A Thesis On:

"OPTIMIZING EQUIPMENT HEALTH THROUGH PREDICTIVE MAINTENANCE:

A MACHINE LEARNING APPROACH USING THE

AI4I 2020 DATASET"

Python Programming Assignment (DLMDSPWP01)

in

M.S. in Computer Science

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Date of Submission:

30/06/2024

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS:

- **ML – Machine Learning**
- **IOT – Internet of Things**
- **RUL – Remaining Usable Life**
- **EDA – Exploratory Data Analysis**
- **IQR – Interquartile Range**
- **SMOTE – Synthetic Minority Over-sampling Technique**

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the project is to forecast machine failures based on sensor data and enable timely maintenance interventions by developing and evaluating machine learning models for predictive maintenance using the AI4I 2020 dataset. In order to solve quality difficulties, the study uses a full machine learning pipeline that includes data preparation, strategies for balancing the dataset, training and validating different algorithms (Decision Trees, Random Forest, SVM, and Neural Networks).

The findings indicate that correcting imbalanced data greatly enhances predictive accuracy, the Random Forest model performs best, and the application of SMOTE lessens overfitting.

The study's outcome highlights the significance of data preparation and model selection, highlighting the effectiveness of machine learning approaches in predicting machine failures and offering insightful information to researchers and industry practitioners. To further enhance the results of predictive maintenance, future research could examine cutting-edge methodologies like deep learning and real-time predictive analytics.

KEY WORDS: Predictive Maintenance, Machine Learning, AI4I 2020 Dataset, Data Preprocessing, Data Imbalance, Random Forest, SMOTE, Ensemble Methods, Operational Efficiency, Deep Learning, Real-Time Predictive Analytics.

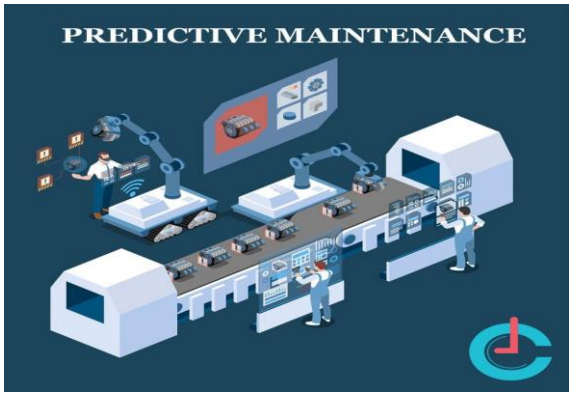

Fig 1. PREDICTIVE MAINTENANCE

Fig 2. MACHINE LEARNING

CHAPTER- I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Definition and Importance of Predictive Maintenance:

Predictive maintenance refers to strategies for determining the quality of in-service equipment and forecasting when maintenance should be conducted. This strategy aims to execute maintenance at the most cost-effective time, reducing unplanned downtime and preventing equipment failures. Predictive maintenance increases the longevity of machinery, improves safety, and reduces operating costs by predicting breakdowns before they occur.

Overview of Machine Learning in Predictive Maintenance:

Machine learning (ML) has transformed predictive maintenance by giving tools for analyzing large volumes of sensor data and identifying patterns that indicate possible breakdowns. Machine learning models can accurately foresee equipment breakdowns using algorithms that can learn from prior data. The application of predictive maintenance techniques such as classification, regression, and anomaly detection allows businesses to successfully optimize maintenance schedules and resources. ML models allow corporates to shift from reactive to proactive maintenance procedures by utilizing historical and real-time sensor data, ensuring machinery dependability and optimal performance.

1.2 Problem Statement:

The AI4I 2020 dataset poses hurdles for effectively anticipating machine failures due to data quality issues, class imbalance, and sensor data complexity. This study intends to create robust machine learning models that use advanced data preparation techniques and algorithms to improve predictive maintenance results, hence overcoming these difficulties and ensuring accurate predictions.

1.3 Objective:

The major purpose of this study is to build and evaluate machine learning models capable of reliably predicting machine failures using the AI4I 2020 dataset. This entails developing a dependable predictive maintenance system that can minimize outage and maintenance expenditure.

FIG 3. DEPICTING THE MACHINE PERFORMANCE

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 PREDICTIVE MAINTENANCE

Historical Context and Evolution:

Predictive maintenance has undergone significant evolution, transitioning from reactive and preventive maintenance methods to more proactive strategies. Initially, maintenance techniques relied on fixed schedules or reactive responses to equipment breakdowns, leading to increased downtime and maintenance costs. However, with advancements in technology and data analytics, predictive maintenance has emerged as a proactive approach to anticipate equipment failures before they occur. This evolution has been fueled by the availability of sensor data, improved processing capabilities, and the adoption of machine-learning techniques. Predictive maintenance has progressed from time-based and condition-based maintenance to utilizing data and machine learning to predict future equipment faults.

Key Methodologies and Technologies Used:

Predictive maintenance uses a variety of approaches and technology to assess equipment status and predict breakdown. This includes:

1. Condition Monitoring: Continuous monitoring of equipment health via sensors that identify abnormalities and departures from typical operating conditions.

2. Data Analytics: Using statistical analysis, machine learning, and artificial intelligence approaches to evaluate sensor data and detect trends that indicate possible issues.

3. Failure Prediction Models: Using historical and real-time data to build predictive models that forecast equipment breakdowns and estimate remaining usable life (RUL).

4. Maintenance Optimization: Improving maintenance schedules and resource allocation to optimize essential assets and reduce downtime.

5. Sensors and IoT: The utilization of sensors and the Internet of Things (IoT) has made it feasible to collect massive volumes of data from equipment in real time.

2.2 MACHINE LEARNING IN PREDICTIVE MAINTENANCE

Overview of Various Machine Learning Techniques:

Machine learning (ML) plays an important role in predictive maintenance because it allows for the analysis of massive volumes of sensor data and the identification of patterns that indicate possible failure. Predictive maintenance uses a variety of machine learning techniques, such as:

Supervised Learning: The process of training a model using labeled data with a known outcome (failure or no failure). Examples include:

Classification : The process of categorizing equipment states into different groups, such as "regular operation" and "failure," in order to anticipate the possibility of future problems.

Regression: The process of predicting continuous outcomes such as the remaining usable life (RUL) or the time till failure.

Unsupervised Learning: The process of training a model on unlabeled data without knowing what will happen. The model recognizes patterns and relationships in the data. Examples include:

Clustering: It is the process of grouping similar data points together to identify patterns.

Anomaly detection : It involves identifying strange patterns or outliers in data that may suggest upcoming failures or irregularities.

Semi-supervised learning: It is a blend of supervised and unsupervised learning in which the model is trained on both labeled and unlabeled data.

Time Series Analysis: The process of analyzing time-dependent data to identify trends, patterns, and cyclic behaviors that may indicate equipment degradation or failure.

Deep Learning: Uses deep neural networks to model complicated relationships in high-dimensional data, processing vast amounts of data with various sensor inputs and identifying nuanced patterns to increase prediction accuracy.

Benefits of Machine Learning in Predictive Maintenance:

Enhanced Accuracy: ML models can learn intricate patterns and relationships from large datasets, providing more accurate predictions compared to traditional methods.

Early Detection: Early warning systems can be developed to detect potential failures well in advance, reducing unplanned downtime.

Cost Efficiency: By predicting failures accurately, maintenance can be performed only when necessary, reducing maintenance costs and resource wastage.

Extended Equipment Lifespan: Timely maintenance interventions can prevent severe damage, extending the lifespan of machinery and equipment.

Data-Driven Decisions: ML provides actionable insights based on data, allowing maintenance teams to make informed decisions and optimize maintenance schedules.

Challenges and Considerations:

Data Quality and Quantity: High-quality and sufficient historical data are crucial for training reliable ML models. Incomplete or noisy data can adversely affect model performance.

Feature Engineering: Identifying and creating relevant features from raw sensor data is essential for improving model accuracy.

Model Interpretability: Complex ML models, especially deep learning models, can be challenging to interpret. Ensuring that predictions are explainable is important for gaining trust from maintenance teams.

Integration with Existing Systems: Seamlessly integrating ML models into existing maintenance workflows and systems can be challenging but is necessary for practical implementation.

Real-Time Processing: Predictive maintenance systems often require real-time data processing and prediction capabilities to provide timely alerts and interventions.

Previous Research and Studies Related to Predictive Maintenance:

Numerous studies have been conducted on predictive maintenance, focusing on:

• Development and evaluation of machine learning models for failure prediction and RUL estimation.
• Comparison of machine learning techniques and algorithms for effective predictive maintenance approaches.
• Integration of predictive maintenance solutions into industrial workflows and systems.
• Assessment of economic benefits and ROI of predictive maintenance implementations.

