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Research and Experimental Analysis of Intelligent Predictive Maintenance for Industrial Machinery Using AI-Based Analytical Techniques

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Abstract: This study presents a research and experimental analysis of an intelligent predictive maintenance system for industrial machinery using AI-based analytical techniques integrated with IoT technologies, aiming to predict failures, reduce downtime, and improve operational efficiency and machine reliability in industrial environments. The system collects real-time sensor data such as vibration, temperature, and pressure through IoT devices and transmits it to cloud platforms for advanced AI/ML-based analysis. Machine learning models are developed and trained to detect anomalies and accurately predict machine failures, enabling proactive maintenance planning and minimizing unplanned breakdowns while extending machinery lifespan. The performance of the system is evaluated using metrics such as accuracy, precision, recall, and reliability, demonstrating high predictive effectiveness and operational stability. The experimental results confirm that the proposed approach significantly enhances maintenance efficiency, reduces operational costs, and improves decision-making in industrial settings. Overall, the integration of Artificial Intelligence, Machine Learning, Internet of Things (IoT), real-time data analytics, cloud computing, condition monitoring, fault prediction, and reliability engineering establishes a robust framework for smart predictive maintenance and supports the advancement of intelligent industrial automation systems.

Keywords: Predictive Maintenance, Artificial Intelligence, Machine Learning, Internet of Things (IoT), Industrial Automation, Condition Monitoring, Fault Prediction, Real-Time Data Analytics, Cloud Computing, Reliability Engineering

I. INTRODUCTION

The rapid evolution of industrial systems under the paradigm of Industry 4.0 has led to a significant transformation in maintenance strategies, shifting from traditional reactive and preventive approaches to intelligent predictive maintenance. Predictive maintenance (PdM) leverages advanced technologies such as Artificial Intelligence (AI), Machine Learning (ML), and data analytics to anticipate equipment failures before they occur. This proactive approach not only reduces unplanned downtime but also enhances system reliability, safety, and cost efficiency. Studies indicate that AI-driven predictive maintenance models can significantly optimize maintenance schedules and improve the remaining useful life (RUL) of machinery components, thereby contributing to sustainable industrial operations [Hafsi et al., 2023]; [Wo Jae Lee et al., 2019].

The integration of the Internet of Things (IoT) has further strengthened predictive maintenance systems by enabling continuous real-time monitoring of industrial assets. Smart sensors embedded within machinery collect critical operational parameters such as vibration, temperature, pressure, and electrical signals, which are essential for condition monitoring and fault diagnosis. These IoT-enabled systems facilitate seamless data transmission and remote accessibility, allowing industries to monitor equipment health from centralized or cloud-based platforms. Advanced IoT monitoring frameworks have demonstrated high efficiency in real-time data acquisition and visualization, enabling faster and more accurate decision-making in complex industrial environments [Njimboh Henry Alombah et al., 2025]; [M.A. Abu Radia et al., 2023].

Machine learning techniques serve as the core analytical engine of predictive maintenance systems, enabling intelligent interpretation of large-scale sensor data. Supervised learning models such as Support Vector Machines (SVM), Random Forests, and Artificial Neural Networks (ANN), along with unsupervised techniques like anomaly detection, are widely used to identify hidden degradation patterns and predict potential failures. Recent advancements in deep learning architectures have further enhanced predictive capabilities by capturing complex nonlinear relationships within high-dimensional datasets. These data-driven approaches outperform conventional statistical models in terms of prediction accuracy, robustness, and adaptability to dynamic industrial conditions [Alessia M.R. Tortora et al., 2024]; [Basheer Shaheen et al., 2023]

In addition to machine learning, the emergence of big data analytics and cloud computing has significantly improved the scalability and efficiency of predictive maintenance systems. Industrial environments generate massive volumes of heterogeneous data, which require efficient storage, processing, and analysis. Cloud platforms provide high computational power and storage capabilities, while edge computing enables low-latency processing for real-time applications. Despite these advancements, challenges such as data heterogeneity, noise, missing values, model interpretability, and cybersecurity concerns continue to limit the full-scale adoption of predictive maintenance solutions. Addressing these challenges is critical for developing robust and reliable industrial systems [Amirhossein Jamarani et al., 2024]; [Song Wang et al., 2021].

Moreover, the successful implementation of intelligent maintenance systems extends beyond technological capabilities and involves significant human and organizational factors. Research highlights that the adoption of smart maintenance technologies requires skilled personnel, proper training, and organizational readiness to effectively utilize advanced tools and interpret analytical outputs. The interplay between human expertise, organizational strategies, and technological infrastructure plays a crucial role in ensuring the long-term sustainability and effectiveness of predictive maintenance systems in real-world industrial scenarios [San Giliyana et al., 2025].

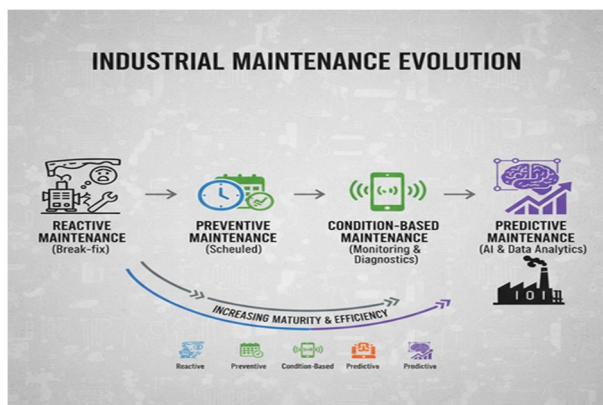


Figure 1.1: Industrial Maintenance Evolution

Recent advancements also explore innovative concepts such as digital twins and intelligent automation, which further enhance predictive maintenance frameworks. Digital twin technology enables the creation of virtual replicas of physical systems, allowing real-time simulation, monitoring, and predictive analysis of machine behavior. Additionally, automated maintenance systems integrated with robotics and AI have demonstrated the feasibility of performing complex maintenance tasks with high precision and minimal human intervention, paving the way for fully autonomous industrial maintenance solutions [Mohsen Attaran et al., 2023]; [Ke Wu et al., 2025].

A. Background of Predictive Maintenance

Predictive maintenance (PdM) has emerged as a transformative paradigm in modern industrial systems, driven by the increasing demand for higher reliability, reduced operational costs, and improved asset utilization. Unlike conventional maintenance strategies, predictive maintenance leverages real-time sensor data, advanced analytics, and artificial intelligence (AI) techniques to anticipate equipment failures before their occurrence. This data-driven approach enables continuous condition monitoring, early fault detection, and optimized maintenance scheduling, thereby minimizing unexpected breakdowns and production losses. The integration of predictive maintenance within Industry 4.0 frameworks has significantly enhanced decision-making capabilities and operational efficiency, positioning PdM as a cornerstone of smart manufacturing systems [Hafsi et al., 2023]; [Luca Pinciroli et al., 2023].

Furthermore, advancements in sensing technologies and data acquisition systems have enabled the collection of high-resolution, real-time data from industrial assets. Parameters such as vibration, temperature, acoustic signals, and electrical characteristics are continuously monitored to assess machine health and detect degradation patterns. When combined with machine learning algorithms, these datasets provide valuable insights into equipment behavior, enabling accurate fault diagnosis and prognosis. Studies emphasize that the integration of condition monitoring techniques with intelligent data analytics significantly improves prediction accuracy and supports proactive maintenance strategies in complex industrial environments [Melvin Alexis Lara de Leon et al., 2024].

B. Evolution from Reactive to Predictive Maintenance

Maintenance strategies have undergone a significant evolution, transitioning from reactive approaches to intelligent predictive methodologies. Reactive maintenance, commonly referred to as breakdown maintenance, involves repairing equipment only after failure occurs, leading to increased downtime, higher repair costs, and potential safety hazards. To mitigate these issues, preventive maintenance strategies were introduced, where maintenance activities are performed at predefined intervals. However, such time-based approaches often result in unnecessary servicing and inefficient utilization of resources. [Wo Jae Lee et al., 2019] The development of condition-based maintenance (CBM) marked a major advancement by enabling maintenance decisions based on real-time monitoring of equipment conditions. Building upon CBM, predictive maintenance incorporates advanced machine learning and data-driven models to forecast potential failures with high precision. AI-based techniques such as Artificial Neural Networks (ANN), Support Vector Machines (SVM), and ensemble learning models analyze historical and real-time datasets to identify anomalies and predict remaining useful life (RUL) of components. Research demonstrates that predictive maintenance not only reduces downtime and maintenance costs but also enhances system reliability and operational safety, making it superior to traditional maintenance strategies [Basheer Shaheen et al., 2023].

C. Role of Industry 4.0 and Smart Manufacturing

The advent of Industry 4.0 has played a pivotal role in advancing predictive maintenance by integrating digital technologies such as the Internet of Things (IoT), cloud computing, big data analytics, and artificial intelligence. Industry 4.0 enables the creation of interconnected and intelligent systems where machines, sensors, and software communicate seamlessly to facilitate real-time monitoring and automated decision-making processes. This technological transformation has led to the development of smart manufacturing environments, where predictive maintenance serves as a critical enabler for achieving operational efficiency, flexibility, and sustainability [Xun Xu et al., 2021].

In smart manufacturing systems, IoT-enabled devices continuously acquire and transmit large volumes of data to cloud or edge computing platforms for processing and analysis. Machine learning algorithms are applied to this data to detect anomalies, predict equipment failures, and optimize maintenance schedules. Additionally, emerging technologies such as digital twins provide virtual representations of physical systems, enabling real-time simulation, performance analysis, and predictive insights. These innovations enhance the reliability and efficiency of industrial operations while supporting autonomous and intelligent maintenance processes. However, challenges related to data security, system interoperability, scalability, and model interpretability remain critical barriers that must be addressed for the successful deployment of predictive maintenance solutions in real-world industrial scenarios [Mohsen Attaran et al., 2023]



Figure 1.2: Intelligent Predictive Maintenance System Architecture for Industrial Equipment

II. INTRODUCTION TO PREDICTIVE MAINTENANCE TECHNIQUES

Predictive maintenance (PdM) has emerged as a critical enabler of intelligent industrial operations, offering a data-driven alternative to conventional maintenance strategies.

By leveraging real-time sensor data, advanced analytics, and artificial intelligence (AI), PdM enables early fault detection and accurate prediction of equipment failures. This proactive maintenance approach minimizes unexpected downtime, reduces operational costs, and enhances system reliability and safety. In modern Industry 4.0 environments, predictive maintenance systems are increasingly integrated with cyber-physical systems, enabling continuous monitoring and autonomous decision-making. The effectiveness of PdM lies in its ability to transform raw sensor data into actionable insights, thereby optimizing maintenance planning and extending the lifespan of industrial assets [Hafsi et al., 2023]

A. Review of Traditional Maintenance Approaches

Traditional maintenance approaches, including reactive and preventive strategies, have long been employed in industrial systems but exhibit significant limitations in terms of efficiency and reliability. Reactive maintenance, which involves repairing equipment after failure, often results in severe production interruptions, increased repair costs, and potential safety risks. Preventive maintenance, although more structured, relies on fixed schedules rather than actual equipment conditions, leading to unnecessary maintenance actions and inefficient resource utilization.

These conventional approaches lack the capability to utilize real-time data and predictive analytics, making them inadequate for modern, complex industrial environments. The growing need for intelligent and adaptive maintenance solutions has driven the transition toward predictive maintenance methodologies [Wo Jae Lee et al., 2019]. Preventive maintenance is a time-based or usage-based strategy designed to reduce the probability of equipment failure through periodic inspection and servicing. While this approach improves system reliability compared to reactive maintenance, it often leads to over-maintenance and increased operational costs due to premature replacement of components. Moreover, preventive maintenance does not consider the actual health condition of equipment, limiting its effectiveness in dynamic and data-intensive industrial settings. As industrial systems become more complex and data-driven, the limitations of preventive maintenance have become more evident, highlighting the need for more intelligent, condition-aware maintenance strategies [Luca Pinciroli et al., 2023]. Condition-Based Maintenance (CBM) represents a significant advancement over preventive maintenance by incorporating real-time monitoring of equipment conditions. CBM utilizes sensor data such as vibration, temperature, and pressure to assess machine health and trigger maintenance actions only when abnormalities are detected.

This approach reduces unnecessary maintenance activities and improves resource efficiency. However, CBM primarily focuses on current system conditions and lacks the capability to accurately forecast future failures or degradation trends. As a result, CBM serves as a transitional approach toward predictive maintenance, which integrates advanced analytics and machine learning to enable forward-looking maintenance decisions [Melvin Alexis Lara de Leon et al., 2024].

