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Performance evaluation of hybrid nanofluid-filled cylindrical heat pipe by machine learning algorithms

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ABSTRACT

The current study attempts to predict the outlet temperature of a hybrid nanofluid heat pipe using three machine learning models, namely Extra Tree Regression (ETR), CatBoost Regression (CBR), and Light Gradient Boosting Machine Regression (LGBMR), in the Python environment. Based on 7000 experimental data (various heat input, inclination angle, flow rate, and fluid ratio), different training (95%–5%) and testing (5%–95%) split sizes, a closer prediction was attained at 85:15. The three attempted machine learning models are capable of predicting the outlet temperature, as evidenced by the less than 5% deviation from the experimental results. Of the three attempted machine learning models, the ETR model outperforms the other two with a higher accuracy (98%). Further, the sensitivity analysis indicates the absence of data overfitting in the attempted models.

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INTRODUCTION

Heat pipes are one of the most efficient ways to transfer heat from one place to another. Heat pipes are a variety of heat exchangers frequently used in thermal energy recovery, energy conversion systems, solar collectors, spacecraft, and electronic and electrical equipment [1]. According to Chi [1], the use of heat pipes is the most efficient method to transfer heat between two interfaces. Meanwhile, Xu et al. [2] summarized the working fluids, operation mechanisms, and applications of heat pipes. In this juncture, Pathak et al. [3] and Dave et al. [4] in separate studies altered the working fluid, wick structure, and reported that the applied heat flux is the principal factor influencing the thermal performance of a heat pipe. On the contrary, Mehta et al. [5] altered geometric variables (channel size and shape), in a heat pipe, and concluded that the thermal resistance strongly depends on geometrical parameters. Likewise, Chernysheva et al. [6] analyzed the effect of external factors (device orientation, condenser cooling temperature, and condition of heat exchange with the surroundings), on the operating performance of a heat pipe. In a different attempt, Shafieian et al. [7] developed a theoretical model to determine the effect of operational variables on the thermal performance of heat pipe solar water heating systems. Similarly, Khan and Nadeem [8] developed a mathematical

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model to study the heat and mass transfer rates of the nanofluid in a stretching sheet. Likewise, Nadeem et al. successfully extended the mathematical model to a bio-convective micropolar nanofluid [9].

In the recent past, studies were conducted to investigate the effects of different working fluids and wick structure in a heat pipe, which are summarized here. Liang et al. employed neon as a working fluid and reported rapid acceleration of temperature to room temperature [10]. In a different attempt, a biporous wick was introduced by Zhang et al. and reported improved performance [11]. In a similar study, Zu et al. successfully performed a visualization study on boiling heat transfer in a heat pipe with a wire mesh wick [12]. However, recently, researchers focused their attention on nanofluids, which contain nanoparticles. Martin et al. [13] reported improved thermal efficiency while employing Fe-CuO hybrid nanofluid in heat pipes. In this context, Chabani et al. adjusted porous trapezoidal enclosure in a hybrid nanofluid and reported increased thermal efficiency [14]. In a different attempt, Mebarek-Oudina experimented with titania nanofluids in cylindrical annulus with a discrete heat source and opined that fluid properties impact the heat transfer rate [15]. In another study, the same research group employed the Buongiorno model to detect the thermal properties of the nanofluid [16]. In a different attempt, Pandya et al. [17] introduced an axial grooved heat pipe filled with CeO₂ + MWCNT/waterbased nanofluid and reported that the particle concentration significantly influences the thermal performance of the heat pipe. Similarly, Bumataria et al. [18] evaluated the performance of a cylindrical heat pipe with water-based CuO and ZnO hybrid nanofluid and reported that the inclination affects the heat transfer rate significantly. Recently, Mebarek-Oudina and Chabani [19] wrote a review on the applications and heat transfer enhancement techniques employing nanofluids at different enclosures. Dharmaiah et al. [20] developed a mathematical model to analyze the heat transfer rate in a nuclear reactor. Meanwhile, a group of researchers from Pakistan, determined the performance of heat pipe with different nanofluids through a theoretical approach [21-25].