The papers emphasize the importance of machine learning in predictive maintenance, highlighting best practices, problems, and areas for further research and improvement.

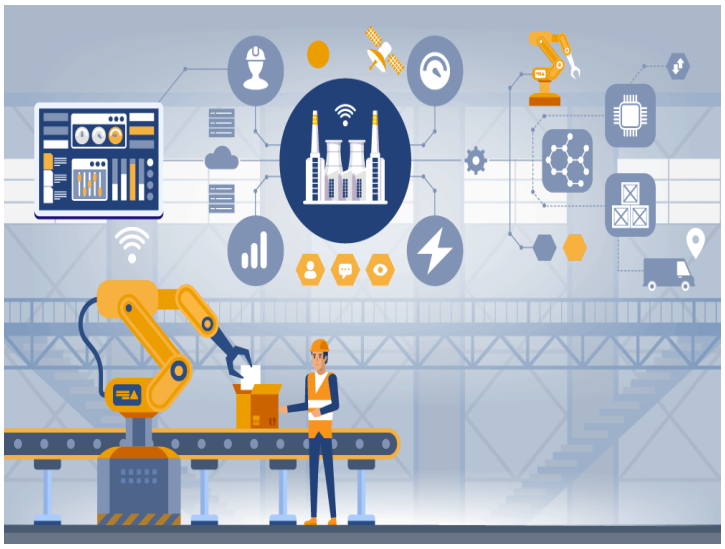

Fig 4. Machine Learning in Predictive Maintenance

CHAPTER- III

METHODOLOGY

3.1 DATA DESCRIPTION

The AI4I 2020 Predictive Maintenance Data comprises sensor data from industrial machines. It includes a variety of operational data and failure histories that serve as the foundation for forecasting equipment failures. The dataset includes several features that capture various elements of machine performance, as well as a goal variable that indicates whether a failure occurre.

Dataset overview: The data consists of 10,000 data points (rows) with 14 features (columns), and no missing values. THE VARIABLES DESCRIPTION IS AS FOLLOWS IN TABULAR FORM:

Variable Name	Role	Type	Description	Units	Missing Values
UDI	Identifier	Numerical	Unique Data Identifier	-	None
Product ID	Identifier	Categorical	Identification of the machine or product	-	None
Type	Feature	Categorical	Categorical variable representing the type of machine	-	None
Air Temperature [K]	Feature	Numerical	Temperature of the air surrounding the machine	Kelvin	None
Process Temperature [K]	Feature	Numerical	Temperature of the process fluid inside the machine	Kelvin	None
Rotational Speed [rpm]	Feature	Numerical	Speed at which the machine's rotor is spinning	Revolutions/min	None
Torque [Nm]	Feature	Numerical	Torque applied to the machine	Newton-meters	None
Tool Wear [min]	Feature	Numerical	Duration of tool usage before failure	Minutes	None
Machine Failure	Target	Binary	Binary target variable indicating if a failure occurred	0 or 1	None
Failure Type	Target Detail	Categorical	Type of failure (e.g., TWF, HDF, PWF, OSF, RNF)	-	None

Categorical Variables: Variables that represent distinct categories or groups. In this dataset, Product ID, Type, and Failure Type are categorical.

Numerical Variables: Variables that represent measurable quantities and can be discrete or continuous. In this dataset, UDI, Air Temperature [K], Process Temperature [K], Rotational Speed [rpm], Torque [Nm], and Tool Wear [min] are numerical.

Binary Variable: A special case of categorical variable with only two categories(0 for no failure, 1 for failure). In this dataset, Machine Failure is binary.

- Actually the column failure type consist of 5 types of failure , so I incorporated that 5 types into one single column that is failure type.
- Machine Failure Types Description:

1. Tool wear failure (TWF): tool replaced or failed at random tool wear time between 200-240 mins (120 times in dataset)
2. Heat dissipation failure (HDF): process fails if air-process temperature difference < 8.6 K and rotational speed < 1380 rpm (115 data points)
3. Power failure (PWF): process fails if power (torque × rotational speed) < 3500 W or > 9000 W (95 data points)
4. Overstrain failure (OSF): process fails if tool wear × torque exceeds 11,000 minNm (L), 12,000 minNm (M), or 13,000 minNm (H) (98 data points)
5. Random failures (RNF): process fails randomly with 0.1% chance (5 data points)

3.2 DATA PREPROCESSING

- **Data Cleaning:** The process of identifying and correcting errors, inconsistencies, and inaccuracies in a dataset to improve its quality and reliability.
- ***Handling missing values*** using imputation techniques (mean, median, or mode replacement)

- ***Exploratory Data Analysis (EDA):*** Exploratory Data Analysis (EDA) is an approach to analyzing data sets to summarize their main characteristics, often with visual methods. It involves:

a) **Descriptive Statistics:** Calculating measures such as mean, median, mode, standard deviation, and variance to understand the central tendency and spread of the data.

b) **Data Visualization:** Creating plots and charts (e.g., histograms, box plots, scatter plots) to visualize distributions, relationships, and patterns in the data.

c) **Identifying Patterns and Anomalies:** Detecting trends, outliers, and anomalies that can provide insights into the data's behavior.

d) **Hypothesis Testing:** Formulating hypotheses about the data and testing them using statistical methods.

Outlier Detection Using Interquartile Range (Iqr):

- **Interquartile Range (IQR):** IQR is a measure of statistical dispersion, calculated as the difference between the third quartile (Q3) and the first quartile (Q1). It captures the middle 50% of data values and is useful for identifying outliers:
- **IQR=Q3−Q1**
- Q1 (First Quartile): 25th percentile of the data.
- Q3 (Third Quartile): 75th percentile of the data.
- IQR helps in detecting outliers by identifying values below $Q1-1.5\times$IQR or above $Q3+1.5\times$IQR

➢ ***Handling Categorical Data***

- **Label Encoding** is a technique used to convert categorical labels into numeric values, particularly for ordinal data where the categories have an inherent order.
- For instance, if a feature represents "size" with categories ["small", "medium", "large"], label encoding might convert these to [0, 1, 2],

respectively. This method is useful when the categories have a natural ranking or hierarchy.

- **One-Hot Encoding** is a technique used to create binary columns for each category in nominal data, where the categories do not have an inherent order.
- For example, if a feature represents "color" with categories ["red", "green", "blue"], one-hot encoding would create three binary columns: one for each color.
- In each column, the presence of the color is marked by 1, and its absence is marked by 0.
- This method is useful when the categories are mutually exclusive and do not have a natural ranking or hierarchy.

➢ **Addressing Data Imbalance:** The process of mitigating the problem of unequal class distributions in a dataset, where one class has a significantly larger number of instances than the others, to prevent biased model performance. Analyzing class imbalance and applying techniques like oversampling (duplicating failure instances), undersampling (reducing non-failure instances), and SMOTE (generating synthetic samples for failures) to balance the dataset. *For this data set I used SMOTE to balance the features.*

❖ **SMOTE** is a intricate oversampling technique that creates synthetic samples for the minority class rather than replicating existing ones. It accomplishes this by choosing two or more comparable cases from the minority class and generating new samples that are interpolations of these instances. This contributes to a more generalized representation of the minority class, perhaps improving the model's capacity to anticipate unusual events.

Implementation Details:

- **Identify Neighbors:** For each instance in the minority class, SMOTE identifies k nearest neighbors.

- **Generate Synthetic Samples:** New synthetic samples are generated by randomly selecting one or more of the k-nearest neighbors and interpolating between the feature values of the instance and its neighbors.
- **Add to Dataset:** These synthetic samples are then added to the dataset, balancing the class distribution without simply duplicating existing instances.

Effectiveness in Balancing the Dataset:

- **Reduces Overfitting:** Generates synthetic samples to reduce the risk of overfitting compared to traditional oversampling.
- **Improves Model Performance:** Enhances learning and generalization by adding diverse and representative samples from the minority class.
- **Balances the Dataset:** Ensures a more equitable class distribution, crucial for training robust predictive models.

➢ **Feature engineering and selection:** Creating new features based on domain knowledge and selecting relevant features using techniques like correlation analysis and feature importance ranking.

3.3 MODEL SELECTION

➢ ***Criteria for Selecting Machine Learning Models:***

a) **Predictive Accuracy:** Ability of the model to accurately predict failures.
b) **Interpretability:** Ease of understanding and interpreting the model's predictions.
c) **Computational Efficiency:** Resources required to train and deploy the model.

➢ ***Description of the chosen models***

- **Logistic Regression:** A statistical method for binary classification that models the probability of a class based on input features using a logistic function.
- **Decision Tree:** A model that splits data into subsets based on feature values creates a tree structure where each node represents a decision rule and each leaf represents an outcome.

