

BREAST CANCER DETECTION USING GENETIC PROGRAMMING

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Abstract: Breast cancer diagnosis have been investigated by different machine learning methods. This paper proposes a new method for breast cancer diagnosis using a single feature generated by Genetic Programming (GP). GP as an evolutionary mechanism that provides a training structure to generate features. The presented approach is experimentally compared with some kernel feature extraction methods: Kernel Principal Component Analysis (KPCA) and Kernel Generalised Discriminant Analysis (KGDA). Results demonstrate the capability of the proposed method to transform information from high dimensional feature space into one dimensional space for breast cancer diagnosis.

1 INTRODUCTION

Breast Cancer is the second most common cancer in the UK after non-melanoma skin cancer (Can). The early detection of breast cancer is becoming very important to ameliorate breast cancer survival rate. In recent years, various machine learning methods have been proposed for breast cancer diagnosis and prognosis. Yao and Liu described two neural network based approaches to breast cancer diagnosis; a feed-forward neural networks was evolved using evolutionary programming algorithm in the first approach, while the second approach was based on neural network ensembles (Yao and Liu, 1999). The performance of four fuzzy rule generation methods on Wisconsin breast cancer data was studied in (Jain and Abraham, 2004). In (Kermani et al., 1995), a hybrid genetic algorithm and neural network (GANN) was shown to extract the important features and train a NN in breast cancer classification. Guo and Nandi developed a modified Fisher criterion to help genetic programming optimism features for breast cancer diagnosis (Guo and Nandi, 2006). Nandi *et al.* used GP successfully for classification of breast masses in mammogram (Nandi et al., 2006).

In recent years, the application of genetic programming to pattern recognition problem has become

increasingly common. Genetic Programming was first introduced by Koza (Koza, 1992), and has been proposed as a machine learning method in different fields. In (Benyahia and Potvin, 1998), GP technique was used to develop a decision support system for vehicle dispatching considering a population of utility functions that evaluate candidate vehicles for servicing requests. GP was tested in six medical diagnosis problems (Brameier and Banzhaf, 2001) and the results were compared with those obtained by neural networks. In (Kishore et al., 2000) the feasibility of applying GP to multi-category pattern classification problem was studied. Zhang et al. (Zhang et al., 2003) applied genetic programming for fault detection in machine condition monitoring field. However, in all the above applications (Benyahia and Potvin, 1998; Brameier and Banzhaf, 2001; Kishore et al., 2000; Zhang et al., 2003), GP was employed solely as a classifier based on manually developed features. In (Sherrah et al., 1997), GP-based feature extraction was used to improve the classification results and reduce the dimensionality of the data in the medical domain. GP exhibits pseudo-intelligent behaviour by deciding whether to perform feature extraction or feature selection during the evolutionary process. Unfortunately, the system is unable to sample adequately the search space for high-dimensional problems and

the main disadvantage lies in its computational complexity. Kotani et al. (Kotani et al., 1997) performed feature extraction using GP with a KNN classifier on one artificial task and one acoustic diagnosis experiment with the conclusion that the genetic programming is an effective tool for the feature extraction task.

In this paper, GP is employed to generate a single nonlinear feature to improve the classification accuracy for breast cancer diagnosis. As a machine learning method, GP exhibits intelligent behaviour to perform feature generation. During the evolutionary process, a new fitness function is developed to evaluate the effectiveness of each feature in helping GP select the best features by which the patterns from benign are well separated from patterns from malignant.

This paper is organized as follows: The data preparation of breast cancer is addressed in Section 2. Section 3 presents the proposed feature generator using genetic programming. Two kernel feature extraction methods kernel principal component analysis (KPCA) and kernel generalized discriminant analysis (KGDA) are briefly presented in section 4. Three classifiers Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP), k -Nearest Neighbor (KNN) and Minimum Distance Classifier (MDC) are presented in section 5. In section 6, a number of experiments for breast cancer detection problems are reported using kernel Principal Component Analysis, kernel Generalized Discriminant Analysis extracted features and GP generated feature. Finally, based on the experimental results, conclusions on this proposed method are presented in section 7.

