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Predefined attention-focused mechanism using center-environment features: A machine learning study of alloying effects on stability of Nb_5Si_3 alloys

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Abstract:

Digital encoding of material structures using graph-based features combined with deep neural networks often lacks local specificity. Additionally, incorporating a self-attention mechanism increases architectural complexity and demands extensive data. To overcome these challenges, we developed a Center-Environment (CE) feature representation—a less data-intensive, physics-informed predefined attention mechanism. The pre-attention mechanism underlying the CE model shifts attention from complex black-box machine learning (ML) algorithms to explicit feature models with physical meaning, reducing data requirements while enhancing the transparency and interpretability of ML models. This CE-based ML approach was employed to investigate the alloying effects on the structural stability of Nb_5Si_3, with the objective of guiding data-driven compositional design for ultra-high-temperature NbSi superalloys. The CE features leveraged the Atomic Environment Type (AET) method to characterize the local low-symmetry physical environments of atoms. The optimized CE_{AET} models reasonably predicted double-site substitution energies in α-Nb_5Si_3, achieving a mean absolute error (MAE) of 329.43 meV/cell. The robust transferability of the CE_{AET} models was demonstrated by their successful prediction of untrained β-Nb_5Si_3 structures. Site occupancy preferences were identified for B, Si, and Al at Si sites, and for Ti, Hf, and Zr at Nb sites within β-Nb_5Si_3. This CE-based ML approach represents a broadly applicable and intelligent computational design method, capable of handling complex crystal structures with strong transferability, even when working with small datasets.

Keywords: Machine learning, Center-Environment feature engineering, Atomic Environment Type, NbSi-based superalloys, Structural Stability.

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1. Introduction

Nb-Si based superalloys with high melting point and low density are expected to overcome the working temperature barrier of Ni-based superalloys, and have been extensively studied as a new generation of high-temperature structural materials[1]. It contains a large number of high temperature intermetallic compounds Nb_5Si_3, which have high melting point (2520 °C), moderate density (7.16 g/cm^3), high temperature strength and good creep resistance[2,3]. However, single Nb_5Si_3 is brittle at room temperature, which seriously hinders its practical application[3,4]. Nb_5Si_3 has both metal and ceramic properties, and its intrinsic brittleness at room temperature can be improved by alloying elements. Numerous experimental works have shown that adding alloying elements is an effective way to improve the comprehensive performance of Nb-Si alloys[5–10]. The alloying elements that have been reported to be incorporated in NbSi-based alloys encompass a range of metals such as Ti[11], Cr[12], Al[13], Hf[14], Sn, Mo, W[15], V, Ta, Fe, Zr, Ho[16], Sr[17], B[18]. It is time-consuming and labor-intensive only by trail-and-error experiments, while the calculation method based on first-principles can effectively predict the types of alloying elements and provide guidance for alloy composition design.

Chen *et al*.[19] studied the atomic occupation positions of transition group metals in different sublattices of Nb_5Si_3. Their findings indicate that atoms with larger radii than Nb tend to occupy Nb_{II} sites, whereas atoms with smaller radii than Nb tend to occupy Nb_I sites in α-Nb_5Si_3. Xu *et al*.[20] studied the effects of vacancy concentration and Al substitution on the structural, electronic and elastic properties of Nb_5Si_3 by first-principles calculation. Guo *et al*.[21] systematically studied the effect of Ag addition on the structure, mechanical and thermodynamic properties of α-Nb_5Si_3. Tsakiropoulos *et al*.[22] investigated the stability and physical properties of Ti doped α-Nb_5Si_3, β-Nb_5Si_3 and γ-Nb_5Si_3 alloys at different temperatures and concentrations. Xu *et al*.[23] determined the temperature-dependent structural properties and anisotropic thermal expansion coefficients of α-/β-Nb_5Si_3 phases by minimizing the nonequilibrium Gibbs free energy as a function of crystal deformation. Shi *et al*.[24] focused on the effect of alloying elements on the mechanical properties and electronic structure of α-Nb_5Si_3. Kang *et al*.[25] investigated the energy, lattice parameters, electronic structure and elastic constants of Ti, Cr, Al and Hf doping in β-Nb_5Si_3. So far, the first-principles calculations focus on only a few elements and single-site substitution of NbSi-alloys

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limited by cost. It is still far from adequate for screening alloying elements considering the complex phase structure and wide range of alloying elements in multi-component NbSi-based superalloys.

Machine learning as an emerging data-driven research paradigm in materials science has proven to be effective and efficient in characterizing the complex structure-property relationships of materials[26–30]. It is well known that the properties of a material were determined by both its chemical composition and structure, and thus ML features should comprehensively characterize both, rather than focusing only on the composition itself. To this end, Liu's group[31–36] develops a Center-Environment (CE) feature model that integrates both compositional and structural information into ML features by mapping basic physicochemical properties onto a "core-shell" structural framework. The CE feature model takes into account the properties of the ambient atoms surrounding the central atom and quantifies the effect of the environment on the central atom. The CE feature models have been successfully applied to predict a variety of physicochemical properties of spinel oxide[31,36], perovskite oxide[32,35], metals[33] and surface structures[34], including formation energies, lattice parameters, band gaps, surface adsorption energies, and overpotentials for surface oxygen reactions.

In this study, the Nb_5Si_3 crystal structure exhibits low symmetry, possessing four non-equivalent sites and a slightly distorted local environment. The traditional method of defining nearest neighbor (NN) environment atoms encounters difficulties for local low-symmetry distorted configuration, as these environment atoms were not easily predetermined under different truncation conditions. Simply increasing the number of NN environment atoms does not necessarily improve the accuracy of the prediction, but may instead introduce redundant information with redundant negative effects. This is because CE is essentially a localized feature representation, and too large a truncation range may interfere with the accuracy of other localized CE atom sets. Therefore, a proper general definition of the environment atoms becomes particularly important when constructing CE features, especially for complex crystal structures. This is the main driver of the methodological development in this work. The broader impact of this work is that it provides an alternative to current graph-based neural network methods, which have been limited in their application in materials science due to their complex architecture and the need for large amounts of training data[37–40].

The conventional attention mechanism refers to the different weight parameters in the deep neural networks of large language models. The optimization of weights

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requires a large amount of data during the pre-trained stage that is normally not feasibly available in materials science. The CE feature model adopts a novel pre-attention mechanism that defines attention via the explicit feature models with physical meaning rather than the optimization of weights in complex black-box machine learning algorithms. This strategy can decrease data requirements and increase the transparent interpretability of ML models.

Aiming to accelerate the extended studies of new alloying elements and structures, the ML methods were developed in this work based on the previous first-principles computational data[41] to investigate the structural stability properties of the alloyed α-Nb_5Si_3 phases. First, we developed the improved CE feature model, specifically adapted for low-symmetry crystals, by examining the different definitions of environment atoms and weights in the compound feature construction. Then, different ML algorithms were examined to obtain the optimal models of α-Nb_5Si_3 phases. The optimized ML models of α-Nb_5Si_3 were then used without modification to predict the substitution energies in new structures of high-temperature phase β-Nb_5Si_3 that were not included in the original training dataset, partially confirmed further by the first-principles calculations.

2. Models and Methods

2.1 Training dataset

The training dataset are built based on the first-principles calculations on the alloyed α-Nb_5Si_3[41]. Fig. 1 depicts the experimental structures of α-Nb_5Si_3 (body-centered tetragonal, BCT) crystals with the lattice parameters taken from the Materials Platform for Data Science (MPDS)[42]. The conventional cell of α-Nb_5Si_3 has two inequivalent Nb sites (dubbed Nb_I and Nb_{II}) and two inequivalent Si sites (dubbed Si_I and Si_{II}) for substitutions with alloying elements. In total, the 32-atom conventional cell consists of 20 Nb atoms and 12 Si atoms with four Nb_I, 16 Nb_{II}, 4 Si_I, and 8 Si_{II} atoms, respectively.