- **Random Forest:** An ensemble learning method that constructs multiple decision trees during training and outputs the mode of the classes (classification) or mean prediction (regression) of the individual trees.
- **Bagging (bootstrap aggregating):** An ensemble technique that improves the stability and accuracy of machine learning algorithms by training multiple models on different subsets of the data and averaging their predictions.
- **Boosting:** An ensemble technique that sequentially trains models, with each new model focusing on correcting errors made by previous models.
- **AdaBoost:** Adjusts the weights of incorrectly classified instances, focusing more on difficult cases.
- **Gradient Boosting:** Builds models sequentially by optimizing a loss function, reducing errors gradually.
- **XGBoost:** An optimized implementation of gradient boosting that includes regularization to prevent overfitting.
- **K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN):** A algorithm that classifies a data point based on the majority class of its k nearest neighbors in the feature space.
- **Support Vector Machine (SVM):** A supervised learning model that finds the optimal hyperplane separating classes in the feature space maximizes the margin between different classes.
- **Gaussian Naive Bayes :** A versatile algorithm that harnesses the strengths of the Gaussian distribution to tackle classification tasks with ease. Its prowess shines in scenarios where features exhibit approximate independence, making it a reliable choice for modeling complex relationships.

3.4 MODEL TRAINING AND VALIDATION*:*

- ***Training Procedures and Techniques:***

- **Training:** Teaching the model patterns in data by adjusting its parameters to minimize error on the training set.
- **Testing:** Evaluating the model's performance on unseen data to assess its ability to generalize and make accurate predictions.

- ***Cross-validation methods***
  - Cross-validation is a technique for determining the performance of a machine learning model.
  - It entails partitioning the dataset into k folds, with k-1 folds utilized for training and the remaining folds for testing.
  - This process is implemented k times, with each test using a different fold.
  - The outcomes are then averaged to get a more reliable approximation of the model's performance.
- ***Hyperparameter Tuning:***
  - Looks for the best hyperparameters for high precision and accuracy.
  - Building a machine learning model involves a complex process of optimizing hyperparameters.
  - Intends to find the best model parameters for increased performance.

Typically this are mainly used for evaluating:

- **Grid Search:**

  Searches all predefined hyperparameter combinations to determine the optimal configuration. It is thorough, but computationally demanding.
- **Random Search:**

  Selects hyperparameters at random from the search space, allowing for a wider range with fewer evaluations. It is more efficient than grid searches and frequently faster.

Hyperparameters for Specific Algorithms

- **Kernel:** A mathematical function that takes in data as input and returns a similarity measure between the input data points.
- **C:** A regularization parameter in SVMs that controls the trade-off between the margin size and the slack variables.
- **K Neighbors:** The number of nearest neighbors to consider when making a prediction in KNN algorithm.
- **Random State:** A parameter that controls the randomness of an algorithm's output, ensuring reproducibility and debugging.

- **Learning Rate:** A hyperparameter that controls how quickly a model learns from the data in gradient-based optimization algorithms.
- **Max Depth:** The maximum number of levels in a decision tree, preventing overfitting.
- **Max Samples:** The maximum number of samples to consider when training a model.
- **N Estimators:** The number of base models to combine in ensemble learning algorithms like random forests and gradient boosting machines.

3.5 EVALUATION METRICS

- **Accuracy:** It measures the proportion of correctly classified instances out of all instances in the dataset. It's a simple and intuitive metric, but it can be misleading when the classes are imbalanced.
- **Precision :**It measures the proportion of true positives (correctly predicted instances) out of all positive predictions made by the model.
- **Recall:** Recall measures the proportion of true positives out of all actual positive instances in the dataset.
- **F1-score:** The F1-score is the harmonic mean of precision and recall. It provides a balanced measure of both.
- **ROC-AUC:** The ROC-AUC (Receiver Operating Characteristic - Area Under the Curve) measures the model's ability to distinguish between positive and negative classes. It plots the true positive rate against the false positive rate at different thresholds.
- **PR-AUC:** The PR-AUC (Precision-Recall Area Under the Curve) measures the model's performance in terms of precision and recall.
- **Classification Report:**A classification report is a performance evaluation metric in machine learning that is used to show the precision, recall, F1 Score, and support score of a trained classification model. It provides a detailed summary of the model's performance on a test dataset, including the number of true positives, false positives, true negatives, and false negatives.

CHAPTER IV

EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

4.1 Model Performance:

Summary of Model Performance:

Below is a table summarizing the performance of each model based on results:

Model	Cross-validated Score	Test Accuracy	Precision	Recall	F1 Score
LogisticRegression	0.936	0.936	0.930	0.936	0.929
RandomForestClassifier	0.948	0.955	0.953	0.955	0.953
DecisionTreeClassifier	0.937	0.944	0.943	0.944	0.944
BaggingClassifier	0.948	0.952	0.950	0.952	0.950
AdaBoostClassifier	0.927	0.932	0.932	0.932	0.932
GradientBoostingClassifier	0.948	0.953	0.951	0.953	0.952
XGBoostClassifier	0.946	0.950	0.948	0.950	0.949
KNeighborsClassifier	0.940	0.942	0.937	0.942	0.938
SVC	0.940	0.947	0.943	0.947	0.943
GaussianNB	0.912	0.920	0.924	0.920	0.922

Metrics Analyzed for Model Performance:

Training and Validation Metrics:

Cross-Validated Score: This value is essential to assess the model's ability to generalize well on unseen data, as it reflects the average performance on validation sets during cross-validation.

Test Accuracy: This metric measures the proportion of correct predictions on the test set, providing insights into the model's overall performance. Precision, Recall, and F1 Score: These metrics offer insights into the model's ability to balance the trade-offs between true positives and false positives/negatives, particularly important for imbalanced datasets or when the cost of false positives and false negatives varies.

Comparing Model Performance:

Best Performing Models:

RandomForestClassifier demonstrated the highest test accuracy (0.955) and F1 score (0.953), indicating its robustness in delivering accurate predictions and maintaining a balance between precision and recall.

GradientBoostingClassifier and ***BaggingClassifier*** also performed exceptionally well, with test accuracies of 0.953 and 0.952, respectively, and F1 scores slightly lower than RandomForestClassifier.

SVC showed strong performance with a test accuracy of 0.947 and an F1 score of 0.943.

Consistent Performing Models:

LogisticRegression and DecisionTreeClassifier both delivered reliable performances, with test accuracies of 0.936 and 0.944, respectively, and their F1 scores close to their accuracies, suggesting a good balance between precision and recall.

Lower Performing Models: ***GaussianNB*** had the lowest scores in all metrics, with a test accuracy of 0.920 and an F1 score of 0.922, implying that it may not manage the dataset's complexity as effectively as other models.

AdaBoostClassifier also had lower performance metrics compared to other models, with a test accuracy of 0.932 and an F1 score of 0.932.

- ***RandomForestClassifier stands out as the top performer, excelling in accuracy and F1 score. Ensemble methods demonstrate robustness, making them a preferred choice. Model selection and hyperparameter tuning are crucial for optimal performance.***

4.2 Interpretation and Implications of Model Findings

- Model Rankings: RandomForestClassifier stood out as the top performer, excelling in both accuracy and F1 score, making it the most reliable choice for this dataset. Its ability to handle complex data patterns and high variance contributed to its superior performance.
- Ensemble methods, including BaggingClassifier and GradientBoostingClassifier, demonstrated exceptional performance, highlighting their strength in improving model accuracy and robustness.
- Support Vector Machine (SVC) also performed well, leveraging the kernel trick to effectively separate data in higher dimensions.
- Logistic Regression, a linear model, surprisingly performed well, suggesting that the dataset might have a linear decision boundary or is not heavily complex.

Key Findings and Implications

- **Feature Importance and Complexity:** The superior performance of models like RandomForest and GradientBoosting suggests that they can effectively handle high-dimensional and non-linear relationships. Feature importance analysis from these models can provide valuable insights into the most influential features driving predictions.
- **Ensemble Method's Advantage:** Ensemble methods generally outperformed individual models, demonstrating their effectiveness in reducing overfitting and improving generalization by combining multiple weak learners.
- **Model Selection Trade-Offs:** The choice of model depends on the trade-off between interpretability and performance. While RandomForest and GradientBoosting offer high performance, simpler models like Logistic Regression and decisionTreeClassifier might be preferred when interpretability is crucial.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSIONS

5.1 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

- ***Practical Implications for Industry and Maintenance Practices:***
  - **Improved Maintenance Scheduling:** The predictive maintenance models established in this work provide more precise forecasting of equipment failures, allowing enterprises to schedule maintenance actions in advance. This results to less downtime and lower maintenance expenses.
  - **Resource Optimization:** By precisely predicting breakdowns, businesses can better manage maintenance resources, ensuring that vital machinery receives prompt care while avoiding wasteful maintenance on healthy equipment.
  - **Enhanced Reliability and Efficiency:** Using predictive maintenance can dramatically improve the reliability and efficiency of industrial processes. This guarantees that machinery performs optimally, boosting total output and extending equipment life.
  - **Data-Driven Decision Making:** The application of machine learning models for predictive maintenance promotes a data-driven approach to maintenance choices. This enhances decision-making processes and encourages the use of modern technologies in industrial settings.