Despite the effectiveness of the experimental approach, its complexity and time-consuming nature encourage researchers to seek a quick and dependable solution. In recent years, there has been a rise in the use of software for predicting the thermal performance of a heat pipe. The more recent technology, machine learning, aids in the identification of potentially challenging correlations that may exist within the dataset, enabling us to acquire a better depiction of the process. Ahmad et al. [26] recommended the ETR model while predicting solar thermal energy efficiency. Meanwhile, Xiang et al. [27] attempted a CBR model for predicting power load and reported less error variance. In a different attempt, Gong et al. [28] predicted the return temperature of district heating systems and recommended the LGBMR model for better prediction.

Based on the review of the literature, though studies on the usage of nanofluids in heat pipes have been attempted, the application of machine learning techniques to predict the performance of hybrid nanofluid heat pipes is scarce. In particular, the prediction of the outlet temperature in the heat pipe utilizing hybrid nanofluid has not yet been implemented using machine learning techniques like Extra Tree Regression (ETR), CatBoost Regression (CBR), and Light Gradient Boosting Machine Regression (LGBMR). Hence, ETR, CBR, and LGBMR models are employed to predict the outlet temperature of the heat pipe with hybrid nanofluid, and the deviation from the experimental results is reported.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Preparation of Hybrid Nanofluids

The silver nanoparticles were synthesized using a onestep chemical reduction technique. Using the Lee-Meisel process, silver nitrate is reduced with trisodium citrate in double-distilled water at a volume concentration of 0.01% to yield silver nanofluid [29]. Alumina nanofluid was produced by a two-step ultrasonication process. a) Heating an aqueous solution of aluminum nitrate and b) urea to the appropriate concentration produced an alumina nanoparticle [30]. By using ultrasonication, synthetic alumina nanoparticles were combined with double-distilled water at a volume concentration of 0.01% to produce alumina nanofluid. The traditional tests of UV absorption (Figure 1) and size distribution (Figure 2) analysis were used to confirm the presence of silver and alumina nanofluids. The hybrid nanofluid charge in the heat pipe was 16 ml [1], and the fill percentage was 37.62%. Three Ag-Al₂O₃ ratios of 80%-20%, 70%-30%, and 60%-40% hybrid nanofluids were created, as detailed in Table 1, to study the thermal performance of heat pipe.

Table 1. Compositions of hybrid nanofluid

| Working fluid | Ag/ distilled water (ml) | Al ₂ O ₃ / distilled water (ml) | Total hybrid nanofluid (ml) |
|--|--------------------------|---|-----------------------------|
| (Ag 80%-Al ₂ O ₃ 20%)/ distilled water | 12.8 | 3.2 | 16 |
| (Ag 70%-Al ₂ O ₃ 30%)/ distilled water | 11.2 | 4.8 | 16 |
| (Ag 60%-Al ₂ O ₃ 40%)/ distilled water | 9.6 | 6.4 | 16 |



Figure 1. UV absorption characteristic test of **a**) silver nanofluid and **b**) alumina nanofluid.



Figure 2. Size distribution analysis of a) silver nanofluid and b) alumina nanofluid.

Experimental Setup

The heat pipe was designed using the procedure given by Chi [1], and the heat pipe's capillary heat transport, sonic, entrainment, and boiling limitations were calculated. The calculated capillary heat transport limitation was 100 W. Consequently, the heat input was limited to 100 W. The heat pipe was made of copper. The wick inside the heat pipe is made of stainless steel screen mesh. The inner surface of the heat pipe was rolled with two layers of stainless steel screen mesh. Copper end caps were used to perfectly seal the ends of the heat pipe. To create vacuum inside the heat pipe, a vacuum pump and a vacuum pressure gauge were utilized. The specifications of the heat pipe are shown in Table 2. The schematic diagram of the heat pipe with vacuum gauge is shown in Figure 3. Three hybrid nanofluid ratios were sequentially charged with 16 ml each inside the heat pipe's cylindrical heat pipe. First, 80%-20% hybrid

nanofluid was charged into the heat pipe. Secondly, the test has been carried out. Thirdly, by completing the experiment, the hybrid nanofluid of 80%–20% has been fully drained, and the remaining experiments were conducted with 70%–30% and 60%–40% hybrid nanofluids. A 500 W heater (Venus: copper coil with ceramic insulator) was positioned circumferentially at the outer edge of the heat pipe in the evaporator section.

