Machine Learning Models for Probability Classification in Spectrographic EEG Seizures Dataset

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Abstract: - The examination of brain signals, namely the *Electroencephalogram* (EEG) signals, is an approach to possibly detect seizures of the brain. Due to the nature of these signals, deep learning techniques have offered the opportunity to perform automatic or semi-automatic analysis which could support decision and therapeutical approaches. This paper focuses on the possibility of classifying EEG seizure using convolutional layers (namely *EfficientNetV2* architectures, i.e., *EfficientNetV2S* and *EfficientNetV2B2*), *Long Short-Term Memory* (LSTM) units, and fine-tuned mechanisms of attention. We use these techniques to untangle the complexity of these signals and accurately predict seizures. The proposed system provided interesting results with an 86.45% accuracy under the *Kullback-Leibler Divergence* loss of 0.95. Moreover, these results showed that embedding LSTM layers deeply increases the quality of the results since these layers support the analysis of the spatial-temporal dynamics of the EEG signals. On the other hand, it is important to mention that hardware limitations could affect these results and therefore it is important, when setting this architectural system, to fine-tune the data set and balance the performance vs the computational cost of the process.

Key-Words: - Machine Learning Models, Attention Mechanism, Probabilistic Classification, EEG, Support-Decision System, Kullback-Leibler Divergence.

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1 Introduction

Electroencephalography (EEG), an approach to the analysis brain signals and, in particular, electrical brain signals, developed in the 19th century and in the time of the Industrial Revolution, [1]. Around the 1920s, Has Berger proposed the first recording tool for the EEG signals, [2], which then brought to the possibility of analyzing brain activity and correlating this information with the functionality of the brain as well as with its pathologies, [3], [4]. In particular, new discoveries follow regarding epilepsy, sleep patterns, [5], [6], and other seizures and neurological disorders, [7], [8], [9].

Due to the nature of the EEG signals, it is sometimes difficult to find overall consistency in its interpretation, [10], [11], and therefore the importance of standard methodologies which can support the decision and visualization has grown especially vs the detection of epilepsy, which is one of the main interest of this work, [12]. In this context, *Machine Learning* (ML) techniques are a useful tool, together with the classic approaches of the literature, such as the analysis in the frequency and time domains, the use of *Convolutional Neural* Networks (CCNs), and Support Vector Machines (SVMs), [13], [14].

CNNs-based techniques showed robustness vs the inherently physiological variability of EEG signals, [15], especially when integrated with the mechanism of attention, [16], [17]. Another interesting aspect of this approach is the possibility to transfer these learning strategies as it has been reported, for example, in the analysis of datasets – e.g. g., UC Irvine ML Repository, imageNet or similar – for seizure detection of [18] and [19]. In addition, by carefully managing the learning rate adjustments throughout the training process using a scheduler mechanism, some models have been shown to optimize convergence and mitigate overfitting, [20], [21].

While numerous models have made significant progress, a critical limitation persists: many focus on binary deterministic classifications (e.g., seizure vs. non-seizure). This approach leaves clinicians without vital information on the uncertainty embedded in model predictions. *Probability-Based Classification* (PBC) addresses this drawback by quantifying the confidence associated with each prediction, [22]. PBC offers advantages for clinical decision-making by potentially flagging cases with lower model confidence for expert review. Evaluation metrics that align with PBC approaches, such as Kullback-Leibler divergence (KLD), are meant to provide a more comprehensive assessment of model performance than traditional accuracy-based metrics, [23]. In this study, we explore the integration of Kullback-Leibler Divergence (KLD) within our machine learning models aimed at improving seizure detection to enhance their practical utility in healthcare settings

As the literature suggests, pre-processing and data augmentation strategies go beyond the structural optimization of the model to directly enhance seizure detection capabilities. These strategies are vital in addressing overfitting and improving the generalizability of models, which are particularly important when working with limited datasets, [24]. In this perspective, it is also important to mention the importance of proper analysis in the time and frequency domain with, for example, Short-Time Fourier Transform (STFT), [14], [25], [26] and Continuous Wavelet Transform (CWT), [27], which has shown limitation in the management of the resolution vs the high dynamics of these signals. At the same time, there has been interesting progress on the refinement of the EfficientNetV2 system with new challenges which we want to face in this work.

