the productivity of solar stills using different algorithms. (a) R^2 value for the training sets and testing sets of BP-ANN, RF, and MLR based on varying dataset sizes. (b) R^2 value for the testing set of BP-ANN in various works. (c) Percentage of productivity in the testing sets for which $|\delta| \leq 10\%$, using BP-ANN, MLR, and RF. (d) Percentage of productivity in the testing sets for different ranges of δ , using BP-ANN.

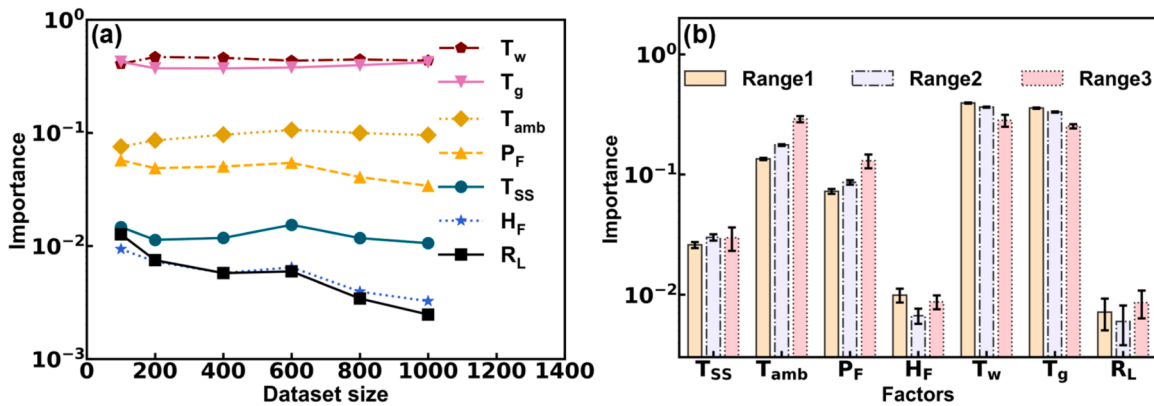


Fig. 9. The quantified factor importance (weighted value). (a) For different dataset sizes, (b) For different ranges of T_w , where Range 1 is T_w from 30 to 85°C, Range 2 is T_w from 40 to 75°C, and Range 3 is T_w from 50 to 65°C. R_L is a random list for comparison.

the entire dataset. Thus, every dataset covers almost all the experimental condition ranges, such as temperatures, fan powers, and so on. The difference is mainly the data density in each condition.

On the contrary, the importance of the random list (R_L) decreases fast as the dataset size increases. R_L is a random list composed of 1, 2, and 3. The importance of R_L should be 0 in an ideal calculation. However, a subtle connection between R_L and productivity would exist when the dataset size is finite. The importance of H_F is similar to that of R_L , which indicates that H_F doesn't affect productivity. For small dataset sizes, such as 100, it is difficult to rank T_{ss} , H_F , and R_L reliably. Therefore, analyzing the factor importance with different dataset sizes could help us to clearly distinguish the correlation factors, which is of great importance in complex systems with many influence factors.

The effect of the water temperature range is investigated as an example of showing the effect of dataset range. Herein, three water temperature ranges are selected, including Range 1 ($T_w = 30$ to 85°C), Range 2 ($T_w = 40$ to 75°C), and Range 3 ($T_w = 50$ to 65°C). Fig. 9b shows the factor importance of different ranges. In the case of Range 1, the rank of importance is $T_w > T_g > T_{amb} > P_F > T_{ss} > H_F > R_L$. The importance of T_{amb} and P_F increases gradually and the importance of T_w and T_g decreases gradually as the range of T_w becomes more and more narrow. As compared to Range 1, in the case of Range 3, the importance of T_{amb} increased by 115%. It becomes the most important factor, slightly higher than T_w and T_g . This means that if the possible range of an important factor is not completely measured, the importance of this factor will be significantly underestimated, while the importance of

other factors will be overestimated. The effect of the data ergodicity from the aspect of P_F is shown in Supporting Information Fig. S4, which shows that the convergence range doesn't cover up or mislead the importance of the factors. Therefore, a great dataset range is quite important.

In addition, the effect of dataset range on the model generalization performance is investigated. The model generalization performance means the ability of the model to extrapolate productivity, i.e., to predict the productivity of conditions that are beyond the existing experimental dataset range. Herein, the model generalization performance of BP-ANN is investigated due to its high accuracy among the three algorithms. The dataset is divided into 11 parts according to the range of T_w , as shown in Fig. 10a. Based on the range of T_w , four cases are investigated, namely "Case 1" to "Case 4". In each case, 500 datasets are selected randomly for training and testing. For example, in "Case 1", 500 datasets from range 2 to range 10 (yellow shadow) are selected for training and testing while the datasets in range 1 and range 11 (green rectangle) are used for prediction, which can validate the extrapolation model. In "Case 4", 500 datasets from range 5 to range 7 are selected for training and testing, and the rest datasets are used for validating the extrapolation model. After training and testing, an ANN model is established, which can be used to calculate productivity in the extrapolation range. In this section, all the predicted datasets are out of the training and testing range, which demonstrates the model generalization performance.

To demonstrate the accuracy of extrapolation, the mean relative prediction error ($\bar{\delta}$) was calculated for all extrapolation ranges, as shown in Fig. 10b and Table 4. A low $\bar{\delta}$ indicates that most extrapolated productivities are close to the experimental productivities, hence a high extrapolation accuracy. The results show that a similar trend can be

observed in all cases. $\bar{\delta}$ becomes larger when the predicted ranges are farther away from the edge of the training and testing dataset. Meanwhile, $\bar{\delta}$ increases more significantly in low water temperature compared to high water temperature. $\bar{\delta}$ is only around 4 % to 5 % when the predicted range is adjacent (0 - 5°C of difference) to the upper edge of training and testing sets. $\bar{\delta}$ remains as low as 9.1 % even when the T_w in the predicting set is 20 to 25°C higher than the T_w in the training and testing set. On the contrary, $\bar{\delta}$ will be 8.6 % to 13.2 % for datasets adjacent to the lower edge of training and testing and larger than 15 % when T_w is further away from the lower T_w edge of training and testing. In general, it can be inferred that BP-ANN might be used to predict the productivity of the unmeasured conditions that are adjacent to the measured conditions, but the accuracy might be different near the upper edge and lower edge.