2 THE PROBLEM

It is of prime importance to be able to detect the breast cancer in early stages. In this paper, the Wisconsin diagnostic breast cancer (WDBC) dataset from the UCI Machine Learning repository (D.J. Newman and Merz, 1998) is used to examine the capability of GP for the breast cancer detection problem.

2.1 Image Preparation

The Wisconsin diagnostic breast cancer (WDBC) dataset was created by Wolberg et al., University of Wisconsin (Street et al., 1993). The diagnosis procedure begins by obtaining a small drop of fluid from a breast tumour using a fine needle. The image for digital analysis is generated by JVC TK-1070 colour video camera mounted atop an Olympus microscope and the image is projected into the camera with a

$63 \times$ objective and a $2.5 \times$ ocular. The image is captured by a ComputerEyes/RT colour frame grabber board (Digital Vision, Inc., Dedham MA 02026) as a 512×480 , 8-bit-per-pixel Targa file.

2.2 Data Preparation

An active model located in the actual boundary of cell nucleus is defined as a snake. The ten different features from the snake-generated cell nuclei boundaries are extracted by following techniques:

- **Radius:** The radius of an individual nucleus is measured by averaging the length of the radial line segments defined by the centroid of the snake and the individual snake points.
- **Perimeter:** The nuclear perimeter is defined by calculating the total distance between the snake points.
- **Area:** The nuclear area is defined by counting the number of pixels on the interior of the snake and adding one-half of the pixels in the perimeter.
- **Compactness:** The $perimeter^2/area$ is used as the compactness of the cell nuclei.
- **Smoothness:** The smoothness of a nuclear contour is quantified by measuring of difference between the length of a radial line and the mean length of the lines surrounding it.
- **Concavity:** Concavity is defined as the severity of indentations in a cell nucleus. For a line connecting any two non-adjacent snake points, if the actual boundary drop inside the line, an indentation occurs and the distance to the line is a measure of the severity.
- **Concave Points:** This feature is similar to Concavity but measures only the number, rather than the magnitude, of contour concavities.
- **Symmetry:** The length difference between lines perpendicular to the major axis to the cell boundary in both directions is defined as symmetry.
- **Fractal Dimension:** The fractal dimension is an indication of the regularity of the nucleus. Higher values of the downward slopes of the coastlines correspond to less regular contour and vice-versa.
- **Texture:** The texture of the cell nucleus is defined by finding the variance of the gray scale intensities in the component pixels.

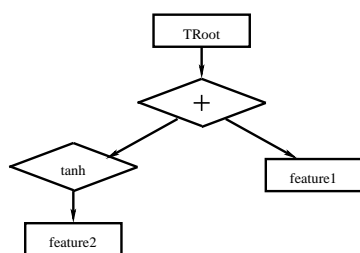


Figure 1: Tree Representation.

The mean value, largest value and standard error of each feature are computed for each image. A set of 569 images has been processed, yielding a database of 30-dimensional points (Street et al., 1993). In this paper, we randomly selected, without replacement, 100 samples for benign case, and 100 samples for malignant case respectively. Two 30×200 matrices are obtained for training and test datasets. One of them as the training dataset forms the terminator set to the GP. Another matrix is used as the test dataset. For each given pattern vector of training and test datasets, a corresponding vector is created in a matrix containing the target information.

3 GENETIC PROGRAMMING-BASED FEATURE GENERATOR

In this paper, we introduce a new method for a feature generator based on GP, for breast cancer detection problem. Genetic Programming, as a form of evolutionary algorithm and an extension of genetic algorithms, extracts the information from the real-valued parameter vector to create features based on the evolutionary algorithm. The surviving feature from the feature generator will be used to provide the solution to pattern recognition problems.