The power supply for the heater is at 240 volts and 50 Hz. A voltage regulator (Cresta autostat) was used to regulate the power supply, and a digital wattmeter (Cabs electra) was used to measure the amount of heat input. Black rubber foam was used as insulation in the adiabatic portion to reduce heat loss from the heat pipe. A cylindrical shell with a diameter of 35 mm was constructed for the condenser section, and water circulated naturally within it to serve as a coolant. The cylindrical heat pipe and the atmospheric temperature were measured and monitored using nine T-type thermocouples (T1 – T9), as shown in Figure 3. The temperature data was measured, tracked, and collected every 30 s using an Agilent data logger (Model No. 34970A) with a desktop computer. The camera-friendly view and the schematic diagram of the experimental setup are shown in Figs. 4a and 4b, respectively. The heat input was varied from 40 W to 100 W (in steps of 10 W), and the inclination was varied by 0°, 30°, and 45°. The flow rate was varied by 0.0033 kg/s and 0.0050 kg/s, and the fluid ratio was fixed at 0.6 (60%–40%), 0.7 (70%–30%), and 0.8 (80%–20%), respectively. These parameters were fixed by trial and error. The minimum and maximum values of each process parameter are displayed in Table 3.

MACHINE LEARNING ALGORITHMS

Extra Tree Regression (ETR)

Extra tree, also known as much randomized trees, is an ensemble-supervised machine learning technique that trains models using the decision tree algorithm. The decision trees function with classification and regression techniques. This approach is comparable to random forests but may be faster. Similar to the random forest technique, the additional trees algorithm generates numerous decision trees, but the sampling for each tree is random and without replacement. As a result, each tree gets its own dataset with distinct samples. Additionally, each tree receives a random selection of a predetermined number of features from the entire set of features. The choice of a feature's splitting value is made at random, which is the most significant and



Figure 3. Schematic diagram of the heat pipe.



(1: Heat pipe, 2: Inclination arrangement, 3: Water line, 4: Main power supply, 5: Voltage regulators, 6: Watt meters, 7: T – type thermocouples, 8: Agilent data logger, 9: Desktop computer, and 10: Vacuum pressure gauge)

Figure 4a. Photographic view of the experimental setup.



Figure 4b. Schematic diagram of the experimental setup.

Table 2. Specifications of the heat pipe

| Specifications | Dimensions | | | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|--|--|--|--|
| Total length (mm) | 1000 | | | | |
| Inner diameter (mm) | 17 | | | | |
| Outer diameter (mm) | 19 | | | | |
| Thickness (mm) | 2 | | | | |
| Evaporator section (mm) | 150 | | | | |
| Adiabatic section (mm) | 550 | | | | |
| Condenser section (mm) | 300 | | | | |
| Condenser diameter (mm) | 35 | | | | |
| Mesh size | 20,000 per mm ² | | | | |
| Heating coil length (mm) | 150 | | | | |
| Pipe material | Copper | | | | |
| Wick material | Stainless steel | | | | |
| Wick structure | Wrapped screen (Two layers) | | | | |
| Fill ratio (%) | 37.62 | | | | |

Table 3. Range of the parameters

| Parameters | Range (Raw data) | | | | |
|--|------------------|---------------|--|--|--|
| | Min | Max | | | |
| Heat input (W) | 40 | 100 | | | |
| Inclination (°) | 0 | 45 | | | |
| Flow rate (kg/ s) | 0.0033 | 0.0050 | | | |
| Fluid ratio (Ag-Al ₂ O ₃) | 0.6 (60%-40%) | 0.8 (80%-20%) | | | |
| Condenser inlet temperature (K) | 302.68 | 309.25 | | | |
| Atmospheric temperature (K) | 301.27 | 308.00 | | | |
| Outlet temperature (K) | 303.60 | 320.73 | | | |

distinctive property of additional trees. The approach randomly chooses a split value for the data instead of finding a locally optimal value using gini or entropy. As a result, the trees are diverse and uncorrelated [31].

Catboost Regression (CBR)

CatBoost is a supervised machine learning technique that solves classification and regression issues by using decision trees. As the name implies, CatBoost has two key components: gradient boosting (the Boost) and categorical data (the Cat) to work with data. Gradient boosting is a method where several decision trees are built iteratively. Each additional tree enhances the output of the previous one, producing greater outcomes. For faster implementation, CatBoost enhances the initial gradient boost technique. CatBoost bypasses a drawback of conventional decision tree-based approaches, where the data must often be pre-processed to transform categorical string variables to numerical values, one-hot encodings, etc. This approach can use a mix of category and non-categorical explanatory variables directly, without any preprocessing. In this algorithm, preprocessing is included. The categorical features in CatBoost are encoded using a technique known as ordered encoding. When using ordered encoding, a value is generated to replace the categorical feature that takes into account the target statistics from all the rows prior to a data point. CatBoost uses symmetric trees, which is another distinctive feature of it. As a result, every decision node at every depth level employs the identical split condition [32].