4. Prospects

This work presents an example of interdisciplinary research between ML and STD, transcending the limitations of conventional STD studies that rely solely on productivity data fitting. The methodology and process have broad applicability and can be extended to various STD systems with different configurations or components, such as contactless desalination design [54], multistage design [37], solar still with condensers [55], or even humidification-dehumidification systems [56], owing to their shared operational processes: water heating, evaporation, and condensation. Furthermore, this approach could potentially be applied to other scientific fields as well.

Fig. 11 summarizes the flowchart for different systems. Conventional studies often exhibit diverse flowcharts across different works. In this

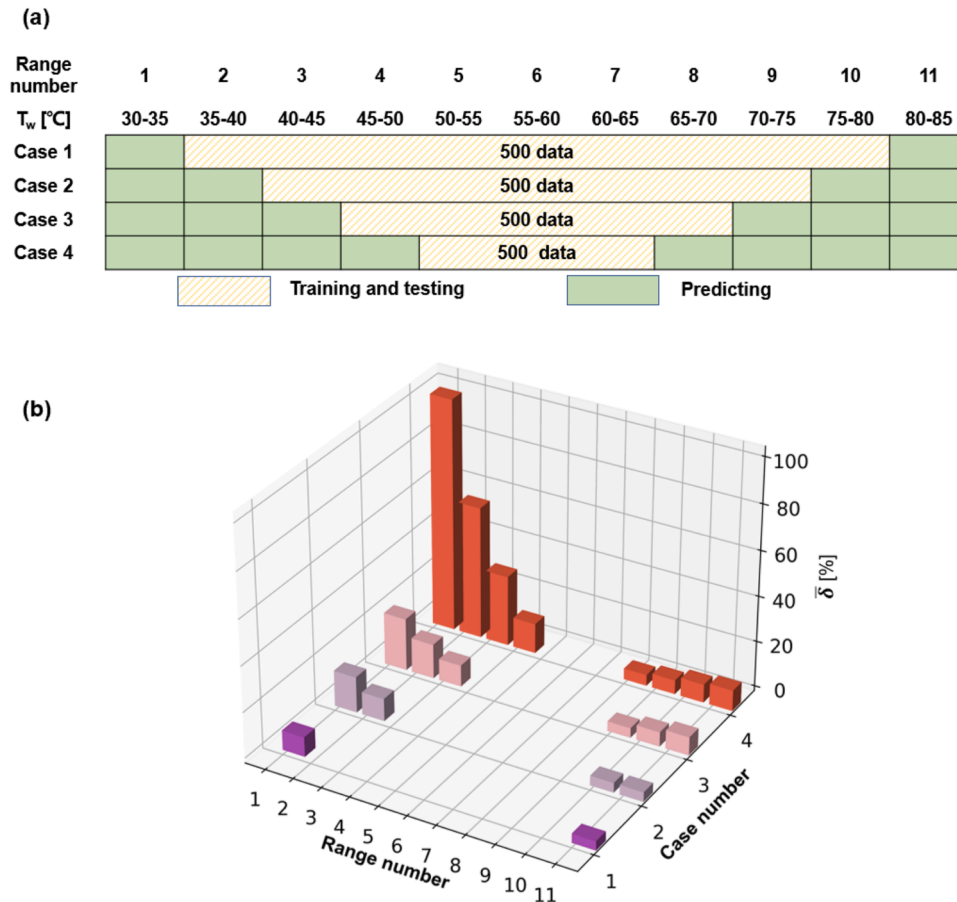


Fig. 10. (a) Definition of cases and ranges. 500 datasets are randomly selected for training and testing in each case. (b) The average relative error ($\bar{\delta}$) of productivity extrapolation under different ranges of T_w (Case 1 to Case 4).

Table 4
The mean relative prediction error ($\bar{\delta}$) of productivity extrapolation.

Range number	1 (30-35°C)	2 (35-40°C)	3 (40-45°C)	4 (45-50°C)	8 (65-70°C)	9 (70-75°C)	10 (75-80°C)	11 (80-85°C)
Case 1	8.6 ± 0.8 %	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.0 ± 0.5 %
Case 2	16 ± 2 %	9.8 ± 0.7 %	-	-	-	-	4.2 ± 0.5 %	4 ± 1 %
Case 3	23 ± 3 %	15 ± 2 %	9 ± 1 %	-	-	4.3 ± 0.2 %	6.3 ± 0.7 %	8 ± 1 %
Case 4	100 ± 40 %	60 ± 30 %	30 ± 10 %	13 ± 4 %	4.9 ± 0.3 %	6.2 ± 0.7 %	8 ± 2 %	9 ± 5 %