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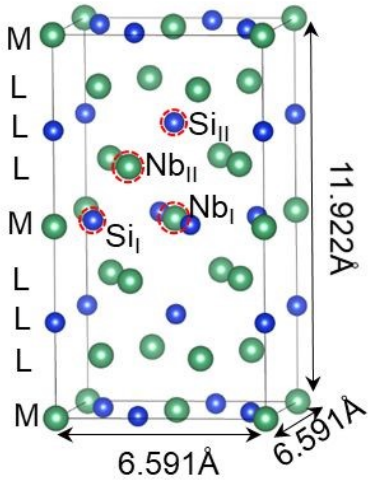

Fig. 1 Conventional cells of α-Nb_5Si_3 (BCT) crystal structures. The lattice parameters and inequivalent atom types are labeled. The stacking order of the atomic layers of α-Nb_5Si_3 is MLLL-MLLL along the longest axis where M and L indicate more closely packed and less closely packed layers, respectively.

Considering the double-site substitutions at the non-equivalent site pairs with 14 alloying elements, we collected 3528 double-site substitution energies (E_{DS}) data in α-Nb_5Si_3 phase from the literature[41]. We also calculated the incremental single-site substitution energy (E_{SS}) in the cases of double-site substitution and the local bond length change <Δd> as defined in Text S1 of Supplementary Materials (SM). The term "substitution energy" denotes the energy change associated with the replacement of alloying constituents. It is characterized as an incremental formation energy, measuring the stabilities of the site and phase occupancy of alloying elements. The configurations of the studied substitution pair sites were depicted in Fig. S1 for α-Nb_5Si_3. The statistics of the numbers of corresponding substitution systems were listed in Table S1. Fig. S2 (a-c) shows the statistical distributions of the target property data in α-Nb_5Si_3 that all satisfy the gaussian distributions. Fig. S3 indicates the 14 substitution alloying elements in the periodic table.

2.2 Center-Environment feature model

The CE features, which encode local structural and compositional information, have been proven effective in the study of alloys, oxides, and surface catalysis reactions[31–34]. Considering the complex substitutional structure and lower symmetry of Nb_5Si_3 alloys, this study employs a CE feature model based on composition-structure characteristics. The CE feature model can be described as an (n+1)-dimensional

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composite feature vector, as follows:

$$D = [D_1, \ldots, D_i, \ldots, D_n, f], \text{(e.g., } n = 20 \text{ in this work)} \quad (1)$$

D consists of a set of n elementary features of element (D_i) and the target property f. D_i is a two-dimensional vector of the ith elementary property including the center and environment components defined as follows:

$$D_i = [d_{C,i}, d_{E,i}], i = 1, 2, \ldots, n \quad (2)$$

$$d_{C,i} = p_{C,i} \quad (3)$$

$$d_{E,i} = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \omega_{E,j} p_{E,j,i} \quad (4)$$

$$\omega_{E,j} = \frac{r_j^m}{\sum_{j=1}^{N} r_j^m} (m = -1, -\frac{1}{2}) \quad (5)$$

where C and E represent the center atoms and environment atoms, respectively; i is the elementary property index and j is the index of environment atoms. $p_{C,i}$ is the i-th elementary property of the center atom; $p_{E,j,i}$ is the i-th property of the j-th environment atom around the center atom; $\omega_{E,j}$ denotes the normalized weight of elementary properties as functions of distance r_j between the center atom and the j-th environment atom. The weight is inversely proportional to the distance as r_j^m (m = -1, -1⁄2) where different powers m was studied and compared in this work.

It is well known that feature engineering determines the accuracy of ML modeling [31,43–46]. The CE features were compound features consisting of an assembly of elementary property features encoded with local structural information specified by the center and environment atoms: (1) Elementary property features are various elementary physicochemical properties readily available from the fundamental database[47], e.g., atomic mass, radius, electronegativity, and the number of valence electrons of elements as well as density, melting temperature, and bulk modulus of pure substance among others. In total 40 elementary properties were adopted in the feature construction as listed in Table S2. (2) Compound property features are constructed by a linear combination of the elementary properties of the center atom or the environment atoms with weights inversely proportional to the distance between the center atom and the environment atom (r_j^m, m = -1, -1⁄2). The exponent m in the decay function measures how quickly environmental effects diminish with distance. By this way, CE features can encode the elementary properties with the local composition and structure information, providing a general digital representation of materials structure.

The design concepts of CE model include:

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(1) Localized focus: CE features explicitly define the interaction weights between the central atom and its neighboring environment through the Atomic Environment Type (AET) method. The pre-defined attention via "core-shell" configuration allows the accurate local representation without the needs of a large amount of data for global representation.

(2) Distance-weighted interactions: By employing decay functions based on interatomic distances, the CE method pre-define the weight allocation process reflecting center-environment interactions. The reciprocal distance dependent decay function can be attributed to the electrostatic interaction of Coulomb's law.

In contrast to the CE feature models, the Chemical Composition (CC) feature models focus solely on chemical composition without considering structural information. The construction of CC feature is similar to that of CE except that the weight r_j^m ($m = 0$) is independent of distance (see more details in Text S2).

2.3 Machine learning algorithms and evaluation

For this study, machine learning uses the Support Vector Regression (SVR) algorithm with an isotropic radial basis function (RBF)[48] kernel, and the Random Forest algorithm (RF)[49], both efficiently implemented via Python's Scikit-learn library. To enhance model performance, we meticulously fine-tuned the hyperparameters of both SVR and RF using a grid search approach. The optimized hyperparameters are listed in Table S3, with corresponding discussions and analyses elaborated in Text S3.

First, we executed a randomized split of the entire original dataset into a training set and a test set with an 8:2 ratio. The training set then underwent 20 iterations of 5-fold cross-validation, with each fold adhering to the 8:2 partition ratio. The test set, comprising 20% of the original data, was independently retained to evaluate the performance of the trained ML models, ensuring it was not utilized during the training stage. To evaluate the performance of the regression models, the statistical metrics used were correlation coefficient (R^2), mean absolute error (MAE) and root mean square error (RMSE). These evaluation metrics were defined below:

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{j=0}^{n-1}(\hat{y}_j - y_j)^2}{\sum_{j=0}^{n-1}(\bar{y}_j - y_j)^2} \quad (6)$$

$$E_{MAE} = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{j=1}^{n}\left|y_j - \hat{y}_j\right| \quad (7)$$

$$E_{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{j=1}^{n}(y_j - \hat{y}_j)^2} \quad (8)$$

where n is the number of samples; y_j is the true value; $\hat{y}_j$ is the predicted value; $\bar{y}_j$

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is the mean of predicted values.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Machine learning models

3.1.1 CE_{NN} and CE_{AET} feature models

The CE feature model essentially provides a center and environment framework of encoding local composition and structure information of materials. The center atoms are normally the focused atoms, e.g., the substitution alloying elements at the non-equivalent sites Nb_I, Nb_{II}, Si_I, and Si_{II} of α-Nb_5Si_3 in this work. It is physically necessary to consider the effects of environment atoms on the center atoms. The definition of environment atoms is critical to the appropriate representation of local chemical and structural information. To explore the impact of the environment atoms on the performance of ML-CE models, we developed two construction methods of environment atoms described as follows.