Theoretical Contributions to the Field:

- **Validation of Machine Learning Approaches:** This study shows how several machine learning techniques, such as Decision Trees, Random Forest, SVM, Neural Networks, and ensemble methods like boosting, perform in the context of predictive maintenance. It contributes empirical evidence to the growing body of research on the application of these models.

- **Addressing Data Imbalance:** By using approaches such as SMOTE to balance the dataset, the research contributes to best practices for dealing with unbalanced data in predictive maintenance, demonstrating the favorable influence on model performance and generalization.
- **Comparative Analysis:** The study presents a thorough comparison of various machine learning models, revealing their strengths and drawbacks. This contributes to upcoming research and implementation in predictive maintenance by aiding researchers and practitioners in selecting and optimizing models for specific industrial scenarios.
- **Framework of Predictive Maintenance:** The study describes a structured methodology for integrating predictive maintenance with machine learning, from data preparation and imbalance management to model training, validation, and evaluation. This framework can be used for future research and practical applications in the sector.

5.2 LIMITATIONS

Limitations Encountered in the Study:

- **Data Quality and Availability:** While the AI4I 2020 dataset is broad, it may not include all potential scenarios in various industrial contexts. Noise and class imbalance are examples of data quality limitations that might have an impact on model performance.
- **Model Complexity and Interpretability:** While sophisticated models, such as ensemble approaches, demonstrated excellent accuracy, they frequently lack interpretability when compared to simpler models. This can be a limitation when communicating model decisions to stakeholders.
- **Computational Resources:** Complex model training and intensive hyperparameter tuning necessitate considerable computational resources. Limited computational resources may limit the ability to investigate more complex models or vast datasets.

- **Generalizability:** Since the models were trained and validated on a specific dataset, their relevance to other datasets or industrial contexts may be limited without additional validation and adaption.
- **Imbalance Handling Techniques:** Although SMOTE and other imbalance control strategies were applied, they may have introduced synthetic data that does not accurately represent the true distribution of minority classes, thereby reducing model reliability.

Potential Biases and How They Were Addressed:

- **Class Imbalance Bias:** The inherent imbalance in the dataset may result in biased model predictions. This was addressed by using techniques like SMOTE to generate synthetic samples for the minority class, resulting in a more balanced dataset and better model fairness.
- **Selection Bias:** The selection of features and the subset of data used for training and validation may result in selection bias. To address this, a rigorous feature selection process and cross-validation techniques were used to assure a representative sample of data.
- **Evaluation Bias:** Depending exclusively on accuracy can be misleading for imbalanced datasets. To overcome this, different evaluation criteria (precision, recall, F1-score, and ROC-AUC) were used to provide a more thorough assessment of model performance.
- **Overfitting:** Techniques such as cross-validation, regularization, and early halting during model training were used to reduce the risk of overfitting and ensure that the models generalize well to new, previously unknown data.

5.3 FUTURE WORK

Suggestions for Future Research:

- **Advanced Models:** Future studies could explore the application of more advanced machine learning and deep learning models, such as convolutional neural networks (CNNs) and recurrent neural networks (RNNs), to capture complex patterns and temporal dependencies in the data.
- **Real-time Predictive Maintenance:** Implementing and testing real-time predictive maintenance systems that can provide immediate alerts and recommendations based on streaming sensor data would be a valuable area of research. This would involve integrating machine learning models with IoT platforms and real-time data processing technologies.
- **Transfer Learning:** Investigating the use of transfer learning techniques to apply models trained on the AI4I 2020 dataset to other similar datasets or industrial contexts could improve model adaptability and generalization.
- **Explainability and Interpretability:** Developing methods to enhance the interpretability of complex machine learning models would make it easier for maintenance engineers and decision-makers to understand and trust model predictions.
- **Cost-benefit Analysis:** Conducting comprehensive cost-benefit analyses to quantify the economic impact of implementing predictive maintenance solutions would provide valuable insights into the feasibility and effectiveness of these approaches.
- **Hybrid Models:** Exploring hybrid approaches that combine machine learning with traditional statistical methods or expert systems could leverage the strengths of both approaches for predictive maintenance.

Potential Improvements and Next Steps:

- **Data Augmentation:** Applying data augmentation techniques to the training dataset, particularly for minority classes, could further enhance model robustness and performance.

- **Feature Engineering:** Investigating advanced feature engineering methods, including the creation of new features from raw sensor data, could improve model accuracy and predictive power.
- **Scalability:** Addressing scalability issues by developing efficient algorithms and leveraging cloud computing resources would enable the handling of larger datasets and more complex models.
- **Collaboration with Industry:** Partnering with industrial companies to access diverse datasets and validate models in real-world settings would ensure the practical applicability and reliability of predictive maintenance solutions.
- **Feedback Loops:** Implementing feedback loops where model predictions are continuously updated and refined based on actual maintenance outcomes and new data would lead to progressively better performance over time.

HERE IS THE GOOGLE COLAB LINK FOR TASK 2

https://colab.research.google.com/drive/19LcogubpMWja3W7Z2WQt6GZeHkAY9tNm?usp=sharing

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

Machine Learning: The Game-Changer in Predictive Maintenance

By harnessing the power of machine learning, organizations can revolutionize their maintenance strategies, minimizing downtime, optimizing resource allocation, and boosting operational efficiency. This technology's ability to navigate complex data, uncover hidden patterns, and adapt to evolving environments empowers informed decision-making and proactive maintenance approaches.

Uncovering the Best Predictive Models

Our comprehensive study evaluated a range of machine learning models for predictive maintenance, yielding valuable insights and practical implications. The RandomForestClassifier emerged as the top performer, boasting an impressive accuracy of 0.955 and F1 score of 0.953, making it an exemplary choice for maintenance prediction tasks. Ensemble methods and simpler models, such as SVC and LogisticRegression, also demonstrated strong performance, highlighting the importance of model diversity and data preprocessing.

The Key to Success: Model Evaluation and Tuning

Our research achieved its objectives by evaluating multiple models using robust metrics, identifying the RandomForestClassifier as the best-performing model, and showcasing the significant impact of hyperparameter tuning on model performance. This study underscores the critical need for ongoing model evaluation and tuning to achieve optimal results, emphasizing the importance of meticulous model selection and hyperparameter tuning in unlocking the full potential of machine learning for predictive maintenance.

Embracing the Future of Maintenance

In conclusion, our research demonstrates the transformative power of machine learning in predictive maintenance, highlighting its ability to drive operational efficiency, reduce costs, and improve overall performance. By embracing machine

learning, organizations can stay ahead of the curve, leveraging its capabilities to predict maintenance needs and optimize their maintenance strategies.