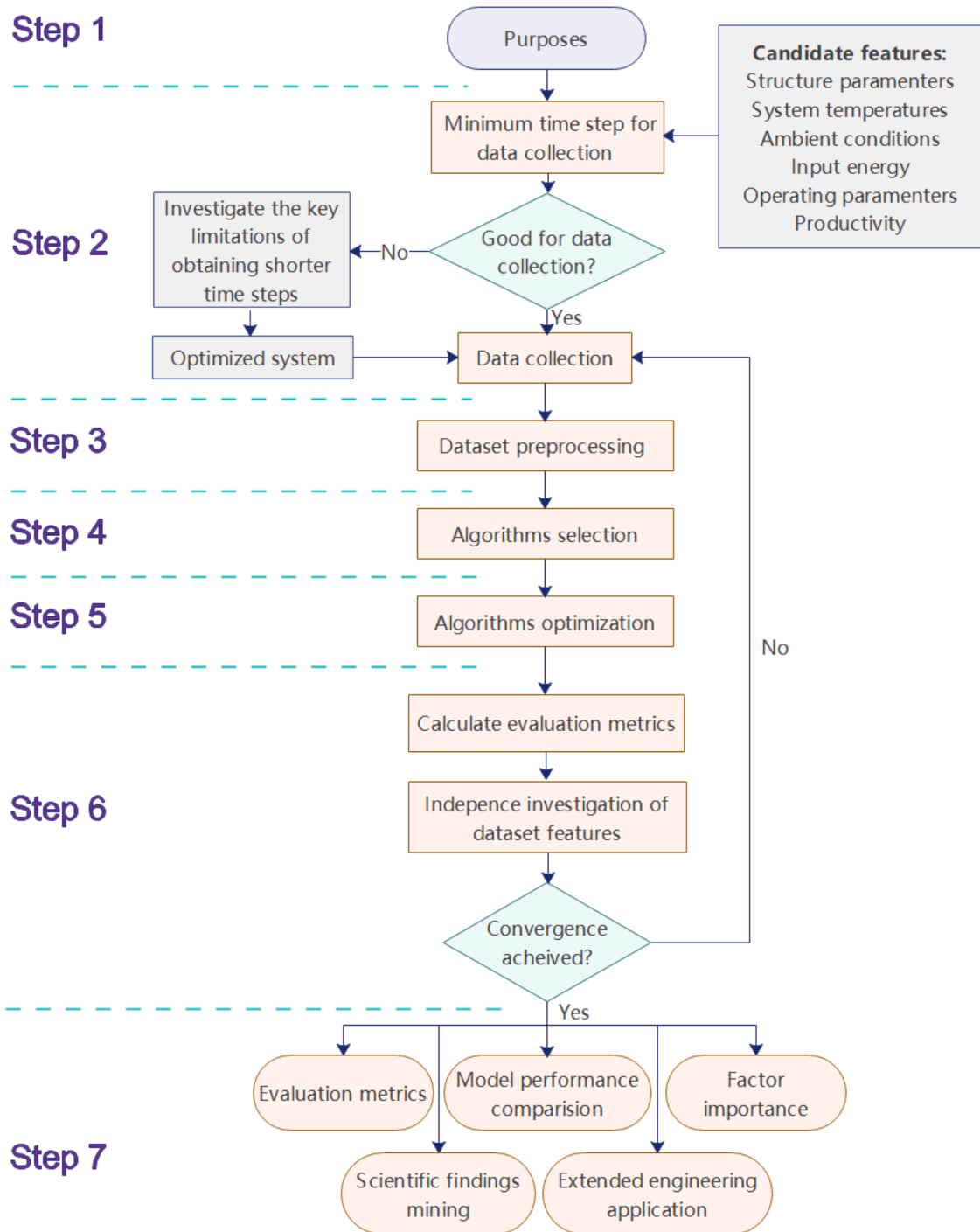


Fig. 11. Flowchart of the interdisciplinary for solar-thermal desalination systems.

work, apart from the conventional process, it is suggested to optimize the system for collecting more data first, instead of directly collecting data from conventional systems. For example, optimizing the water collection part. In this case, the minimum time step for data collection should be investigated first. Later, the key limitations of obtaining shorter time steps should be revealed, which might be a challenge. The limitations may vary with the system and should be investigated thoroughly. Future work should pay more attention to optimizing the system for more data.

Besides, mining more scientific findings through interdisciplinary studies between ML and STD, as well as extending their real-world applications, would be very valuable directions. For example, integrating machine learning and data acquisition processes to construct prediction models much faster and more accurately [57], and obtaining the best real-time operational parameter combinations for different STD systems. The proposed process in this work provides a new approach to realizing more valuable applications.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, this study tackles the challenges inherent in the interdisciplinary integration of solar thermal desalination and machine learning, particularly the limited data volumes, insufficient analytical depth, and inconsistent results. To overcome these limitations, a standard process is proposed, including seven steps, which are different from the conventional process in three aspects.

Firstly, it is emphasized that optimizing data acquisition processes is essential for enhancing data availability before applying machine learning techniques. For example, by refining the water collection process in solar stills, the data collection time was reduced by 83.3 %, resulting in a dataset of over 1,000 samples—far exceeding the volumes reported in previous studies.

Secondly, independence validation for dataset characteristics is recommended when assessing and comparing the performance of different machine learning models. The investigation of Multiple Linear Regression, Random Forest, and Artificial Neural Network models highlights the strong correlation between dataset size and the predictive accuracy of these models for solar still productivity. To ensure consistency and systematicity in research outcomes, it is imperative to evaluate model performance across varying dataset sizes, data ranges, and other relevant characteristics.

Lastly, the results in this work highlight the potential of integrating solar thermal desalination with machine learning beyond simple data fitting. By utilizing larger datasets and adhering to a rigorous research process, it becomes more feasible to uncover novel scientific insights and expand engineering applications. This includes extrapolating productivity, analyzing factor importance, constructing prediction models much faster and more accurately, or implementing real-time optimization of operational parameters in the future, thereby advancing the field of solar thermal desalination and promoting interdisciplinary research.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Guilong Peng: Conceptualization, Investigation, Methodology, Formal analysis, Writing – original draft. **Senshan Sun:** Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation, Writing – original draft. **Zhenwei Xu:** Investigation, Methodology. **Juxin Du:** Methodology, Software. **Yangjun Qin:** Methodology, Software. **Swellam W. Sharshir:** Formal analysis, Writing – review & editing. **A.W. Kandeal:** Writing – review & editing. **A.E. Kabeel:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition. **Nuo Yang:** Conceptualization, Supervision, Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of competing interest

There is no conflict of interest to declare.

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Supplementary materials

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.ijheatmasstransfer.2024.126365.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Supporting Information

The effect of dataset size and the process of big data mining for investigating solar-thermal desalination by using machine learning

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S1、 The process of data standardization

The accuracy of the model suffers because data attributes with larger magnitudes dominate. In this work, the Z-Scale normalization method is used to normalize the data. The Z-Scale method is based on the mean and standard deviation of the original data and keeps the sample spacing formula as

$$x'_i = \frac{x_i - \mu}{\delta} \quad (\text{S1})$$

where x'_i is the value after normalization; x_i is the original value; μ is the mean value; δ is the population standard deviation.