(I) Nearest neighbor (dubbed CE_{NN}) feature model. For crystalline materials with high symmetry, such as FCC or BCC structures, the selection of environment atoms based on the distances from the center atom to its surroundings is inherently straight forward. In this model, environmental atoms are defined as the *n*th-nearest neighbors to the central atom. The environmental atoms in the alloyed α-Nb_5Si_3 systems were identified up to the fifth nearest neighbors, with a distinction at the Nb_{II} center atom of α-Nb_5Si_3, where the inclusion extended to the 10th nearest neighbors.

(II) Atomic Environment Type (dubbed CE_{AET}) feature model. For crystal structures with low symmetry, e.g., α-Nb_5Si_3, the distance based cutoff definition is no longer appropriate to describe the environment. Therefore, this work employs a physics-based definition of the atomic environment to construct the CE features, utilizing the concept of AET proposed by Villars[50] for classification of inorganic compounds. The AET represents a complete enclosed physical shell surrounding the central atom based on the geometric topology rather than just distance cutoffs. To qualify as AET environmental atoms, two rules must be satisfied: the maximum distance gap (MDG) and the convex volume (CV). The MDG rule requires that AET atoms have the maximum gap in the nearest-neighbor histogram (NNH), which is a plot of the number (n) of certain interatomic distances (d) as a function of the normalized distances(d/d_{min}) between the central atom and surrounding atoms. The second CV rule

mandates that AET atoms must enclose a convex polyhedral shape. Fig. 2 depict the AET cluster models and their NNHs with the centers of non-equivalent sites in α-Nb_5Si_3. Fig. 2 shows the AET cluster models around the four non-equivalent sites of α-Nb_5Si_3: Nb_I (CN= 14, code:$8^{0.3}6^{0.4}$), Nb_{II} (CN= 16, code: $12^{5.0}4^{6.0}$), Si_I (CN= 9, code: $3^{4.0}6^{5.0}$), and Si_{II} (CN= 10, code: $8^{5.0}2^{4.0}$) where CN represents coordination number. The AET code encodes the structure's topology by listing the counts of polygons (triangles, squares, pentagons, hexagons) at each vertex. For example, in Fig. 2(a), a CN of 14 is the sum of 8 and 6, indicating 8 vertices connected to 3 squares and 6 to 4 squares, with no triangles. This scheme effectively quantifies local polygonal arrangements and coordination environments, offering a detailed topological characterization. The local atomic structures of α-Nb_5Si_3 exhibit low symmetry as indicated by the distorted polyhedron. For example, the AET cluster around Nb_{II} site has up to the 9th nearest neighbor atoms with a maximum distance gap from the 10th nearest neighbor atoms by counting the distributions in nearest-neighbor histogram (NNH) in Fig. 2(b). The numbers of AET atoms vary depending on the local symmetry so it is hard to predefine the *n*th nearest neighbors without careful check in advance. The inappropriate choice

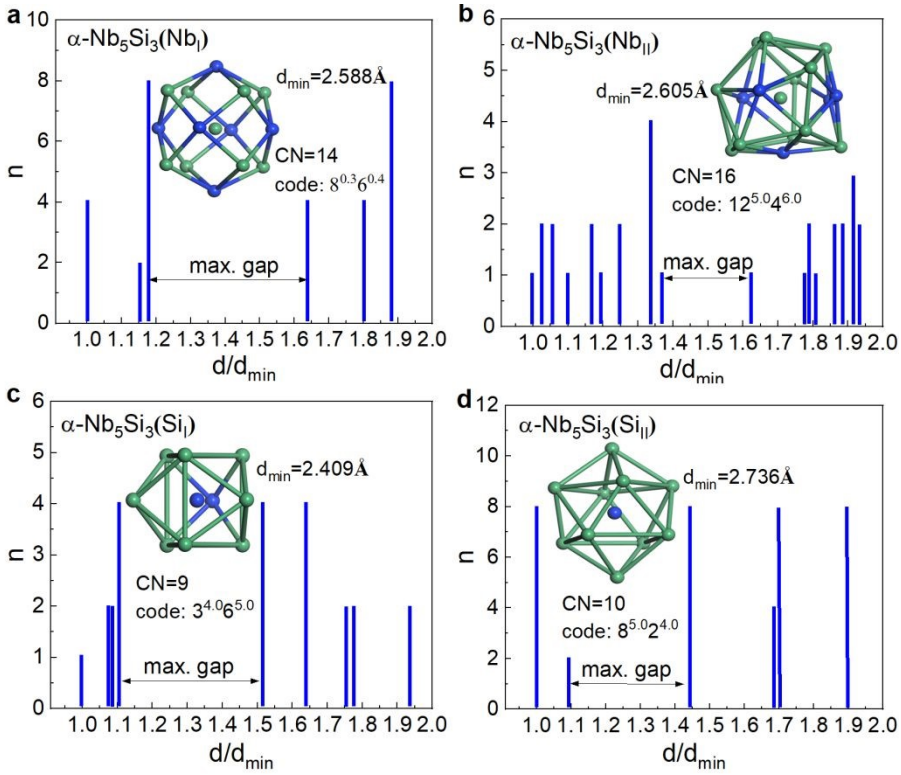

Fig. 2 Nearest-neighbor histogram (NNH) of α-Nb_5Si_3 around the four non-equivalent sites: **a** Nb_I (CN= 14, code: $8^{0.3}6^{0.4}$), **b** Nb_{II} (CN= 16, code: $12^{5.0}4^{6.0}$), **c** Si_I (CN= 9, code: $3^{4.0}6^{5.0}$), **d** Si_{II} (CN= 10, code: $8^{5.0}2^{4.0}$). The insets are the Atomic Environment Type (AET) cluster models (Nb atoms in green and Si atoms in blue).

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of the *n*th nearest neighbors as the environment atoms will lead to an incomplete or redundant shell atoms and physically less meaningful features in the CE feature construction. The performance of ML models using CE_{NN} and CE_{AET} features will be evaluated and compared later.

3.1.2 Performance evaluation of various ML models

To compare the prediction accuracy of different ML models, we show the performance metrics of the CE_{NN}, $CE_{AET,}$ and CC feature models with different weights and parameter settings of various algorithms for α-Nb_5Si_3 in Table S4-S10 and Fig. S4-S7.

The SVR algorithm (Fig. 3) exhibited generally more accurate prediction by ~100-200 meV/cell than the RF algorithm with all studied features so that the SVR results were mainly used for discussion. The CE feature models (Table S4, S5) performed much better than the composition CC models (Table S6), indicating that the inclusion of structural information into the feature construction via CE framework is critical to describing the complex crystal structures by ML methods. Furthermore, the CE_{AET} models using the AET environment atoms had better prediction accuracy than the CE_{NN} models using the nearest-neighbor atoms even though more atoms may be included in the latter cases (Fig. 3). This suggests that the physically closed shell is more appropriate to define ML features than the distance-based cutoff selection possibly with either insufficient or redundant environment atoms. Comparison among the CE_{AET} feature models, the weight r_j^{-1} performs mostly better than $r_j^{-1/2}$(Fig. 3), indicating that the linear combination of elementary property features with the weight of reciprocal distance is a reasonable choice probably due to the scaling law of long-range electrostatic interactions in Coulomb's law. Based on the comparisons above, the