3.1 The Representation of Each Individual

Since expressions can be represented as trees ordered by operator precedence, GP systems in this paper evolve programs using tree representation. Each member can be written as a polynomial expression consisting of several non-linear functions up to a maximum specified depth. Using this function, each individual in the population is a mathematical formula that transforms the time series signals into a feature data. Formula $TRoot = \tanh(feature1) + feature2$ can be represented by the Fig. 1.

3.2 Process of Genetic Programming

The GP-based feature extractor is used to extract useful information from the thirty features of breast cancer dataset in order to provide discriminating input features for the classifiers. The purpose of GP is to try to maximise the extra information content in the sample of the original feature set, and it implicitly maximises the separation between benign condition and malignant condition within the data. The evolutionary process of GP-based feature generation system is described by following steps. First, an initial population with a chosen number of individuals is generated on a random basis, meaning that there is no human influence or bias in the generation of original features. Original feature set are fed as the inputs to the initial population. Each individual represents a transformation network, which tries to transform dataset into information for classification.

In terms of the usefulness of each individual for classification, a fitness value is assigned to each individual by fitness function. The members with the best fitness values survive from the current generation and will be chosen as the origins of the next generation. In our design, only the elite will survive the natural selection. This mechanism allows the feature to evolve in a direction towards the best classification performance, thus achieving the automatic generation of features. At the beginning of the next generation, three operations - reproduction, crossover and mutation - are conducted to produce new members based on the surviving member. If the termination criterion is met, the best solution is preserved.

3.3 Fitness Function

The fitness function is one of the most important components. It determines the performance of the GP system. A good fitness function provides an improved solution by rating the performance of each member and giving the stronger one a better chance of surviving. It is well known that the computational demands are relatively high in training a classifier for each individual when the classification results are used as the fitness value for breast cancer diagnosis problem. Hence in this study it is decided that classification results are not used as a measure of fitness. This decision reduces the computational complexity of the proposed method significantly.

Within the one-dimensional effective feature space, the achievable classification success is dependent upon the overlapping areas between classes. Usually, a threshold is set within the area to separate data belonging to different classes. However, it

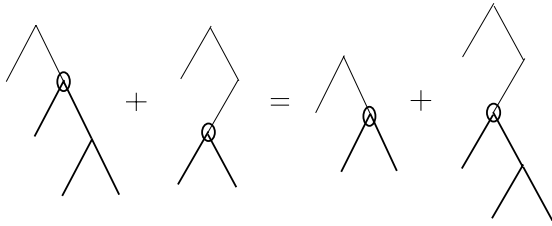


Figure 2: Crossover operation

is inevitable that some data points are misclassified. Apparently the smaller the overlapping area, by the smaller number of data points within the overlapping area, the higher is the classification success. This rule is explored in our fitness function to reveal quickly and effectively the discriminating ability of the candidate features. Specifically, the higher boundary of the lower class and the lower boundary of the higher class are calculated. The number of data points present within these two boundaries are found out and then normalised by the total number of data points. A small percentage of the overlapping points is an indication how well the two classes can be separated.

3.4 Primitive Operations

Genetic programming evolves tree individuals representing possible solutions to the problem at hand. A population of such individuals is randomly created and then evolved by probability of genetic operations:

- **Crossover:** GP carries out a crossover operation to create new individuals with a probability P_c , which controls the occurrence of the crossover throughout generations. Two new individuals are generated by selecting compatible nodes randomly from each parent and swapping them, as illustrated in Fig. 2.
- **Mutation:** The mutation operation is performed by the creation of a subtree at a randomly selected node with the probability P_m . First, for a given parent, there is an index assigned to each node for identification. A random index number is generated to indicate the place where mutation will happen. The node is located, then the tree downstream from this node is deleted and a new subtree is generated from this node (see Fig. 3), exactly in the same way as growing initial population.
- **Reproduction:** The reproduction operation is performed by copying individuals to the next population without any change in terms of a certain probability P_r .