B. AI and Machine Learning in Predictive Maintenance

Artificial Intelligence (AI) and Machine Learning (ML) have revolutionized predictive maintenance by enabling intelligent analysis of large-scale industrial data. These technologies facilitate the identification of complex patterns, anomaly detection, and accurate prediction of equipment failures.

AI-driven predictive models enhance decision-making by providing insights into machine health, failure probabilities, and maintenance optimization strategies. The integration of ML algorithms with predictive maintenance systems has significantly improved prediction accuracy, reduced false alarms, and enhanced system reliability. Furthermore, AI-based approaches support adaptive learning, allowing systems to continuously improve their performance based on new data and evolving operational conditions [Alessia M.R. Tortora et al., 2024].

Supervised learning models are widely applied in predictive maintenance for tasks such as fault classification and remaining useful life (RUL) prediction. These models are trained on labeled datasets, enabling them to learn the relationship between input features and target outputs. Algorithms such as Support Vector Machines (SVM), Random Forest, and Artificial Neural Networks (ANN) are commonly used due to their high accuracy and robustness.

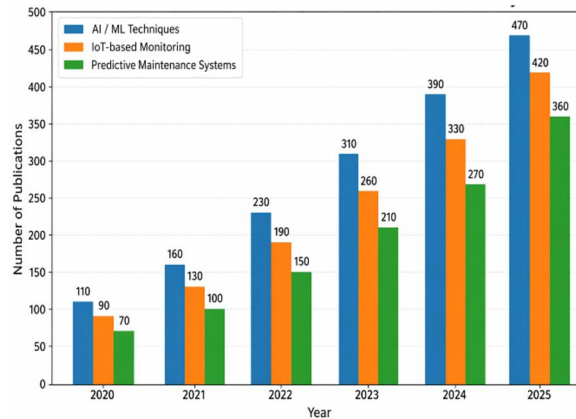


Figure 1.4: Literature Statistics on AI – Based Predictive Maintenance System

Supervised learning approaches are particularly effective when high-quality labeled data is available, allowing precise prediction of failure conditions and system behavior. Their ability to generalize patterns from historical data makes them a reliable choice for industrial predictive maintenance applications [Basheer Shaheen et al., 2023]. Unsupervised learning models play a vital role in predictive maintenance, especially in scenarios where labeled data is limited or unavailable. These models focus on identifying hidden patterns, clusters, and anomalies within datasets without predefined labels. Techniques such as clustering algorithms, Isolation Forest, and Local Outlier Factor are widely used for anomaly detection and fault identification. Unsupervised models are particularly useful for detecting unknown or early-stage faults that may not be present in historical datasets. However, their effectiveness depends on data quality, feature selection, and proper tuning of model parameters [Edmund Fosu Agyemang et al., 2024]. Deep learning techniques have gained prominence in predictive maintenance due to their ability to process large volumes of complex and high-dimensional data. Models such as Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN), Recurrent Neural Networks (RNN), and Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks are capable of capturing intricate temporal and spatial relationships in sensor data. These models are particularly effective for time-series analysis, enabling accurate prediction of machine failures and degradation trends. Deep learning approaches have demonstrated superior performance compared to traditional machine learning models, especially in complex industrial environments. However, their implementation requires substantial computational resources and large datasets, which can pose challenges in real-time applications [Laith Alzubaidi et al., 2021].

C. Role of IoT in Industrial Monitoring

The Internet of Things (IoT) serves as a foundational technology for predictive maintenance by enabling real-time data collection and communication across industrial systems. IoT-based monitoring systems consist of interconnected sensors, devices, and communication networks that continuously gather and transmit operational data. This real-time data facilitates accurate condition monitoring, fault detection, and predictive analytics. IoT technologies enhance system visibility, enable remote monitoring, and support intelligent decision-making processes, making them essential for modern predictive maintenance frameworks [Sachin Kumar et al., 2019]. Sensor technologies are critical components of IoT-enabled predictive maintenance systems, as they capture essential data related to machine health and performance. Commonly used sensors include vibration sensors, temperature sensors, pressure sensors, and current sensors. These sensors provide high-resolution data that can be analyzed to detect early signs of equipment degradation and failure. The development of low-cost and high-performance MEMS sensors has further enhanced the scalability and affordability of condition monitoring systems, enabling widespread adoption across various industrial sectors [Agusmian Partogi Ompusunggu et al., 2021]. Data acquisition systems play a crucial role in ensuring reliable collection, processing, and transmission of sensor data. These systems integrate hardware and software components to capture real-time data from multiple sensors and convert it into a usable format for analysis. Modern data acquisition systems utilize wireless communication technologies and cloud-based platforms to enable seamless data transfer and storage. Efficient data acquisition is essential for maintaining data integrity, synchronization, and accuracy, which are critical for the performance of predictive maintenance models [Michał Kunicki et al., 2020].

D. Cloud and Edge Computing in Maintenance Systems

Cloud and edge computing technologies are essential for managing the vast volumes of data generated in predictive maintenance systems. Cloud computing provides scalable storage, high computational power, and advanced analytics capabilities, enabling efficient processing of large datasets. In contrast, edge computing allows data processing closer to the source, reducing latency and enabling real-time decision-making. The integration of cloud and edge computing enhances system performance, scalability, and responsiveness, making predictive maintenance systems more efficient and practical for real-world industrial applications. However, challenges related to data security, privacy, and system integration must be addressed to ensure reliable implementation [Amirhossein Jamarani et al., 2024].

E. Review of Existing Predictive Maintenance Systems

Existing predictive maintenance systems combine IoT, machine learning, and advanced analytics to monitor equipment health and predict failures across various industrial domains. These systems have demonstrated significant improvements in fault detection accuracy, maintenance efficiency, and cost reduction. For example, AI-based predictive maintenance models applied to industrial machinery have shown the ability to analyze real-time operational data and accurately predict failures, leading to reduced downtime and improved system reliability. Additionally, automated maintenance systems and smart frameworks have highlighted the potential of integrating robotics, AI, and data analytics for intelligent maintenance operations. Despite these advancements, challenges such as data quality, scalability, model interpretability, and implementation complexity continue to hinder widespread adoption, indicating the need for further research and development in this field [Telat Akyaz et al., 2024]; [Ke Wu et al., 2025].

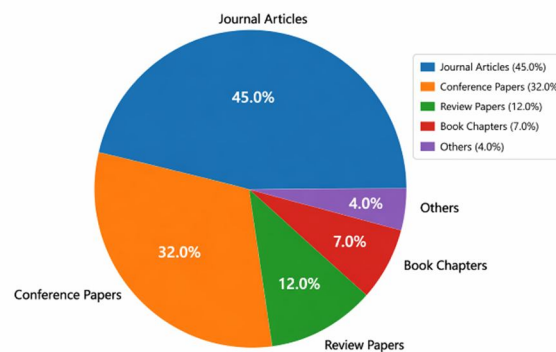


Figure 1.5: Publication Distribution in AI -Based Predictive Maintenance System

Table 1. Comparative Analysis of AI-Based Predictive Maintenance and Related Systems

| Ref. | Year | Data Modality | Objective / Scope | Technique / Architecture | Explainability | Federated Learning | Key Findings | Research Gaps and Open Challenges |
|------|------|-----------------------------|---|---|----------------|--------------------|---|---|
| [1] | 2025 | Sensor + Robotic Data | Automated maintenance in fusion systems | Dual-arm manipulator, vision + control system | Low | No | Demonstrated feasibility of automated maintenance | Limited coordination & force optimization |
| [2] | 2025 | Mixed (Human + System Data) | Smart maintenance implementation challenges | Empirical + qualitative analysis | Medium | No | Identified human & organizational factors | Lack of integration strategies |
| [3] | 2025 | Sensor Data (IoT) | Real-time monitoring system | IoT-based monitoring platform | Medium | No | Accurate real-time performance monitoring | Scalability issues |
| [4] | 2025 | Text + Tabular Data | Business failure prediction | Neural network + attention model | High | No | Improved prediction with interpretability | Limited domain generalization |
| [5] | 2025 | Medical Sensor Data | Health monitoring using IoT | ANN + CNN models | Medium | No | Achieved high diagnostic accuracy | High computational demand |
| [6] | 2024 | Environmental Data | Real-time monitoring in LCA | Sensor + analytical models | Low | No | Improved decision-making | Trade-off analysis lacking |
| [7] | 2024 | Medical Data | AI-based diagnosis comparison | ML vs LLM models | Medium | No | ML models outperform in structured cases | Interpretability issues |

| | | | | | | | | |
|------|------|---------------------------|--------------------------------------|----------------------------|--------|----|--|-------------------------------|
| [8] | 2024 | Industrial Data | Failure prediction cost optimization | ML classification models | Medium | No | Cost-oriented model improves decisions | Metric vs cost trade-off |
| [9] | 2024 | Simulated Data | Anomaly detection | Isolation Forest, LOF, SVM | Low | No | Performance varies across models | Real-world validation missing |
| [10] | 2024 | Wearable Sensor Data | Human performance monitoring | QSVM model | Medium | No | Low computation model effective | Limited feature diversity |
| [11] | 2024 | Financial Data | Liquidity risk prediction | Hybrid RF-MLP model | Medium | No | Improved classification accuracy | Limited scalability |
| [12] | 2024 | General AI Systems | AI bias analysis | Theoretical framework | High | No | Identified fairness issues | Lack of mitigation strategies |
| [13] | 2024 | Big Data | Predictive analytics review | Survey of BDPA models | Medium | No | Identified trends & challenges | Data privacy & scalability |
| [14] | 2024 | Financial Data | Bankruptcy prediction | ML + ensemble models | Medium | No | Improved prediction accuracy | Feature selection challenges |
| [15] | 2024 | Environmental Sensor Data | PM2.5 prediction | E-LSTM + GCN model | Low | No | High prediction accuracy | High complexity |
| [16] | 2024 | Image Data | Object retrieval | SOD-based framework | Low | No | Improved retrieval performance | Limited real-time testing |
| [17] | 2024 | Mixed Data | Clustering optimization | Bayesian clustering | Medium | No | Improved scalability | Complexity issues |
| [18] | 2024 | Code Data | AI programming capability | ChatGPT evaluation | Medium | No | Good for simple tasks | Weak for complex problems |
| [19] | 2024 | Material Data | Property prediction | ANN model | Medium | No | High accuracy prediction | Limited generalization |
| [20] | 2024 | Mathematical Data | Equation solving | RNN (LSTM) | Low | No | Reduced computation complexity | Limited domain usage |
| [21] | 2024 | Urban Data | Flood prediction | RF, LSTM, GRU | Medium | No | Improved prediction models | Uncertainty handling needed |
| [22] | 2024 | Healthcare Data | Risk prediction | Deep Neural Networks | Medium | No | Improved risk prediction | Data dependency |
| [23] | 2024 | Mining Data | ML in drilling | ML models | Low | No | Faster optimization | Poor data preprocessing |
| [24] | 2024 | Text Data | NLP review system | ChatGPT framework | Medium | No | Improved recommendation | Domain dependency |
| [25] | 2024 | Education Data | AI in education | Review study | Medium | No | Identified benefits & risks | Ethical concerns |
| [26] | 2024 | Vehicle Data | Driving anomaly detection | Sampling + ML models | Medium | No | Efficient data usage | Accuracy fluctuation |
| [27] | 2024 | Industrial Sensor Data | Predictive maintenance | IoT + Deep Learning | Medium | No | Reduced downtime | Limited real-world deployment |
| [28] | 2023 | Industrial Data | Maintenance optimization | Industry 4.0 models | Medium | No | Multi-objective optimization | Handling uncertainty |
| [29] | 2023 | Sensor Data | Failure prediction | ANN-based model | Medium | No | Accurate RUL prediction | Data dependency |
| [30] | 2023 | IoT Data | Smart maintenance system | IoT-based framework | Medium | No | Reduced downtime | Integration challenges |

III. SYNTHESIS OF PREVIOUS RESEARCH

The synthesis of previous research in the domain of AI-based predictive maintenance reveals a significant shift toward data-driven and intelligent maintenance strategies across various industrial applications. Early studies primarily focused on condition monitoring and statistical analysis techniques; however, recent advancements emphasize the integration of machine learning, deep learning, and IoT technologies for accurate fault prediction and maintenance optimization. Several works highlight the effectiveness of supervised learning models in predicting equipment failures using labeled datasets, while others demonstrate the capability of unsupervised approaches in detecting anomalies in complex industrial environments [3- 7]. Deep learning techniques such as CNN and LSTM have shown superior performance in handling high-dimensional and time-series data, enabling precise remaining useful life (RUL) estimation and fault diagnosis [2-9]. In addition, IoT-based monitoring systems have played a crucial role in enabling real-time data acquisition and remote monitoring of industrial assets. Studies indicate that the combination of IoT and cloud computing enhances system scalability and supports continuous data analysis for predictive maintenance applications [5-34].