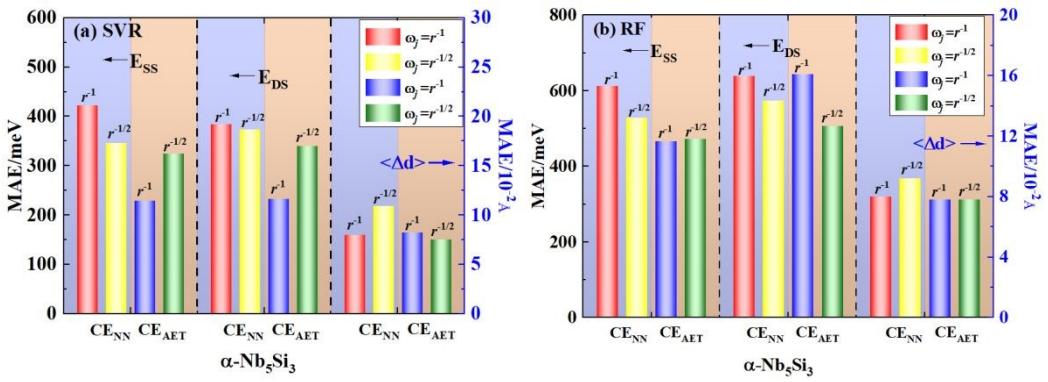

Fig. 3 MAE of prediction of α-Nb_5Si_3 by the SVR and RF methods using CE_{NN} and CE_{AET} feature models with different weights r_j^m (m = -1, - 1/2).

CE_{AET}-SVR models with weight $w_j = 1/r$ were mainly used to predict the target properties (E_{SS}, E_{DS}, and <Δd>) of new datasets in α-Nb_5Si_3 hereafter. Although the other algorithms like GBR, LGBM, and XGB achieve high accuracy with limited samples (Table S11), their predictions are still less precise than SVR. In cross-validation, SVR shows better generalization, likely due to its kernel function's suitability for high-dimensional small data.

Table 1 shows the prediction results of different ML models for the substitution energies at the four nonequivalent sites (Nb_I, Nb_{II}, Si_I, and Si_{II}) of α-Nb_5Si_3 in the independent test datasets. Comparing the ML results of four non-equivalent sites substitutions, it is found that the graph-based deep learning model 3D-ELAN and the non-deep learning model CE_{AET}-SVR achieved $<R^2>$ values both higher than 0.9. Specifically, the <MAE> values predicted by the 3D-ELAN model for the substitution energies of the four non-equivalent sites of α-Nb_5Si_3 are 248.80 meV, 307.60 meV, 419.20 meV, and 301.20 meV per supercell, respectively. The prediction had very large errors using the other popular graph-based feature models including GCN, GAT, and ALIGNN. In contrast, the optimal non-deep machine learning model, CE_{AET}-SVR, have

Table 1 Prediction performances of substitution energies of α-Nb_5Si_3 alloys using CE features model and other deep machine learning models in the literatures.

Models	Performance metric	Non-equivalent sites				All sites
		Nb_I	Nb_{II}	Si_I	Si_{II}	
GCN[32]	$<R^2>$	0.64	0.49	0.67	0.52	—
	<RMSE>(meV)	943.60	999.01	956.80	973.30	—
	<MAE>(meV)	644.80	513.00	625.10	681.00	—
GAT[33]	$<R^2>$	0.27	0.45	0.04	0.04	—
	<RMSE>(meV)	1321.40	1031.70	1620.20	1377.20	—
	<MAE>(meV)	1059.70	727.01	1330.31	1108.82	—
ALIGNN[34]	$<R^2>$	-0.03	0.10	0.12	0.11	—
	<RMSE>(meV)	1573.30	1317.90	1553.01	1334.10	—
	<MAE>(meV)	1275.50	1075.60	1264.32	1040.50	—
3D-ELAN	$<R^2>$	0.96	0.93	0.94	0.90	—
	<RMSE>(meV)	336.50	394.70	584.10	428.30	—
	<MAE>(meV)	248.80	307.60	419.20	301.20	—
CE_{AET}-RF	$<R^2>$	0.85	0.82	0.95	0.92	0.81
	<RMSE>(meV)	591.56	574.10	449.18	459.25	780.35
	<MAE>(meV)	391.11	454.11	347.70	359.95	578.16
CE_{AET}-SVR	$<R^2>$	0.96	0.97	0.98	0.99	0.93
	<RMSE>(meV)	263.89	271.01	268.80	115.34	465.83
	<MAE>(meV)	137.95	177.35	174.86	71.39	329.43

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the best performance with <MAE> values of 137.95, 177.35, 174.86, and 71.39 meV/cell for the same substitution energies.

Based on the prediction of the four non-equivalent sites, we further modeled and predicted the substitution energies for all sites in α-Nb_5Si_3. The results indicated that the non-deep machine learning model CE_{AET}-SVR outperformed CE_{AET}-RF, with predicted <MAE> values of 329.43 and 578.16 meV/cell, respectively. Notably, the errors for the four inequivalent sites are larger than any single substitution site because of the different center-environment configurations. The hundreds of meV is of MAE is larger than conventional formation energies of bulk crystal because the prediction of diverse local substitutions in this work is much more challenging than traditional studies of global substitution in bulk crystals.

3.2 Construction of machine learning models in α-Nb_5Si_3

In the crystal structure of α-Nb_5Si_3, the four non-equivalent sites, Nb_I, Nb_{II}, Si_I, and Si_{II}, have different AET environment atoms, so we constructed the machine learning models for the substitution systems at the four non-equivalent sites, respectively.

Fig. 4 shows the E_{SS}, E_{DS}, and <Δd> of the α-Nb_5Si_3 substitution systems at the four non-equivalent sites Nb_I, Nb_{II}, Si_I, Si_{II}, and all sites predicted by the optimal CE_{AET}-SVR models compared with the DFT results.

The predictive performance across different sites in α-Nb_5Si_3 shows high accuracy, with R^2 values generally above 0.9 and low <MAE> and <RMSE>, indicating reliable energy predictions (Fig. 5). The models trained on a common feature set, incorporating different AET environments, demonstrate the broad applicability of the CE approach, though accuracy diminishes with increased system complexity. Overall, the substitution elements have minimal impact on local bond distances, with <Δd> remaining below 10^{-2} Å, suggesting that local structural variations are subtle across different substitution scenarios.