The Python library “sklearn.preprocessing” is used in this part.

S2、 The method of splitting the data set

The data is split into training and test sets. The training set is used to train the model, and the test set is used to test the training results of the model. Generally, 20% of the data is used as the test set ^[1]. The Python library “sklearn.model_selection” is used in this part.

S3、 The process of training model

Random forest model (RF), backpropagation neural network model (BP-ANN), and multiple linear regression model (MLR) are built in this part.

3.1 RF

Firstly, let the input variable be X, Y

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \\ \vdots \\ X_N \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \cdots & x_{1k} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{N1} & x_{N2} & \cdots & x_{Nk} \end{pmatrix}, \quad Y = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{S2})$$

where N is the sample volume of the training set, and k is the number of feature parameters. There is a training set D .

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} D_1 \\ D_2 \\ \vdots \\ D_N \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \cdots & x_{1k} & y_1 \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{2k} & y_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_{N1} & x_{N2} & \cdots & x_{Nk} & y_N \end{pmatrix} \quad (S3)$$

Based on the classification and regression trees (CART) algorithm, a binary decision tree is built to divide each dimension into two regions, and the output values are got in each region. Based on the heuristic algorithm, the j th samples are chosen as the slicing variable and slicing point, which defines two regions.

$$R_1(j) = \{X_{jq}|y \leq y_j\} \quad R_2(j) = \{X_{jq}|y > y_j\} \quad (S4)$$

where, q is the dimension label, which is an integer in the range $[1, k]$.

The decision tree uses the principle of minimizing the squared error

$$MIN = \min_j \left[\min_{c_1} \sum_{x_i \in R_1(j)} (y_i - c_1)^2 + \min_{c_2} \sum_{x_i \in R_2(j)} (y_i - c_2)^2 \right] \quad (S5)$$

where

$$\hat{c}_1 = \frac{1}{N_1} \sum_{X_{iq} \in R_1(j)} y_i, \quad \hat{c}_2 = \frac{1}{N_2} \sum_{X_{iq} \in R_2(j)} y_i \quad (S6)$$

where the N_1, N_2 are the number of elements in $R_1(j)$ and $R_2(j)$, respectively.

Traversing the variable j , for a fixed input variable D_{jq} , the optimal segmentation point s can be obtained.

Repeating the above process $N - 1$ times, the input space can be divided into N^k regions and the output value corresponding to each region is

$$o_M = \frac{1}{N_M} \sum_{y_i \in R_M(j)} y_i, \quad M = 1, 2, \dots, N^k \quad (S7)$$

where M is the label of the regions; $R_M(j)$ is the region of label M ; N_M is the number of elements in the region M .

The output of the decision tree model is

$$f(X_i) = o_M, \quad X_i \in R_M(j) \quad (S8)$$

The output of the random forest model is

$$F(X_i) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f_k(X_i) \quad (S9)$$

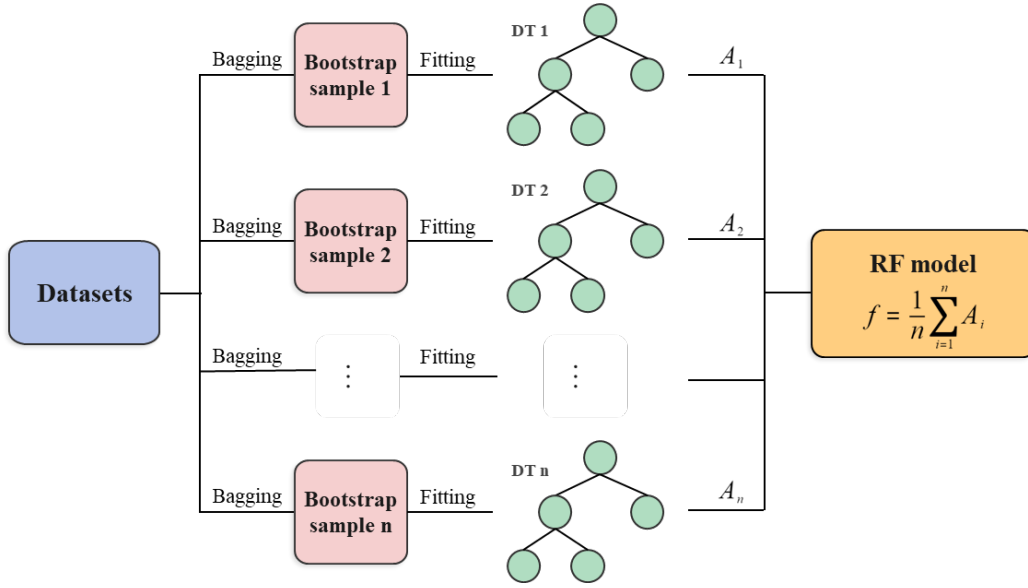


Fig. S1 Schematic diagram of RF algorithm

The influence of feature parameters is calculated by using the Gini impurity. Based on the binary decision tree, the Gini impurity is

$$GI_e = 2\hat{p}_e(1 - \hat{p}_e) \quad (S10)$$

where \hat{p}_e is the estimated probability that the sample belongs to any class at node e .

The influence of variable Q_i at node e , that is, the change in Gini impurity before and after the branch of node e is

$$VIM_{ie}^{DT} = GI_e - GI_l - GI_r \quad (S11)$$

where GI_l and GI_r is the Gini impurity of the two new nodes split by node e .

If the variable Q_i appears E times in the decision tree, the influence of the variable Q_i in the decision tree is

$$VIM_i^{DT} = \sum_{e=1}^E VIM_{ie}^{DT} \quad (S12)$$

The influence of variable Q_i in the random forest is

$$VIM_i^{RF} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n VIM_{ij}^{DT} \quad (S13)$$

where n is the number of the decision trees in the random forest.