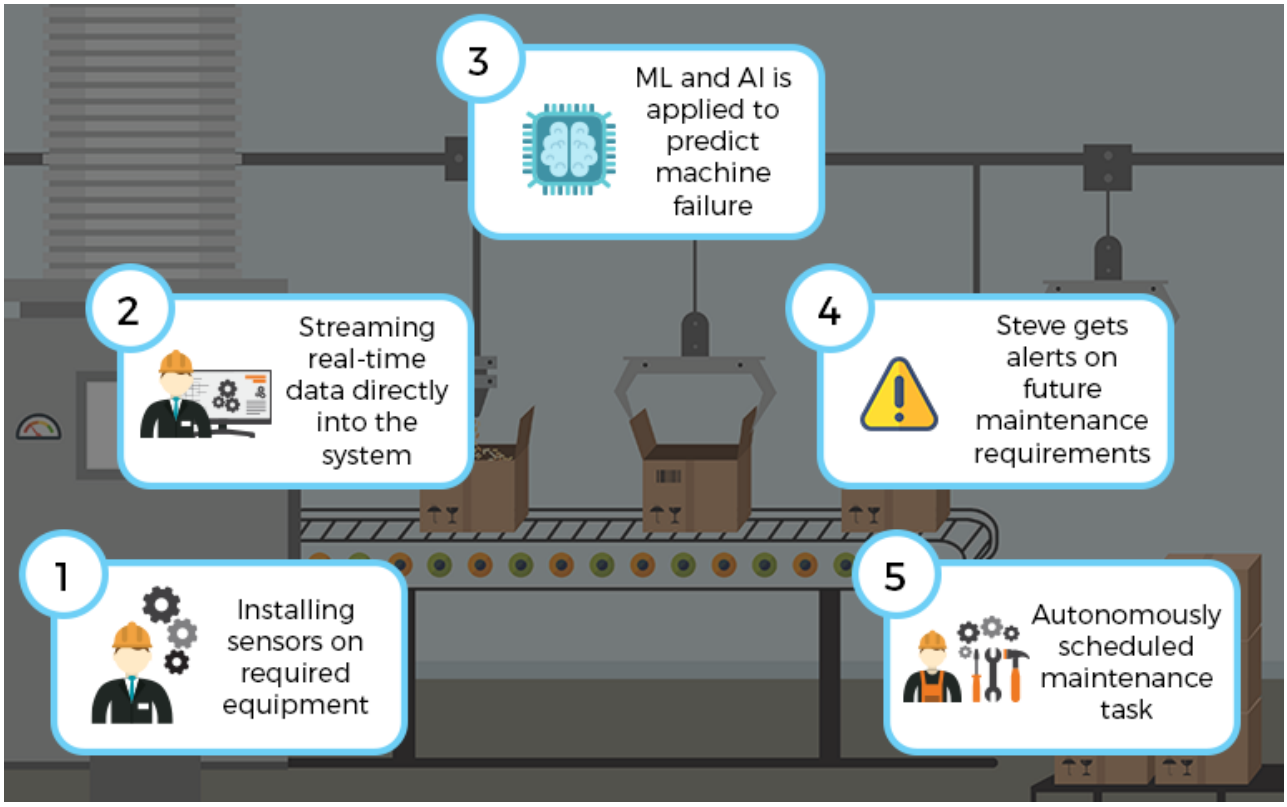

Fig 4."Automating Maintenance: A Journey from Sensors to Smart Actions"

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APPENDIX A

TASK 1

```
import pandas as pd
from sqlalchemy import create_engine, MetaData, Table, Column, Float, Integer
import numpy as np
from bokeh.plotting import figure, show, output_file
from bokeh.layouts import gridplot
from bokeh.models import Legend
from scipy import stats

# Constants for database connection
DATABASE_URI = 'sqlite:///data.db'

class DataProcessor:
    """Class to handle data processing tasks such as loading data and choosing ideal functions."""

    def __init__(self, db_uri=DATABASE_URI):
        # Initialize database connection
        self.engine = create_engine(db_uri)
        self.metadata = MetaData()

        # Define training data table schema
        self.training_data_table = Table(
            'training_data', self.metadata,
            Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
            Column('x', Float),
            Column('y1', Float),
            Column('y2', Float),
            Column('y3', Float),
            Column('y4', Float)
        )

        # Define ideal functions table schema
        self.ideal_functions_table = Table(
            'ideal_functions', self.metadata,
            Column('id', Integer, primary_key=True),
            Column('x', Float),
            *[Column(f'y{i}', Float) for i in range(1, 51)]
        )

        # Create tables if they don't exist
        self.metadata.create_all(self.engine)

    def load_data(self, train_csv_path, test_csv_path, ideal_csv_path):
        """Load data from CSV files into the database."""
        try:
            # Load training data
            train_df = pd.read_csv(train_csv_path)
```

```
        train_df.to_sql('training_data', self.engine, if_exists='replace', index=False)
        print("Training data loaded into database.")

        # Load ideal functions data
        ideal_df = pd.read_csv(ideal_csv_path)
        ideal_df.to_sql('ideal_functions', self.engine, if_exists='replace', index=False)
        print("Ideal functions data loaded into database.")

        # Load test data
        test_df = pd.read_csv(test_csv_path)
        print("Test data loaded.")

        return train_df, test_df, ideal_df
    except Exception as e:
        print(f"Error loading data: {e}")
        raise

def choose_ideal_functions(self, train_df, ideal_df):
    """Choose the ideal functions that best fit the training data using the Least-Square criterion."""
    try:
        chosen_ideal_functions = {}
        for i in range(1, 5):
            y_column = f'y{i}'
            y_train = train_df[y_column].values

            min_error = float('inf')
            ideal_function_index = None

            for j in range(1, 51):
                ideal_column = f'y{j}'
                y_ideal = ideal_df[ideal_column].values
                error = np.sum((y_train - y_ideal) ** 2)

                if error < min_error:
                    min_error = error
                    ideal_function_index = j

            chosen_ideal_functions[y_column] = (ideal_function_index, min_error)
            print(f"Ideal function for y{i}: y{ideal_function_index} with error {min_error}")

        return chosen_ideal_functions
    except Exception as e:
        print(f"Error choosing ideal functions: {e}")
        raise

def map_test_data(self, test_df, chosen_ideal_functions, ideal_df):
    """Map test data to chosen ideal functions based on deviation criteria."""
    try:
        # Create a DataFrame to store results
```

```
            mapped_df = pd.DataFrame(columns=['x', 'y', 'chosen_ideal_function', 'deviation'])

            for _, row in test_df.iterrows():
                x_test = row['x']
                y_test = row['y']

                # Initialize minimum deviation
                min_deviation = float('inf')
                chosen_ideal_function = None

                # Compare y_test with ideal functions
                for y_column, (ideal_function_index, _) in chosen_ideal_functions.items():
                    ideal_column = f'y{ideal_function_index}'
                    y_ideal = ideal_df.loc[ideal_df['x'] == x_test, ideal_column].values[0]
                    deviation = abs(y_test - y_ideal)

                    if deviation < min_deviation:
                        min_deviation = deviation
                        chosen_ideal_function = y_column

                # Append the result
                mapped_df = mapped_df.append({
                    'x': x_test,
                    'y': y_test,
                    'chosen_ideal_function': chosen_ideal_function,
                    'deviation': min_deviation
                }, ignore_index=True)

            print("Test data mapped to ideal functions.")
            return mapped_df
        except Exception as e:
            print(f"Error mapping test data: {e}")
            raise

class Visualizer:
    """Class to handle visualization tasks using Bokeh."""

    def plot_data(self, train_df, test_df, ideal_df, mapped_df):
        """Plot training data, chosen ideal functions, test data, and mapped test data."""
        # Create plots
        training_plot = figure(title="Training Data and Ideal Functions", x_axis_label='x', y_axis_label='y')
        test_plot = figure(title="Test Data", x_axis_label='x', y_axis_label='y')
        deviation_plot = figure(title="Mapped Test Data and Deviations", x_axis_label='x',
y_axis_label='deviation')

        # Colors for different data sets
        colors = ['blue', 'green', 'red', 'purple']

        # Plot training data
```

```
    for i in range(1, 5):
        y_column = f'y{i}'
        training_plot.circle(train_df['x'], train_df[y_column], color=colors[i - 1], size=6,
legend_label=f'Training y{i}')

    # Plot chosen ideal functions
    for i in range(1, 5):
        y_column = f'y{i}'
        ideal_function_index = chosen_ideal_functions[y_column][0]
        ideal_column = f'y{ideal_function_index}'
        training_plot.line(ideal_df['x'], ideal_df[ideal_column], color=colors[i - 1], line_width=2,
legend_label=f'Ideal y{i}')

    # Plot test data
    test_plot.circle(test_df['x'], test_df['y'], color='black', size=6, legend_label='Test Data')

    # Plot mapped test data and deviations
    for i in range(1, 5):
        y_column = f'y{i}'
        data_subset = mapped_df[mapped_df['chosen_ideal_function'] == y_column]

        # Scatter plot of mapped test data
        test_plot.scatter(data_subset['x'], data_subset['y'], color=colors[i - 1], size=6,
legend_label=f'Assigned to {y_column}')

        # Calculate curve fitting line for deviations
        slope, intercept, _, _, _ = stats.linregress(data_subset['x'], data_subset['deviation'])

        # Generate line of best fit for deviations
        x_range = np.linspace(data_subset['x'].min(), data_subset['x'].max(), 100)
        y_fit = slope * x_range + intercept

        # Plot curve fitting line for deviations
        deviation_plot.line(x_range, y_fit, color=colors[i - 1], line_width=2, legend_label=f'Deviation fit for
{y_column}')
        deviation_plot.scatter(data_subset['x'], data_subset['deviation'], color=colors[i - 1], size=6,
legend_label=f'Deviation for {y_column}')

    # Configure legends
    training_plot.legend.title = 'Data Types'
    training_plot.legend.title_text_font_style = 'bold'
    training_plot.legend.location = 'top_left'

    test_plot.legend.title = 'Test Data and Mapped Test Data'
    test_plot.legend.title_text_font_style = 'bold'
    test_plot.legend.location = 'top_left'

    deviation_plot.legend.title = 'Mapped Test Data and Deviations'
    deviation_plot.legend.title_text_font_style = 'bold'
```

```
        deviation_plot.legend.location = 'top_left'

        # Combine plots in a grid
        layout = gridplot([[training_plot], [test_plot], [deviation_plot]])

        # Save and show the plots
        output_file("data_visualization.html")
        show(layout)

if __name__ == "__main__":
    # File paths
    train_csv_path = "C:\\Users\\sanja\\OneDrive\\Desktop\\IU\\train.csv"
    test_csv_path = "C:\\Users\\sanja\\OneDrive\\Desktop\\IU\\test.csv"
    ideal_csv_path = "C:\\Users\\sanja\\OneDrive\\Desktop\\IU\\ideal.csv"

    # Create an instance of DataProcessor
    data_processor = DataProcessor()

    # Load data from CSV files
    train_df, test_df, ideal_df = data_processor.load_data(train_csv_path, test_csv_path, ideal_csv_path)

    # Choose ideal functions
    chosen_ideal_functions = data_processor.choose_ideal_functions(train_df, ideal_df)

    # Map test data to chosen ideal functions
    mapped_df = data_processor.map_test_data(test_df, chosen_ideal_functions, ideal_df)

    # Create an instance of Visualizer
    visualizer = Visualizer()

    # Plot data
    visualizer.plot_data(train_df, test_df, ideal_df, mapped_df)
```