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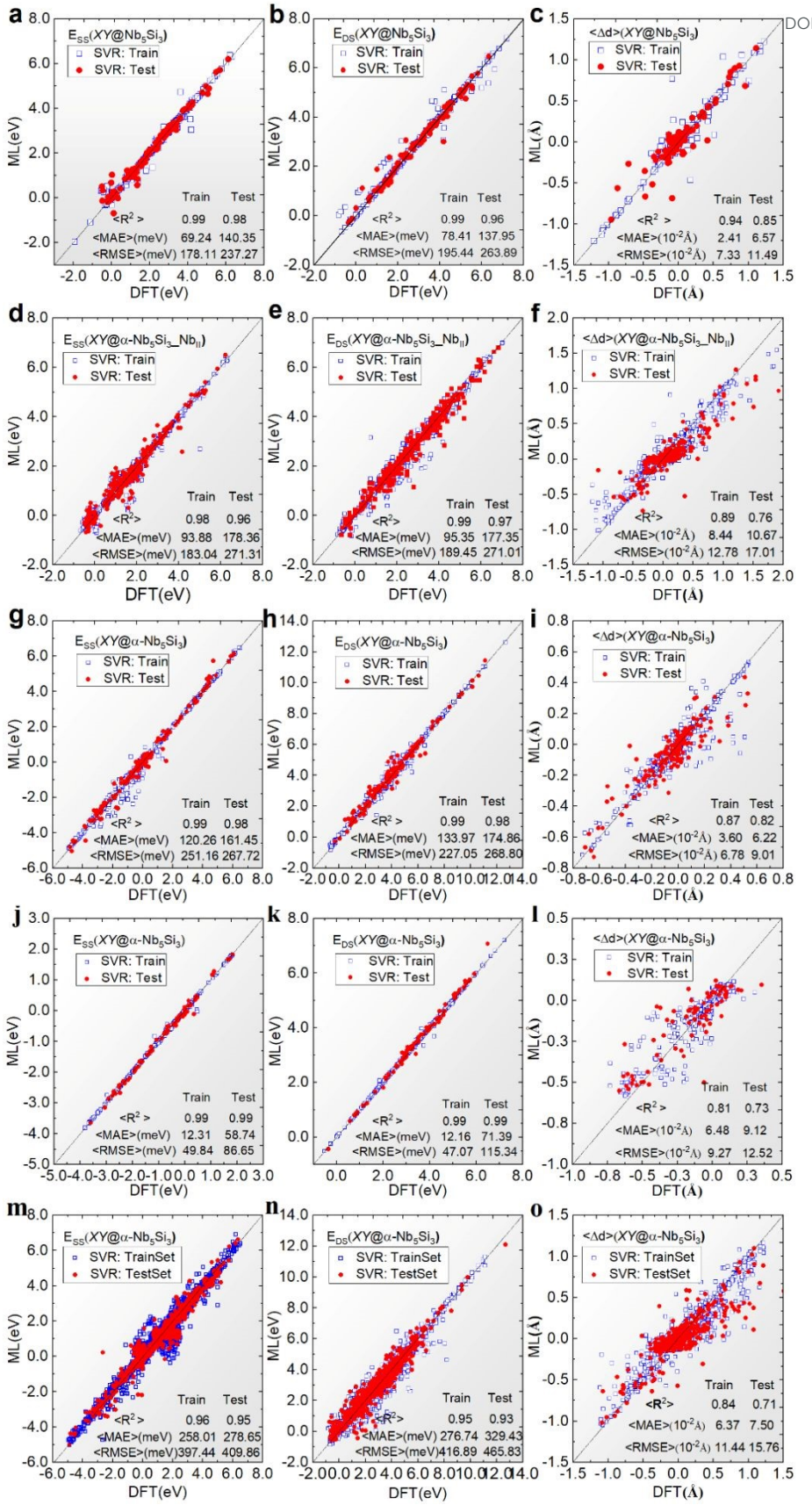

Fig. 4 E_{SS}, E_{DS}, and <Δd> of the α-Nb_5Si_3 substitution systems at the four non-equivalent sites (a-c) Nb_I, (d-f) Nb_{II}, (g-i) Si_I, (j-l) Si_{II}, and (m-o) all sites predicted by the CE_{AET}-SVR models compared with the DFT results.

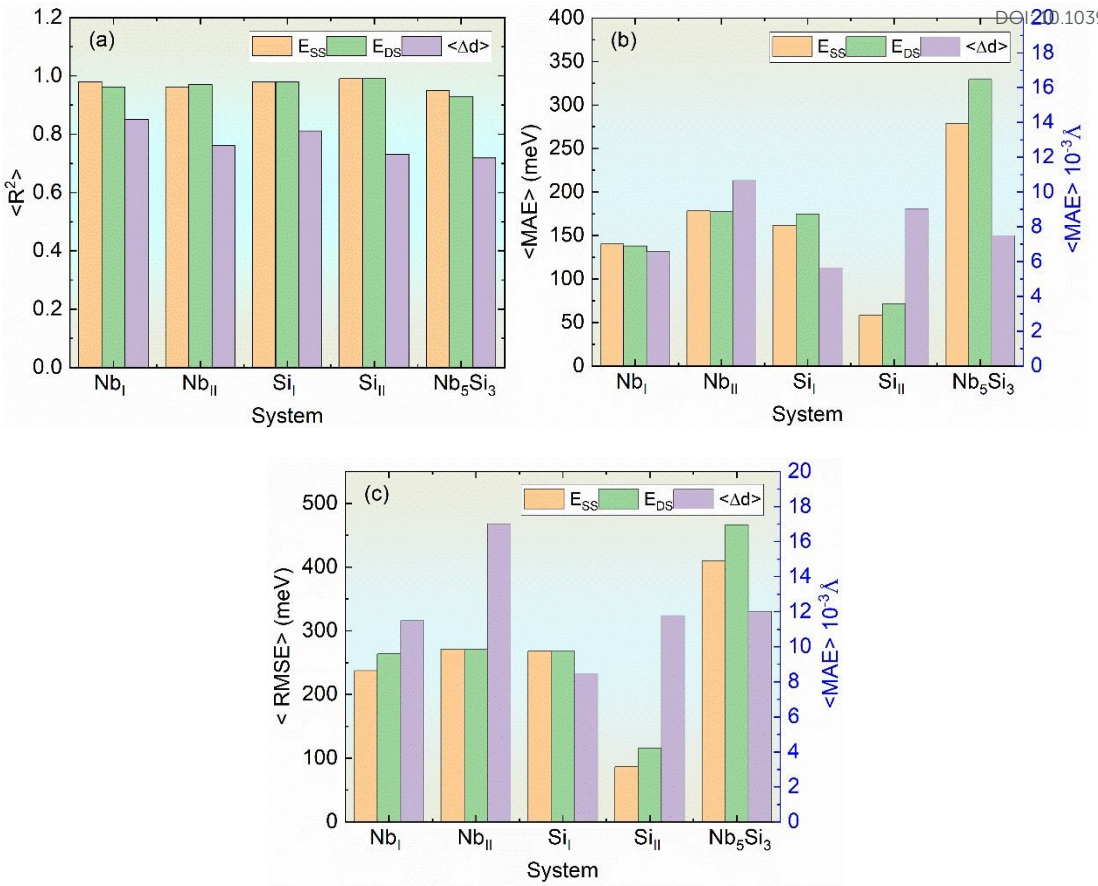

Fig. 5 Comparison of ML errors at different sites in α-Nb_5Si_3: (a) <R²>, (b) <RMSE>, and (c) <MAE>.

To understand the site dependence of substitution energies, we plot the heat maps of the double-site substitution energy E_{DS} projection on the substitution pair sites. The distribution patterns of substitution energy predicted by the ML are very similar to those of DFT, confirming the reliability of the ML predictions. Such site-energy heat maps help to find the stabilized element pairs quickly. Figures S8-S11 show the heat maps of the E_{DS} projection on different site pairs containing the non-equivalent sites Nb_I, Nb_{II}, Si_I, and Si_{II} in α-Nb_5Si_3, respectively. The ML predicted distribution patterns are consistent with DFT. The B, Al, and Si elements preferred to occupy the Si sites, while Ti, Nb, Hf, and Zr tend to occupy Nb sites in α-Nb_5Si_3. In summary, the machine learning method was validated against DFT and can be used to find new favorable stabilized alloying elements in NbSi-based superalloys next.