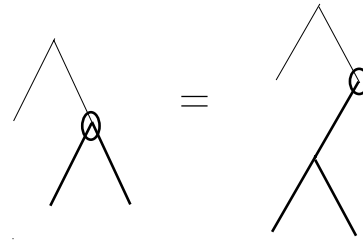


Figure 3: Mutation operation.

Table 1: The Operator sets for the GP.

Symbol	No. of Inputs	Description
+, -	2	Addition, Subtraction
*, /	2	Multiplication, Division
square, sqrt	1	Square, Square Root
sin, cos	1	Trigonometric functions
asin, acos	1	Trigonometric functions
tan, tanh	1	Trigonometric functions
reciprocal	1	Reciprocal
log	1	Natural Logarithm
abs, negator	1	Absolute, Change Sign

All these three operations happen within one generation based on three probabilities, such that:

$$P_c + P_m + P_r = 1 \quad (1)$$

3.5 Primitive Terminators

Terminators act as the interface between GP and the experimental dataset. They are required to collect related information as much as possible from the original feature set and to provide inputs to the feature generator. In our GP-based feature extractor, the terminator set is constructed by thirty original feature set (see Section 2) and some numerical values, which are randomly generated at the construction cycle of new individuals. These numerical values could be either integer or floating point numbers, both ranging from 1 to 100.

3.6 Primitive Operators

One of the main building blocks of the GP is the operator pool. The functions stored in the pool are mathematical operators that perform an operation on one or more inputs to give an output result. Table 1 lists the mathematical functions used as operators in this paper.

4 KERNEL FEATURE EXTRACTION METHODS

In recent years, kernel-based methods are becoming popular for their ability to solving nonlinear problems. It is first applied to overcome the computational and statistical difficulty of SVM classifier for seeking an optimal separating hyperplane in the feature space (E. Osuna et al., 1997). It is demonstrated to be able to represent complicated nonlinear relationship of the input data efficiently.

The Kernel Principal Component Analysis (KPCA) and Kernel Generalised Discriminant Analysis (KGDA) are two independent nonlinear feature extraction/selection methods, both of which perform the mapping in the feature space F with kernel functions and use a linear analysis algorithm to discover patterns in the kernel-defined space. The mapping function Φ is defined implicitly by specifying the form of the dot product in the feature space (Scholkopf et al., 1998).

4.1 Kernel Principal Component Analysis

Kernel PCA is the non-linear extension of the PCA in a kernel-defined feature space making use of the dual representation (Shawe-Taylor and Cristianini, 2004).

Given a set of observations $\{\vec{x}_i \in R^n : i = 1 \text{ to } N\}$, we first map the data into a feature space F and compute the covariance matrix (Muller et al., 2001):

$$C = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \Phi(x_j) \Phi(x_j)^T \quad (2)$$

The $N \times N$ Kernel Matrix is defined as,

$$K_{ij} := \Phi(\vec{x}_i) \bullet \Phi(\vec{x}_j) = K(\vec{x}_i, \vec{x}_j); \quad i, j = 1, \dots, N \quad (3)$$

The data need to be centred in the mapped feature space F

$$\tilde{K}_{ij} \equiv \tilde{\Phi}(\vec{x}_i) \bullet \tilde{\Phi}(\vec{x}_j) = K_{ij} - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{p=1}^N K_{ip} - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{q=1}^N K_{qj} + \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{p,q=1}^N K_{pq} \quad (4)$$

Now the eigenvalue problem for the expansion coefficients α_i is solely dependent on the kernel function,

$$\lambda \alpha = \tilde{K} \alpha \quad (5)$$

Projects the mapped pattern $\Phi(x)$ onto V^k to extract features of new dataset x with kernel PCA.