The flow chart of using RF for predicting productivity and calculating the factor importance of the STD system is shown in Fig.S2. The initial input consists of over 1000 experimental dataset that comprises seven factors. To ensure consistent sample

spacing, the initial dataset undergoes a data normalization process. The initial Random Forest (iRF) model only consists of the Random Forest algorithms. Before fitting the model with the dataset, the iRF does not possess the capability to make predictions. The Bayesian optimization (BO) algorithm is employed to determine the optimum hyperparameters by combining the iRF and the normalized dataset. There are data training and testing processes during BO based on iRF. The BO-modified model is obtained by fitting the iRF with the optimum hyperparameters. The accuracy of the Bayesian-optimized RF model will be significantly improved. Additionally, R_L is the random number list generated by the computer. It's only used as a reference for comparing the importance of the factors.

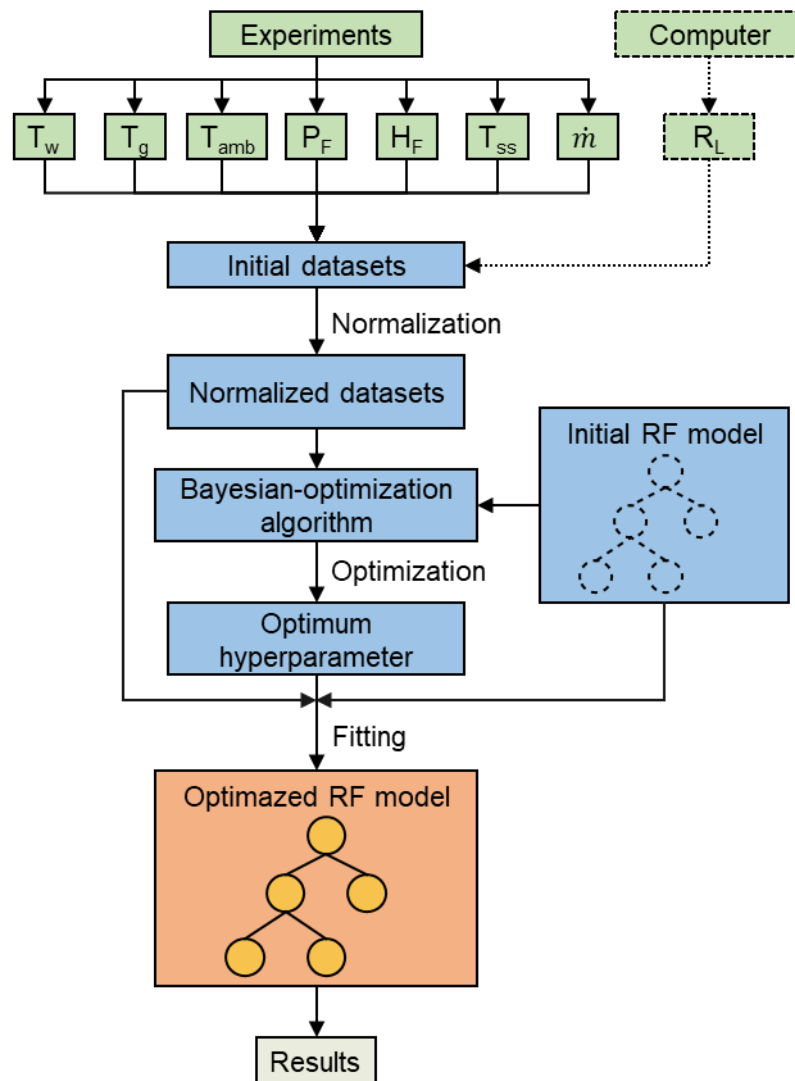


Fig.S2 The flow chart of using RF for predicting productivity and calculating the factor importance of the STD system.

3.2 BP-ANN

This work uses a five-layer perceptron with 3 hidden layers. When a training sample is inputted, the output error signal E_p of the model is

$$E_p = \frac{1}{2} (d_p - o_p)^2 \quad (\text{S14})$$

Where d and o are the predicting and true values; p is the label.

Based on the BP neural network algorithm, the model transmits the error signal back through the network, adjusts the weights between nodes, and the updated result is

$$w' = w + \Delta w = w - \frac{\partial E}{\partial w} \quad (\text{S15})$$

The activation function uses a unipolar Sigmoid function, and the weight adjustment is:

Output layer,

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta w_i^4 &= \eta \delta^4 y_i^3 = \eta (d - o) o (1 - o) y_i^3 \\ i &= 0, 1, \dots, m_3 \end{aligned} \quad (\text{S16})$$

Third hidden layer,

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta w_{ij}^3 &= \eta \delta_j^3 y_i^2 = \eta (\delta^4 w_j^4) y_j^3 (1 - y_j^3) y_i^2 \\ i &= 0, 1, 2, \dots, m_2 ; j = 1, 2, \dots, m_3 \end{aligned} \quad (\text{S17})$$

Second hidden layer,

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta w_{ij}^2 &= \eta \delta_j^2 y_i^1 = \eta \left(\sum_{a=1}^{m_3} \delta_a^3 w_{ja}^3 \right) y_j^2 (1 - y_j^2) y_i^1 \\ i &= 0, 1, 2, \dots, m_1 ; j = 1, 2, \dots, m_2 \end{aligned} \quad (\text{S18})$$

First hidden layer,

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta w_{ij}^1 &= \eta \delta_j^1 x_i = \eta \left(\sum_{a=1}^{m_2} \delta_a^2 w_{ja}^2 \right) y_j^1 (1 - y_j^1) x_i \\ i &= 0, 1, 2, \dots, k ; j = 1, 2, \dots, m_1 \end{aligned} \quad (\text{S19})$$

where w is the weight between the layer and the previous layer; y is the output of the neuron; m_1, m_2, m_3 are the numbers of neurons from the first hidden layer to the third hidden layer; k is the number of input parameters; $\eta \in (0,1)$ is the scale coefficient, a larger value means a faster convergence speed but the local optimum may not be

obtained, and a smaller value means higher accuracy and slower convergence speed. δ is the error signal between the neural network layer and the previous layer, the result can be calculated by reverse iteration, and the formula is,

$$\delta_j^h = \sum_{r=1}^{m_{h+1}} (\delta_r^{h+1} w_{jr}) y_j (1 - y_j), \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m_h \quad (\text{S20})$$