The paper is organized as follows: in the following section, we introduce the dataset and the main pre-processing approach with a focus on the implementation's details. Further, this section highlights the use of Kullback-Leibler divergence (KLD) as the primary evaluation metric, augmented by an adaptable learning rate scheduler to refine training dynamics. The exploration of model architectures is grounded on two pre-trained EfficientNetV2 variants (B2 and S), each trained and initialized with ImageNet weights, serving as the core foundational backbone. This chapter continues with our investigation, examining a range of model configurations, including 2D, 3D, and pointwise convolutional neural networks, alongside recurrent neural network (RNN-LSTM) structures, all configured to optimize transfer learning. Here, we diligently assess the impact of attention mechanisms, focusing on how adjustments in headcounts and dimensionality influence performance. Further refinement of our models is assessed using Keras AutoML to systematically explore a broad spectrum of hyperparameter settings, seeking configurations that elevate model performance. The subsequent Results chapter presents a comprehensive analysis of the findings from our training processes. Finally, the conclusion reports some observations about the limits of our approach and how we could extend that vs the detection of EEG seizures.

2 Materials & Methods

2.1 Project Environment and Setup

This work is structured around Kaggle, [28], a platform that properly suits machine learning studies applied to EEG datasets. Data are provided by the Medical School of Harvard University and partners for the HMS Harmful Brain Activity Classification competition [29]. The competition made available a hosted notebook with a hardware configuration of 70GB of disk storage, with 29GB of CPU and 32GB GPU power (T4 x2 or P100 x1). This setup was powerful enough to facilitate the development, training, and experimentation phases of the model, the handling of the large dataset (25 GB), and the efficient training of the complex neural network architectures.

2.2 Database

2.2.1 Database Description

The dataset for this study contains real raw EEG recordings along with the metadata that links the brain signals to expert classifications. This design was structured to challenge and evaluate models on their ability to detect and classify seizures and other harmful brain activity. The difficulty of this task is increased by the variability in expert consensus, reflecting the complex nature of EEG data interpretation. The classification involves different patterns, such as seizure, generalized and lateralized periodic discharges, generalized and lateralized rhythmic delta activity and others. The data are sampled with overlapping time frames or windows of 10 second each and then, in order to provide a ground truth reference, the data are classified by professional experts as it is shown in Figure 1.

2.2.2 Optimize, Convert, Segmentation, Partition, Augmenting

Data are available in *parquet* format: they are then processed into *.npy* format by means of a *process_spec(*) function. A *joblib* librabry is also used in order to optimize the CPU workload.

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Fig. 1: Network Dataset Layout before K-Fold

In order to optimise the analysis and the efficiency of the *EfficientNetV2* pattern recognition, 10 seconds overlapping and non-overlapping set of samples are saved. Data are partitioned into a training set and testing set as well.

Additionally, during data loading for model training, we incorporated signal augmentation techniques such as *MixUp* and *Random Cutout*. *MixUp* creates synthetic examples by blending images and labels, forcing the model to learn feature interpolations. In parallel, *Random Cutout* strategically obscure portions of images, forcing the model to recognize patterns beyond dominant features. Both these techniques enrich the training dataset, helping our models improve robustness and consistent performance across diverse scenarios.

The complete code for the conversion process, data segmentation, and the augmentation techniques used are presented in *Appendix 1* and they were implemented according to the Kaggle guidelines and applications, [28], [29]. In the Appendix, we show the Data Cleaning & Conversion (panels B, D of Figure 11B, Appendix), the Segmentation process (panel C, Figure 11B, Appendix), and finally the Augmentation (panel A, Figure 11A, Appendix).

2.3 Building the Models

2.3.1 Baseline, Transfer Learning, and Base Model

This research adopts a transfer learning strategy with the *EfficientNetV2* architecture, pre-trained on the ImageNet dataset, to classify EEG spectrograms. The approach of recognizing brain signals as complex time-frequency images uses *EfficientNetV2* as the backbone for its advanced visual pattern recognition capabilities, proven effective and scalable across various image datasets, [30].