RELATION BETWEEN TASK 1 AND TASK 2

In the realm of data analysis, two distinct yet interconnected challenges await. Task 1 embarks on a quest to identify the perfect mathematical companions for a given dataset, leveraging the least-square criterion approach to find the ideal functions that harmonize with the training data. This symphony of data and functions is then extended to the test data, where the goal is to find the best alignment, minimizing deviations and ensuring a seamless fit. The Bokeh visualization tool brings this process to life, weaving a rich tapestry of training data, ideal functions, test data, and deviations.

Meanwhile, Task 2 ventures into the realm of predictive maintenance, where the mission is to diagnose potential failures in a manufacturing process. The journey begins with a meticulous examination of the dataset, involving data cleaning, visualization, and balancing techniques like SMOTETomek to tackle the challenge of imbalanced classes. A trio of machine learning models – Logistic Regression, Random Forest, and Gradient Boosting – are then deployed to predict the type of failure based on operational parameters. The performance of each model is scrutinized using a quartet of metrics: accuracy, precision, recall, and F1 score.

While the contexts of these two tasks differ, they share a common thread – the importance of data integrity and the pursuit of optimal model selection and evaluation. Both tasks underscore the significance of data quality, whether it's approximating ideal functions or balancing classes in a predictive model. Visualization emerges as a crucial ally, providing a window into the data distributions and relationships between variables and predicted outcomes. Together, these tasks form a comprehensive framework for tackling data-driven challenges, spanning the entire spectrum from data processing to model evaluation and visualization.