The updated bias b' is

$$b' = b + \Delta b = b - \frac{\partial E}{\partial b} \quad (\text{S21})$$

The activation function uses a unipolar Sigmoid function, and the bias adjustment is:

Output layer,

$$\Delta b^3 = \eta \delta^4 = \eta (d - o) o (1 - o) \quad (\text{S22})$$

Third hidden layer,

$$\Delta b_j^2 = \eta \sum_j^{m_3} \delta_j^3 = \eta \sum_j^{m_3} (\delta^4 w_j^4) y_j^3 (1 - y_j^3) \quad (\text{S23})$$

$$j = 1, 2, \dots, m_3$$

Second hidden layer,

$$\Delta b_j^1 = \eta \sum_j^{m_2} \delta_j^2 = \eta \sum_j^{m_2} \left[\left(\sum_{a=1}^{m_3} \delta_a^3 w_{ja}^3 \right) y_j^2 (1 - y_j^2) \right] \quad (\text{S24})$$

$$j = 1, 2, \dots, m_2$$

First hidden layer,

$$\Delta b_j^0 = \eta \sum_j^{m_1} \delta_j^1 = \eta \sum_j^{m_1} \left[\left(\sum_{a=1}^{m_2} \delta_a^2 w_{ja}^2 \right) y_j^1 (1 - y_j^1) \right] \quad (\text{S25})$$

$$j = 1, 2, \dots, m_1$$

For the training set with a sample size of N , the root mean square error is used as the total error of the model,

$$E_{RME} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left[\frac{1}{2} (d_i - o_i)^2 \right]} \quad (\text{S26})$$

When $E_{RME} < E_{min}$ is satisfied or the maximum number of iterations is reached,

the training ends and the artificial neural network prediction model is obtained. The forward pass prediction process is:

Firstly, from the input layer to the first hidden layer,

$$\alpha_h = AF \left[\sum_{i=1}^k (w_{ih}^1 x_i - b_h^0) \right] \quad h = 1, 2, \dots, m_1 \quad (\text{S27})$$

where x_i is the input value; α_h is the value of the h th neuron in the first hidden layer; AF is the activation function.

Secondly, from the first hidden layer to the second hidden layer,

$$\beta_h = AF \left[\sum_{i=1}^{m_1} (w_{ih}^2 x_i - b_h^1) \right] \quad h = 1, 2, \dots, m_2 \quad (\text{S28})$$

where β_h is the value of the h th neuron in the second hidden layer.

Then, from the second hidden layer to the third hidden layer,

$$\gamma_h = AF \left[\sum_{i=1}^{m_2} (w_{ih}^3 x_i - b_h^2) \right] \quad h = 1, 2, \dots, m_3 \quad (\text{S29})$$

where γ_h is the value of the h th neuron in the third hidden layer.

Lastly, from the third hidden layer to the output layer,

$$d = AF \left[\sum_{i=1}^{m_3} (w_i^3 x_i - b^3) \right] \quad (\text{S30})$$

3.3 MLR

Multiple linear regression is obtained based on the least squares method. The multiple linear regression equation needs to satisfy the matrix equation.

$$\hat{y} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \hat{\beta}_2 x_2 + \dots + \hat{\beta}_k x_k \quad (\text{S31})$$

$$X^T X \hat{B} = X^T Y \quad (\text{S32})$$

where

$$Y = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{pmatrix}, X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1k} \\ 1 & x_{21} & \cdots & x_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{N1} & \cdots & x_{Nk} \end{pmatrix}, \hat{B} = \begin{pmatrix} \hat{\beta}_0 \\ \hat{\beta}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \hat{\beta}_k \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{S33})$$

where y is the true value; x is the input value; β is the constant; N is the dataset

number k is the number of the parameters.

The coefficient matrix can be obtained as,

$$\hat{B} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y \quad (\text{S34})$$

In this part, the Python library “sklearn.ensemble” is used in the RF model; “sklearn.neural_network” is used in the BP-ANN model; “sklearn.linear_model” is used in the MLR model.

S4、 Termination conditions of algorithms

In the MLR model, it is based on “Least squares method” which means the minimum square loss.

In the BP-ANN model, there are two termination conditions. One is the maximum number of iterations. The maximum number of iterations we set is 100,000 in the 'sgd' or 'adam' solver and 15,000 in the “lbfgs” solver. The other one is tolerance for the optimization. When the loss or score is not improving by at least 10^{-4} for 10 consecutive iterations, convergence is considered to be reached, and training stops.

In the RF model, it will stop when all decision trees (DT) complete training. For the DT model, the termination conditions are the minimum number of samples (max_depth) and maximum depth of the tree (min_samples_split). Bayesian optimization is used to find these two optimum hyperparameters.

S5、 Main assumptions of algorithms

For MLR, it should satisfy the following assumptions^[2]:

- 1). Linearity: The relationship between the predictors (independent variables) and the response (dependent variable) is assumed to be linear. This means that changes in the predictors are associated with constant and proportional changes in the response.
- 2). Independence of Errors: The residuals (errors) should be independent of each other. In other words, the error term for one observation should not provide information about the error term for any other observation.

- 3). Homoscedasticity: The variance of the errors should be constant across all levels of the predictors. This assumption implies that the spread of the residuals should be roughly constant as you move along the predicted values.
- 4). Normality of Errors (for Inference): While not crucial for prediction, the assumption of normality is important for making statistical inferences, such as hypothesis testing and constructing confidence intervals. It is assumed that the errors are normally distributed.

For the RF model, the following assumptions should be satisfied^[3, 4]:

- 1). No Assumption of Linearity: Unlike linear regression, Random Forests do not assume a linear relationship between the features and the target variable.
- 2). Variable Independence: Random Forest benefits from having features that are somewhat independent of each other. This is because the algorithm makes decisions based on the individual features, and if features are highly correlated, the model may not perform as well.
- 3). No Assumption of Normality: Random Forests do not assume that the variables follow a normal distribution.