Light Gradient Boosting Machine Regression (LGBMR)

The Light Gradient Boosting Machine is a gradient-boosting ensemble technique used to train decision trees. Both classification and regression problems can be solved with LGBMR. LGBMR is designed for high performance in distributed systems. When using LGBMR to generate decision trees, just one leaf is split for each condition, depending on the gain, and the trees develop in a leaf wise manner. Sometimes, especially with smaller datasets, leaf-wise trees might overfit. Overfitting can be prevented by restricting the tree depth. A histogram of the distribution is used by LGBMR to bucket data into bins. For iteration, gain calculation, and data splitting, the bins are employed rather than each data point. Additionally, a sparse dataset can benefit from this method's optimization. Another element of LGBMR is exclusive feature bundling, in which the algorithm bundles exclusive characteristics to reduce dimensionality and make it quicker and more efficient [33].

Methodologies Adopted to Select the Training and Testing Sizes

In this study, the outlet temperature of a cylindrical screen-mesh heat pipe filled with hybrid nanofluid was analyzed and estimated using ETR, CBR, and LGBMR regression models. Heat inputs, inclinations, flow rates, fluid ratios, condenser inlet temperature, and ambient temperature were chosen as input parameters. The output temperature is the target parameter. To determine the best split size, the dataset is divided into different training and testing sizes, ranging from 95%: 5% to 5%:

95% in steps of -5%: +5% for all these regression models. R^2 was used to determine the accuracy of every split size (Table 4).

Hyperparameters Tuning of ETR, CBR and LGBMR Models

Each model has a collection of hyperparameters that affect its accuracy, robustness, and capacity to learn from new datasets. The hyperparameters significantly influence the computation time as well. Tuning the hyperparameters is necessary in order to maximize the model's performance. In this study, the models of ETR, CBR, and LGBMR, are tuned to achieve the best accuracy. It is carried out using the Optuna (a Bayesian optimizer) framework, which uses the R² value as an accuracy benchmark to determine which model parameters are the best to tweak. The tuned hyperparameters for the models ETR, CBR, and LGBMR are shown in Table 5. Three performance indicators, namely mean absolute error (MAE), mean absolute percentage error (MAPE), and R² value, were used to assess the outlet temperature prediction accuracy. These metrics are employed to assess the variance between the outlet temperature that results from the experimental approach and the predicted outlet temperature. The performance indicators are computed as follows:

| Training and testing | Models | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|--------|--------|--------|--|--|--|--|--|
| combination (%:%) | CBR | ETR | LGBMR | | | | | |
| 95:5 | 0.9856 | 0.9869 | 0.9726 | | | | | |
| 90:10 | 0.9857 | 0.9870 | 0.9727 | | | | | |
| 85:15 | 0.9859 | 0.9871 | 0.9728 | | | | | |
| 80:20 | 0.9850 | 0.9865 | 0.9719 | | | | | |
| 75:25 | 0.9849 | 0.9859 | 0.9714 | | | | | |
| 70:30 | 0.9849 | 0.9861 | 0.9715 | | | | | |
| 65:35 | 0.9841 | 0.9850 | 0.9712 | | | | | |
| 60:40 | 0.9839 | 0.9846 | 0.9711 | | | | | |
| 55:45 | 0.9831 | 0.9844 | 0.9706 | | | | | |
| 50:50 | 0.9832 | 0.9840 | 0.9698 | | | | | |
| 45:55 | 0.9822 | 0.9836 | 0.9683 | | | | | |
| 40:60 | 0.9817 | 0.9825 | 0.9679 | | | | | |
| 35:65 | 0.9815 | 0.9826 | 0.9675 | | | | | |
| 30:70 | 0.9797 | 0.9817 | 0.9656 | | | | | |
| 25:75 | 0.9788 | 0.9803 | 0.9645 | | | | | |
| 20:80 | 0.9773 | 0.9779 | 0.9596 | | | | | |
| 15:85 | 0.9742 | 0.9723 | 0.9546 | | | | | |
| 10:90 | 0.9652 | 0.9632 | 0.9535 | | | | | |
| 5:95 | 0.9471 | 0.9400 | 0.9384 | | | | | |