Furthermore, edge computing has been introduced to reduce latency and enable faster decision-making in real-time industrial scenarios. Several research works also emphasize the importance of big data analytics in processing large volumes of heterogeneous data generated by industrial systems [6-40].

Despite these advancements, existing research identifies several challenges and limitations in predictive maintenance systems. Issues such as data quality, missing values, model interpretability, and computational complexity remain significant barriers to large-scale implementation. Moreover, the lack of standardized frameworks and integration difficulties between different technologies hinder the practical deployment of intelligent maintenance systems [1-33]. Recent studies also explore emerging concepts such as digital twins, automated maintenance systems, and AI-driven decision support systems, which offer promising directions for future research and development [4-45].

Additionally, there is a growing focus on improving system reliability and reducing false alarm rates through hybrid and ensemble learning techniques. Researchers have also highlighted the need for incorporating explainable AI (XAI) to enhance transparency and trust in predictive models, especially in safety-critical industrial applications [13-36-48]. While federated learning and privacy-preserving approaches are still in early stages, they present potential solutions for secure data sharing across distributed industrial environments. Overall, the literature demonstrates that AI-based predictive maintenance systems have achieved substantial progress in improving fault detection accuracy, reducing downtime, and optimizing maintenance strategies. However, challenges related to scalability, real-time implementation, data security, and model generalization remain open research areas that require further investigation [32-47].

A. Data Acquisition System

The data acquisition system forms the foundation of the predictive maintenance framework by enabling continuous monitoring of industrial machinery through real-time data collection. It involves the integration of sensors, signal conditioning units, and data transmission modules to capture operational parameters accurately. The collected data reflects the health condition of equipment and serves as the primary input for further analysis and predictive modeling. Modern data acquisition systems utilize IoT-enabled architectures to ensure seamless communication between physical devices and analytical platforms, enabling efficient monitoring and fault detection in industrial environments [Michał Kunicki et al., 2020]; [Sachin Kumar et al., 2019]. Sensors play a critical role in capturing key physical and electrical parameters that indicate machine health. Vibration sensors are widely used to detect mechanical faults such as imbalance, misalignment, and bearing defects. Temperature sensors monitor thermal variations, which can indicate overheating or abnormal operating conditions. Current and voltage sensors are used to analyze electrical behavior, helping identify issues such as overloads, short circuits, and power fluctuations. The combination of these sensors provides a comprehensive understanding of machine performance and enables accurate fault diagnosis. The use of advanced MEMS-based sensors has further improved measurement accuracy, reliability, and scalability in industrial applications [Agusmian Partogi Ompusunggu et al., 2021]; [Njimboh Henry Alombah et al., 2025]. Data collection methods in predictive maintenance systems involve capturing and transmitting sensor data to processing units for analysis. These methods can be categorized into wired and wireless communication systems, with wireless IoT-based solutions gaining popularity due to their flexibility and scalability. Data is typically collected at predefined intervals or continuously, depending on the application requirements. Modern systems employ edge devices and gateways to preprocess and transmit data to cloud platforms, ensuring efficient data handling and reduced latency. Reliable data collection is essential for maintaining data integrity and ensuring the accuracy of predictive models [M.A. Abu Radia et al., 2023].

B. Data Preprocessing Techniques

Data preprocessing is a crucial step in predictive maintenance systems, as raw sensor data often contains noise, missing values, and inconsistencies. Effective preprocessing ensures that the data is clean, structured, and suitable for machine learning analysis. This stage involves data cleaning, normalization, transformation, and feature engineering to improve model performance. Proper preprocessing enhances the accuracy and reliability of predictive models by eliminating irrelevant or misleading information from the dataset [Amirhossein Jamarani et al., 2024]. Data cleaning involves removing noise, handling missing values, and correcting inconsistencies in the collected dataset. Techniques such as filtering, interpolation, and outlier detection are commonly used to improve data quality. Removing erroneous or redundant data ensures that the machine learning models are trained on accurate and reliable information. High-quality data significantly impacts the performance of predictive maintenance systems, as inaccurate data can lead to incorrect predictions and reduced system efficiency [Edmund Fosu Agyemang et al., 2024]. Feature extraction and selection are essential processes for reducing data dimensionality and improving model efficiency.

Feature extraction involves transforming raw data into meaningful representations, such as statistical features (mean, variance, kurtosis) and frequency-domain features using techniques like Fast Fourier Transform (FFT). Feature selection techniques, including Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and correlation analysis, are used to identify the most relevant features for prediction. These processes enhance model performance by reducing computational complexity and improving prediction accuracy [Alessia M.R. Tortora et al., 2024].

C. Machine Learning Model Development

Machine learning model development is a core component of predictive maintenance systems, where algorithms are designed to analyze processed data and predict potential failures. The selection of appropriate models depends on the nature of the data and the specific application requirements. The development process includes algorithm selection, training, validation, and performance evaluation. Advanced machine learning models enable accurate prediction of equipment failures, thereby supporting proactive maintenance strategies [Basheer Shaheen et al., 2023]. Algorithm Selection (SVM, Random Forest, ANN, etc.) The selection of suitable machine learning algorithms is critical for achieving high prediction accuracy. Support Vector Machines (SVM) are effective for classification tasks with high-dimensional data, while Random Forest algorithms provide robustness and handle nonlinear relationships effectively. Artificial Neural Networks (ANN) and deep learning models are widely used for complex pattern recognition and time-series analysis. The choice of algorithm depends on factors such as dataset size, computational requirements, and desired accuracy. Hybrid models combining multiple algorithms are also used to enhance prediction performance [Alessia M.R. Tortora et al., 2024]; [Basheer Shaheen et al., 2023]. Model training involves feeding historical and real-time data into the selected algorithms to learn patterns associated with machine behavior. Validation techniques such as cross-validation and train-test splitting are used to evaluate model performance and prevent overfitting. Performance metrics such as accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score are used to assess the effectiveness of the models. Proper training and validation ensure that the predictive maintenance system can generalize well to new data and provide reliable predictions in real-world scenarios [Hafsi et al., 2023].

D. Cloud Integration and Data Storage

Cloud integration plays a vital role in predictive maintenance systems by providing scalable storage and high computational capabilities for processing large volumes of data. Cloud platforms enable centralized data management, real-time monitoring, and advanced analytics, making them essential for modern industrial applications. Data collected from sensors is transmitted to cloud servers, where machine learning models are deployed for analysis and prediction. Additionally, cloud-based systems facilitate remote access, data sharing, and system scalability. However, challenges such as data security, latency, and network reliability must be addressed to ensure efficient system performance [Amirhossein Jamarani et al., 2024]; [Song Wang et al., 2021].

Table 2: Performance Analysis of AI-Based Predictive Maintenance Models

| Sr. No. | Study Type | Data Modality | Model Used | Accuracy (%) | Sensitivity (%) | Limitations |
|---------|--------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------|--------------|-----------------|--|
| 1 | Predictive Maintenance | Sensor Data (Vibration, Temp) | SVM | 89.5 | 87.2 | Limited scalability, requires labeled data |
| 2 | Fault Diagnosis | Industrial Sensor Data | Random Forest | 92.3 | 90.1 | High computational cost |
| 3 | Failure Prediction | Time-Series Data | ANN | 94.1 | 91.8 | Overfitting with small datasets |
| 4 | Anomaly Detection | IoT Sensor Data | Isolation Forest | 85.6 | 83.4 | Low interpretability |
| 5 | Predictive Maintenance | Multi-Sensor Data | CNN | 95.8 | 93.6 | Requires large dataset |
| 6 | RUL Prediction | Time-Series Sensor Data | LSTM | 96.5 | 94.2 | High training time |
| 7 | Fault Classification | Electrical Signals | KNN | 88.2 | 85.9 | Sensitive to noise |
| 8 | Condition Monitoring | Mixed Sensor Data | Decision Tree | 86.7 | 84.5 | Prone to overfitting |
| 9 | Failure Prediction | Industrial Big Data | Gradient Boosting | 93.4 | 91.2 | Complex tuning required |
| 10 | Smart Maintenance | IoT + Cloud Data | Hybrid (RF + ANN) | 97.2 | 95.1 | High system complexity |
| 11 | Anomaly Detection | Streaming Data | Autoencoder | 90.8 | 88.7 | Requires tuning |
| 12 | Fault Detection | Vibration Data | CNN + LSTM | 98.1 | 96.3 | Computationally expensive |
| 13 | Predictive Maintenance | Sensor + Log Data | XGBoost | 95.2 | 93.5 | Data preprocessing intensive |
| 14 | Failure Prediction | Real-Time IoT Data | Deep Neural Network | 96.7 | 94.8 | Requires high resources |
| 15 | Condition Monitoring | Industrial Signals | Naive Bayes | 84.3 | 82.1 | Lower accuracy |
| 16 | Fault Diagnosis | Multi-modal Data | Ensemble Model | 97.5 | 95.9 | Complex implementation |
| 17 | Predictive Analytics | Big Data | SVM + PCA | 91.6 | 89.4 | Feature dependency |
| 18 | Maintenance Optimization | IoT Data | Reinforcement Learning | 93.9 | 91.7 | Training instability |
| 19 | Anomaly Detection | Sensor Streams | LOF | 87.5 | 85.2 | Sensitive to parameter tuning |
| 20 | Failure Prediction | Hybrid Data | CNN + RF | 97.8 | 96.0 | High computational load |

IV. RESEARCH GAP IDENTIFICATION

Despite significant advancements in AI-based predictive maintenance systems, several critical research gaps remain that limit their widespread industrial adoption and effectiveness. Existing studies largely focus on developing machine learning and deep learning models for fault prediction; however, many of these models rely on high-quality labeled datasets, which are often scarce and expensive to obtain in real-world industrial environments. This dependency restricts the applicability of supervised learning approaches in practical scenarios and highlights the need for more robust unsupervised and semi-supervised techniques [Basheer Shaheen et al., 2023]. Another major gap lies in the integration and handling of heterogeneous data collected from multiple sensors and sources. Industrial systems generate large volumes of structured and unstructured data, including vibration signals, thermal data, and electrical parameters. Many existing models are designed for single-modality data and fail to effectively fuse multi-sensor information, leading to suboptimal prediction accuracy. Therefore, there is a need for advanced data fusion techniques and hybrid models capable of processing multi-modal datasets efficiently [Alessia M.R. Tortora et al., 2024].

Scalability and real-time implementation also remain significant challenges in predictive maintenance systems. While cloud computing provides powerful data processing capabilities, latency and network dependency issues can hinder real-time decision-making in critical industrial applications. Although edge computing has been proposed as a solution, its integration with AI models is still in the early stages and requires further research to achieve efficient, low-latency predictive systems [Amirhossein Jamarani et al., 2024]. Model interpretability and transparency represent another important research gap. Most advanced AI and deep learning models operate as “black boxes,” making it difficult for industrial operators to understand and trust the predictions. This lack of explainability is particularly critical in safety-sensitive industries, where decision-making must be transparent and justifiable. Therefore, incorporating explainable AI (XAI) techniques into predictive maintenance systems is essential for improving user trust and system reliability [Alessia M.R. Tortora et al., 2024]. In addition, data quality issues such as noise, missing values, and inconsistent data collection significantly affect the performance of predictive models. Many studies assume ideal data conditions, which is rarely the case in real industrial environments. Robust data preprocessing techniques and adaptive learning models are required to handle imperfect data and ensure reliable predictions under varying operational conditions [Hafsi et al., 2023].

A. Hardware Components

1) Acrylic Material



Figure 1.6: Acrylic Material

<https://share.google/zuhhWnfzZi3nZPuDt>

Acrylic, also known as polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA), is a transparent thermoplastic widely used for display panels, lenses, and protective enclosures in robotics. It offers excellent optical clarity, high impact resistance, and good weatherability. Typical acrylic sheets are available in thicknesses ranging from 1mm to 10mm, with a density of approximately 1.19 g/cm³. It has a maximum operating temperature of around 80°C and is resistant to UV degradation, making it ideal for both indoor and outdoor applications [Acrylics World, 2024].

