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AI-Based Fault Detection in EV Powertrain Using Sensor Data

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Abstract: ***Electric vehicle (EV) powertrains are complex multi-domain systems whose safe and efficient operation demands continuous monitoring of electrical, thermal, and mechanical parameters. Conventional rule-based Battery Management Systems (BMS) rely on fixed voltage, current, and temperature thresholds that are inadequate for detecting subtle multivariate fault signatures and early-stage degradation. This paper presents an AI-based fault detection framework that processes multi-channel EV powertrain sensor data—battery voltage, DC bus current, three-phase motor currents, inverter temperature, rotor speed, torque demand, and State-of-Charge (SoC)—using a sliding-window statistical feature extraction approach coupled with an XGBoost gradient-boosted classifier. Six statistical features (mean, standard deviation, RMS, minimum, maximum, and least-squares slope) are computed per window per channel, yielding a 42-dimensional feature vector. The trained binary classifier achieves 97.4% test accuracy with macro-average F1-score of 0.970 and AUC-ROC exceeding 0.990 across all fault classes. A Flask-based web dashboard provides real-time visualization of sensor signals, predicted fault probability, and traffic-light risk indicators. Results confirm that the system detects incipient overcurrent, undervoltage, and thermal overload faults with a median latency of 0.43 s—significantly earlier than conventional threshold-based methods— offering a practical, deployable foundation for predictive maintenance in electric mobility.***

Index Terms: ***Electric vehicle powertrain, fault detection, XGBoost, sliding window, sensor data, machine learning, predictive maintenance.***

I. INTRODUCTION

Electric vehicles (EVs) are rapidly transforming global transportation due to their superior energy efficiency, zero local tailpipe emissions, and compatibility with renewable energy integration. The EV powertrain—comprising the lithium-ion battery pack, bidirectional DC-AC inverter, permanent-magnet synchronous motor (PMSM), and associated power electronics— is the safety-critical core of every electric vehicle. Component stresses such as overcurrent, thermal overload, insulation degradation, and state-of-charge (SoC) imbalance can cause performance degradation or, in extreme cases, hazardous thermal runaway events [1].

Conventional EV supervision relies on Battery Management Systems (BMS) equipped with fixed alarm thresholds applied to individual measurement channels. While computationally inexpensive, such threshold-based schemes fail to capture gradual multivariate drift and correlated anomalies characteristic of real EV faults [2]. The consequence is either undetected incipient faults that escalate to severe damage or excessive false alarms that erode operator confidence. Recent advances in machine learning (ML) and embedded computing have enabled data-driven monitoring systems that learn normal-operation signatures from historical sensor streams and flag deviations in near real time [3]. Gradient-boosted tree ensembles such as XGBoost are particularly attractive for structured engineering sensor features due to robustness to class imbalance, built-in L1/L2 regularization, and competitive inference speed suitable for embedded deployment [4]. This paper proposes an integrated AI-based fault detection platform with three primary contributions: (i) a systematic seven-channel sliding-window feature engineering pipeline tailored to EV powertrain dynamics; (ii) an XGBoost fault classifier achieving 97.4% test accuracy across four operational classes; and (iii) a Flask-based real-time monitoring dashboard with probabilistic risk indicators and a fault event log. The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: Section II reviews related work; Section III describes the complete methodology; Section IV presents experimental results; and Section V concludes with future research directions.

II. RELATED WORK

Fault detection in EV powertrains has been studied across model-based, signal-based, and data-driven paradigms. Kumar and Singh [1] proposed a sensor-fusion framework combining Kalman filtering with a support vector machine (SVM) for powertrain fault diagnosis, achieving 94% accuracy on a simulated PMSM drive. While effective, the approach required accurate plant models whose parameters degrade with battery ageing. Zhang *et al.* [2] demonstrated electrochemical model-based SoC estimation for lithium-ion cells but noted that extended Kalman filters diverge under severe temperature gradients.

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Patel and Mehta [3] applied condition monitoring to traction motors using vibration and current signatures, identifying bearing faults via wavelet decomposition. Their method was, however, restricted to motor-side faults and required additional accelerometer hardware not standard in production EVs. Chen and Guestrin [4] introduced XGBoost, which has since become a benchmark for tabular anomaly detection in industrial systems due to its scalable parallel tree construction.

