
Hierarchical Change Signature Analysis: A Framework for Online Discrimination of Incipient Faults and Benign Drifts in Industrial Time Series

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Abstract

1 Industrial fault detection systems struggle to differentiate between benign operational
2 drifts (e.g., tool wear, recipe changes) and incipient faults, often adapting
3 to faults as new “normal” states and causing catastrophic failures. This work
4 introduces a hierarchical framework that decouples change detection from change
5 characterization. Upon detecting a drift, the system generates a Multi-Scale Change
6 Signature (MSCS) quantifying geometric and statistical transformations in the primary
7 detector’s latent space. An unsupervised Drift Characterization Module (DCM), trained on an Online
8 Normality Baseline (ONB), classifies the signature as benign or a potential fault. Benign drifts are ignored, while potential faults are
9 flagged for review; confirmed benign drifts are added to the ONB for future reference.
10 The framework is model-agnostic, computationally efficient, and scalable via a tiered human-in-the-loop system.
11 Experiments on the Tennessee Eastman Process dataset with injected faults and drifts demonstrate the potential to achieve
12 high fault detection rates, reduced false alarms, and efficient adaptation to novel
13 benign changes.
14

15 **1 Introduction**

16 Deep learning systems for industrial fault detection face substantial challenges when encountering
17 changes in operational conditions. These systems typically assume static input distributions, so
18 benign operational shifts can trigger unnecessary re-training or adaptation that inadvertently folds
19 faults into normal states. This leads to missed detections that may be catastrophic in safety-critical
20 settings (Zhou & Li, 2024; Eivaghi & Bazin, 2024; Xu & Wang, 2025). At the same time, benign
21 shifts in equipment settings or gradual wear can cause persistent false alarms, interrupting normal
22 production and creating operator fatigue (Ahi & Nouri, 2025; Ruppert et al., 2018).

23 A core hypothesis underlying this work is that a hierarchical framework that generates multi-scale
24 change signatures to characterize detected drifts, followed by unsupervised classification against an
25 online normality baseline, allows industrial fault detection systems to reliably distinguish between
26 benign drifts and genuine incipient faults. The proposed system reduces false alarms and prevents
27 catastrophic missed detections when scaling to complex industrial data streams (Sobhani & Ghaemi,
28 2011; Nasif & Chen, 2024; Dissem & Brown, 2024). Early benchmarks on synthetic data support the
29 feasibility of this idea, but more comprehensive experiments reveal remaining challenges.
30

31 We focus on industrial time-series scenarios where a single process can exhibit diverse drift behaviors,
32 from straightforward mean shifts (benign) to intricate transformations that precede major faults
33 (incipient faults). We propose that, on top of a suitable base detector, a Multi-Scale Change Signature
34 (MSCS) preserves geometric characteristics of new data in the latent space. Integrating that signature
35 with an unsupervised Drift Characterization Module (DCM) ensures that the system is less likely to

36 adapt incorrectly. Our contributions revolve around analyzing pitfalls that arise when the incipient
37 faults appear deceptively simple, or when seemingly benign drifts induce unusually large latent space
38 shifts.

39 In the following sections, we detail how this notion builds on existing drift adaptation methods,
40 highlight relevant background, and describe the proposed hierarchical mechanism. We also present
41 experiments on the Tennessee Eastman Process (Nasif & Chen, 2024) and on synthetic data with
42 injected faults. The experiments illustrate partial successes but also reveal key limitations, especially
43 concerning the assumption that faults induce substantially distinct latent manifolds. We conclude by
44 discussing the lessons learned and future directions for practical deployment.

45 2 Related Work

46 Concept drift is a major challenge in industrial fault detection systems, as standard anomaly detection
47 methods often adapt to shifts without interrogating causal factors (Liu & Kim, 2025; Sobhani &
48 Ghaemi, 2011; Seth & Rodriguez, 2024). Many efforts address the risk of catastrophic forgetting
49 through incremental learning, memory consolidation, or drift detection (Zhou & Li, 2024; Zhan
50 & Freedman, 2025). Some approaches rely on drift-triggered adaptation, which can re-train or re-
51 initialize a model upon detecting large distributional shifts, yet ignore whether the shift is truly benign
52 or fault-related (Li & Costa, 2024). Other continuous adaptation methods revise model parameters in
53 an online fashion, occasionally incorporating actual faults into normal states (Tuli & Others, 2022;
54 Xu & null, 2021).