For BP-ANN model, it generally has few assumptions. But When this model is used, it should be noted some considerations, including^[5]:

- 1). Input Feature Scaling: It is common practice to scale input features to ensure that the training process is more stable and converges faster. This is particularly important when using activation functions that are sensitive to the scale of input values.
- 2). Differentiability of Activation Functions: Backpropagation relies on the ability to compute derivatives of the activation functions used in the neural network. The activation functions need to be differentiable, as the algorithm involves calculating gradients to update the network weights.
- 3). Random Initialization: The weights of the neural network are typically initialized randomly before training. Proper initialization is crucial to avoid getting stuck in symmetric configurations and to facilitate learning.

S6、 Limitation of algorithms

MLR model:

It can be sensitive to outliers, meaning that extreme values in the data can disproportionately influence the model.

RF model:

- 1). Overfitting. Random Forests can still overfit noisy datasets, especially when the trees are allowed to grow too deep. While the ensemble nature of Random Forest helps reduce overfitting compared to individual decision trees, it's essential to tune hyperparameters like the maximum depth of the trees^[6].
- 2). Biased Towards Dominant Classes. Random Forests may be biased in favor of classes that are dominant in the dataset, especially in imbalanced datasets. The algorithm tends to give more importance to the majority class^[7].
- 3). Memory Usage. Random Forests can be memory-intensive, particularly when dealing with a large number of trees or a large number of features. This can be a limitation in situations where memory resources are limited^[8].

BP-ANN model:

- 1). Overfitting. Neural networks can be prone to overfitting, especially when the model is too complex or when there is limited training data^[9].
- 2). Hyperparameter Sensitivity. The performance of neural networks is sensitive to hyperparameter choices, and finding optimal hyperparameters can be challenging^[10].
- 3). Computational Complexity. Training deep neural networks can be computationally intensive and may require specialized hardware^[11].
- 4). Lack of Interpretability. Neural networks, especially deep ones, are often considered as "black-box" models, making it challenging to interpret their decisions^[12].

S7、 The process of tuning hyperparameters by Bayesian optimization

The probability surrogate model (PSM) is based on Gaussian process regression (GPR). Gaussian processes have been widely used in regression, classification, and many fields that require inference of black-box models^[13]. The data (X, Y) satisfies the

Gaussian process,

$$Y = f(X) \sim N(\mu(X), K) \quad (\text{S35})$$

where $f(X)$ is the gaussian process; $\mu(X)$ is the mean function; K is covariance function.

$$\mu(X) = [\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2, \dots, \bar{x}_n] \quad (\text{S36})$$

$$K = \begin{bmatrix} k(X_1, X_2) & k(X_1, X_2) & \cdots & k(X_1, X_t) \\ k(X_2, X_1) & k(X_2, X_2) & \cdots & k(X_2, X_t) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ k(X_t, X_1) & k(X_t, X_2) & \cdots & k(X_t, X_t) \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{S37})$$

where n is the number of dimensions; t is the number of the data; $k(X_i, X_j)$ is the kernel function.

The kernel function in this work is Matern 2.5 kernel. It means that the Matern kernel function is a twice differentiable function,

$$k(X_i, X_j) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\nu) 2^{\nu-1}} \left(\frac{\sqrt{2\nu}}{l} d(X_i, X_j) \right)^\nu K_\nu \left(\frac{\sqrt{2\nu}}{l} d(X_i, X_j) \right) \quad (\text{S38})$$

where ν is a half-integer; l is the characteristic length-scale; $\Gamma_\nu(\nu)$ is the gamma function; $d(X_i, Y_j)$ is the Euclidean distance; K_ν is a modified Bessel function. Abramowitz and Stegun^[14] gave a general solution. When ν is 2.5, it is,

$$k_{\nu=2.5}(X_i, X_j) = \left(1 + \frac{\sqrt{5} d(X_i, X_j)}{l} + \frac{5d(X_i, X_j)^2}{3l^2} \right) \exp \left(- \frac{\sqrt{5} d(X_i, X_j)}{l} \right) \quad (\text{S39})$$

For a new point (X^*, y^*) , it satisfies the joint Gaussian probability density function,

$$p(Y_{1:t}, y^*) = N \left(\begin{bmatrix} \mu(Y_{1:t}) \\ \mu(y^*) \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} K & K^* \\ K^* & K^{**} \end{bmatrix} \right) \quad (\text{S40})$$

where $Y_{1:t}$ is the observed data. The covariance functions are,

$$K^* = [k(X_1, X^*), k(X_2, X^*), \dots, k(X_t, X^*)] \quad (\text{S41})$$

$$K^{**} = k(X^*, X^*)$$

And then

$$\bar{y}^* = \mu(y^*) + K^* K^{-1} (Y_{1:t} - \mu(Y_{1:t})) \quad \text{var}(y^*) = K^{**} - K^* K^{-1} K^{*T} \quad (\text{S42})$$

However, in practical applications, it is very difficult to specify a clear and reasonable prior mean function^[13]. For simplicity, it is usually assumed that the prior mean function is a constant 0 function^[15].

$$\bar{y}^* = K_* K^{-1} Y_{1:t} \quad (\text{S43})$$

The posterior mean after data correction is not limited to 0, so this assumption has little effect on the posterior accuracy^[15].

The confidence bound strategy has been widely used in the field of K-arm gambling machines^[16], thus the acquisition function is based on the upper confidence bound (UCB).

$$\alpha_t(X^*; X_{1:t}) = \mu(X_{1:t}) + \sqrt{\beta_{1:t}} \sigma(X_{1:t}) \quad (\text{S44})$$

Where μ is the expectation value; σ is Variance; β is constant and balances expectation value and variance.

The Python library “bayes_opt” is used in this part. In this Python library, the characteristic length-scale l defaults to 1, and the $\sqrt{\beta}$ defaults to 2.576.

The hyperparameters of BP-ANN and RF are shown in Table S1 and Table S2.