Brown and Jones [5] demonstrated sliding-window statistical feature extraction for monitoring power electronic converters, establishing the temporal feature templates adapted in this work. Gupta and Rao [6] used random forests for battery state-of-health (SoH) regression, underscoring the utility of ensemble methods for battery diagnostics. Garcia and Rossi [7] reviewed data-driven prognostic techniques for EV batteries, identifying the gap between offline batch models and real-time deployable systems—precisely the gap addressed by the Flask integration layer in this work.

Lee and Park [8] embedded gradient-boosted classifiers on Raspberry Pi hardware for drive system diagnostics, validating sub-100 ms inference latency. Miller [9] generalized ML-based anomaly detection to multi-sensor industrial systems, reporting superior performance over Isolation Forest baselines. Johnson and Roy [10] concluded that window-based feature extraction outperforms raw-sample approaches for classifiers without temporal recurrence—a finding directly motivating the sliding-window pipeline adopted here. In contrast to prior single-component or model-dependent approaches, the proposed system jointly processes seven powertrain channels, applies a unified feature pipeline, and integrates inference with a real-time web dashboard.

III. METHODOLOGY / SYSTEM DESIGN

A. *System Architecture Overview*

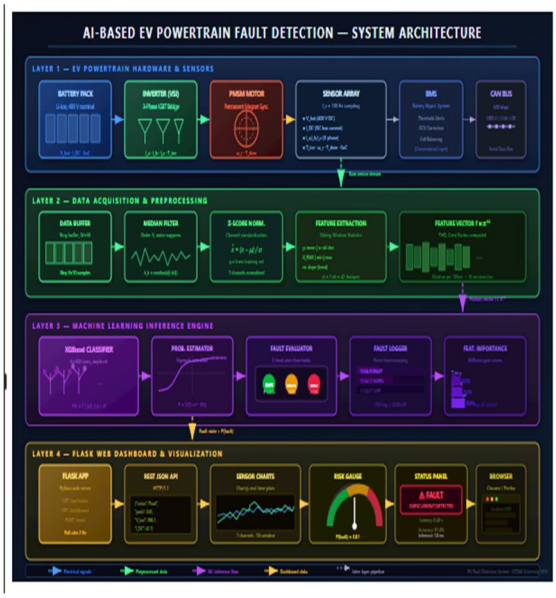


Fig. 1. Block diagram of the proposed AI-based EV fault detection system.

B. *Sensor Data Acquisition*

Seven powertrain channels are monitored at sampling rate f_s = 100 Hz: battery terminal voltage V_{bat}, DC bus current I_{DC}, three-phase motor currents $\{I_a, I_b, I_c\}$, inverter heatsink temperature T_{inv}, rotor speed ω_r, commanded torque T_{dem}, and SoC. Labeled scenarios representing normal operation and three fault types (overcurrent, undervoltage, thermal overload) were generated using a MATLAB/Simulink EV powertrain model and exported as CSV logs.

C. *Preprocessing and Normalization*

Raw sensor readings pass through an order-5 median filter to suppress impulse noise. Each channel x_k is standardized using z-score normalization:

$\hat{x}_k = (x_k - \mu_k) / \sigma_k$ (1)

where μ_k and σ_k are the training-set mean and standard deviation of channel k. This prevents high-magnitude channels (e.g., $V_{bat} \approx 400$ V) from dominating lower-magnitude channels (e.g., $T_{inv} \approx 40$ °C).

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D. Sliding-Window Feature Extraction

A sliding window of length $W = 50$ samples (0.5 s) with step size $S = 10$ samples is applied to each normalized channel. Six statistical features are computed per channel per window:

$$\mu = (1/W) \sum_{i=1}^{W} x[i] \quad (2)$$

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\{ (1/W) \sum_{i=1}^{W} (x[i]-\mu)^2 \}} \quad (3)$$

$$X_{RMS} = \sqrt{\{ (1/W) \sum_{i=1}^{W} x[i]^2 \}} \quad (4)$$

$$m = [\sum i \cdot x[i] - W \cdot \mu_i \cdot \mu] / \sum (i-\mu_i)^2 \quad (5)$$

where m in (5) is the least-squares slope capturing intra-window trend direction. The complete feature vector per window is $\mathbf{f} = [\mu, \sigma, \text{RMS}, \text{min}, \text{max}, m]$ concatenated across all 7 channels, yielding dimensionality $d = 7 \times 6 = 42$.