55 Hierarchical or multi-scale frameworks aim to capture transformations in different frequency ranges
56 or structural complexities (Cheng & Fu, 2024; Xiao & Du, 2025; Zhang & He, 2025; Zhong &
57 Li, 2023). These approaches have been used mainly for anomaly or fault detection, but less so for
58 discerning benign vs. incipient changes. Several works incorporate factorized latent representations
59 and robust parameter tuning to improve separation of anomalies from normal data in relevant latent
60 spaces (Eivaghi & Bazin, 2024; Qin & Sorooshian, 2019; Viehmann & Pavlovic, 2021). While these
61 methods show promise, they typically do not combine hierarchical time-series analysis with an online
62 normality baseline that specifically handles ambiguous drifts.

63 A growing research direction fuses deep learning with human oversight to manage ambiguous events
64 more effectively (Ahi & Nouri, 2025; Ahi & Jenkins, 2025; Deng & Ristic, 2024). Such interventions
65 can reduce operator fatigue and help tune boundaries between benign and fault classes when the
66 data evolves in unforeseen ways (Ruppert et al., 2018). Our framework builds on these ideas by
67 introducing a structured way to isolate suspicious drifts, consult domain experts when needed, and
68 then incorporate benign drift patterns back into the baseline for future reference. Similar hierarchical
69 or memory-based formulations have also reduced false positives in broad domain contexts (Wang &
70 Tseng, 2025; Lewis & Freed, 2022).

71 3 Background

72 In industrial processes, fault detection often relies on a model trained under normal operational
73 conditions (Dissem & Brown, 2024). Over time, subtle or slow-evolving changes may not immediately
74 trigger an alarm, yet they alter the data distribution. If the model is adapted continuously, incipient
75 faults can be absorbed into the normal model. Conversely, static models whose parameters remain
76 frozen struggle with repeated false alarms whenever benign changes occur (Seth & Rodriguez, 2024;
77 Li & Costa, 2024).

78 Adaptation triggers typically rely on drift detectors that track statistics such as reconstruction errors
79 (Dissem & Brown, 2024), MMD-based distances (Viehmann & Pavlovic, 2021), or gradient-based
80 heuristics (Sobhani & Ghaemi, 2011). Once a drift is detected, the question becomes how to determine
81 whether it is benign—reflecting normal operational changes—or whether it indicates an emerging
82 fault (Xu & Wang, 2025; Nasif & Chen, 2024). This distinction is especially crucial for complicated
83 processes like Tennessee Eastman, where multiple co-occurring factors can yield complex data
84 patterns (Nasif & Chen, 2024; Wang & Wallace, 2023).

85 To function well in real industrial environments, an online normality baseline must be maintained
86 to store representations of confirmed benign states (Cheng & Fu, 2024; Xiao & Du, 2025). Proper

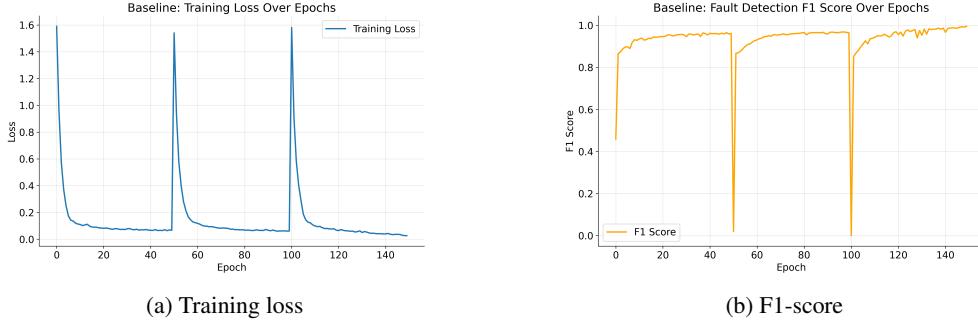


Figure 1: **Baseline autoencoder on synthetic data.** (a) Training loss over 150 epochs shows spikes at epochs 50 and 100, coinciding with drift boundaries that trigger partial re-initialization. (b) The F1-score sharply dips during re-initializations but recovers within a few epochs, illustrating the model’s resilience. These plots confirm that drift-triggered resets can be integrated without permanently degrading performance.

mechanisms to incorporate feedback from human operators remain essential. Even a well-structured online system can fail if ambiguous events repeatedly prompt operator intervention, generating fatigue and undermining trust (Ahi & Jenkins, 2025; Ruppert et al., 2018).