Table 4. Training and testing combinations (optimal condition highlighted)

$$MAE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_e - y_p|}{n} \tag{1}$$

$$MAPE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left| \frac{y_e - y_p}{y_e} \right|}{n} \tag{2}$$

$$R^{2} = 1 - \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{e} - y_{p})^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{e} - y_{e,mean})^{2}}\right)$$
(3)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Experimental Results

The experimental condition (Q: 100W, I: 45°, m: 0.0050 kg/s, and R: 0.8) produced the highest outlet temperature of 320.726 K, whereas the operating state (Q: 40W, I: 0°, m: 0.0033 kg/s, and R: 0.6) resulted in the lowest outlet temperature (303.6 K). The maximum outlet temperature is produced when the working fluid has the highest silver content (80%), consistent with the reports of Chavda and Bumataria [34]. Increases in the heat input, inclination, flow rate, and silver content resulted in a higher outlet temperature compatible with the studies carried out by Ali et al. [35]. The operating parameters (Q, I, m and R) significantly affect the outlet temperature.

Prediction of Outlet Temperature by the Developed Models: A Comparative Analysis

The accuracy of the models is revealed by a scatter plot (Figure 5 a-c) between the actual and predicted output temperatures. According to experimental results, all the machine learning models attempted displayed significant or foggy dispersion around the diagonal. The fogginess suggests a close correlation between the experimental and predicted values. The closer distance between the predicted values and the diagonal line is a sign of higher accuracy. Yang et al. [36] opined that the model performs well if the scatter points are close to the diagonal line; but poorly if the scatter points are distant from the diagonal line. The scatter distributions of the ETR and CBR models are more tightly packed towards the centre diagonal line compared to the LGBMR model. In terms of scatter distribution, the ETR model outperforms all others with the least amount of deviation from the diagonal, consistent with the studies carried out by Khan and Nadeem [37]. The performance and accuracy metrics for each of the three machine learning models are tabulated in Table 6.

The MAE and MAPE values in the LGBMR model are higher (Table 6), which results in lower R^2 values. In terms of accuracy, the ETR model outperforms the other two machine learning models since it has lower MAE and MAPE values (0.0955 and 0.0310) and a higher R^2 value (0.9890), which is consistent with the separate studies of Khan et al. [38] and Nadeem et al. [39]. As a result, the Extra Tree Regression model is recommended for predicting the outlet temperature of the heat pipe when employing hybrid nanofluid.

| Model | Hyperparameters | Range | Optimal value | |
|-------|-------------------------|------------------------------------|----------------------|--|
| ETR | max_depth | 2-1000 | 615 | |
| | max_leaf_nodes | 2-1000 | 542 | |
| | min_samples_split | 2-1000 | 2 | |
| | n_estimators | 2-1000 | 808 | |
| | l2_leaf_reg | 1e ⁻³ -10 | 0.04 | |
| | learning_rate | 0.006-0.018 | 0.006 | |
| CDD | max_bin | 200-400 | 215 | |
| CDK | max_depth | 5-15 | 13 | |
| | min_data_in_leaf | 1-300 | 52 | |
| | subsample | 0.4-1 | 0.6 | |
| | lambda_l1 | 1e ⁻⁵ -1e ⁻¹ | 0.01 | |
| | learning_rate | 1e ⁻³ -10 | 0.33 | |
| | max_bin | 80-300 | 137 | |
| | min_data_in_leaf | 10-80 | 35 | |
| LGBMR | min_sum_hessian_in_leaf | 1e ⁻⁸ -10 | 7.46e ⁻⁷ | |
| | num_leaves | 10-30 | 11 | |
| | path_smooth | 0.4-1.5 | 0.43 | |
| | verbose | 1-5 | 4 | |

Table 5. Tuned hyperparameters.