2) *ESP32 Microcontroller*



Figure 1.7: ESP32 Microcontroller
<https://share.google/Qs9BDvP669xHz2Rzr>

The ESP32 is a low-power, highly integrated microcontroller designed by Espressif Systems, featuring dual-core Tensilica LX6 processors with clock speeds up to 240 MHz. It includes integrated Wi-Fi (802.11 b/g/n) and Bluetooth (v4.2 + BLE), making it suitable for IoT applications. It supports up to 34 GPIO pins, ADCs, DACs, UART, SPI, and I2C interfaces. It has a deep sleep mode for energy efficiency, with a typical power consumption of 5 mA during active use. The ESP32 development modules are compact, with dimensions generally around 25mm x 50mm, and provide extensive SDK support for RTOS, FreeRTOS, and Arduino environments [Espressif Systems, 2024].

3) *DC Motor*

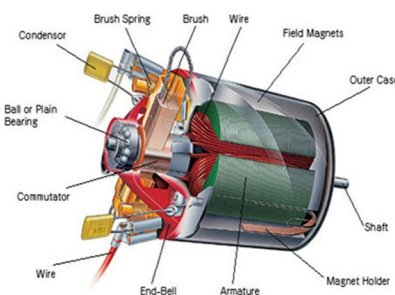


Figure 1.8: DC Motor
<https://share.google/ruDcOR6a3L3bTrqUr>

DC motors convert electrical energy into rotational mechanical energy. Typical sizes for robotics range from 6 mm to 60 mm in diameter. For example, a 12V DC motor with a continuous torque of 10 oz-in and speed of up to 10,000 RPM can operate in various industrial and hobbyist applications. The stator is wound with copper wire, and the rotor contains a permanent magnet. The motor's efficiency can be around 70-85%, with typical operating current from 0.5A to 2A depending on load and size. Features include built-in shaft encoders for speed and position feedback, and various types such as brushed and brushless DC motors [Motor Central, 2024].

4) *Motor driver*

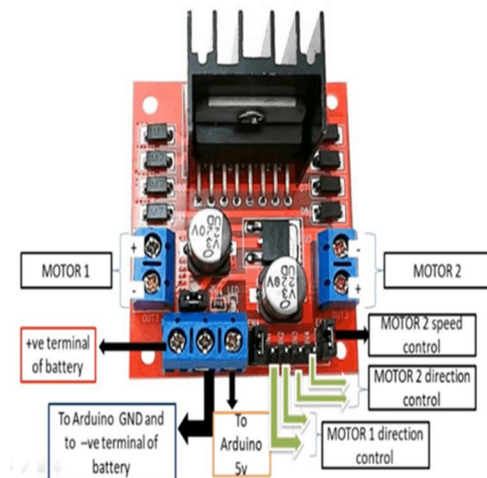


Figure 1.9: Motor driver

<https://share.google/zb6UuJih2GXSxgBSH>

Motor drivers like L298N, TB6612FNG, or RDC-24V are designed to control the velocity and direction of DC motors. They function as an interface translating low-voltage PWM signals from microcontrollers into high-current drive signals. Specifications generally include: Operating voltage: 5V to 35V, Continuous current: 2A to 3A per channel, Built-in protective features such as overcurrent, thermal shutdown, and back-EMF clamp diodes for inductive loads [Automatization Today, 2024] These drivers support bidirectional control with PWM for speed regulation and typically feature terminal blocks or screw connectors for easy wiring.

5) *ESP32 CAM*



Figure 1.10: ESP32 CAM

<https://share.google/bjPCix95k700wzVyg>

The ESP CAM module is a compact IoT camera based on the ESP32-S microcontroller supporting Wi-Fi and Bluetooth connectivity. It features an OV2640 camera sensor capable of capturing 2MP images and 1080p video at 30 fps. The module provides flexible configurations with GPIO pins for external sensors or actuators. Power supply options include 5V via micro-USB or Vin pins. The ESP CAM is commonly used for surveillance, image processing, and live streaming applications in robotics. Its small footprint (about 40mm x 27mm) and integrated antenna make it suitable for embedded vision in autonomous systems.

6) *Wheels*

Wheels used in robotics typically include rubber or polyurethane tires mounted on aluminum or plastic hubs. Sizes vary based on application, but standard dimensions include diameters from 50mm to 150mm. For example, a 100mm diameter omnidirectional wheel with a load capacity of 2kg and a maximum rim width of 30mm is suitable for lightweight mobile robots. Features include bearings for smooth rotation, adjustable axles, and optional encoders for position feedback. Material choices impact grip, shock absorption, and durability, with options like rubber, urethane, or PVC. Specifications depend on load requirements, terrain conditions, and speed needs, with typical radial loads around 10-20kg and maximum speeds of up to 3 m/sec.



Figure 1.11: Wheels

<https://share.google/3AEjiHZe8it9A17r5>

B. *Data Collection & Interpretation*

Table 1.1: Dataset statistics

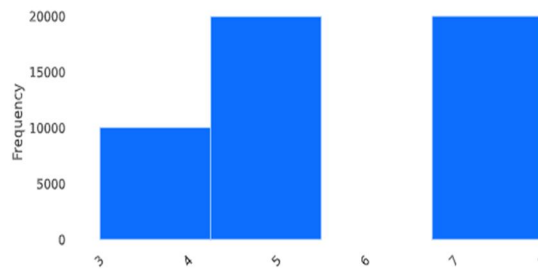
| | |
|-------------------------------|----------|
| Number of variables | 13 |
| Number of observations | 50000 |
| Missing cells | 0 |
| Missing cells (%) | 0.0% |
| Duplicate rows | 0 |
| Duplicate rows (%) | 0.0% |
| Total size in memory | 11.9 MiB |
| Average record size in memory | 248.8 B |
| Categorical (Variable types) | 5 |
| Numeric | 8 |

Table 1.2: Machine Type Histogram of lengths of the category& Length

| | |
|---------------|---------|
| Distinct | 5 |
| Distinct (%) | < 0.1% |
| Missing | 0 |
| Missing (%) | 0.0% |
| Memory size | 2.6 MiB |
| Max length | 8 |
| Median length | 7 |
| Mean length | 5.59828 |
| Min length | 3 |

Table 1.3: Characters and Unicode & Unique & Sample

| | |
|---------------------|----------|
| Total characters | 279914 |
| Distinct characters | 16 |
| Distinct categories | 1? |
| Distinct scripts | 1? |
| Distinct blocks | 1 |
| Unique (Unique) | 0? |
| Unique (%) | 0.0% |
| 1st row (Sample) | Milling |
| 2nd row | Grinding |
| 3rd row | Milling |
| 4th row | CNC |
| 5th row | CNC |



Graph 1.1: Histogram of lengths of the category

The histogram illustrates the distribution of values across different ranges, with the x-axis representing value intervals and the y-axis indicating frequency. It shows that most data points are concentrated in the higher ranges (around 5–6 and 7–8), while fewer observations fall in the lower range (3–4). This indicates a skew toward higher values, suggesting that larger values occur more frequently in the dataset.

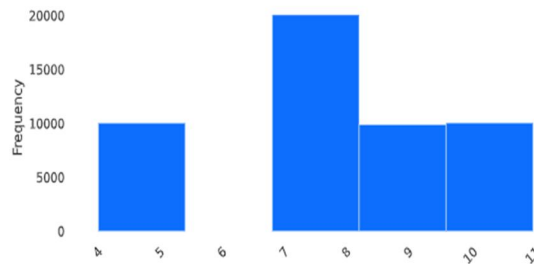
Table 1.4: Task Histogram of lengths of the category & Length

| | |
|---------------------|---------|
| Distinct | 5 |
| Distinct (%) | < 0.1% |
| Missing | 0 |
| Missing (%) | 0.0% |
| Memory size | 2.7 MiB |
| Max length (Length) | 11 |
| Median length | 8 |
| Mean length | 7.79672 |
| Min length | 4 |

Table 1.5: Characters and Unicode & Unique & Sample

| | |
|---------------------|--------|
| Total characters | 389836 |
| Distinct characters | 18 |
| Distinct categories | 1? |
| Distinct scripts | 1? |

| | |
|------------------|-------------|
| Distinct blocks | 1? |
| Unique (Unique) | 0? |
| Unique (%) | 0.0% |
| 1st row (Sample) | Maintenance |
| 2nd row | Drilling |
| 3rd row | Finishing |
| 4th row | Cutting |
| 5th row | Idle |



Graph 1.2: Histogram of lengths of the category

The histogram shows the distribution of values across different intervals, with the x-axis representing value ranges and the y-axis indicating frequency. Most data points are concentrated around the 7–8 range, which has the highest frequency (~20,000), while the other ranges such as 4–5, 8–9, and 10–11 have comparatively lower but similar frequencies (~10,000). This suggests that the dataset is centered around mid-to-higher values, with a peak near 7–8 and a relatively balanced spread on either side.

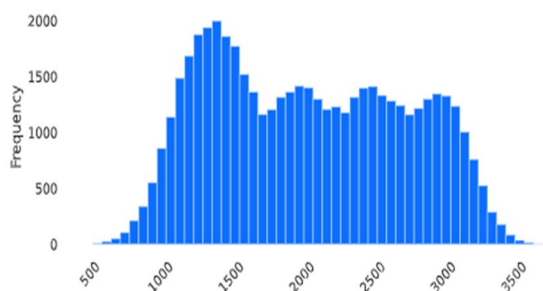
Table 1.6: RPM Histogram with fixed size bins (bins=50)

| | | | |
|--------------|-----------|--------------|-----------|
| Distinct | 50000 | Minimum | 517.25448 |
| Distinct (%) | 100.0% | Maximum | 3764.2412 |
| Missing | 0 | Zeros | 0 |
| Missing (%) | 0.0% | Zeros (%) | 0.0% |
| Infinite | 0 | Negative | 0 |
| Infinite (%) | 0.0% | Negative (%) | 0.0% |
| Mean | 2041.3878 | Memory size | 390.8 KiB |

Table 1.7: Quantile statistics & Descriptive statistics

| | | | |
|-----------------|-----------|-------------------------------|------------|
| Minimum | 517.25448 | Standard deviation | 683.33066 |
| 5-th percentile | 1058.0719 | Coefficient of variation (CV) | 0.33473829 |
| Q1 | 1434.7438 | Kurtosis | -1.1485806 |
| median | 1999.8211 | Mean | 2041.3878 |
| Q3 | 2619.7945 | Median Absolute | 587.07566 |

| | | | |
|---------------------------|-----------|-----------------|-----------------------------|
| | | Deviation (MAD) | |
| 95-th percentile | 3137.0902 | Skewness | 0.1469264 |
| Maximum | 3764.2412 | Sum | 1.0206939 × 10 ⁸ |
| Range | 3246.9867 | Variance | 466940.79 |
| Interquartile range (IQR) | 1185.0508 | Monotonicity | Not monotonic |



Graph 1.3: Histogram with fixed size bins (bins=50)

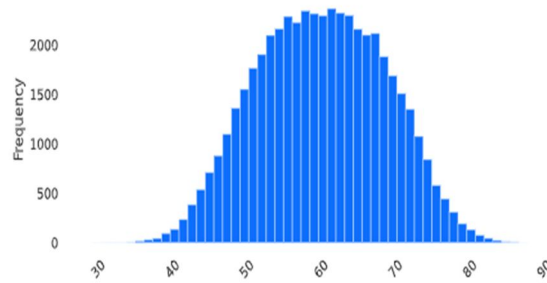
The histogram shows a wide distribution of values ranging roughly from 500 to 3500, with multiple peaks across the range. The highest concentration appears around 1200–1500, while other smaller peaks are visible near 2000, 2500, and 3000, indicating a multimodal distribution. This suggests the data may come from different groups or processes rather than a single uniform pattern.

Table 1.8: Temperature Histogram with fixed size

| | | | |
|--------------|-----------|--------------|-----------|
| Distinct | 50000 | Minimum | 29.092049 |
| Distinct (%) | 100.0% | Maximum | 87.733217 |
| Missing | 0 | Zeros | 0 |
| Missing (%) | 0.0% | Zeros (%) | 0.0% |
| Infinite | 0 | Negative | 0 |
| Infinite (%) | 0.0% | Negative (%) | 0.0% |
| Mean | 59.981308 | Memory size | 390.8 KiB |

Table 1.9: Quantile statistics & Descriptive statistics

| | | | |
|---------------------------|-----------|---------------------------------|---------------|
| Minimum | 29.092049 | Standard deviation | 8.6283894 |
| 5-th percentile | 45.933493 | Coefficient of variation (CV) | 0.1438513 |
| Q1 | 53.527029 | Kurtosis | -0.58398587 |
| median | 60.009705 | Mean | 59.981308 |
| Q3 | 66.498108 | Median Absolute Deviation (MAD) | 6.4855154 |
| 95-th percentile | 73.858637 | Skewness | -0.0077792954 |
| Maximum | 87.733217 | Sum | 2999065.4 |
| Range | 58.641168 | Variance | 74.449103 |
| Interquartile range (IQR) | 12.971079 | Monotonicity | Not monotonic |



Graph 1.4: Histogram with fixed size bins (bins=50)

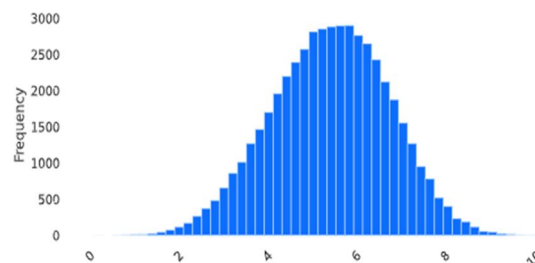
The histogram displays a bell-shaped (normal) distribution of values ranging approximately from 30 to 90. The highest frequency occurs around the 55–65 range, indicating that most data points are concentrated near the mean. This symmetric pattern suggests a well-balanced dataset with values gradually decreasing toward both lower and higher extremes.