$$(V^k \cdot \Phi(x)) = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i^k (\Phi(x_i) \cdot \Phi(x)) = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i^k K(x_i, x) \quad (6)$$

4.2 Kernel Generalized Discriminant Analysis (KGDA)

KGDA is derived from a linear version of the discriminant analysis, namely, Fisher linear discriminant analysis FLDA. FLDA is designed optimally with its ability to maximise the ratio of within-class scatter and between-class scatter of projected features. For c ($c > 2$) classes, the i th observation vector from the class l is defined by x_{li} , where $1 \leq l \leq c$, $1 \leq i \leq N_l$, and N_l is the number of observations from class l . The within-class covariance matrix is given by

$$S_{\omega} = \sum_{l=1}^c S_l, \quad (7)$$

where

$$S_l = \sum_{i=1}^{N_l} (x_{li} - \mu_l)(x_{li} - \mu_l)^T \quad (8)$$

The between-class covariance matrix is defined by

$$S_b = \sum_{l=1}^c N_l (\mu_l - \mu)(\mu_l - \mu)^T \quad (9)$$

where μ_l is the mean of class l and μ is the global mean.

The idea of KGDA is to solve the problem of FLDA in a kernel feature space, thereby yielding a nonlinear discriminant in the input space. In term of the dot product, the optimisation problem for the KGDA in the feature space can be written as

$$J(\alpha) = \frac{\alpha^T S_b^{\Phi} \alpha}{\alpha^T S_{\omega}^{\Phi} \alpha} \quad (10)$$

where

$$S_b^{\Phi} = \sum_{l=1}^c [k_l k_l^T - k k^T] \quad (11)$$

$$S_{\omega}^{\Phi} = K^2 - \sum_{l=1}^c N_l k_l k_l^T \quad (12)$$

$$k_l = \frac{1}{N_l} \sum_{i=1}^{N_l} K_{ij} \quad i, j = 1, \dots, N_l \quad (13)$$

$$k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N K_{ij} \quad i, j = 1, \dots, N \quad (14)$$

where k_l is the mean vector of kernel matrix of class l , k indicates the global mean vector of kernel matrix of K_{ij} .

The projection of the test dataset x into the discriminant is given by

$$W \cdot \Phi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i k(x_i, x) \quad (15)$$

5 CLASSIFIERS

Three classifiers - Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs), K-Nearest Neighbour (KNN) and Minimum Distance Classifier (MDC) - are employed in this paper to evaluate the discriminating ability of features generated by GP and other kernel feature extraction methods discussed previously.

The Multi-Layer Peceptron (MLP) is chosen here as the structure of the network for its overall performance over other configurations. The MLP used here consists of one hidden layer varying between 1 and 14 neurons and one output layer, with the hidden layer having a logistic activation function and the output layer using a linear activation function. For training procedure, the back propagation algorithm with adaptive learning and momentum is used. The network is trained for 10000 epochs using each feature set.

KNN is a supervised learning algorithm to classify a test object based on majority of K -nearest neighbor category. Given that the version of $K = 1$ is often rather successful (Ripley, 2004). 1-NN is used as the classifier to examine the performance of features in this paper.

MDC is the simplest classification criterion. Basically, the method finds centres of classes and measures distances between these centres and the test data. The distance is defined as a measure of similarity so that the minimum distance indicates the maximum similarity. In this paper, Euclidean distance is used to investigate the capability of any feature extracted by this approach.

6 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

6.1 Feature Generation Result

Fig. 4 is obtained for detection of breast cancer by running GP-based feature extractor with population size 100, maximum tree depth 10 and terminating after the number of generations reaches 5000. Fig. 4 shows the output of a single feature, generated from the original feature set with 30 dimensions, for the training dataset and test dataset respectively. There are 200 examples in total from two conditions, with 100 examples in the benign case and 100 examples in the malignant case. It is clear from Figure 4 that the two conditions are perfectly separated from each other at training dataset, and three examples misclassified in test dataset.