| Model | Metrics | Dataset | | | | | | | | | |
|-------|----------------|---------|--------|--------|------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| | | Total | Train | Test | Validation | | | | | | |
| | MAE | 0.0692 | 0.0636 | 0.0955 | 0.1333 | | | | | | |
| ETR | MAPE | 0.0225 | 0.0206 | 0.0310 | 0.0433 | | | | | | |
| | \mathbb{R}^2 | 0.9945 | 0.9957 | 0.9890 | 0.9804 | | | | | | |
| | MAE | 0.0917 | 0.0902 | 0.0993 | 0.1339 | | | | | | |
| CBR | MAPE | 0.0298 | 0.0293 | 0.0322 | 0.0437 | | | | | | |
| | \mathbb{R}^2 | 0.9903 | 0.9908 | 0.9882 | 0.9790 | | | | | | |
| | MAE | 0.1131 | 0.1110 | 0.1542 | 0.1440 | | | | | | |
| LGBMR | MAPE | 0.0367 | 0.0360 | 0.0500 | 0.0467 | | | | | | |
| | R ² | 0.9858 | 0.9863 | 0.9731 | 0.9725 | | | | | | |





Figure 5a. Regression plots for ETR model.



Figure 5b. Regression plots for CBR model.



Figure 5c. Regression plots for LGBMR model.

Sensitivity Analysis

To cross-validate the attempted models and ensure their accuracy, a sensitivity analysis was carried out. With 15 data points, Table 7 shows the outflow temperature under the experimental conditions. The proposed machine learning models (ETR, CBR, and LGBMR) are also shown together with the predicted values under the aforementioned conditions. The validation data for the model's accuracy are shown in a scatter plot (Figure 6 a–c) between the actual and predicted outlet temperatures. The scatter distributions of the ETR and CBR models are more tightly packed towards the centre diagonal line compared to the LGBMR model. Table 7 presents the difference in error between experimental and

predicted findings, while Table 6 displays, correspondingly, their performance metrics. The R² values of the sensitivity analysis data and test data are 0.67% and 1.54% different from the training data, respectively, indicating the variance is not substantial. According to Shafiq et al. [40] and Singh and Gupta [41], if the deviation is less than 5%, the models are suitable for prediction, which is in agreement with the present study. It is concluded that the models are capable of producing reasonable predictions without experiencing significant overfitting. The optimal parametric conditions determined by the ETR model to attain maximum outlet temperature are Q-98.54 W, I-43.49°, \dot{m} -0.0044 kg/s and R-0.77.



Figure 6a. Regression plots for ETR model (validation).



Figure 6b. Regression plots for CBR model (validation).



Figure 6c. Regression plots for LGBMR model (validation).

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RECOMMENDATIONS

- The optimal training and testing split sizes were 85% and 15%, respectively.
- With a deviation of less than 5%, attempted machine learning models effectively predict the output temperature.
- The ETR model was the most accurate, followed by the CBR and LGBMR models due to its ensemble learning algorithm and randomized selection of split values.
- It is recommended to employ a 0.77 fluid ratio with a heat input of Q = 98.54 W, an inclination of I = 43.49°,

and a flow rate of $\dot{m} = 0.0044$ kg/s to attain higher outlet temperature.

• The sensitivity analysis showed that the attempted machine learning models did not exhibit data overfitting.

This study shows that the ETR, CBR, and LGBMR machine learning regression models have good potential for predicting the outlet temperature of a cylindrical screenmesh heat pipe filled with hybrid nanofluid. However, additional research needs to be done with more experimental data on various geometrical, fluid properties, operational, and ambiance variables to find a responsible design tool for the use of hybrid nanofluids in heat pipes.