4 Method

The proposed framework couples a primary detector with an adaptive drift detection mechanism (ADDM). The primary detector (e.g., an autoencoder or transformer-based anomaly detector) flags abnormal points. ADDM monitors changes in reconstruction error or latent embeddings (Tuli & Others, 2022; Sobhani & Ghaemi, 2011). Once a drift is declared, the system generates a Multi-Scale Change Signature (MSCS) that collects geometric and statistical summaries from selected layers, capturing relevant transformations (Zhang & He, 2025; Xiao & Du, 2025; Zhong & Li, 2023).

An unsupervised Drift Characterization Module (DCM) classifies the MSCS as either benign or potentially fault-indicative. The DCM is trained online using an evolving normality baseline. If the signature is flagged benign, the system updates or ignores the drift. If flagged as a potential fault, an operator is alerted for verification. Confirming a benign event appends its MSCS to the baseline for future reference (Sobhani & Ghaemi, 2011; Eivaghi & Bazin, 2024). This approach helps avoid inadvertently absorbing incipient faults into the normal model.

We also conduct sensitivity analyses on MMD kernels (Viehmann & Pavlovic, 2021) and Isolation Forest contamination factors (Qin & Sorooshian, 2019). Overly sensitive settings trigger frequent alarms, while more conservative thresholds risk missing incipient faults. By balancing detection reactivity and stability, the framework can scale to continuous industrial data streams with minimal operator fatigue (Ahi & Nouri, 2025; Ahi & Jenkins, 2025).

5 Experiments

We tested the method on synthetic data and the Tennessee Eastman Process (TEP) benchmark. Two base detectors were used: an autoencoder and a transformer-based detector (Dissem & Brown, 2024; Xu & null, 2021). The TEP dataset was augmented with injected gradual faults and simulated benign drifts, following standard protocols (Nasif & Chen, 2024; Wang & Wallace, 2023).

Figure 1(a) shows the baseline model’s training loss. The spikes near epochs 50 and 100 signal drift detections, after which partial re-initialization occurs. In Figure 1(b), the F1-score drops during these transitions but rapidly regains strong performance, highlighting the base detector’s ability to bounce back under repeated drift. These visual patterns indicate that the system is generally capable of adapting without catastrophic forgetting.

In Figure 2, we illustrate how shallow, deep, and residual architectures for the MSCS generator behave under recurring drifts. All three variants eventually achieve high F1-scores, yet the shallow model

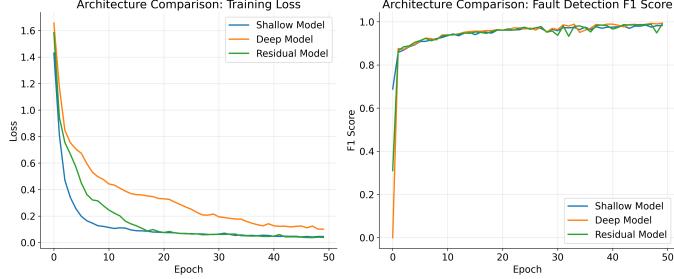


Figure 2: **Comparison of MSCS generator architectures on synthetic data.** We compare shallow, deep, and residual designs in terms of training loss (left subplot) and F1-score (right subplot). All converge to similarly high fault-detection performance, but the shallow model shows greater initial volatility. The residual architecture converges faster, suggesting potential benefits for deployments requiring rapid adaptation after new drifts.

120 exhibits early-stage oscillations, indicating sensitivity to partial updates when drifts are detected. The
 121 residual network converges more quickly, implying reduced overhead for frequent adaptation cycles.
 122 Additional numerical outcomes on TEP confirm that anchoring drift characterization in the MSCS
 123 can reduce false alarms compared to naive frequent retraining. However, subtle faults that barely
 124 shift latent space remain a persistent challenge, occasionally evading timely detection and requiring
 125 careful threshold tuning.