To enhance the interpretability and physical significance of the machine learning (ML) model, we employed SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanations) methodology to analyze the contribution levels and influence trends of critical features in the optimal

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ML model predicting dual-site substitution energy (E_{DS}) for Nb_5Si_3 superalloys. Fig. S12 presents the SHAP analysis of E_{DS} in α-Nb_5Si_3. The feature importance ranking by SHAP values [Fig. S12(a)] reveals the top five most influential features: PN_C, BM_C, TN_C, EC_E, and DV_E. As detailed in Table S2, these features correspond to cohesive energy (EC), bulk modulus (BM), period number (PN), distance-valence moment (DV), and thermal neutron capture cross-section (TN), demonstrating their critical roles in the α-Nb_5Si_3 model. Notably, all significant features originate from contributions of both central and environmental atoms. For fundamental properties of the same type, environmental atomic features depend simultaneously on elemental identity and spatial distance, while central atomic features in the CE framework solely depend on element type. This highlights the necessity of differentiating central and environmental atomic characteristics in feature construction for complex crystal structures. Furthermore, the α-Nb_5Si_3 system requires structure-dependent environmental atomic features beyond basic chemical composition.

The SHAP value distributions [Fig. S12(b)] qualitatively illustrate the qualitative trends of feature impacts on substitution energy. In the α-Nb_5Si_3 model, PN_C, BM_C, and TN_C exhibit positive correlations with substitution energy, whereas EC_E and DV_E show negative correlations. The inverse relationship between cohesive energy (EC) and substitution energy implies that higher cohesive energies correspond to more negative substitution energies. This correlation aligns with fundamental thermodynamic principles, as both increased cohesive energy and negative substitution energy values indicate enhanced system stability. The SHAP analysis in Fig. S12, reveals that the primary features influencing the substitution energy of α-Nb_5Si_3 with dual-site substitution (e.g., PN_C, BM_C) originate from the synergistic contributions of the central and surrounding atoms. Notably, environmental atom features depend on both element type and spatial distance, whereas central atom features are exclusively determined by element type. These findings underscore the critical importance of differentiating atomic roles when constructing features for complex crystal structures.

3.3 Applications of machine learning models

After the construction, comparison, and validation of the ML models discussed above, the optimal CE_{AET}-SVR models with weight $w_j = 1/r$ were selected to study the unknown systems including new alloying elements and matrix alloys that were not in the training datasets. The ML applicability would significantly extend the prediction

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capability and efficiency beyond expensive first-principles computations.

3.3.1 Leave-p-out prediction of new alloying elements

To examine the capability of the ML models to predict the energy and structure of the new alloying elements, we predicted the E_{SS}, $E_{DS,}$ and $<\Delta d>$ for each of the 14 substituted alloying elements in the α-Nb_5Si_3 phases using the leave-p-out cross validation method. The "leave-p-out" tests mean that the p configurations containing the specified type of element are used for independent tests while the others are used for training. The value of p is 486, corresponding to 18 sites with 27 configurations at each site in this work. Specifically, the full datasets containing the 14 elements were split into the test datasets of a target element and the training datasets of the remaining 13 elements. In other words, the ML model trained with the 13-element dataset was used to predict the properties of the 14th element. Such leave-one-out validation procedures were performed for each of the 14 substitution elements. The R^2 and MAE metrics of the leave-one-out ML prediction for the 14 alloying elements in α-Nb_5Si_3 phases are shown in Fig. S13 and Fig. 6.

Fig. S13 shows the performance metrics of E_{DS} in α-Nb_5Si_3 phase predicted by the CE_{AET}-SVR models. The $<R^2>$ of Al, Co, Fe, Mo, Nb, Ti, V, and Y reached 0.86, 0.90, 0.92, 0.87, 0.91, 0.93, 0.86, and 0.86, respectively. The corresponding <MAE> were 555.94, 351.43, 301.23, 483.88, 460.88, 425.88, 518.86, and 648.72 meV/cell, respectively. The other elements had larger <MAE> with $<R^2>$ less than 0.85.

Fig. 6 summarizes the <MAE> of the substitution energies of α-Nb_5Si_3 in the leave-p-out prediction of each of the 14 alloying elements using CE_{AET}-SVR models. In the case of α-Nb_5Si_3 phase, the <MAE> of Fe elements were less than 300 meV/cell, and the <MAE> most elements were in 300~600 meV/cell, e.g. Y, Ti, Zr, V, Nb, Mo, Al, and Co. While the <MAE> of B, Si, Hf, Cr, and Ni elements were greater than 600 meV/cell. It is crucial to bear in mind the prediction errors associated with new elements when applying ML models. Specifically, larger prediction errors primarily involve main group non-metals (B, Si) and elements with larger metallic radii, such as Hf, highlighting their distinct characteristics compared to transition metals. The magnitude of the <MAE> inversely correlates with the compatibility between substitution

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elements and host sites — smaller MAE values indicate reduced discrepancies in physicochemical properties between substituents and their host lattice positions. The divisions of three error bands are used to cover the whole error ranges, which can serve as the quantitative metric of similarities among the various alloying effects.

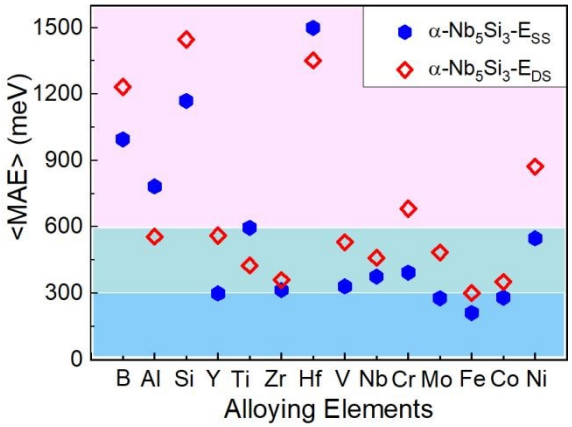

Fig. 6 <MAE> of the substitution energies in the leave-p-out prediction of each of the 14 alloying elements in α-Nb_5Si_3 phase using CE_{AET}-SVR models, respectively. The alloying elements are sorted by the number of valence electrons.

3.3.2 Prediction of new β-Nb_5Si_3 structure beyond training dataset

In the previous Section 3.3.1, we examined the ML predictions on the new substitution alloying elements of the same structures. Now we will examine the predictive capability of ML models on the new structures substituted with the same alloying elements without expensive DFT calculations.

The Nb-Si binary phase diagram shows that α-Nb_5Si_3 is the stable phase at ambient conditions while β-Nb_5Si_3 is more stable at the high-temperature[51]. Prompting α-β phase transition at high-temperature operating conditions may improve the mechanical properties of Nb-Si alloys. Therefore, it is also interesting to find the alloying elements that can stabilize β-Nb_5Si_3 phase. The conventional cell of β-Nb_5Si_3 crystal structure has the lattice constants of a= b= 10.06 Å, c= 5.07 Å (Fig. S14). The β-Nb_5Si_3 exhibits the body-centered tetragonal structure with four non-equivalent sites: Nb_I (CN= 14, code: $12^{5.0}2^{6.0}$), Nb_{II} (CN= 15, code: $12^{5.0}3^{6.0}$), Si_I (CN= 10, code: $2^{4.0}8^{5.0}$), and Si_{II} (CN= 10, code: $3^{4.0}6^{5.0}1^{6.0}$). Fig. 7 shows the NNH and AET cluster models of β-Nb_5Si_3 around the four non-equivalent sites. The local structures of β-Nb_5Si_3 are also complex, e.g., up to the 9th nearest-neighbor atoms are necessary to enclose the first physical shell around Nb_{II} site. The AET type definition of the environment atoms is generally

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applicable to both α-Nb_5Si_3 and β-Nb_5Si_3 despite that their crystal structures are different.