APPENDIX B

TASK 2

```
import pandas as pd
import numpy as np
from imblearn.over_sampling import SMOTE
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import seaborn as sns
sns.set(color_codes=True)
sns.set_style("darkgrid")

import sklearn
import sklearn.metrics as met
from sklearn.metrics import confusion_matrix
from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier
import tensorflow as tf
from sklearn.metrics import classification_report, accuracy_score,
precision_score, recall_score, f1_score
from sklearn.metrics import precision_recall_curve
import warnings
warnings.filterwarnings('ignore')
```

```
pm = pd.read_csv('/content/predictive_maintenance.csv')
pm
```

```
pm.head()
pm.tail()
pm.shape
pm.info()
pm.describe()
pm= pm.drop(["UDI",'Product ID'],axis=1)
pm.head(10)
pm.shape
pm.isna().sum()
pm.groupby(['Target','Failure Type']).count().drop(['Process temperature
[K]',
                                                    'Rotational speed
[rpm]',
                                                   'Torque [Nm]',
                                                   'Tool wear [min]',
                                                    'Air temperature
[K]'],axis=1).rename(columns = {'Type':'count'})
pm.select_dtypes(include='number').groupby(['Target']).median()
pmcat = pm.groupby('Type')['Failure
Type'].value_counts().unstack().fillna(0)
pmcat
```

```
sns.boxplot(x=pm['Air temperature [K]'])
sns.boxplot(x=pm['Process temperature [K]'])
sns.boxplot(x=pm['Rotational speed [rpm]'])
sns.boxplot(x=pm['Torque [Nm]'])
sns.boxplot(x=pm['Tool wear [min]'])
sns.boxplot(x=pm['Target'])
plt.figure(figsize=(10,10))
p = sns.boxplot(data = pm,orient = 'v',width=0.8)
plt.xticks(rotation=90)
import pandas as pd

Q1 = pm['Rotational speed [rpm]'].quantile(0.25)
Q3 = pm['Torque [Nm]'].quantile(0.75)
IQR = Q3 - Q1

pm_no_outliers = pm[~((pm['Rotational speed [rpm]'] < (Q1 - 1.5 * IQR)) |
(pm['Torque [Nm]'] > (Q3 + 1.5 * IQR)))]

print(pm_no_outliers)
def remove_outliers_iqr(df, column):
    Q1 = pm[column].quantile(0.25)
    Q3 = pm[column].quantile(0.75)
    IQR = Q3 - Q1
    filtered_entries = ~((pm[column] < (Q1 - 1.5 * IQR)) | (pm[column] > (Q3
+ 1.5 * IQR)))
    pm_no_outliers = pm[filtered_entries]
    return pm_no_outliers


pm_no_outliers_iqr = remove_outliers_iqr(pm.copy(), 'Rotational speed
[rpm]')
print("DataFrame without outliers using IQR:")
print(pm_no_outliers_iqr)

sns.set(style="darkgrid")
plt.figure(figsize=(10, 6))

sns.boxplot(x=pm_no_outliers_iqr['Target'],color='lightblue' )
plt.title('Boxplot without Outliers')

plt.tight_layout()
plt.show()
sns.countplot(x = pm['Target'], palette= 'cividis')
plt.xlabel('Target')
plt.figure(figsize=(18,7))
sns.scatterplot(data=pm, x="Torque [Nm]", y="Rotational speed [rpm]",
hue="Target",palette="Set2");
plt.figure(figsize=(18,7))
sns.scatterplot(data=pm, x="Torque [Nm]", y="Rotational speed [rpm]",
hue="Failure Type",palette="Set2");
plt.figure(figsize=(18,7))
```

```
sns.scatterplot(data=pm, x="Torque [Nm]", y="Rotational speed [rpm]",
hue="Type",palette="Set2");
!pip install plotly
import plotly.express as px
machines = pm['Failure Type'].value_counts()

names = machines.index.tolist()

fig = px.pie(
    machines,
    values=machines.values,
    names=names,
    title='Proportion of Faulty Machines',
)

fig.update_layout(legend_title_text='Failure Type', title_x=0.3,
title_y=0.95,)
fig.show()
plt.figure(figsize=(18,6))

plt.subplot(1, 5, 1)
plt.hist(pm['Air temperature [K]'], color='darkblue',bins=20,
edgecolor='black', alpha=0.7)
plt.title('HISTOGRAM FOR FAILURE TYPES')
plt.xlabel('Air Temperature [K]')
plt.ylabel('Frequency')
plt.grid(True)

plt.subplot(1, 5, 2)
plt.hist(pm['Process temperature [K]'],bins=20, color='skyblue',
edgecolor='black', alpha=0.7)
plt.title('HISTOGRAM FOR FAILURE TYPES')
plt.xlabel('Process Temperature')
plt.ylabel('Frequency')
plt.grid(True)

plt.subplot(1, 5, 3)
plt.hist(pm['Rotational speed [rpm]'], bins=20, color='yellow',
edgecolor='black', alpha=0.7)
plt.title('HISTOGRAM FOR FAILURE TYPES')
plt.xlabel('Rotational Speed')
plt.ylabel('Frequency')
plt.grid(True)


plt.subplot(1, 5, 4)
plt.hist(pm['Torque [Nm]'], bins=20, color='red', edgecolor='black',
alpha=0.7)
plt.title('HISTOGRAM FOR FAILURE TYPES')
plt.xlabel('Torque')
```

```
plt.ylabel('Frequency')
plt.grid(True)

plt.subplot(1, 5, 5)
plt.hist(pm['Tool wear [min]'], bins=20, color='purple', edgecolor='black',
alpha=0.7)
plt.title('HISTOGRAM FOR FAILURE TYPES')
plt.xlabel('Tool wear')
plt.ylabel('Frequency')
plt.grid(True)


plt.tight_layout()
plt.show()
plt.pie(pm.Type.value_counts(), labels = pm.Type.unique())
plt.show()
plt.figure(figsize=(16, 8))
sns.countplot(x='Failure Type', data=pm, palette='inferno')

plt.title('Countplot for Types of Failures ')
plt.xlabel('Failure Type')
plt.ylabel('Count')

plt.show()
plt.figure(figsize=(6,4))
sns.pairplot(data=pm)
pm = pm.replace('M', np.nan)
pm = pm.replace('L', np.nan)
pm = pm.replace('H', np.nan)

for col in ['Air temperature [K]', 'Process temperature [K]', 'Rotational
speed [rpm]', 'Torque [Nm]', 'Tool wear [min]']:
    pm[col] = pd.to_numeric(pm[col], errors='coerce')
pm_numeric = pm.drop('Failure Type', axis=1)

corr_matrix = pm_numeric.corr()

plt.figure(figsize=(10, 8))

sns.heatmap(corr_matrix, annot=True, cmap='coolwarm', linewidths=.5)
plt.title('Correlation Heatmap')
plt.show()
import sklearn.preprocessing
label_encoder = sklearn.preprocessing.LabelEncoder()
pm['FT_encoder'] = label_encoder.fit_transform(pm['Failure Type'])

pm['FT_encoder'].value_counts()
pm_encoder = pd.get_dummies(pm, columns=['Type'], prefix='Type',
drop_first=True)
pm_encoder.head()
pm=pm_encoder
```

```
pm.info()
from imblearn.combine import SMOTETomek

# Define features and target
X = pm.drop(['Failure Type','Target','FT_encoder'], axis=1).values
y = pm['FT_encoder'].values

# Split data into train, validation, and test
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size=0.2,
random_state=42)

# Count the original class distribution
print(" IMBALANCED CLASS:")
print(pm['FT_encoder'].value_counts())

smt=SMOTETomek(sampling_strategy='auto',random_state=42)

X_trainresampled, y_trainresampled = smt.fit_resample(X_train, y_train)

# Convert the resampled dataset to a DataFrame
pm_resampled = pd.DataFrame(X_trainresampled, columns=[f'feature_{i}' for i
in range(X_trainresampled.shape[1])])
pm_resampled['FT_encoder'] = y_trainresampled

# Count the class distribution after balancing
print("\n BALANCED CLASS :")
print(pm_resampled['FT_encoder'].value_counts())

#Visualize the class distribution before and after balancing
plt.figure(figsize=(20, 8))

plt.subplot(1, 2, 1)
plt.bar(pm['Failure Type'].unique(), pm['Failure Type'].value_counts())
plt.title("IMBALANCED CLASS")
plt.xlabel("Class")
plt.ylabel("Count")
plt.xticks(rotation=45)

plt.subplot(1, 2, 2)
plt.bar(pm_resampled['FT_encoder'].unique(),
pm_resampled['FT_encoder'].value_counts())
plt.title("BALANCED CLASS")
plt.xlabel("Class")
plt.ylabel("Count")


plt.tight_layout()
plt.show()
print(X_train.shape, y_train.shape , X_test.shape, y_test.shape)
from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
```

```
scaler = StandardScaler()
X_train_scaled = scaler.fit_transform(X_trainresampled)
X_test_scaled = scaler.transform(X_test)
print(X_train.shape, y_train.shape , X_test.shape, y_test.shape)
from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size= 0.20
,random_state= 42)

model=LogisticRegression(class_weight='balanced')
model.fit(X_train,y_train)

y_pred= model.predict(X_test)

accuracy = accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred)
print(f"Accuracy: {accuracy}")

precision = precision_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
print(f"Precision:{precision:.4f}")

recall = recall_score(y_test, y_pred,average='weighted' )
print(f"Recall:{recall:.4f}")

f1 = f1_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
print(f"F1 Score:{f1:.4f}")

cr=classification_report(y_test,y_pred)
print(cr)
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size= 0.40
,random_state= 42)

model=RandomForestClassifier(max_depth=5,random_state=42)
model.fit(X_train,y_train)

y_pred= model.predict(X_test)

accuracy = accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred)
print(f"Accuracy: {accuracy}")

precision = precision_score(y_test, y_pred,average='weighted')
print(f"Precision:{precision:.4f}")

recall = recall_score(y_test, y_pred,average='weighted')
print(f"Recall:{recall:.4f}")

f1 = f1_score(y_test, y_pred,average='weighted')
print(f"F1 Score:{f1:.4f}")

cr=classification_report(y_test,y_pred)
print(cr)
```

```
from sklearn.tree import DecisionTreeClassifier
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size= 0.40
,random_state= 42)

model=DecisionTreeClassifier(max_depth=8,random_state=42)
model.fit(X_train,y_train)

y_pred= model.predict(X_test)

accuracy = accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred)
print(f"Accuracy: {accuracy}")

precision = precision_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
print(f"Precision:{precision:.4f}")

recall = recall_score(y_test, y_pred,average='weighted')
print(f"Recall:{recall:.4f}")

f1 = f1_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
print(f"F1 Score:{f1:.4f}")

cr=classification_report(y_test,y_pred)
print(cr)
from sklearn.ensemble import BaggingClassifier
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size= 0.20
,random_state= 42)

model=BaggingClassifier(n_estimators= 50, max_samples=0.8,random_state=42)
model.fit(X_train,y_train)

y_pred= model.predict(X_test)

accuracy = accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred)
print(f"Accuracy: {accuracy}")

precision = precision_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
print(f"Precision:{precision:.4f}")

recall = recall_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
print(f"Recall:{recall:.4f}")

f1 = f1_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
print(f"F1 Score:{f1:.4f}")

cr=classification_report(y_test,y_pred)
print(cr)
from sklearn.ensemble import AdaBoostClassifier
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size= 0.20
,random_state= 42)
```

```
model=AdaBoostClassifier(n_estimators= 100,
learning_rate=0.1,random_state=42)
model.fit(X_train,y_train)

y_pred= model.predict(X_test)

accuracy = accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred)
print(f"Accuracy: {accuracy}")

precision = precision_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
print(f"Precision:{precision:.4f}")

recall = recall_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