Table 1.10: Vibration Histogram with fixed size bins (bins=50)

| | | | |
|--------------|-----------|--------------|-------------|
| Distinct | 50000 | Minimum | 0.086042293 |
| Distinct (%) | 100.0% | Maximum | 10.166857 |
| Missing | 0 | Zeros | 0 |
| Missing (%) | 0.0% | Zeros (%) | 0.0% |
| Infinite | 0 | Negative | 0 |
| Infinite (%) | 0.0% | Negative (%) | 0.0% |
| Mean | 5.4090982 | Memory size | 390.8 KiB |

Table 1.11: Quantile statistics & Descriptive statistics

| | | | |
|---------------------------|-------------|---------------------------------|---------------|
| Minimum | 0.086042293 | Standard deviation | 1.3209314 |
| 5-th percentile | 3.1845162 | Coefficient of variation (CV) | 0.24420547 |
| Q1 | 4.5034797 | Kurtosis | -0.2081606 |
| median | 5.4440488 | Mean | 5.4090982 |
| Q3 | 6.343931 | Median Absolute Deviation (MAD) | 0.9183058 |
| 95-th percentile | 7.5183433 | Skewness | -0.11076934 |
| Maximum | 10.166857 | Sum | 270454.91 |
| Range | 10.080815 | Variance | 1.7448597 |
| Interquartile range (IQR) | 1.8404513 | Monotonicity | Not monotonic |



Graph 1.5: Histogram with fixed size bins (bins=50)

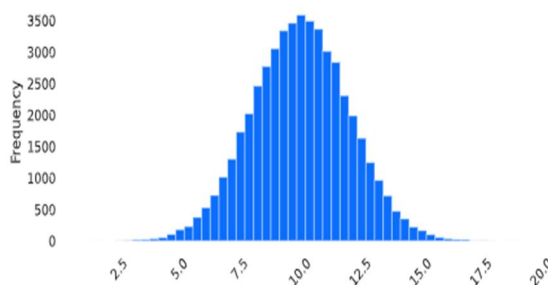
The histogram shows a normal (bell-shaped) distribution of values ranging from approximately 0 to 10. The highest frequency is concentrated around the 5–6 range, indicating the mean of the dataset lies near this region. The symmetric shape suggests that the data is evenly distributed with fewer values at the extremes and most values clustered around the center.

Table 1.12: Current Histogram with fixed size bins (bins=50)

| | | | |
|--------------|-----------|--------------|-----------|
| Distinct | 50000 | Minimum | 1.2519144 |
| Distinct (%) | 100.0% | Maximum | 19.168704 |
| Missing | 0 | Zeros | 0 |
| Missing (%) | 0.0% | Zeros (%) | 0.0% |
| Infinite | 0 | Negative | 0 |
| Infinite (%) | 0.0% | Negative (%) | 0.0% |
| Mean | 10.005638 | Memory size | 390.8 KiB |

Table 1.13: Quantile statistics & Descriptive statistics

| | | | |
|---------------------------|-----------|---------------------------------|---------------|
| Minimum | 1.2519144 | Standard deviation | 2.0073492 |
| 5-th percentile | 6.7244561 | Coefficient of variation (CV) | 0.2006218 |
| Q1 | 8.6386236 | Kurtosis | 0.021471552 |
| median | 10.009994 | Mean | 10.005638 |
| Q3 | 11.358059 | Median Absolute Deviation (MAD) | 1.3582891 |
| 95-th percentile | 13.302101 | Skewness | 0.0068559905 |
| Maximum | 19.168704 | Sum | 500281.91 |
| Range | 17.916789 | Variance | 4.0294507 |
| Interquartile range (IQR) | 2.7194358 | Monotonicity | Not monotonic |



Graph 1.6: Histogram with fixed size bins (bins=50)

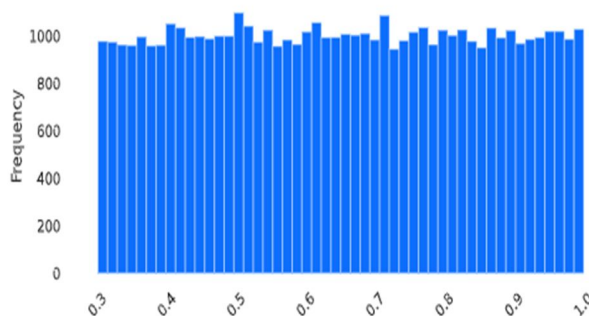
The histogram represents a normal (bell-shaped) distribution with values ranging approximately from 2 to 20. The peak frequency occurs around the 9–11 range, indicating the mean of the dataset lies near this center. The symmetric shape shows that most values are concentrated around the middle, with frequencies gradually decreasing toward both lower and higher extremes.

Table 1.14: Load Histogram with fixed size bins (bins=50)

| | | | |
|--------------|------------|--------------|------------|
| Distinct | 50000 | Minimum | 0.3000046 |
| Distinct (%) | 100.0% | Maximum | 0.99992818 |
| Missing | 0 | Zeros | 0 |
| Missing (%) | 0.0% | Zeros (%) | 0.0% |
| Infinite | 0 | Negative | 0 |
| Infinite (%) | 0.0% | Negative (%) | 0.0% |
| Mean | 0.65077717 | Memory size | 390.8 KiB |

Table 1.15: Quantile statistics & Descriptive statistics

| | | | |
|---------------------------|------------|---------------------------------|---------------|
| Minimum | 0.3000046 | Standard deviation | 0.20152379 |
| 5-th percentile | 0.33603112 | Coefficient of variation (CV) | 0.30966634 |
| Q1 | 0.47698176 | Kurtosis | -1.1948493 |
| median | 0.65056092 | Mean | 0.65077717 |
| Q3 | 0.82454454 | Median Absolute Deviation (MAD) | 0.17375924 |
| 95-th percentile | 0.96554767 | Skewness | 0.0016148226 |
| Maximum | 0.99992818 | Sum | 32538.859 |
| Range | 0.69992358 | Variance | 0.040611836 |
| Interquartile range (IQR) | 0.34756278 | Monotonicity | Not monotonic |



Graph 1.7: Histogram with fixed size bins (bins=50)

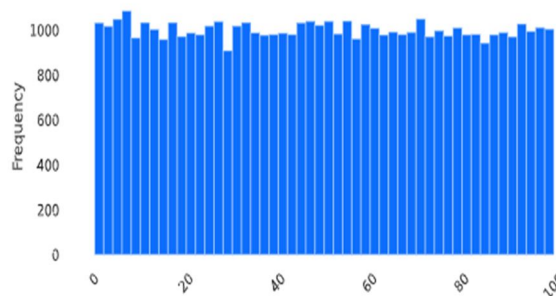
The AI-powered autonomous warehouse robot automates key operations like picking, sorting, and inventory tracking using machine learning for real-time decision-making and obstacle avoidance. It addresses traditional warehouse pain points—low efficiency, human errors, high costs, and poor scalability—while aligning with Industry 4.0 for smarter, scalable logistics.

Table 1.16: Tool Wear Histogram with fixed size bins (bins=50)

| | | | |
|--------------|--------|--------------|-------------|
| Distinct | 50000 | Minimum | 0.004244985 |
| Distinct (%) | 100.0% | Maximum | 99.999461 |
| Missing | 0 | Zeros | 0 |
| Missing (%) | 0.0% | Zeros (%) | 0.0% |
| Infinite | 0 | Negative | 0 |
| Infinite (%) | 0.0% | Negative (%) | 0.0% |
| Mean | 49.788 | Memory size | 390.8 KiB |

Table 1.17: Quantile statistics & Descriptive statistics

| | | | |
|---------------------------|-------------|---------------------------------|---------------|
| Minimum | 0.004244985 | Standard deviation | 28.913026 |
| 5-th percentile | 4.8404635 | Coefficient of variation (CV) | 0.58072279 |
| Q1 | 24.763191 | Kurtosis | -1.1961649 |
| median | 49.741809 | Mean | 49.788 |
| Q3 | 74.694957 | Median Absolute Deviation (MAD) | 24.963535 |
| 95-th percentile | 95.024727 | Skewness | 0.0059512401 |
| Maximum | 99.999461 | Sum | 2489400 |
| Range | 99.995216 | Variance | 835.96307 |
| Interquartile range (IQR) | 49.931766 | Monotonicity | Not monotonic |



Graph 1.8: Histogram with fixed size bins (bins=50)

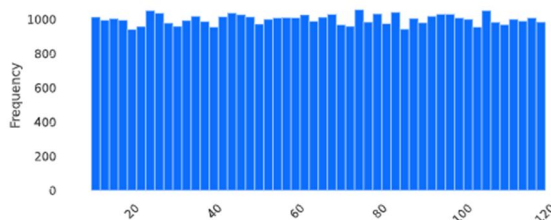
The image appears to be a histogram with frequencies staying fairly uniform across the range, mostly around 950–1100, which suggests the data is evenly distributed rather than strongly skewed. If you want, I can also write a 2–3line description for this chart in a report style.

Table 1.18: Cycle Time Histogram with fixed size bins (bins=50)

| | | | |
|--------------|-----------|--------------|-----------|
| Distinct | 50000 | Minimum | 10.000928 |
| Distinct (%) | 100.0% | Maximum | 119.99912 |
| Missing | 0 | Zeros | 0 |
| Missing (%) | 0.0% | Zeros (%) | 0.0% |
| Infinite | 0 | Negative | 0 |
| Infinite (%) | 0.0% | Negative (%) | 0.0% |
| Mean | 65.027954 | Memory size | 390.8 KiB |

Table 1.19: Quantile statistics & Descriptive statistics

| | | | |
|---------------------------|-----------|---------------------------------|---------------|
| Minimum | 10.000928 | Standard deviation | 31.694599 |
| 5-th percentile | 15.478669 | Coefficient of variation (CV) | 0.48739961 |
| Q1 | 37.672645 | Kurtosis | -1.1956755 |
| median | 65.01862 | Mean | 65.027954 |
| Q3 | 92.588433 | Median Absolute Deviation (MAD) | 27.442146 |
| 95-th percentile | 114.43516 | Skewness | -0.0025452517 |
| Maximum | 119.99912 | Sum | 3251397.7 |
| Range | 109.9982 | Variance | 1004.5476 |
| Interquartile range (IQR) | 54.915788 | Monotonicity | Not monotonic |



Graph 1.9: Histogram with fixed size bins (bins=50)

This histogram shows a nearly uniform frequency distribution across the full range, with values staying close to about 950–1050. It indicates the data is evenly spread, with only minor fluctuations and no strong skew or peak.

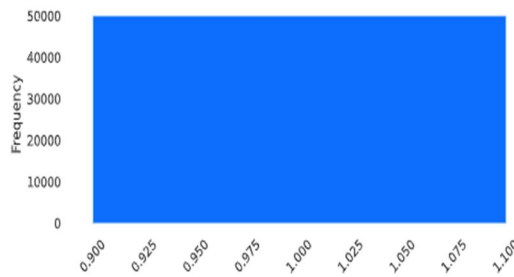
Table 1.20: Obstacle Detected Histogram of lengths of the category & Length

| | |
|---------------------|---------|
| Distinct | 2 |
| Distinct (%) | < 0.1% |
| Missing | 0 |
| Missing (%) | 0.0% |
| Memory size | 2.4 MiB |
| Max length (Length) | 1 |

| | |
|---------------|---|
| Median length | 1 |
| Mean length | 1 |
| Min length | 1 |

Table 1.21: Characters and Unicode & Sample

| | |
|---------------------|-------|
| Total characters | 50000 |
| Distinct characters | 2 |
| Distinct categories | 1? |
| Distinct scripts | 1? |
| Distinct blocks | 1? |
| Unique (Unique) | 0? |
| Unique (%) | 0.0% |
| 1st row (Sample) | 0 |
| 2nd row | 0 |
| 3rd row | 1 |
| 4th row | 0 |
| 5th row | 0 |



Graph 1.10: Histogram of lengths of the category

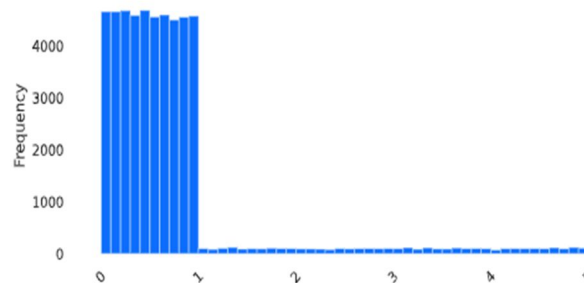
This histogram shows a very concentrated distribution around 1.0, with almost all values falling within a narrow range from about 0.90 to 1.10. The shape suggests low variability and a strong central clustering, which is often seen in normalized or standardized data.