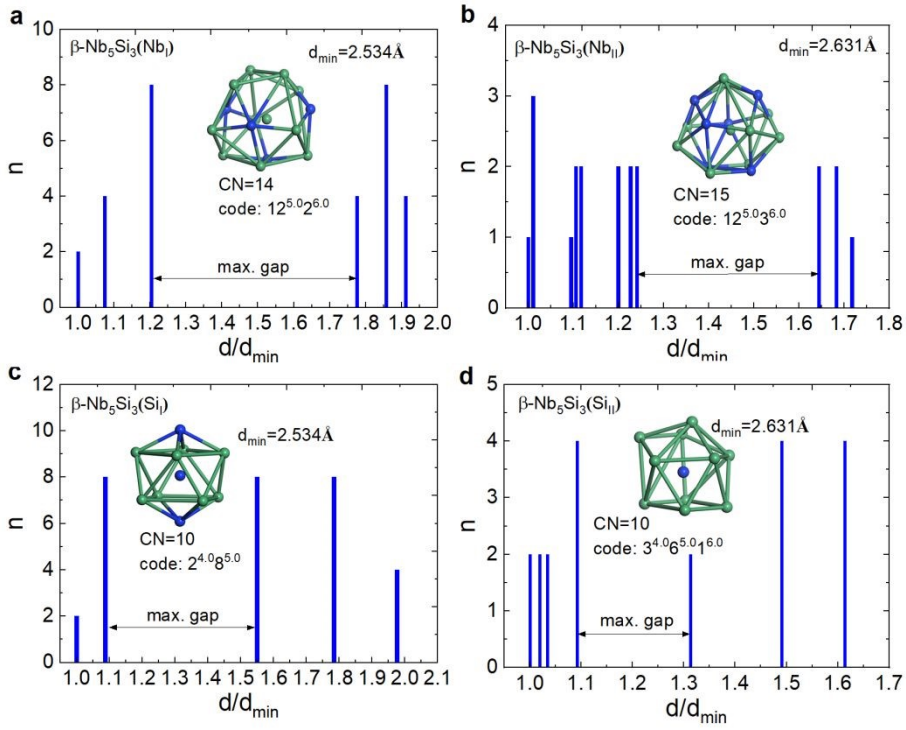

Fig. 7 Nearest-neighbor histogram (NNH) of β-Nb_5Si_3 around the four non-equivalent sites; (a) Nb_I (CN= 14, code: $12^{5.0}2^{6.0}$), (b) Nb_{II} (CN= 15, code: $12^{5.0}3^{6.0}$), (c) Si_I (CN= 10, code: $2^{4.0}8^{5.0}$), and (d) Si_{II} (CN= 10, code: $3^{4.0}6^{5.0}1^{6.0}$). The insets are the Atomic Environment Type (AET) cluster models (Nb atoms in green and Si atoms in blue).

The optimal CE_{AET}-SVR models were trained using all E_{DS} of α-Nb_5Si_3 substituted with the 14 alloying elements: B, Al, Si, Ti, V, Cr, Fe, Co, Ni, Y, Zr, Nb, Mo, and Hf. Then we applied these ML models directly to predict the E_{DS} of 784 double-site substitution systems of β-Nb_5Si_3 doped with the same set of alloying elements. Fig. 8 shows the heat map of E_{DS} projection on the four non-equivalent site pairs of β-Nb_5Si_3: $\boldsymbol{X}_{NbI}\boldsymbol{Y}_{NbII}$, $\boldsymbol{X}_{NbI}\boldsymbol{Y}_{SiI}$, $\boldsymbol{X}_{NbII}\boldsymbol{Y}_{SiI}$, and $\boldsymbol{X}_{NbII}\boldsymbol{Y}_{SiII}$ where ***X, Y***= B, Ni, Co, Fe, Si, V, Mo, Al, Ti, Nb, Hf, Zr and Y, sorted in the increasing order of metal radii.

The E_{DS} of the $\boldsymbol{X}_{NbI}\boldsymbol{Y}_{NbII}$@β-$Nb_5Si_3$ systems were all positive [Fig. 8 (a)], indicating that the substitutions at the Nb_INb_{II} site of β-Nb_5Si_3 were energetically not favorable. The relative preference of occupation in β-Nb_5Si_3 were similar to those of α-Nb_5Si_3: Ti, Hf, and Zr were more readily to occupy Nb_INb_{II} sites than B, Si, Al, and Y. The alloying elements exhibit similar occupancy tendencies at the other three substitution sites of β-Nb_5Si_3, including all Nb-Si pairs: $\boldsymbol{X}_{NbI}\boldsymbol{Y}_{SiII}$, $\boldsymbol{X}_{NbII}\boldsymbol{Y}_{SiI}$, and

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$\boldsymbol{X}_{NbII}\boldsymbol{Y}_{SiII}$ [Fig. 8 (b)-(d)]. Specifically, B, Si, and Al prefer to occupy Si_I or Si_{II} sites, while Ti, Hf, and Zr tend to occupy Nb_I or Nb_{II} sites. The occupancy tendency at the NbSi sites of β-Nb_5Si_3 is consistent with that of α-Nb_5Si_3. The substitution pairs that stabilized β-Nb_5Si_3 with negative substitution energies were $Hf_{NbI}B_{SiII}$ (-0.61 eV), $Ti_{NbI}B_{SiII}$ (-0.34 eV), and $Zr_{NbI}B_{SiII}$ (-1.09 eV) at $\boldsymbol{X}_{NbI}\boldsymbol{Y}_{SiII}$ sites; $Zr_{NbII}B_{SiI}$ (-0.05 eV) and $Hf_{NbII}B_{SiI}$ (-0.17 eV) at $\boldsymbol{X}_{NbII}\boldsymbol{Y}_{SiI}$ sites; $Hf_{NbII}B_{SiII}$ (-0.72 eV), $Hf_{NbII}Si_{SiII}$ (-0.67 eV), $Ti_{NbII}B_{SiII}$ (-0.95 eV), $Ti_{NbII}Si_{SiII}$ (-0.78 eV), and $Zr_{NbII}B_{SiII}$ (-0.28 eV) at $\boldsymbol{X}_{NbII}\boldsymbol{Y}_{SiII}$ sites. These results suggest that Ti, Zr, and Hf are stabilizing elements at the Nb sites of β-Nb_5Si_3 and may be better co-doped with B at the Si sites.