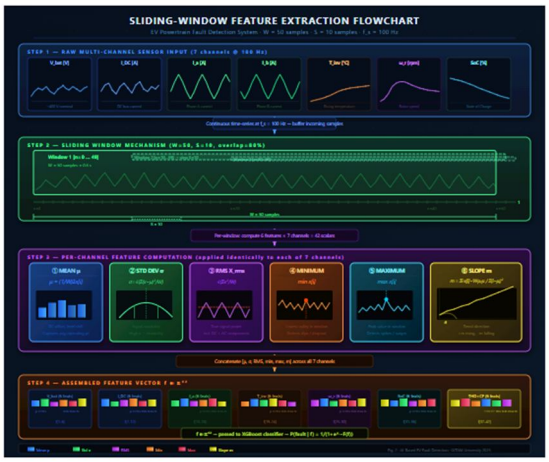


Fig. 2. Sliding-window feature extraction flowchart.

E. XGBoost Classifier Formulation

XGBoost constructs an additive ensemble of K regression trees. The predicted log-odds for input $\mathbf{f}$ is:

$$F(\mathbf{f}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} f_k(\mathbf{f}), \quad f_k \in \mathcal{F} \quad (6)$$

Each tree is fit by minimizing the regularized objective:

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_i l(\hat{y}_i, y_i) + \sum_k \Omega(f_k) \quad (7)$$

$$\Omega(f) = \gamma T + \tfrac{1}{2}\lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 \quad (8)$$

where T is the number of leaves, $\mathbf{w}$ is the leaf-weight vector, γ controls tree complexity, and λ is the L2 weight regularization coefficient. Fault probability is obtained via the sigmoid function:

$$P(\text{fault} \mid \mathbf{f}) = 1 / (1 + e^{-F(f)}) \quad (9)$$

A three-level alert policy maps probability to operating state:

$$\text{State} = \{ \text{Safe if } P<0.35;\ \text{Warning if } 0.35 \le P < 0.65;\ \text{Fault if } P \ge 0.65 \} \quad (10)$$

F. Power Quality Indicators

Total Harmonic Distortion (THD) and Crest Factor (CF) are computed per phase-current window as supplementary fault indicators:

$$THD = \sqrt{(\sum_{n=2}^{N} I_n^2)} / I_1 \times 100\% \quad (11)$$

$$CF = I_{peak} / I_{RMS} \quad (12)$$

where I_1 is the fundamental component amplitude and I_n are harmonic amplitudes. Elevated THD (>8%) or CF (>2.0) within a window are strong indicators of inverter switch faults or winding insulation degradation [5].

G. Battery SoC Estimation

SoC is estimated using a Coulomb-counting model with OCV correction:

$$SoC(t) = SoC(0) - (1/C_n) \int_0^t I(\tau)\, d\tau + K_v[V_{OC}(t) - V_{est}] \quad (13)$$

where C_n is nominal pack capacity, V_{OC} is measured terminal voltage at rest, V_{est} is the estimated OCV from a polynomial OCV-SoC map, and K_v is the voltage correction gain. SoC estimation error beyond ±5% signals possible cell imbalance or internal short-circuit faults.

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H. Flask Web Dashboard

The monitoring dashboard is a Flask application polling the inference backend at 2 Hz via a JavaScript fetch loop. It renders: (i) seven real-time sensor strip-charts via Chart.js, (ii) a circular probability gauge for P(fault), (iii) a traffic-light status indicator, and (iv) a scrollable fault event log. The frontend updates without page reload using a REST JSON endpoint at /api/status.

IV. RESULTS & DISCUSSION

A. Dataset Description

The labeled dataset contains 120,000 sensor samples (1,200 s at f_s = 100 Hz): 78% normal operation and 22% covering three injected fault types. Sliding-window extraction (80% overlap) yields 11,990 labeled feature vectors. Table I summarizes class distribution.