Table S1 The hyperparameter of BP-ANN (The detailed functions can refer to the official website of sklearn.neural_network.MLPRegressor)

Hyperparameter	Optimization Range	Function
hidden_layer_sizes	first (h ₁) second (h ₂) third (h ₃)	Generate the construction of the hidden layer in BP-ANN
activation (h ₄)	['identity', 'logistic', 'tanh', 'relu']	Activation function for the hidden layer.
solver (h ₅)	['lbfgs', 'sgd', 'adam']	The solver for weight optimization.

Table S2 The hyperparameter of RF (The detailed functions can refer to the official website of `sklearn.ensemble.RandomForestRegressor`.)

Hyperparameter	Optimization Range	Function
<code>n_estimators</code> (h ₁)	(1, 200)	The number of trees in the forest
<code>min_samples_split</code> (h ₂)	(2, 8)	The minimum number of samples required to split an internal node
<code>max_features</code> (h ₃)	(0.01, 0.999)	The number of features to consider when looking for the best split
<code>max_depth</code> (h ₄)	(20, 60)	The maximum depth of the tree.
<code>criterion</code> (h ₅)	['mae', 'mse']	The function to measure the quality of a split

S8、 K-fold cross-validation

Splitting the data set by K-fold cross-validation makes full use of each data to test. It improves the overall stability of the model. The 5-fold cross-validation (20% testing set) is used in this part, which is in keeping with the “Method of splitting the data set”. The schematic diagram of the 5-fold cross-validation is shown in Fig. S3. In the first fitting process, the first fold data is used as the test set, and the other data is used as the training set to fit the model. It obtains the first set of evaluation indicators. In the second fitting process, the second fold data is used as the test set, and the other data is used as the training set to fit the model to obtain the second set of evaluation indicators. Until the fifth time, all 5-fold data were used as the test set, and five sets of evaluation indicators were obtained. After taking the average value, the model evaluation index of a 5-fold cross-validation was obtained. The Python library “`sklearn.model_selection`” is used in this part.

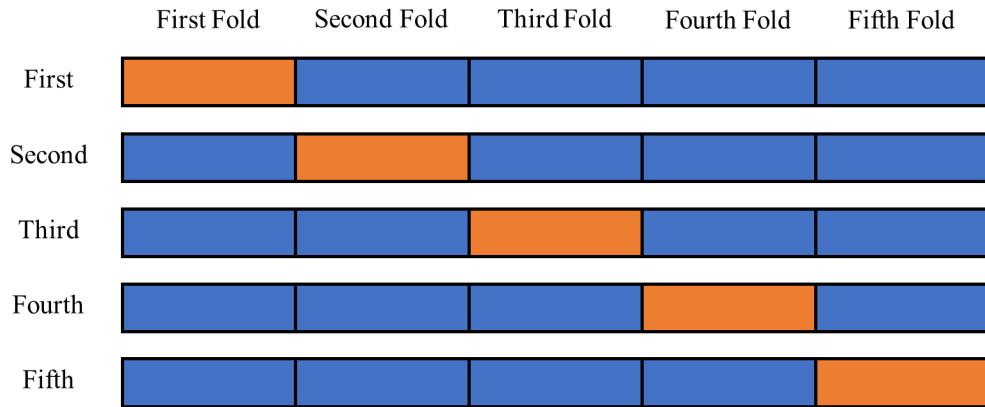


Fig. S3 The schematic of 5-fold cross-validation: the blue/oranges are training/test sets

S9、 The process of testing model

Based on the five-fold cross-validation and the Bayesian optimization, the RF model and BP-ANN model are trained and built by the optimized hyperparameters. To avoid the occasionality of the results, the process of the above modeling is repeated ten times, and the evaluation indexes and errors of the models are obtained by calculating the mean and standard deviation.

S10、 Other instructions

In addition to the Python libraries mentioned above, Table S3 shows the other Python libraries used in this work and their functions.

Table S3 The other Python libraries

Name	Functions
random	Random number module
Matplotlib	Plot figure
numpy	Store and process large multidimensional matrices
pandas	Import files

S11、 Effect of dataset range of P_F

The effect of the data ergodicity from the aspect of P_F is shown in Fig. S4. Two different ranges of P_F are analyzed and compared, i.e., $0 - 0.3 W$ and $0 - 0.9 W$. The data size of the two different ranges is the same, which is around 500 data. According

to the experimental results, the productivity enhancement due to the fan mostly contributes to the range of 0 – 0.3 W. The productivity is almost constant in the range of 0.3 – 0.9 W in most cases. The results show that in the range of 0 – 0.3 W, T_w and T_g are the most important two factors, followed by T_{amb} , P_F , and T_{ss} . H_F and R_L are the least important factors. The same rank happens in the range of 0 – 0.9 W, which indicates that the convergence range doesn't cover up or mislead the importance of the factors. Therefore, it might be concluded that measuring as much data as possible doesn't have a significant negative effect on the analysis of factor importance.

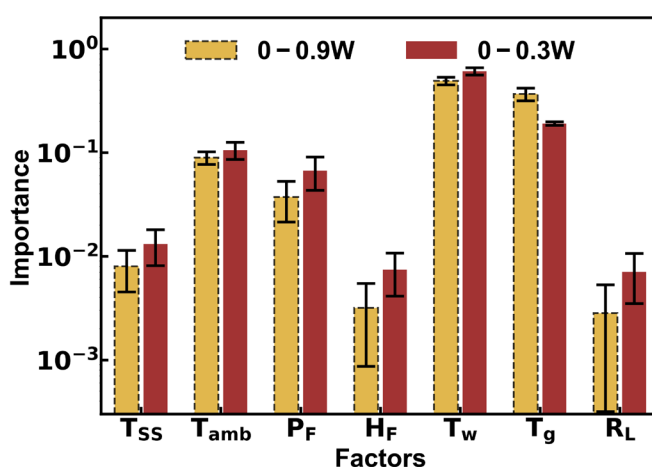


Fig. S4 Effect of data range of P_F .

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