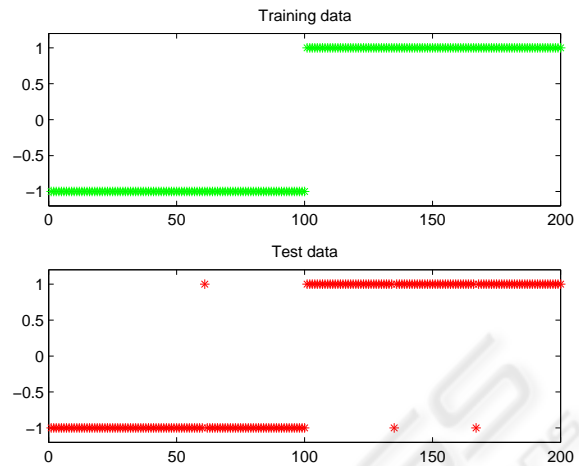


Figure 4: Output of a single feature, generated by GP from the original feature set with 30 dimensional breast cancer data, for the 200 examples in each of the training dataset and test dataset respectively.

6.2 Classification Results

A number of experiments were carried out to evaluate the discriminating ability of features generated by GP and other classical feature extraction methods in term of classification performance using MLP, 1-NN and the simplest classifier MDC respectively. Twenty runs of GP has been conducted for generating features. Also, fifty MLP have conducted using original features and feature extracted by KPCA, KGDA and GP respectively.

Table 2 presents the comparison results of classification success rate using feature set extracted by different method as the inputs to MLP, 1-NN and MDC. It can be seen that the best classification accuracy is achieved by MLP when thirty original features are used as input. One KPCA feature achieved the best 94.5% when MDC is use as the classifier. one KGDA feature with MLP and MDC achieved the same classification results 93.5%. When a GP extracted feature is employed, the improvement is significant compared with other classical feature extraction methods. Together with MLP, KNN and MDC, it performs the best with success rate at 98.5% among all of pattern recognition systems. From the best classification accuracy it can be seen that GP generated features are more robust compared with other methods.

Table 2: The best classification accuracy (%) using original features, one KPCA-extracted features, one KGDA-extracted features and one GP-generated features respectively, with a MLP, a KNN and a MDC classifier respectively on breast cancer dataset.

Classifier	Original Feature	KPCA Feature	KGDA Feature	GP Feature
MLP	97%	90%	93.5%	98.5%
KNN	87.5%	85.5%	93%	98.5%
MDC	84%	94.5%	93.5%	98.5%

7 CONCLUSIONS

It is now clear from Figure 4 that values of the single feature obtained from our proposed method cluster naturally into largely non-overlapping groups. Thus no computationally complex classifier may be needed for successful classification, instead some simple thresholds are enough. Summarizing all the results obtained from different approaches for breast cancer diagnosis problem, it can be said that performances from a single GP-generated feature are the most accurate and reliable in all experiments. From the results of different pattern recognition problems, GP is not only capable of reducing the dimensionality, but also achieving a significant improvement in the classification accuracy. Using the single feature generated by GP makes a significant contribution to the improvement in classification accuracy and robustness, compared with other sets of features extracted by KPCA and KGDA.

Generally in pattern recognition problems, there is a reliance on the classifier to find the discriminating information from a large feature set in case of stand-alone MLP. In this paper, GP as a machine learning method is proposed for nonlinear feature extraction for breast cancer diagnosis. This approach is able to learn directly from the data just like conventional methods (such as FLDA and PCA), but in an evolutionary process. Under this framework, an effective feature can be formed for pattern recognition problems without the knowledge of probabilistic distribution of data.

From the experimental results it can be seen that with the combination of a simple form of classifier MDC, GP outperforms the other two feature extractors which are using more sophisticated classifier MLP, indicating an overwhelming advantage of GP in feature extraction for breast cancer diagnosis.

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