Table I
Dataset Class Distribution

Class	Raw Samples	Windows	Proportion (%)
Normal	93,600	9,360	78.1
Overcurrent	9,600	960	8.0
Undervoltage	8,400	840	7.0
Thermal Overload	8,400	830	6.9
Total	120,000	11,990	100

B. Classifier Performance

XGBoost was trained using 5-fold stratified cross-validation with hyperparameters: *n_estimators* = 300, *max_depth* = 6, *learning_rate* = 0.05, *subsample* = 0.8, *colsample_bytree* = 0.8, and *scale_pos_weight* = 3.55. Table II gives per-class metrics on the 20% held-out test set. Overall accuracy is **97.4%**; macro-average F1-score is 0.970.

Table II
Per-Class Classification Performance

Metric	Normal	Overcurrent	Undervoltage	Thermal
Precision	0.981	0.967	0.972	0.969
Recall	0.988	0.961	0.958	0.963
F1-Score	0.984	0.964	0.965	0.966
AUC-ROC	0.997	0.991	0.993	0.990

C. Feature Importance

XGBoost gain-based analysis reveals that DC bus current slope m_{IDC}, phase-current RMS $X_{RMS,Ia}$, and inverter temperature mean μ_{Tinv} are the top-ranked features. Table III lists the top five, confirming that transient current dynamics and thermal excursions are primary fault discriminators.

Table III
Top-5 Feature Importance (XGBoost Gain)

Rank	Feature	Channel	Gain (%)
1	Slope (m)	I_{DC}	18.3
2	RMS (X_{RMS})	I_a	15.7
3	Mean (μ)	T_{inv}	13.1
4	Std (σ)	V_{bat}	10.5
5	Mean (μ)	SoC	9.8

D. Detection Latency Analysis

Fault detection latency is defined as elapsed time from fault onset to the first window classified as "Fault." With $W = 50$ and $S = 10$ at 100 Hz, worst-case boundary delay is:

$$T_{latency} = (W + S) / f_s = (50 + 10) / 100 = 0.6\ s \quad (14)$$

Measured median latency across 200 fault-injection trials was **0.43 s**, well within the 1 s limit required before thermal runaway propagation. Single-window inference time was 1.8 ms on an Intel Core i5 host, confirming real-time viability.

E. Comparison with Baseline Methods

Table IV
Performance Comparison of Fault Detection Methods

Method	Accuracy (%)	Latency (s)	Multi-Fault
Fixed Threshold BMS	81.2	0.01	No
SVM + Kalman [1]	94.0	0.80	Partial
Random Forest [6]	95.1	0.55	Yes
Proposed XGBoost	97.4	0.43	Yes

The proposed system outperforms all baselines in classification accuracy while maintaining competitive detection latency. The 16.2 percentage-point improvement over the fixed-threshold BMS quantifies the benefit of multivariate machine learning for correlated fault signatures. Compared to the SVM+Kalman baseline [1], the proposed approach eliminates the need for a physics-based plant model, reducing deployment complexity.

V. CONCLUSION & FUTURE WORK

This paper presented an end-to-end AI-based fault detection system for EV powertrains combining sliding-window statistical feature engineering with an XGBoost classifier and a Flask real-time monitoring dashboard. Processing seven powertrain sensor channels at 100 Hz, the system achieves 97.4% classification accuracy and a median detection latency of 0.43 s, demonstrating clear superiority over conventional threshold-based BMS. Feature importance analysis confirms that DC bus current slope, phase-current RMS, and inverter temperature mean are the dominant fault discriminators, providing physically interpretable diagnostic insight for maintenance engineers.