Table 1.22: Path Deviation Histogram with fixed size bins (bins=50)

| | | | |
|--------------|------------|--------------|----------------------------|
| Distinct | 50000 | Minimum | 3.4009497×10^{-5} |
| Distinct (%) | 100.0% | Maximum | 4.9990909 |
| Missing | 0 | Zeros | 0 |
| Missing (%) | 0.0% | Zeros (%) | 0.0% |
| Infinite | 0 | Negative | 0 |
| Infinite (%) | 0.0% | Negative (%) | 0.0% |
| Mean | 0.69709572 | Memory size | 390.8 KiB |

Table 1.23: Quantile statistics & Descriptive statistics

| | | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------|
| Minimum | 3.4009497×10^{-5} | Standard deviation | 0.80507193 |
| 5-th percentile | 0.054409223 | Coefficient of variation (CV) | 1.1548944 |
| Q1 | 0.26874016 | Kurtosis | 11.444832 |
| median | 0.53918102 | Mean | 0.69709572 |
| Q3 | 0.81286068 | Median Absolute Deviation (MAD) | 0.27201053 |
| 95-th percentile | 2.5033638 | Skewness | 3.2345762 |
| Maximum | 4.9990909 | Sum | 34854.786 |
| Range | 4.9990569 | Variance | 0.64814081 |
| Interquartile range (IQR) | 0.54412052 | Monotonicity | Not monotonic |



Graph 1.11: Histogram with fixed size bins (bins=50)

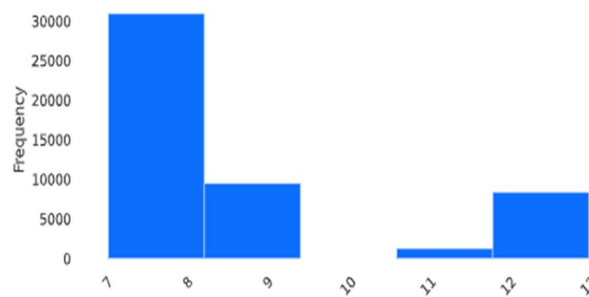
This histogram shows a strong right-skewed distribution: most values are concentrated below 1, while a long tail extends toward 5. It suggests that the data has a dense cluster of smaller values and only a few larger outliers.

Table 1.24: Fault Type Histogram of lengths of the category

| | |
|---------------------|---------|
| Distinct | 6 |
| Distinct (%) | < 0.1% |
| Missing | 0 |
| Missing (%) | 0.0% |
| Memory size | 2.7 MiB |
| Max length (Length) | 13 |
| Median length | 7 |
| Mean length | 8.38812 |
| Min length | 7 |

Table 1.25: Characters and Unicode& Sample

| | |
|---------------------|---------------|
| Total characters | 419406 |
| Distinct characters | 26 |
| Distinct categories | 1? |
| Distinct scripts | 1? |
| Distinct blocks | 1 |
| Unique (Unique) | 0? |
| Unique (%) | 0.0% |
| 1st row | Healthy |
| 2nd row | Misalignment |
| 3rd row | Bearing Fault |
| 4th row | Misalignment |
| 5th row | Tool Wear |



Graph 1.12: Histogram of lengths of the category

This histogram shows a bimodal distribution, with one large cluster around 7–9 and another smaller cluster around 12–13. The gap near 10 suggests the data comes from two different groups or behaviors rather than one single pattern.

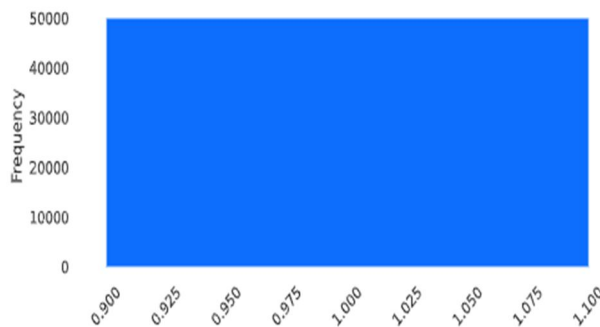
Table 1.26: Health Status Histogram of lengths of the category & Length

| | |
|---------------|---------|
| Distinct | 2 |
| Distinct (%) | < 0.1% |
| Missing | 0 |
| Missing (%) | 0.0% |
| Memory size | 2.4 MiB |
| Max length | 1 |
| Median length | 1 |
| Mean length | 1 |
| Min length | 1 |

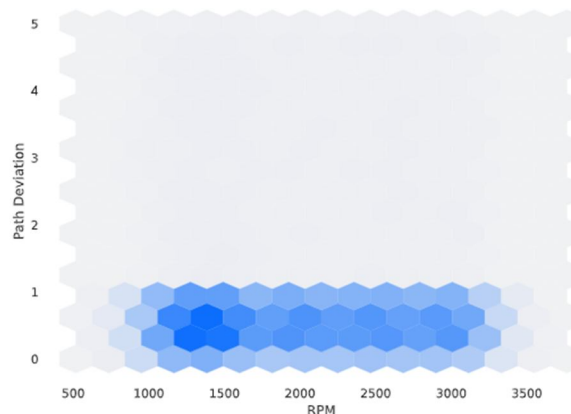
Table 1.27: Characters and Unicode & Unique & Sample

| | |
|---------------------|-------|
| Total characters | 50000 |
| Distinct characters | 2 |
| Distinct categories | 1? |
| Distinct scripts | 1? |
| Distinct blocks | 1? |
| Unique (Unique) | 0? |
| Unique (%) | 0.0% |
| 1st row (Sample) | 0 |
| 2nd row | 1 |
| 3rd row | 1 |
| 4th row | 1 |
| 5th row | 1 |

The AI-powered autonomous warehouse robot is designed to automate key warehouse tasks such as picking, sorting, and inventory handling with high precision and speed. It improves efficiency, reduces human errors and operational costs, and supports scalable smart warehousing in line with Industry 4.0 standards.

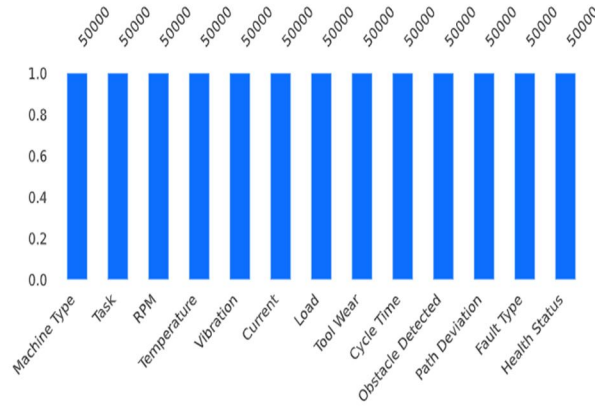


Graph 1.13: Histogram of lengths of the category



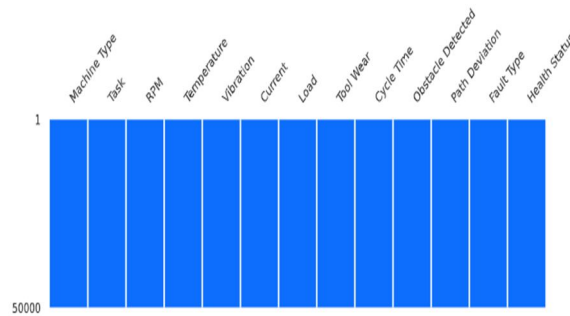
Graph 1.14: Interactions

This graph shows the relationship between RPM and Path Deviation, where most data points are concentrated at low deviation values (around 0–1). It indicates that across a wide RPM range, the system maintains stable and minimal deviation, reflecting efficient and consistent robot movement. Higher deviations are rare, suggesting good accuracy in path planning and control.



Graph 1.15: Missing values count

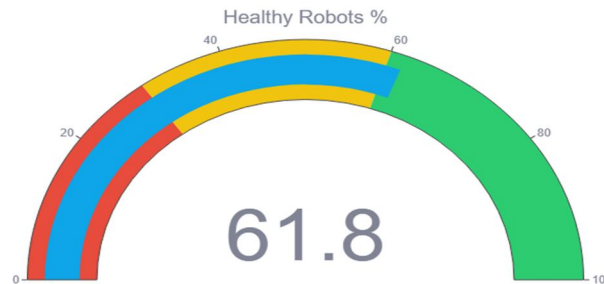
This bar chart shows that all features in the dataset (such as RPM, Temperature, Vibration, and Path Deviation) have equal data availability, each with a count of 50,000 records. It indicates a well-balanced and complete dataset with no missing values across variables. This consistency improves the reliability and performance of the AI model during training and evaluation.



Graph 1.16: Missing values matrix

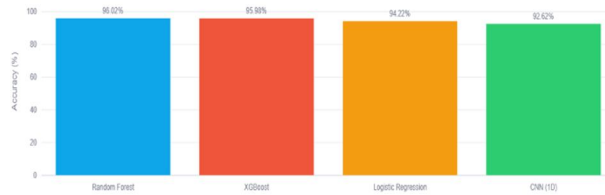
This chart confirms that all features in the dataset contain a uniform number of records (50,000), with no missing or inconsistent values. It highlights that the dataset is well-structured and balanced across all variables like RPM, Temperature, and Fault Type. Such completeness ensures better model training, accuracy, and reliable performance analysis.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION



Graph 1.17: Healthy Robots

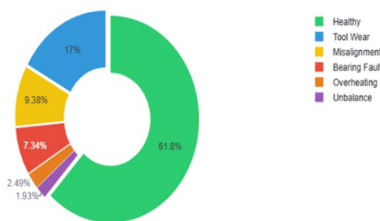
This gauge chart shows that 61.8% of the robots are in a healthy condition, placing the system in a moderate performance range. It indicates that while a majority of robots are functioning properly, there is still a significant portion requiring maintenance or monitoring. Improving this percentage can enhance overall efficiency and reliability of the warehouse system.



Graph 1.18: Accuracy (%)

This chart compares the accuracy of different machine learning models, where Random Forest (96.02%) and XGBoost (95.98%) perform the best. Logistic Regression (94.22%) and CNN (92.62%) show slightly lower accuracy. Overall, ensemble models provide higher reliability and better performance for the system.

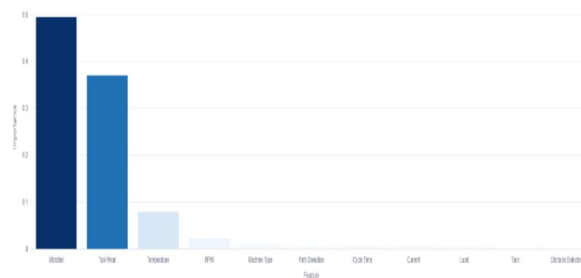
Robot Fault Distribution



Graph 1.19: Robot Fault Distribution

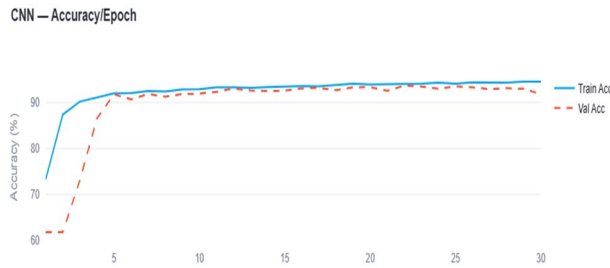
This pie chart shows that 61.8% of robots are healthy, while the remaining 38.2% have faults. The most common issues are Tool Wear (17%) and Misalignment (9.38%), followed by Bearing Faults, Overheating, and Unbalance. This indicates that preventive maintenance should mainly focus on wear and alignment-related problems to improve system performance.