In practice, the study employs "no-top" versions of both *EfficientNetV2-B2* and *EfficientNetV2-S*, which removes the pre-trained final classification layer of the models (Figure 1, panel 02). This modification allows the two variants to be more adaptable for EEG probability seizure classification, diverging from their original purpose of general image classification on ImageNet. Custom output layers were subsequently designed to fine-tune the architecture, optimizing the ability of the systems to process the convoluted and high-dimensional information characteristic of EEG spectrograms, [31].

By applying transfer learning, the study aims to leverage the broad features these models have learned from ImageNet. This transfer is adjusting them to identify distinctive patterns associated with seizures and other neurological phenomena of interest from the database. In addition, the base model, represented by the CFG class, supports simple experimental comparisons between the *EfficientNetV2-S* and *EfficientNetV2-B2* (Figure 2, panel 01).

Changing the *preset* parameter within the base model facilitates a controlled evaluation of each model, ensuring a fair baseline comparison in the context of neurological pattern recognition. This strategy exploits the EfficientNetV2 architecture with its learned visual pattern detection capabilities, maximizing the utility of its design for the specialized task at hand.



Fig. 2: Baseline CFG Class (01); No-Top Base Model for Transfer Learning (02)

2.3.2 Attention Mechanism

Simple Attention Mechanism (Model 2)

At its core, *Attention Mechanisms* (AM) allow neural networks to selectively focus on the most informative regions within input data. It enables the model to dynamically weigh the significance of different input features, an ability that closely mirrors how the human brain processes complex stimuli, [32]. In the context of EEG spectrogram classification, attention helps models identify and prioritize the spectral features most strongly associated with seizures and other neurological activity.

In developing Model-2, the study began by integrating a simple AM (Figure 3, panel A) into a *no-top* EfficientNetV2-B2 architecture to refine the classification of EEG spectrograms. By generating

an attentional vector that assigns weights to different features in the EEG spectrogram, the model highlights areas likely to contain critical information for classification. In addition, with the EfficientNetV2-B2 backbone maintained in a nontrainable state, the model leverages the depth of pretrained features while concentrating adaptive efforts on the subtle features of attention and refinement through custom top layers.

From the backbone base, the Model-2 structure continues with a *GlobalAveragePooling2D* to condense the output into a 1D feature vector, applies a simple AM to emphasize critical features, and completes with custom *Dense-SoftMax* layers for precise probability classification output.



Fig. 3: Simple (A) and Multiheaded (B), Attention Mechanism Implementation

Multiheaded Attention Block (Models 3 & 4)

Next, with the building of Model-3 and Model-4, the research explored the complexities of multiheaded AMs (Figure 3, panel B). This refined version allows the models to attend to multiple parts of the input data simultaneously through separate *"heads"* that operate in parallel. Each head can capture different aspects of the input data, providing a composite understanding of the input features and further refined by subsequent normalization and pooling layers (*LayerNormalization* and *GlobalAveragePooling1D*).



Fig. 4: Code Example for Attention Blocks (A) and Expanded Key and Value Dimensions (B)

Multidimensional Attention (Model 5 to 8)

In order to improve the performance of the system and better characterize and represent the main features of the data, we also embedded multiple blocks of attention (Figure 4, panels A and B). By increasing dimensionality, the systems can discover critical, yet subtle, features for accurate EEG spectrogram classification.



Fig. 5A: Model-9 (A) with 2D CNN-Pointwise Layers & LSTM; Model-11 (B) with CNN-Pointwise Layers A M and LSTM

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Fig. 5B: Model-12 (C) with 3D CNN Layers & RNN LSTM; Model-13 (D) with 3D CNN Layers, Layers AM and LSTM

Models 5 through 8 represent a deeper exploration of AMs. We introduced variations in multi-headed attention configurations and expanded the dimensionality of key and value pairs to investigate the complexity and capacity of the attention mechanism to differentiate and prioritize information within EEG signals. All these models utilize the EfficientNetV2B2 architecture as their foundation and incorporate up to eight attentional heads. Models 5 and 7 specifically examine the effects of doubling the key and value dimensions, while Model 8 explores tripling these dimensions to achieve an even higher level of detail in feature processing. Additionally, Model 6 integrates multiple attentional blocks, layering the attention mechanism to higher convolutions and deepening the analysis of EEG features.