| | | | | | | | То (К) | | | | | | |
|-------------|-------|-------|-----------------|-----|-----------|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|----------|------------|---------|---------|
| Exp. No. | Q (W) | I (o) | <i>ṁ</i> (kg/s) | R | Ti (K) | Ta (K) | | Predicted | | | -Error (K) | | |
| 1101 | | | | | () | () | схр. (к) | ETR | CBR | LGBMR | ETR | CBR | LGBMR |
| 1 | 100 | 0 | 0.0033 | 0.6 | 306.166 | 306.743 | 311.299 | 311.1673 | 311.4969 | 311.3897 | 0.1317 | -0.1979 | -0.0907 |
| 2 | 70 | 30 | 0.0033 | 0.6 | 305.082 | 304.276 | 308.235 | 308.0489 | 308.3760 | 307.3438 | 0.1861 | -0.1410 | 0.8912 |
| 3 | 40 | 30 | 0.0033 | 0.6 | 305.701 | 304.126 | 307.086 | 307.0938 | 307.3620 | 306.9828 | -0.0078 | -0.2760 | 0.1032 |
| 4 | 80 | 30 | 0.0033 | 0.6 | 306.413 | 306.426 | 309.949 | 309.7319 | 309.8757 | 310.2944 | 0.2171 | 0.0733 | -0.3454 |
| 5 | 70 | 30 | 0.005 | 0.6 | 305.136 | 305.262 | 307.139 | 307.2407 | 307.2541 | 307.2430 | -0.1017 | -0.1151 | -0.1040 |
| 6 | 70 | 45 | 0.005 | 0.7 | 305.532 | 304.066 | 307.207 | 307.4195 | 307.5238 | 307.2505 | -0.2125 | -0.3168 | -0.0435 |
| 7 | 80 | 30 | 0.0033 | 0.7 | 307.129 | 305.009 | 310.432 | 309.8402 | 310.0689 | 309.2999 | 0.5918 | 0.3631 | 1.1321 |
| 8 | 100 | 30 | 0.005 | 0.7 | 305.693 | 305.004 | 308.557 | 308.4822 | 308.5933 | 307.2975 | 0.0748 | -0.0363 | 1.2595 |
| 9 | 40 | 45 | 0.005 | 0.8 | 303.651 | 302.453 | 304.752 | 304.6577 | 304.6581 | 304.6567 | 0.0943 | 0.0939 | 0.0953 |
| 10 | 70 | 45 | 0.005 | 0.6 | 306.262 | 306.052 | 308.329 | 308.4966 | 308.5376 | 308.3559 | -0.1676 | -0.2086 | -0.0269 |
| 11 | 100 | 45 | 0.0033 | 0.6 | 306.417 | 305.883 | 311.869 | 311.0391 | 311.0606 | 311.2994 | 0.8299 | 0.8084 | 0.5696 |
| 12 | 50 | 30 | 0.0033 | 0.8 | 305.723 | 303.430 | 307.652 | 307.1697 | 307.5975 | 307.5059 | 0.4823 | 0.0545 | 0.1461 |
| 13 | 60 | 30 | 0.0033 | 0.8 | 304.396 | 303.401 | 306.912 | 306.7549 | 306.9852 | 306.9221 | 0.1571 | -0.0732 | -0.0101 |
| 14 | 70 | 30 | 0.005 | 0.6 | 305.183 | 304.809 | 307.175 | 307.2418 | 307.4062 | 306.9168 | -0.0668 | -0.2312 | 0.2582 |
| 15 | 80 | 45 | 0.0033 | 0.7 | 305.909 | 305.269 | 308.940 | 309.1136 | 309.1979 | 309.2761 | -0.1736 | -0.2579 | -0.3361 |

Table 7. Error differences among the models.

NOMENCLATURE

| Abbreviat | ions |
|-----------------------|--|
| ṁ | Flow rate (kg/s) |
| CBR | CatBoost Regression |
| ETR | Extra Tree Regression |
| Exp. | Experiments |
| Ι | Inclination (°) |
| i | Index number |
| IDE | Integrated Development Environment |
| LGBMR | Light Gradient Boosting Machine Regression |
| MAE | Mean Absolute Error |
| MAPE | Mean Absolute Percentage Error |
| MWCNT | Multi-Walled Carbon NanoTubes |
| п | Number of data points |
| Q | Heat input (W) |
| R | Fluid ratio |
| \mathbb{R}^2 | Determination of Coefficient |
| T _a | Atmospheric temperature (K) |
| T _i | Condenser inlet temperature (K) |
| To | Outlet temperature (K) |
| <i>Y</i> _e | Actual value |
| Y _{e,mean} | Actual mean value |
| Y_p | Predicted value |
| | |

Chemical symbols

| CeO ₂ | Cerium oxide |
|------------------|--------------|
| CuO | Copper oxide |
| Fe | Iron |
| ZnO | Zinc oxide |

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The authors declare no conflict of interest.

AUTHORSHIP CONTRIBUTIONS

Authors equally contributed to this work.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The authors confirm that the data that supports the findings of this study are available within the article. Raw data that support the finding of this study are available from the corresponding author, upon reasonable request.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The author declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

ETHICS

There are no ethical issues with the publication of this manuscript.

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