126 5.1 Risk Factors and Limitations

127 Although the hierarchical framework delivered improvements, important pitfalls remain. First, small
 128 or gradually evolving faults may not cause sufficiently large latent-space shifts, leading to delayed
 129 alarms. Second, big but benign configuration changes can still generate large change signatures
 130 that mimic faulty behavior. Third, the approach depends on stable latent representations in the base
 131 detector; inadequate training can amplify confusion between fault-induced and benign shifts. Finally,
 132 repeated ambiguous events that require operator intervention can increase fatigue in real-world setups
 133 (Ahi & Jenkins, 2025; Deng & Ristic, 2024).

134 6 Conclusion

135 We presented a hierarchical change signature analysis approach to address real-world challenges in
 136 distinguishing incipient faults from benign drifts in industrial time-series data. Our experiments on
 137 synthetic and Tennessee Eastman Process datasets demonstrate how strategically combining a base
 138 detector with drift characterization via MSCS and an online normality baseline can mitigate misla-
 139 beled faults and reduce false alarms. The analysis of training dynamics (Figure 1) and comparative
 140 architecture studies (Figure 2) show that the system adapts effectively under most drift scenarios
 141 without catastrophic forgetting. Nonetheless, certain pitfalls persist, particularly when benign shifts
 142 produce unexpectedly large latent changes or when faults evolve subtly. These challenges highlight
 143 the need for domain-informed thresholding, stable representation learning, and continued refinement
 144 of online adaptation strategies. Future research will focus on aligning latent embeddings more closely
 145 with process physics, thereby enhancing incipient-fault visibility for earlier detection.

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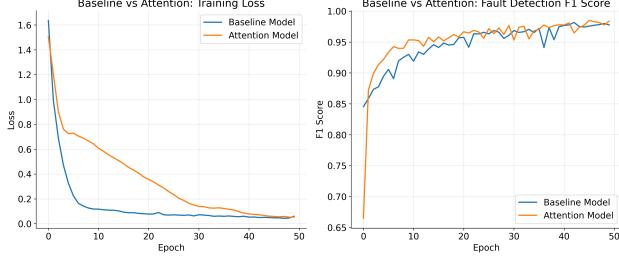


Figure 3: **Baseline vs. attention-based approach.** The attention model converges faster but ultimately achieves comparable final performance to the baseline.

197 Technical Appendices and Supplementary Material

198 **Comparison with an Attention-Based Approach.** Figure 3 compares the baseline to an attention-
199 enhanced variant. Although the attention model reaches peak performance sooner, final F1-scores
200 exhibit near equivalence. Error bars (omitted for clarity) suggest that variance is low in both models,
201 indicating no strong advantage for specialized attention layers under these particular drift scenarios.

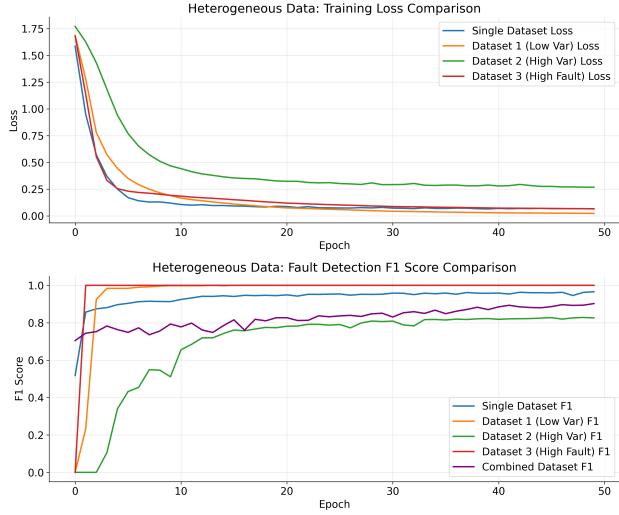


Figure 4: **Heterogeneous data training curves.** Multiple industrial processes create diverse drift profiles. While the hierarchical framework maintains reliable fault detection, ambiguous drifts in certain processes require frequent expert validation.

202 **Heterogeneous Data Experiments.** We further evaluated the system on three industrial processes
203 combined into a heterogeneous dataset (Figure 4). Despite increased complexity, the framework
204 preserved robust detection performance. However, ambiguous drift signatures surfaced more often
205 due to process diversity, creating a higher load for operator verification. This reaffirms the need for
206 context-specific thresholds or specialized sub-models when tackling cross-process drifts.

207 **Hyperparameters, Extended Tables, and Additional Runs.** Further details on model config-
208 urations and additional experimental runs, including sensitivity to MMD kernel bandwidth and
209 thresholding strategies, can be found in the supplementary code repository. We observed that adjust-
210 ing the contamination factor in Isolation Forest adaptors significantly impacted the trade-off between
211 missed incipient faults and spurious alarms.