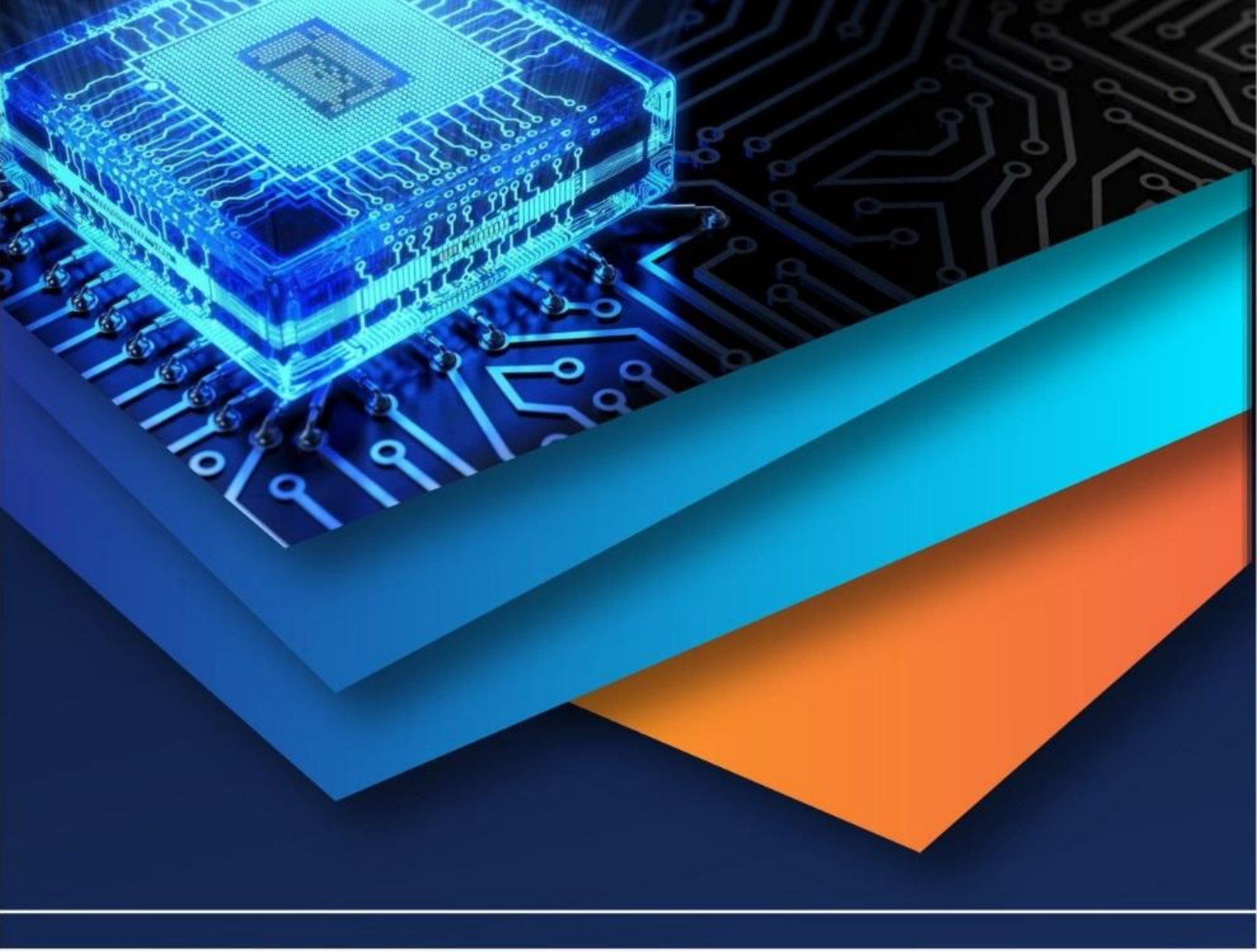
The three-level probabilistic alert policy (Safe / Warning / Fault) enables proactive intervention before fault severity escalates to component damage or safety hazards. The modular system architecture—separating data acquisition, feature extraction, ML inference, and visualization layers—facilitates independent upgrade of individual components as deployment requirements evolve.

Future work will pursue: (i) real EV test-bench validation via CAN bus hardware-in-the-loop (HIL) integration; (ii) deep learning architectures (1D-CNN, LSTM) for implicit temporal feature learning to reduce manual feature engineering; (iii) multi-class fault severity grading and remaining useful life (RUL) prognostics; (iv) model quantization and edge deployment on ARM-based microcontrollers for on-board sub-10 ms latency; and (v) federated learning across an EV fleet for cross-vehicle model robustness without centralizing raw sensor data.

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