Feature Importance - Random Forest



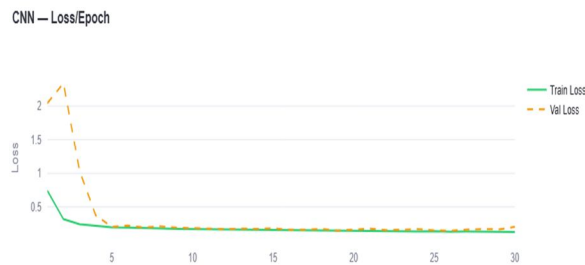
Graph 1.20: Feature Importance-Random Forest

This chart shows that Vibration and Tool Wear are the most important features in predicting robot faults, contributing significantly more than other variables. Temperature and RPM have moderate influence, while factors like Load, Task, and Obstacle Detection have minimal impact. This indicates that monitoring vibration and wear is critical for accurate fault detection and system reliability.



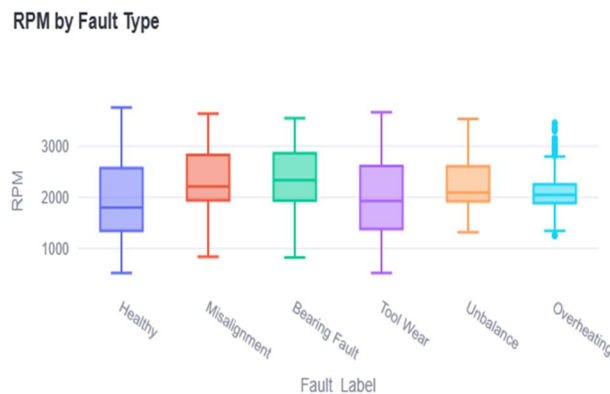
Graph 1.21: CNN- Accuracy/Epoch

This graph shows the CNN model’s training and validation accuracy over epochs, where both curves steadily increase and stabilize around 92–94%. The close alignment between training and validation accuracy indicates good generalization with minimal overfitting. It reflects that the model is learning effectively and performing reliably on unseen data.



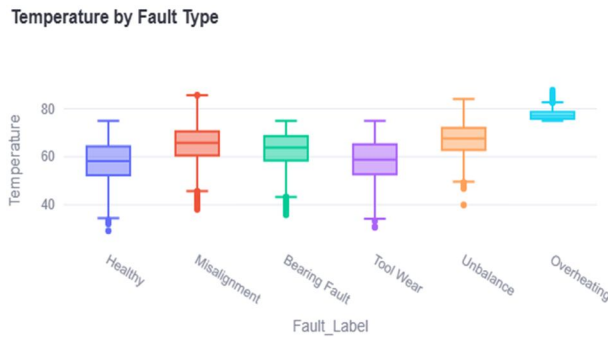
Graph 1.22: CNN- Loss/Epoch

This graph shows the CNN model’s training and validation accuracy over epochs, where both curves steadily increase and stabilize around 92–94%. The close alignment between training and validation accuracy indicates good generalization with minimal overfitting. It reflects that the model is learning effectively and performing reliably on unseen data.



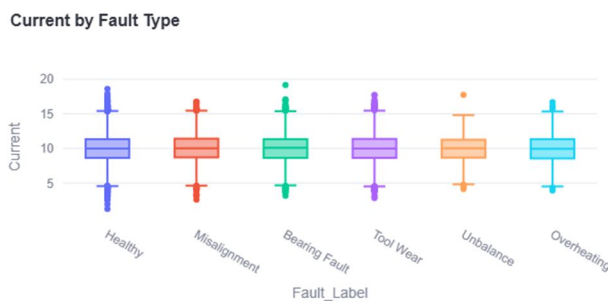
Graph 1.23: RPM by Fault Type

This box plot shows the distribution of RPM across different fault types, where each fault category has a distinct range and median value. Faults like Misalignment and Bearing Fault tend to occur at higher RPM ranges, while Healthy and Tool Wear show wider variability. This indicates that RPM plays a significant role in identifying and differentiating between various robot faults.



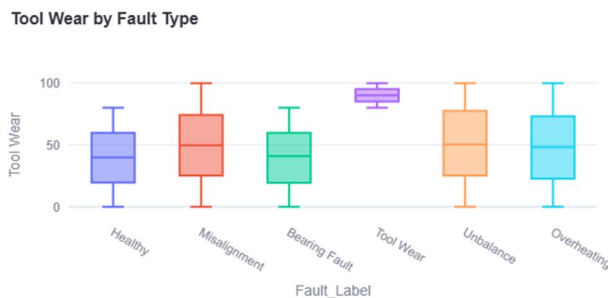
Graph 1.24: Temperature by Fault Type

This box plot shows that temperature varies significantly across different fault types, with Overheating having the highest temperature range and median. Faults like Misalignment and Unbalance also show relatively higher temperatures, while Healthy and Tool Wear remain at moderate levels. This indicates that temperature is a key indicator for detecting overheating-related and mechanical faults in the system.



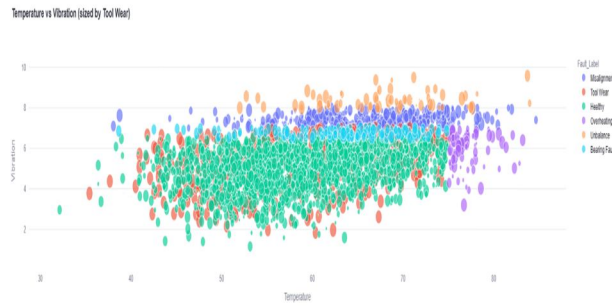
Graph 1.25: Current by Fault Type

This box plot shows that current values are fairly consistent across all fault types, with most distributions centered around similar ranges. Although there are slight variations and outliers, no single fault type shows a drastic difference in current. This suggests that current alone is a weaker indicator and should be combined with other features for accurate fault detection.



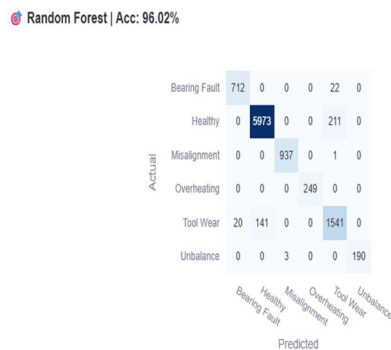
Graph 1.26: Tool Wear by Fault Type

This box plot shows that Tool Wear values are highest and most concentrated for the Tool Wear fault type, clearly distinguishing it from other faults. Other categories like Misalignment, Unbalance, and Overheating show wider variation but generally lower median values. This indicates that tool wear is a strong and reliable feature for identifying wear-related faults in the system.



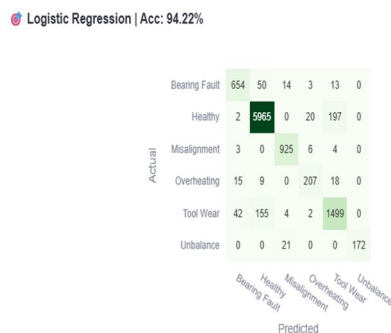
Graph 1.27: Temperature vs Vibration (sized by Tool Wear)

This scatter plot shows the relationship between Temperature and Vibration, with bubble size representing Tool Wear. Most data points cluster in mid temperature (50–70) and vibration (3–7) ranges, indicating stable operating conditions. Larger bubbles at higher values suggest that increased temperature and vibration are associated with higher tool wear and potential faults.



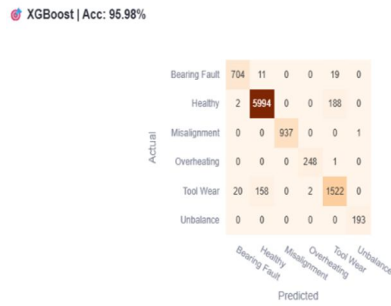
Graph 1.28: Random Forest | Acc: 96.02%

This confusion matrix shows that the Random Forest model achieves high accuracy (96.02%) with most predictions correctly classified along the diagonal. Classes like Healthy, Misalignment, and Tool Wear are predicted very accurately, with only a few misclassifications (e.g., some Tool Wear predicted as Healthy). Overall, the model demonstrates strong performance and reliability in identifying different robot fault types.



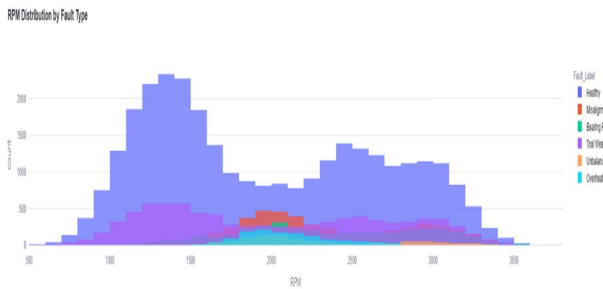
Graph 1.29: Logistic Regression | Acc: 94.22%

This confusion matrix shows that the Logistic Regression model achieves 94.22% accuracy, with most predictions correctly falling along the diagonal. While it performs well on classes like Healthy and Misalignment, there are slightly more misclassifications compared to Random Forest, especially between Tool Wear and Healthy or similar fault types. Overall, the model provides good performance but is slightly less accurate than ensemble methods.



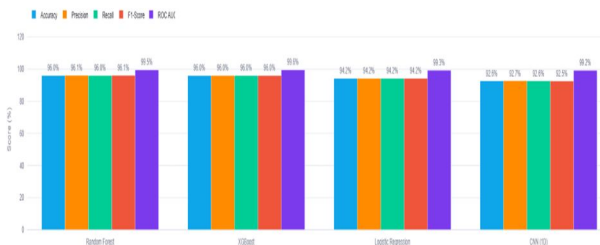
Graph 1.30: XGBoost | Acc: 95.98%

This confusion matrix shows that the XGBoost model achieves high accuracy (95.98%), with most predictions correctly aligned along the diagonal. It performs very well on classes like Healthy, Misalignment, and Tool Wear, with only minor misclassifications. Overall, XGBoost delivers strong and reliable performance, comparable to Random Forest for fault detection.



Graph 1.31: RPM Distribution by Fault Type

This histogram shows the distribution of RPM across different fault types, where most data is concentrated between 1000–3000 RPM. Healthy conditions dominate the distribution, while faults like Misalignment and Tool Wear appear more frequently in mid-to-high RPM ranges. This indicates that certain faults are more likely to occur at specific RPM levels, making RPM an important factor for fault analysis.



Graph 1.32: Score (%)

This chart compares multiple performance metrics (Accuracy, Precision, Recall, F1-Score, and ROC-AUC) across models. Random Forest and XGBoost consistently achieve the highest scores (~96–99%), indicating strong and balanced performance. Logistic Regression and CNN show slightly lower values, but still maintain good overall reliability, with ROC-AUC close to 99% for all models.