Each model employs a sequence of steps starting from the base-model output, reshaping it to align with the multi-head AM requirements, followed by a *Normalization* layer to stabilize learning. *GlobalAveragePooling1D* is consistently used to condense the data into a more manageable form for the final classification layers. This sequence ends in custom top layers, including *Dense* and *Dropout* layers, leading to a *SoftMax* classification output. These enhancements in AMs refine the focus on relevant EEG features, aiming for a fine and highly accurate classification of neurological patterns.

CNN-Pointwise & RNN-LSTM Layers (Model 9 to 13)

Building on the attentional mechanisms explored earlier, Models 9-13 investigate the complex relationship between spatial feature extraction, temporal analysis, and attentional focus for EEG spectrogram classification (Figure 5A & Figure 5B). These aspects are implemented by integrating convolutional neural networks and long short-term memory features. In addition, each model was evaluated across both structural backbone EfficientNetV2S architectures, and EfficientNetV2B2. As a strategic shift, the models incorporated LSTM layers to capture inherent temporal dependencies and dynamics specific to the sequential nature of brain activity patterns, crucial for accurate seizure detection.

A central line of analysis was the optimization placement of AMs. Model-11 uniquely applied attention before the RNN layer, allowing us to investigate whether the model benefits from identifying crucial spectral features prior to sequential analysis. In contrast, Model-13 applied AMs after the LSTM, testing if focusing on the most significant temporal patterns enhanced classification. Additionally, all these five models have been used to experiment with different convolutional architectures, including the 2D 1x1 pointwise convolution layers for fine-grained feature mapping and larger kernel convolutional layers for broader spatial relationships. This diversified approach aims to identify the spatial feature resolutions most descriptive of seizure activities within EEG spectrograms.

Models 12 and 13 uniquely adopt a 3D convolutional approach, treating the spectrogram as an inherently spatiotemporal representation (Figure 5B). This aspect aimed to determine whether modelling frequency and temporal dynamics simultaneously held advantages. Finally, attention mechanisms were refined with varying key and value dimensions, potentially allowing systems to identify more complex relationships within the EEG data.





2.4 LR Scheduler, Kullback-Leibler Divergence & Other Metrics

To optimize model convergence, a learning rate (LR) scheduler was implemented with an initial warmup phase (lr ramp ep) to establish model stability (Figure 6). This phase transitions into a sustained period of maximum learning rate (*lr sus ep*), intensifying the model's focus on critical EEG patterns. Subsequently, a customizable decay function (cos) is applied to gradually reduce the learning rate, facilitating precise weight adjustments and reducing the risk of overfitting in later training epochs. The learning rate hyperparameters (lr start, lr max, lr min) were chosen by both best practices in deep learning and the batch size used, ensuring the schedule was adaptable to the specific dataset and training dynamics.

We also incorporated the *Kullback-Leibler Divergence* (KLD) function of loss within the training of the system (Figure 7 and Eq. (1)):

$$D_{KL}(P||Q) = \sum_{\chi}^{\infty} \left(P(i) \log \frac{P(i)}{Q(i)} \right), \quad (1)$$
Where P - true distribution: O - predicted distribution.

This parameter is a proper marker of the classification performance in terms of accuracy, in terms of *precision*, and *recal*, namely the correct detection of seizures and the minimization of false negatives, respectively.



Fig. 7: Kullback-Leibler Divergence (KLD) implementation

2.5 AutoML Hyperparameter Tuner

Another step in order to adjust the system consists of introducing *Keras AutoML* which optimizes the overall configuration of the classifier such as the setting of the learning rate and the optimization of the parameters. Through an interactive process, we refine the setting and obtain an optimal configuration.

	Model	Accuracy	Loss	Precision	Recall	
1	Model-9_5_2dPW3lay_LSTM	0.8645	0.3807	0.9491	0.6554	
2	Model-13_3dLSTM_ddAM (82)	0.8288	0.4853	0.928	0.6207	
3	Base_model_S	0.8211	0.4905	0.9171	0.6123	
-4	Base_model_82	0.7927	0.5449	0.9105	0.5798	

Fig. 8: Top 4 Model Performance

2.6 Training, Evaluation, Testing and Inference

For training the system, the number of epochs was defined (*CFG.epochs=13*) together with the usual parameters such as the learning rate and verbose output (*CFG.verbose*). A validation set was also established (*valid_ds*) together with a *model.evaluate* method. Finally, another set of data was prepared for testing (*test_ds*)).