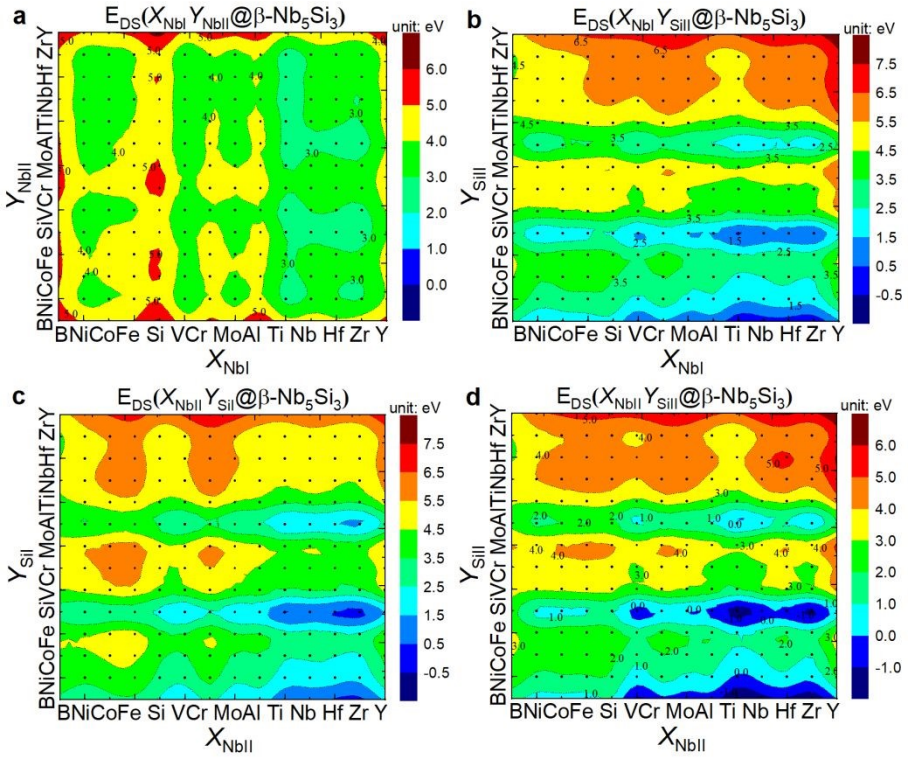

Fig. 8 Double-site substitution energies (E_{DS}) of β-Nb_5Si_3 predicted by the CE_{AET}-SVR models that were originally trained for α-Nb_5Si_3. The heat map of E_{DS} projection on the four non-equivalent site pairs of β-Nb_5Si_3: (a) $X_{NbI}Y_{NbII}$, (b) $X_{NbI}Y_{SiII}$, (c) $X_{NbII}Y_{SiI}$, and (d) $X_{NbII}Y_{SiII}$ where *X, Y*= B, Ni, Co, Fe, Si, V, Mo, Al, Ti, Nb, Hf, Zr and Y, sorted in the increasing order of metal radii.

To validate the E_{DS} of β-Nb_5Si_3 predicted by the ML models that were originally trained for α-Nb_5Si_3, we performed DFT calculations on the stabilized β-Nb_5Si_3 systems suggested by the ML models. The E_{DS} of β-Nb_5Si_3 calculated by DFT were $Hf_{NbI}B_{SiII}$ (-0.19 eV), $Ti_{NbI}B_{SiII}$ (-0.49 eV), and $Zr_{NbI}B_{SiII}$ (-0.55 eV) at $\boldsymbol{X}_{NbI}\boldsymbol{Y}_{SiII}$ sites; $Zr_{NbII}B_{SiI}$ (-0.03 eV) and $Hf_{NbII}B_{SiI}$ (-0.09 eV) at $\boldsymbol{X}_{NbII}\boldsymbol{Y}_{SiI}$ sites; $Ti_{NbII}B_{SiII}$ (-0.44 eV), $Ti_{NbII}Si_{SiII}$ (-0.31 eV), $Hf_{NbII}B_{SiII}$ (-0.28 eV), and $Hf_{NbII}Si_{SiII}$ (-0.48 eV), and $Zr_{NbII}B_{SiII}$

(-0.27 eV) at $\boldsymbol{X}_{\mathrm{NbII}}\boldsymbol{Y}_{\mathrm{SiII}}$ sites. Fig. 9 shows the E_{DS} of stable $\boldsymbol{X}_{\mathrm{Nb}}\boldsymbol{Y}_{\mathrm{Si}}$@β-$Nb_5Si_3$ predicted by DFT and ML. The comparison shows that the trends predicted by the ML models were qualitatively consistent with those of DFT. The MAE and RMSE of E_{DS} of β-Nb_5Si_3 are 283.03 meV and 347.58 meV, respectively, comparable with those of α-Nb_5Si_3. Notably, the prediction results for the $Hf_{NbI}B_{SiII}$, $Ti_{NbII}B_{SiII}$, $Ti_{NbII}B_{SiII}$, and $Zr_{NbI}B_{SiII}$ systems exhibit significant discrepancies. The larger atomic radii of Hf and Zr atoms tend to favor occupying the Nb_{II} sites, whereas the smaller atomic radius of Ti favors occupancy of the Nb_{I} sites. Additionally, the smaller B atoms tend to occupy the densely packed Si_{I} sites. These atomic site preferences in the Nb_5Si_3 phases are consistent with the reported first-principles calculations[41]. The reliability of prediction is acceptable given that the trained ML models were directly applied across the different crystal structures without any modification of parameters.

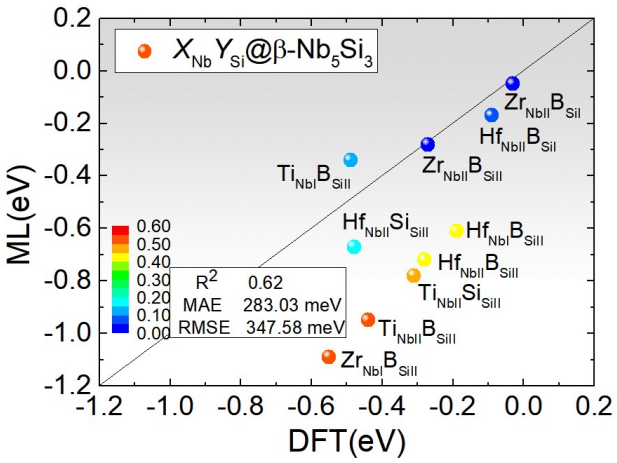

Fig. 9 Double-site substitution energies (E_{DS}) of the stable double-site substitution systems $X_{Nb}Y_{Si}$@β-Nb_5Si_3 predicted by the ML models (CE_{AET}-SVR) and DFT. The colored scale bar indicates the absolute errors from low (in blue) to high (in red).

4 Conclusions

To develop a general feature model for complex crystal structures in machine learning studies, we introduced a Center-Environment feature model with Atomic Environment Type (CE_{AET}) to define the environment of atoms. The ML-CE_{AET} models proved to be effective, efficient, and transferable in predicting the alloying effects on the structural stability of α/β-Nb_5Si_3 in NbSi-based superalloys. Comparisons between various CE construction methods revealed that: (1) The AET definition of environment atoms (CE_{AET}) outperforms the nearest neighbor-based approach (CE_{NN}). (2) The

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reciprocal distance weighting function improved the performance of linear combinations of elementary features. (3) The SVR algorithm slightly outperformed RF in predicting substitution energies.

The optimized CE_{AET}-SVR models predicted the E_{DS} of α-Nb_5Si_3 with a MAE of 329 meV. Direct predictions on untrained β-Nb_5Si_3 indicated that Ti, Zr, and Hf prefer to occupy Nb sites, while B and Al tend to occupy Si sites. These machine learning predictions were further validated by first-principles calculations, demonstrating the reliable transferability of ML predictions using CE feature models.

This study demonstrated that non-deep machine learning models using CE feature representations, based on a small computational dataset, possess the predictive capability to study complex crystal structures with low symmetry and exhibit good transferability to new elements and structures. The achievement of CE feature models can be attributed to the pre-defined attention mechanism in feature engineering, leading to a better accuracy with less data requirement. Different from traditional feature engineering, the CE feature realizes a form of attention-driven information filtering through physical structure constraints, rather than simple empirical feature concatenation. Compared with deep learning attention, in scenarios with limited data, physical priors serve as substitutes for data-driven weight learning, enhancing model reliability and interpretability. This CE-based ML approach provides an efficient computational tool for the compositional design of multi-component engineering alloys.

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Author contributions

Yuchao Tang: Methodology, Software, Investigation, Data curation, Visualization, Writing - Original Draft; Bin Xiao: Methodology, Software; Shuizhou Chen: Software, Validation; Quan Qian: Supervision, Validation; Yi Liu: Conceptualization, Methodology, Funding, Resource, Supervision, Writing - Review & Editing.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Supplementary material

The supplementary materials in this paper can be found at: http://xxx

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