print(f"Recall:{recall:.4f}")

f1 = f1_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
print(f"F1 Score:{f1:.4f}")

cr=classification_report(y_test,y_pred)
print(cr)
from sklearn.ensemble import GradientBoostingClassifier
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size= 0.20
,random_state= 42)

model=GradientBoostingClassifier(n_estimators= 100,
learning_rate=0.1,max_depth=5 ,random_state=42)
model.fit(X_train,y_train)

y_pred= model.predict(X_test)

accuracy = accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred)
print(f"Accuracy: {accuracy}")

precision = precision_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
print(f"Precision:{precision:.4f}")

recall = recall_score(y_test, y_pred,average='weighted')
print(f"Recall:{recall:.4f}")

f1 = f1_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
print(f"F1 Score:{f1:.4f}")

cr=classification_report(y_test,y_pred)
print(cr)
from xgboost import XGBClassifier
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size= 0.20
,random_state= 42)

model=XGBClassifier(n_estimators= 100, learning_rate=0.1,max_depth=5
,random_state=42)
```

```
model.fit(X_train,y_train)

y_pred= model.predict(X_test)

accuracy = accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred)
print(f"Accuracy: {accuracy}")

precision = precision_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
print(f"Precision:{precision:.4f}")

recall = recall_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
print(f"Recall:{recall:.4f}")

f1 = f1_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
print(f"F1 Score:{f1:.4f}")

cr=classification_report(y_test,y_pred)
print(cr)
from sklearn.neighbors import KNeighborsClassifier
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size= 0.20
,random_state= 42)

model=KNeighborsClassifier(n_neighbors=8)
model.fit(X_train,y_train)

y_pred= model.predict(X_test)

accuracy = accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred)
print(f"Accuracy: {accuracy}")

precision = precision_score(y_test, y_pred,average='weighted')
print(f"Precision:{precision:.4f}")

recall = recall_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
print(f"Recall:{recall:.4f}")

f1 = f1_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
print(f"F1 Score:{f1:.4f}")

cr=classification_report(y_test,y_pred)
print(cr)
from sklearn.svm import SVC
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size= 0.30
,random_state= 42)

model=SVC(kernel='linear', random_state=42)
model.fit(X_train,y_train)

y_pred= model.predict(X_test)
```

```
accuracy = accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred)
print(f"Accuracy: {accuracy}")

precision = precision_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
print(f"Precision:{precision:.4f}")

recall = recall_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
print(f"Recall:{recall:.4f}")

f1 = f1_score(y_test, y_pred , average='weighted')
print(f"F1 Score:{f1:.4f}")

cr=classification_report(y_test,y_pred)
print(cr)
import numpy as np
from sklearn.datasets import make_classification
from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
from sklearn.naive_bayes import GaussianNB
from sklearn.metrics import classification_report, confusion_matrix

# Generate imbalanced synthetic data
X, y = make_classification(n_samples=10000, n_features=10, n_classes=2,
                           weights=[0.9, 0.1], random_state=42)

# Split data into train and test sets
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size=0.2,
random_state=42)

# Initialize Gaussian Naive Bayes classifier
gnb = GaussianNB()

# Train the classifier
gnb.fit(X_train, y_train)

# Predictions
y_pred = gnb.predict(X_test)

# Evaluation
print("Confusion Matrix:")
print(confusion_matrix(y_test, y_pred))
print("\nClassification Report:")
print(classification_report(y_test, y_pred))
from sklearn.model_selection import RandomizedSearchCV
from sklearn.metrics import accuracy_score, precision_score, recall_score,
f1_score
from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression
from sklearn.ensemble import RandomForestClassifier, BaggingClassifier,
AdaBoostClassifier, GradientBoostingClassifier
from sklearn.tree import DecisionTreeClassifier
from sklearn.neighbors import KNeighborsClassifier
```

```
from sklearn.svm import SVC
from sklearn.naive_bayes import GaussianNB
from xgboost import XGBClassifier  # Ensure xgboost is installed: `pip
install xgboost`
import numpy as np

# Define hyperparameter distributions for each algorithm
param_distributions = {
    'LogisticRegression': {
        'C': [0.1, 1, 10],
        'penalty': ['l2'],  # Note: 'l1' penalty is not supported with
'liblinear' solver in LogisticRegression by default
        'solver': ['liblinear', 'lbfgs']
    },
    'RandomForestClassifier': {
        'n_estimators': [int(x) for x in np.linspace(start=100, stop=1000,
num=10)],  # 100 to 1000 in steps
        'max_depth': [None, 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30],
        'max_features': ['auto', 'sqrt', 'log2'],
        'min_samples_split': [2, 5, 10],
        'min_samples_leaf': [1, 2, 4],
        'bootstrap': [True, False]
    },
    'DecisionTreeClassifier': {
        'max_depth': [None, 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30],
        'min_samples_split': [2, 5, 10],
        'min_samples_leaf': [1, 2, 4]
    },
    'BaggingClassifier': {
        'n_estimators': [int(x) for x in np.linspace(start=100, stop=1000,
num=10)],
        'max_samples': [0.5, 0.75, 1.0],
        'max_features': [0.5, 0.75, 1.0]
    },
    'AdaBoostClassifier': {
        'n_estimators': [int(x) for x in np.linspace(start=100, stop=1000,
num=10)],
        'learning_rate': [0.01, 0.1, 1, 10]
    },
    'GradientBoostingClassifier': {
        'n_estimators': [int(x) for x in np.linspace(start=100, stop=1000,
num=10)],
        'learning_rate': [0.01, 0.1, 0.5, 1.0],
        'max_depth': [3, 5, 7, 9],
        'min_samples_split': [2, 5, 10],
        'min_samples_leaf': [1, 2, 4],
        'subsample': [0.5, 0.75, 1.0]
    },
    'XGBoostClassifier': {
```

```
        'n_estimators': [int(x) for x in np.linspace(start=100, stop=1000,
num=10)],
        'learning_rate': [0.01, 0.1, 0.5, 1.0],
        'max_depth': [3, 5, 7, 9],
        'min_child_weight': [1, 3, 5],
        'subsample': [0.5, 0.75, 1.0],
        'colsample_bytree': [0.5, 0.75, 1.0]
    },
    'KNeighborsClassifier': {
        'n_neighbors': [int(x) for x in np.linspace(start=1, stop=30,
num=30)],
        'weights': ['uniform', 'distance'],
        'metric': ['euclidean', 'manhattan', 'minkowski']
    },
    'SVC': {
        'C': [0.1, 1, 10, 100],
        'kernel': ['linear', 'rbf', 'poly', 'sigmoid'],
        'gamma': ['scale', 'auto']
    },
    'GaussianNB': {
        'var_smoothing': [1e-09, 1e-08, 1e-07, 1e-06, 1e-05]  #
Var_smoothing parameter values
    }
}

# Define the estimator for each algorithm
estimators = {
    'LogisticRegression': LogisticRegression(),
    'RandomForestClassifier': RandomForestClassifier(),
    'DecisionTreeClassifier': DecisionTreeClassifier(),
    'BaggingClassifier':
BaggingClassifier(base_estimator=DecisionTreeClassifier()),
    'AdaBoostClassifier':
AdaBoostClassifier(base_estimator=DecisionTreeClassifier()),
    'GradientBoostingClassifier': GradientBoostingClassifier(),
    'XGBoostClassifier': XGBClassifier(),  # Make sure to install xgboost
    'KNeighborsClassifier': KNeighborsClassifier(),
    'SVC': SVC(),
    'GaussianNB': GaussianNB()
}

# Perform random search for each algorithm
for algorithm, param_dist in param_distributions.items():
    estimator = estimators[algorithm]
    random_search = RandomizedSearchCV(estimator, param_dist, n_iter=10,
cv=5, scoring='accuracy', random_state=42)
    random_search.fit(X_train, y_train)

    # Evaluate performance metrics
    y_pred = random_search.best_estimator_.predict(X_test)
```

```
    accuracy = accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred)
    precision = precision_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
    recall = recall_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')
    f1 = f1_score(y_test, y_pred, average='weighted')

    print(f"Best parameters for {algorithm}: {random_search.best_params_}")
    print(f"Best cross-validated score: {random_search.best_score_}")
    print(f"Accuracy on test data: {accuracy:.3f}")
    print(f"Precision on test data: {precision:.3f}")
    print(f"Recall on test data: {recall:.3f}")
    print(f"F1 score on test data: {f1:.3f}")
    print()
data = {'LogisticRegression':0.936,   'Decisiontree':0.944,
'Randomforest':0.955,'Bagging':0.952, 'Adaboost':0.932, 'GBoost':0.953,
'XGBoost':0.950,'KNN':0.942,'SVM':0.947, 'GaussianNB': 0.920}
courses = list(data.keys())
values = list(data.values())

fig = plt.figure(figsize = (15, 5))
plt.bar(courses, values, color = 'red',width=0.7)
plt.xlabel("ML Algorithms")
plt.ylabel("Accuracy")
plt.title("Comparison of accuracy values of different algorithms")
plt.show()
data = {'LogisticRegression':0.930,   'Decisiontree':0.953,
'Randomforest':0.943,'Bagging':0.950, 'Adaboost':0.932, 'GBoost':0.951,
'XGBoost':0.948,'KNN':0.937,'SVM':0.943, 'GaussianNB': 0.924}
courses = list(data.keys())
values = list(data.values())

fig = plt.figure(figsize = (15, 5))
plt.bar(courses, values, color = 'orange',width=0.7)
plt.xlabel("ML Algorithms")
plt.ylabel("PRECISION")
plt.title("Comparison of precision values of different algorithms")
plt.show()
data = {'LogisticRegression':0.936,   'Decisiontree':0.944,
'Randomforest':0.955,'Bagging':0.952, 'Adaboost':0.932, 'GBoost':0.953,
'XGBoost':0.950,'KNN':0.942,'SVM':0.947, 'GaussianNB': 0.920}
courses = list(data.keys())
values = list(data.values())

fig = plt.figure(figsize = (15, 5))
plt.bar(courses, values, color = 'blue',width=0.7)
plt.xlabel("ML Algorithms")
plt.ylabel("RECALL")
plt.title("Comparison of RECALL values of different algorithms")
plt.show()
```

```
data = {'LogisticRegression':0.929,   'Decisiontree':0.944,
'Randomforest':0.953,'Bagging':0.950, 'Adaboost':0.932, 'GBoost':0.952,
'XGBoost':0.949,'KNN':0.938,'SVM':0.943, 'GaussianNB': 0.922}
courses = list(data.keys())
values = list(data.values())

fig = plt.figure(figsize = (15, 5))
plt.bar(courses, values, color = 'purple',width=0.7)
plt.xlabel("ML Algorithms")
plt.ylabel("F1 SCORE")
plt.title("Comparison of F1 SCORE values of different algorithms")
plt.show()
```

GIT COMMANDS

cd – It is used to navigate through directories in a file system.

git clone– It is used to make a local copy of a Git repository from a remote location