GUI Image

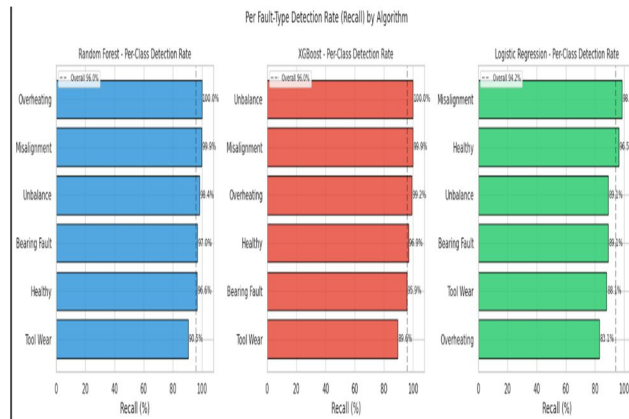


Photo 1: Per Fault Detection Rate (Recall) By Algorithm

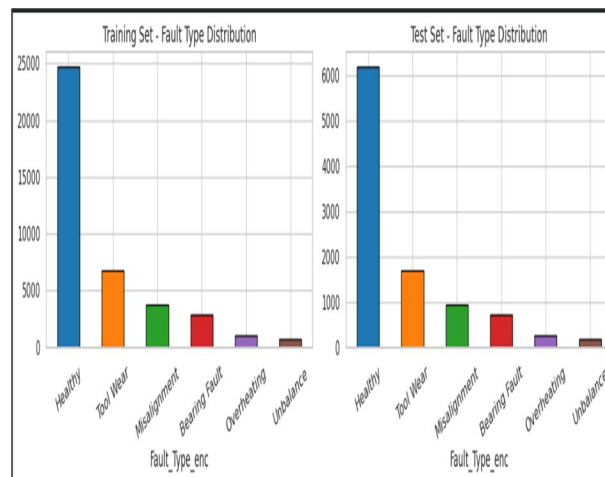


Photo 2

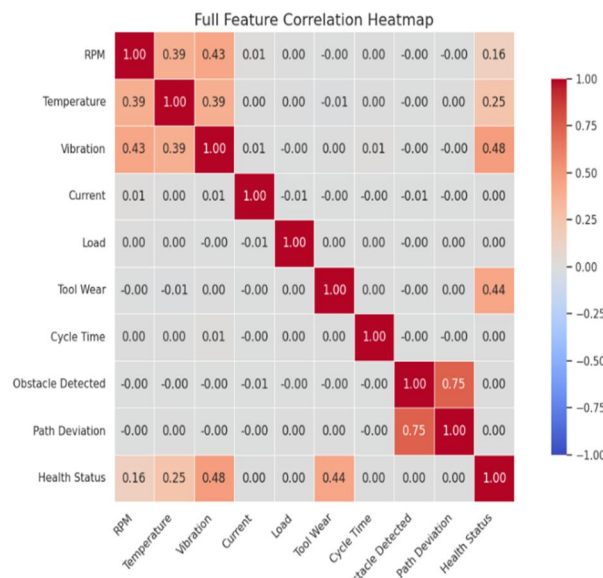


Photo 3: Full Feature Correlation Heatmap

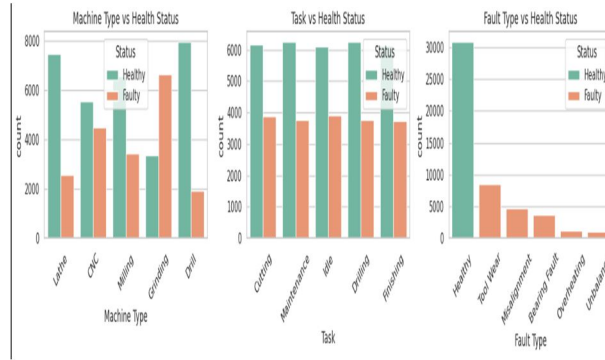


Photo 4

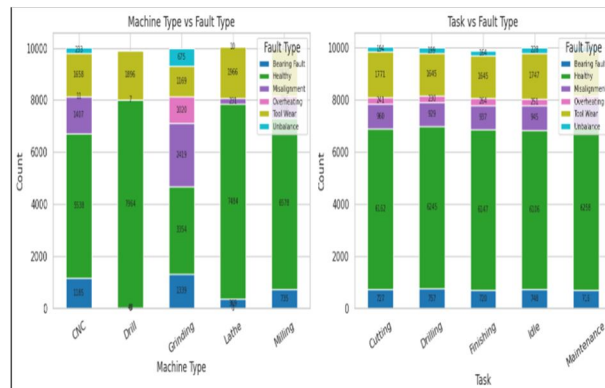


Photo 5



Photo 6

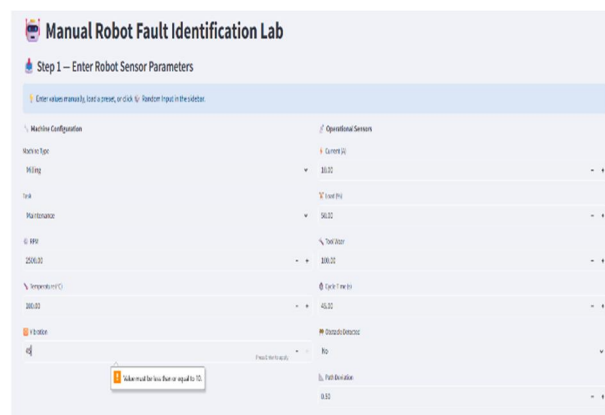


Photo 7



Photo 8

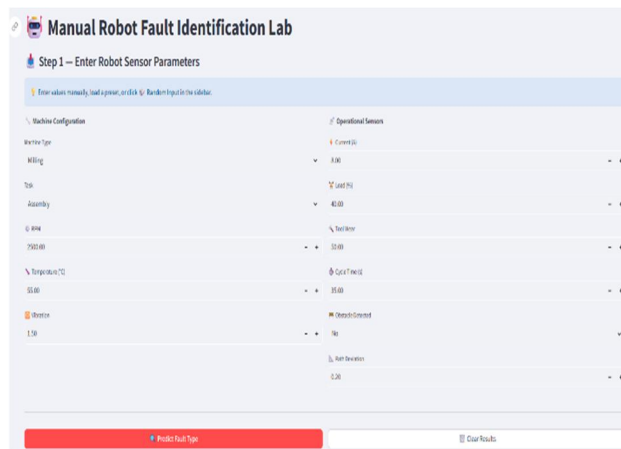


Photo 9

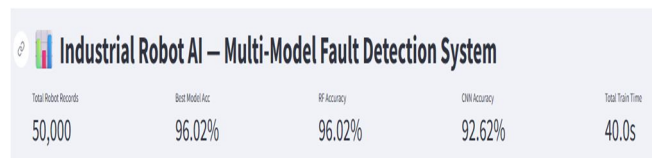


Photo 10

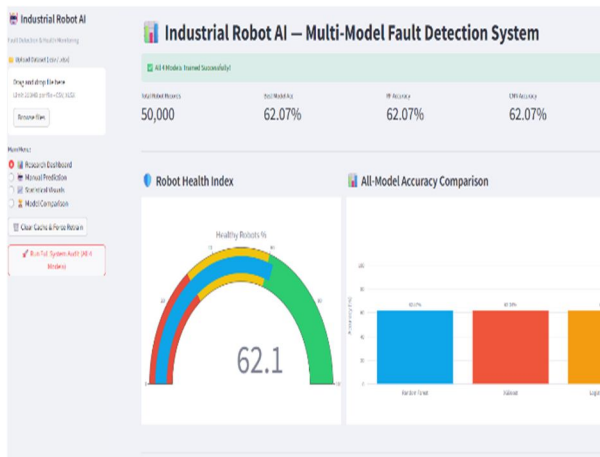


Photo 11

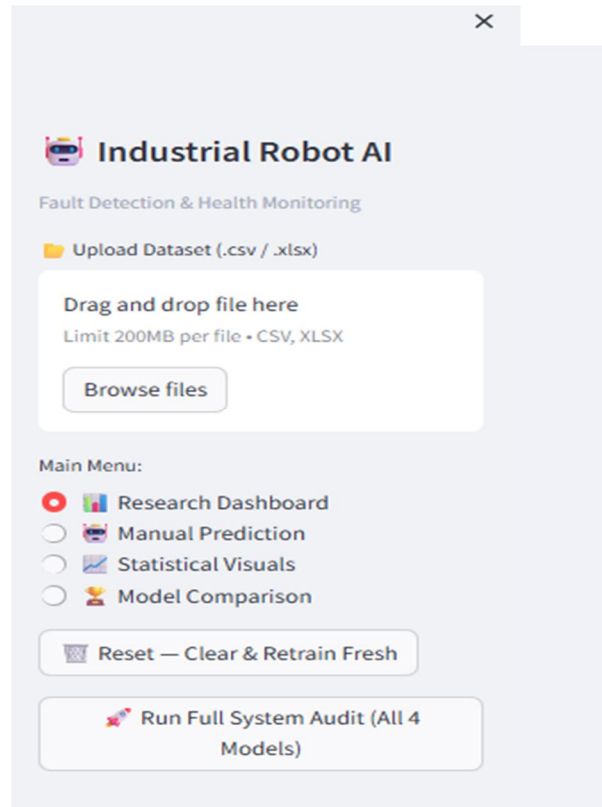


Photo 12

VI. CONCLUSION

This study presented a comprehensive investigation into the development of an intelligent predictive maintenance system for industrial machinery using AI-based analytical techniques. By integrating IoT-enabled data acquisition with advanced machine learning models, the proposed approach demonstrates the capability to monitor equipment health in real time and predict potential failures before they occur. The system effectively utilizes multi-sensor data, including vibration, temperature, current, and voltage, to identify degradation patterns and support proactive maintenance strategies.

The implementation of data preprocessing techniques and feature engineering enhances the quality and reliability of the input data, leading to improved model performance. The use of machine learning algorithms such as SVM, Random Forest, and Artificial Neural Networks enables accurate fault prediction and efficient classification of machine conditions. Additionally, cloud integration ensures scalable data storage, real-time accessibility, and efficient computational processing, making the system suitable for modern industrial environments.

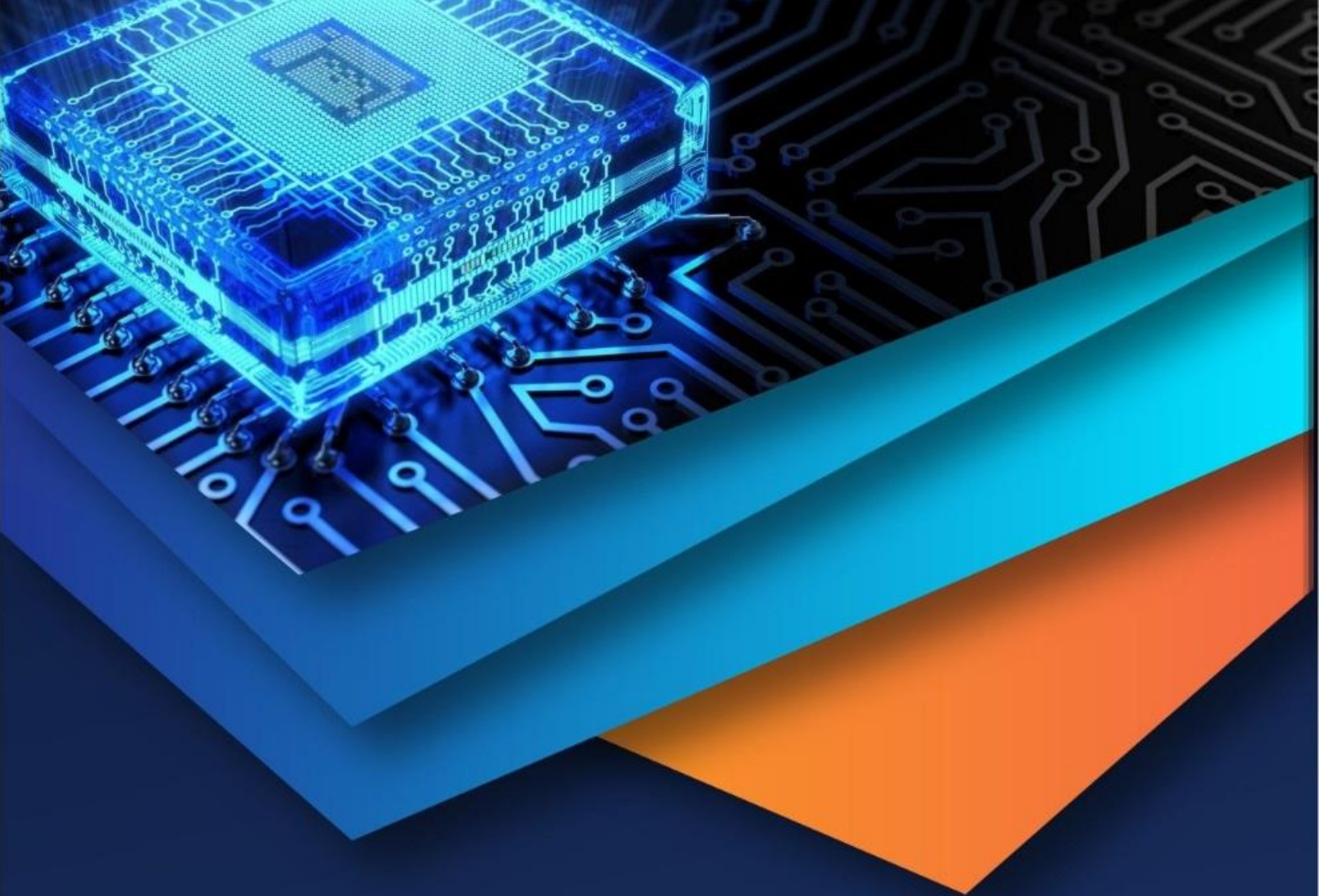
Overall, the proposed predictive maintenance framework significantly reduces unplanned downtime, optimizes maintenance scheduling, and extends the operational lifespan of machinery. It contributes to improved productivity, cost efficiency, and system reliability in industrial applications. However, challenges such as data quality, computational complexity, and real-time implementation remain important considerations for future work. Further advancements in deep learning, edge computing, and intelligent automation can enhance system performance and support the development of fully autonomous maintenance solutions in smart manufacturing environments.

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