Finally, the trained model was used to generate predictions (*model.predict*) on the test dataset and save the output into a CVS file. This process involved pairing the predictions with required EEG identifiers (*eeg_id*), for possible later analysis and evaluation procedures.

3 Results & Discussion

Analysis of the results revealed Model-9 (configured with EfficientNetV2S backbone, 2D pointwise convolution, and LSTM layers) and Model-13 (composed of EfficientNetV2B2 backbone, 3D convolution, and LSTM layers, with double dimension AM factors and 6 attention heads) to be the most accurate architectures, achieving an accuracy of 0.8645 and 0.8288, respectively (Figure 9). These two models outperformed both the EfficientNetV2-B2 and EfficientNetV2-S baselines (Figure 8). This difference suggests their improved capacity to decode and learn from complex, timesensitive patterns in EEG spectrograms based on their integrated spatial-temporal processing layers. In addition, both configurations, 9 and 13, achieve the lowest KLD loss, which indicates confidence in their predictions and confirms their superior certainty in classifications. This characteristic is desirable in real-world EEG seizure detection systems, where minimizing both false alarms and missed seizures is crucial.

In all cases, integrating convolution layers and LSTM units improved the models. The effectiveness of this approach was universally observed, suggesting that additional investigation into the optimal configurations with this technique could yield even better results.

Further examination of the performance results reveals a significant decrease in accuracy for Model-6 and Model-8, which could be attributed to several factors:

Model-6, with its multiple attention blocks, each featuring four heads, indicates increased complexity issues, leading to difficulties in training. Each additional attention block introduces more parameters to learn, which requires more data and computational power to optimize effectively. When not regulated, this complexity results in the model overfitting to the training data or not converging on an optimal solution. In this particular case, the training data was not diverse or large enough to support learning these additional parameters.

Likewise, Model-8 encountered similar issues with its 4-head attention mechanism and tripled keyvalue dimensions. While intended to provide a more detailed feature processing capability, the substantial increase in dimensionality has caused the model to become too specialized in the training data variations, failing to generalize well to validation data. This phenomenon is known as the *"curse of dimensionality"*, [33], where adding more features increases the volume of the feature space exponentially.



Fig. 9: Performance results of all 13 Models



Fig. 10: Execution times/epoch during 13-train cycles (all models)

Without enough training data to cover this space, the model performance can deteriorate considerably. Furthermore, Model-6 and 8 demonstrate the risks of overfitting. Their poor accuracy is intensified by very high KLD loss, indicating incorrect predictions made with excessive certainty. This result highlights the importance of balancing model complexity with the need for reliable and well-calibrated prediction.

Overall, multi-headed models with fine-tuning generally outperformed those with simple attention design and showed promising results against the baselines. Similarly, expanding the key-value dimensions in the attentional modules led to stable accuracy, highlighting the value of capturing detailed feature relationships.

However, as *Attention Mechanisms* (AM) became more complex, the systems encountered *Out-Of-Memory* (OoM) errors during training. This event is also reflected in Model-7 training time per epoch, with its multi-dimensional 8-head AM configuration (Figure 10). Interestingly, these resource limitations become more pronounced when increasing the number of attentional heads compared to expanding key-value dimensions. This indicates that, given hardware constraints (29 GB of CPU and 32 GB of GPU power with a T4 GPU),

adjusting the dimensionality presents a more computationally efficient method to boost the representational power of models within attention mechanisms.

The performance results of both baseline systems indicate that transfer learning is a highly effective strategy in machine learning developments for brain signal classification tasks. The foundational designs, EfficientNetV2S and EfficientNetV2B2, provided a solid starting point for testing and improving complex pattern recognition concepts. These *no-top* pre-trained models can accelerate the learning process, allowing for a direct focus on the subtle characteristics of EEG data. Appendix 2 provides a detailed summary of the performance metrics in heatmap format (Figure 12, Appendix) and also offers a more comprehensive comparison of the models through bars and spiderweb charts (Figure 13, Appendix). Additionally, the appendix includes a confusion matrix that presents the performance metrics of the model.