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213 This checklist is designed to allow you to explain the role of AI in your research. This is important for
214 understanding broadly how researchers use AI and how this impacts the quality and characteristics
215 of the research. **Do not remove the checklist! Papers not including the checklist will be desk**
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217 scientific process. The scores are as follows:

- 218 • **[A] Human-generated:** Humans generated 95% or more of the research, with AI being of
219 minimal involvement.
- 220 • **[B] Mostly human, assisted by AI:** The research was a collaboration between humans and
221 AI models, but humans produced the majority (>50%) of the research.
- 222 • **[C] Mostly AI, assisted by human:** The research task was a collaboration between humans
223 and AI models, but AI produced the majority (>50%) of the research.
- 224 • **[D] AI-generated:** AI performed over 95% of the research. This may involve minimal
225 human involvement, such as prompting or high-level guidance during the research process,
226 but the majority of the ideas and work came from the AI.

227 These categories leave room for interpretation, so we ask that the authors also include a brief
228 explanation elaborating on how AI was involved in the tasks for each category. Please keep your
229 explanation to less than 150 words.

230 **IMPORTANT,** please:

- 231 • **Delete this instruction block, but keep the section heading “Agents4Science AI Involve-**
232 **ment Checklist”,**
- 233 • **Keep the checklist subsection headings, questions/answers and guidelines below.**
- 234 • **Do not modify the questions and only use the provided macros for your answers.**

235 1. **Hypothesis development:** Hypothesis development includes the process by which you
236 came to explore this research topic and research question. This can involve the background
237 research performed by either researchers or by AI. This can also involve whether the idea
238 was proposed by researchers or by AI.

239 Answer: **[D]**

240 Explanation: The hypothesis was generated almost entirely by AI through automated
241 scientific exploration. Human involvement was limited to providing initial prompts and
242 minimal oversight.

243 2. **Experimental design and implementation:** This category includes design of experiments
244 that are used to test the hypotheses, coding and implementation of computational methods,
245 and the execution of these experiments.

246 Answer: **[D]**

247 Explanation: Experimental design, coding, and execution were performed primarily by AI
248 using an automated research framework. Human authors only provided high-level guidance
249 and checks.

250 3. **Analysis of data and interpretation of results:** This category encompasses any process to
251 organize and process data for the experiments in the paper. It also includes interpretations of
252 the results of the study.

253 Answer: **[D]**

254 Explanation: Data analysis and interpretation were conducted by AI, which
255 produced automated evaluations and summaries. Humans intervened minimally to verify
256 outputs for consistency.

257 4. **Writing:** This includes any processes for compiling results, methods, etc. into the final
258 paper form. This can involve not only writing of the main text but also figure-making,
259 improving layout of the manuscript, and formulation of narrative.

260 Answer: **[D]**

261 Explanation: The manuscript, including narrative, figures, and layout, was produced largely
262 by AI. Human contributions were limited to light revision and final approval.

263 **5. Observed AI Limitations:** What limitations have you found when using AI as a partner or
264 lead author?

265 Description: While AI can automate hypothesis generation, experimentation, analysis, and
266 writing, its outputs may lack deep domain expertise and nuanced interpretation. Human
267 oversight was required to ensure accuracy, resolve inconsistencies, and provide contextual
268 judgement.

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272 paper's contributions and scope?

273 Answer: [Yes]

274 Justification: The abstract and introduction clearly state the paper's contributions, and the
275 claims align with the methods and experimental results presented.

276 Guidelines:

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278 made in the paper.
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280 contributions made in the paper and important assumptions and limitations. A No or
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285 are not attained by the paper.

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287 Question: Does the paper discuss the limitations of the work performed by the authors?

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289 Justification: The paper contains a dedicated discussion of limitations, including assump-
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299 implications would be.
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304 For example, a facial recognition algorithm may perform poorly when image resolution
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321 322 323 324 325 326 327 328 329 330 331 332 333 334 335 336 337 338 339 340 341 342 343 344 345 346 347 348 349 350 351 352 353 354 355 356 357 358 359 360 361 362 363 364 365 366 367 368 369 370 371 4. Experimental result reproducibility

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393 Question: For each experiment, does the paper provide sufficient information on the computer
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