The overall results of this work indicate that a stable approach to EEG multi-class classification can be achieved through transfer learning with *EfficientNetV2*, refined by specialized layer architectures.

4 Conclusion

This work analyses the possibility of using convolutional and LSTM layers, combined with attention mechanisms, in order to classify EEG seizure. The proposed system shows an accuracy of 86.45% with a KL divergence loss of 0.95. Moreover we showed that EfficientNetV2S and EfficientNetV2B2 with the integration of LSTM and convolutional layers significantly improves the performance. However, classification while incorporating attention mechanisms with higher local dimensionalities (keys and values) further enhanced accuracy, producing richer and more informative outputs, we noticed that distributing these dimensionalities across multiple attention decreased heads led to performance and unsustainable computational demands.

These findings emphasize the need for more research into strategies to adjust model depth complexity with computational efficiency to balance performance without overextending system capabilities.

Future work will concentrate on enhancing the performance of the EEG seizure detection systems by exploring the benefits of learning from larger and more diverse datasets, as well as on looking at proper systems and software for EEG data acquisition, [34], [35], [36]. A particular focus will be on researching techniques to reduce the KL divergence to increase system confidence and accuracy. Additionally, adopting incremental learning strategies could allow for further model improvements. All these development efforts hold the potential to improve the reliability of machine learning systems and their integration while supporting a more personalized and superior quality of healthcare.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1

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def build sugmentarifiniting, damas winght
                    baild_sequenter(filescence)
aggeother(if filescence)
aggeother(if 
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                           A
                def sugmant(ing, label):
    dets = ('laceys':last, 'labels')
    fee sugmenter is sugmenters:
        if if.rendom.uifsesd()) < 0.5:       # Austanty supplies sugmants</pre>
                                           data = sugerster(data, training=True)
return data["lnapri"], data("lobels")
                  rature against
def hulld_incoder(with_lobelssTeine, target_sines(D4.imags_cire_sitypes(2))
    def decode_signal(path, offic#imknes):
    # Head -equ files and presses the open()
    # Head -equ files and presses the open()
    #Lis_bytws if file.read_file(path)
    #Lis_bytws if file.read_file(path)
    #Lis_bytws if file(path)
    #Lis_bytws
                                            # Herrart labeled subsample from full spectrogram asing "offwer" is offset is out Normal affwer a set of the fill J . # Adjusts for odd values sig = sig(), affsetsoffset+NAM()
                                                                 # Did spectropent to ensure uniform input shops [400, 300] gad_size a t4 meth-maximum [300, 300 - t7.shope(sig)[31] sig = t7.set(sig, [10, 0], [0, pod_size]]) sig = t7.set(sig, [10, 0], [0, size]) sig = t7.set(size, [400, 300])
                                           \theta can spectrospone to enhance contrast sig = 1f.alip by value(sig, tf.amith.cog(-4.0), tf.amith.cog(0.0)) sig = 1f.amith.log(sig) # Climits();
                                                                                                                                                                    prom thi sprin mean and unit continue
                                           window provide the troated of
wig <= tf.math.rubec_mru(sig)
sig /w tf.math.rubec_std(sig) + 10 in
                                              0 (invert is 3-charmels load up with pre-trained Zempelki weights sig = 17.
Like(sig) \ldots , Name), (1, 1, 2))
                                              return alg
                  def decode label(label);
                                           label = tF.use_bot(label, tF.Hust)
label = tF.use_bot(label, tF.Hust))
label = tF.rmhapu(label, tF.Hust))
                                            ration Intel
                    def decode_with_labels(path, offsetzNose, labelsNose);
sig a decode_signal(path, offset)
                                              label = decode_label(label)
                                              return [sig, label]
                  return decode_with_labels a# with_labels also decode_signal
```

Fig. 11A: Augmentation (A)



Segmentation (C)



Fig. 12: Heatmap metrics results





Fig. 13: Bars-chart (top panel) and Spiderweb-chart metrics comparison (bottom panel) between models

Contribution of Individual Authors to the Creation of a Scientific Article (Ghostwriting Policy)

DM and NB have conceived the classifier. DM has implemented the software, prepared the dataset and carried out all the data processing, as well as prepared the report with the description and results. NB has supervised the work. ELS has supervised the paper preparation.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

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