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Lucas William Junges

Predictive Fault Detection System for Three-Phase Induction Motors using Thermography and Convolutional Neural Networks with Grad-CAM Interpretability

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Examination Committee:

ICP-Edu
Documento assinado digitalmente
Tiago Davi Curi Busarello
Data: 16/12/2025 16:57:54-0300
CPF: ***.950.098-**
Verifique as assinaturas em https://v.ufsc.br

Prof. Tiago Davi Curi Busarello, Dr.
Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina

ICP-Edu
Documento assinado digitalmente
Mauri Ferrandin
Data: 16/12/2025 17:19:20-0300
CPF: ***.580.869-**
Verifique as assinaturas em https://v.ufsc.br

Prof. Mauri Ferrandin, Dr.
Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina

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Hugo Jose Lara Urdaneta
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CPF: ***.656.117-**
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Prof. Hugo José Lara Urdaneta, Dr.
Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina

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“The real question is not whether machines think but whether men do.” (B.F. Skinner)

RESUMO

Este trabalho apresenta o desenvolvimento de um sistema de detecção preditiva de falhas para motores de indução trifásicos utilizando imagens termográficas e Redes Neurais Convolucionais (CNNs) com interpretabilidade através do Grad-CAM (Gradient-weighted Class Activation Mapping). Falhas não planejadas em motores criam perdas operacionais e econômicas massivas em ambientes industriais, evidenciando a necessidade de soluções eficientes de manutenção preditiva. Foi construído um conjunto de dados de imagens térmicas com 369 amostras em cinco classes de falhas: operação normal, sobrecarga térmica, falha em rolamento, desbalanceamento mecânico e desalinhamento. Um modelo CNN baseado na arquitetura MobileNetV2 foi desenvolvido utilizando transferência de aprendizado, alcançando 80% de acurácia na classificação de falhas. A técnica Grad-CAM fornece explicações visuais das decisões do modelo, permitindo que operadores visualizem quais regiões térmicas influenciaram cada diagnóstico. Foram implementados protocolos de comunicação OPC UA e MQTT para integração industrial, possibilitando transmissão de dados em tempo real e conexão com sistemas de monitoramento existentes. Demonstrações práticas validaram a solução, apresentando tempos de inferência inferiores a 100ms, adequados para uso em tempo real. As principais contribuições incluem: (1) um conjunto de dados térmicos padronizado para detecção de falhas em motores; (2) um modelo CNN interpretável e funcional; (3) protocolos de comunicação industrial operacionais; e (4) validação completa do sistema em cenários reais. Os resultados confirmam a viabilidade da abordagem para manutenção preditiva industrial, combinando acurácia, interpretabilidade e integração com sistemas existentes.

Palavras-chave: termografia; redes neurais convolucionais; manutenção preditiva; motores de indução trifásicos; Grad-CAM; protocolos industriais.

ABSTRACT

This work presents the development of a predictive fault detection system for three-phase induction motors using thermal imaging and Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) with interpretability through Grad-CAM (Gradient-weighted Class Activation Mapping). Unplanned motor failures create massive operational and economic losses in industrial settings, highlighting the need for efficient predictive maintenance solutions. A thermal image dataset was built with 369 samples across five fault classes: normal operation, thermal overload, bearing failure, mechanical unbalance, and misalignment. A CNN model based on MobileNetV2 architecture was developed using transfer learning, achieving 80% accuracy in fault classification. The Grad-CAM technique provides visual explanations of model decisions, allowing operators to see which thermal regions influenced each diagnosis. OPC UA and MQTT communication protocols were implemented for industrial integration, enabling real-time data transmission and connection with existing monitoring systems. Practical demonstrations validated the solution, showing inference times under 100ms, suitable for real-time use. The main contributions include: (1) a standardized thermal dataset for motor fault detection; (2) a functional and interpretable CNN model; (3) working industrial communication protocols; and (4) full system validation in real scenarios. The results confirm the approach is viable for industrial predictive maintenance, combining accuracy, interpretability, and seamless integration with existing systems.

Keywords: thermography; convolutional neural networks; predictive maintenance; three-phase induction motors; Grad-CAM; industrial protocols.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

API	Application Programming Interface
BMP	Bitmap Image File
CLAHE	Contrast Limited Adaptive Histogram Equalization
CNN	Convolutional Neural Network
FPS	Frames Per Second
GPU	Graphics Processing Unit
Grad-CAM	Gradient-weighted Class Activation Mapping
IFOV	Instantaneous Field of View
IR	Infrared
JSON	JavaScript Object Notation
MQTT	Message Queuing Telemetry Transport
MTBF	Mean Time Between Failures
NETD	Noise Equivalent Temperature Difference
OPC UA	Open Platform Communications Unified Architecture
QoS	Quality of Service
ReLU	Rectified Linear Unit
RGB	Red Green Blue
ROI	Return on Investment

CONTENTS

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 CONTEXTUALIZATION

The Fourth Industrial Revolution has radically transformed modern manufacturing. Physical and digital systems converge. This transformation—Industry 4.0—integrates emerging technologies like IoT, artificial intelligence, big data analytics, and cloud computing to create intelligent production systems (Schwab, 2016).

Today's industrial plants deploy ubiquitous sensors and advanced communication systems. They continuously monitor critical equipment and generate massive volumes of operational data. A McKinsey Global Institute report shows that predictive maintenance technologies can cut maintenance costs by 10-20% while boosting equipment availability by 5-15% (McKinsey Global Institute, 2017). The numbers speak for themselves. The global predictive maintenance market was valued at USD 3.3 billion in 2020 and is projected to hit USD 12.3 billion by 2025—a compound annual growth rate of 30.2% (MarketsandMarkets, 2020).

Industry is shifting from traditional corrective and preventive maintenance to data-driven predictive strategies. This represents a fundamental change in asset management. Three-phase induction motors form the backbone of modern industrial automation, consuming roughly 45% of global industrial electrical energy according to the International Energy Agency (International Energy Agency, 2019). They're everywhere.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Three-phase induction motors are critical in industrial systems. They drive pumps, compressors, fans, conveyor belts, and countless other equipment essential to production. International Energy Agency data confirms these motors consume about 45% of global industrial electrical energy (International Energy Agency, 2019). Their economic and energetic importance cannot be overstated.

When these motors fail unexpectedly, the costs go far beyond repair or replacement. IEEE studies show that unplanned downtime of a critical motor costs between USD 10,000 to USD 100,000 per hour, depending on the sector and process (IEEE Standards Association, 2007). In petrochemical and steel plants? These values can spike to USD 500,000 per hour (Mobley, 2002).

Traditional maintenance techniques fall short in modern industry. Corrective maintenance kicks in after failure—causing unplanned downtime and high costs. Preventive maintenance uses fixed intervals, which reduces catastrophic failures but often replaces components that still work fine, driving up costs and creating waste (Jardine; Lin; Banjevic, 2006).

Conventional predictive methods like vibration analysis and oil analysis work, but they bring operational complexity, demand specialized technical knowledge, and carry high implementation and maintenance costs. These techniques often need physical equipment access and miss early signs of certain failure modes (Choudhury; Tandon, 2008).

This brings us to the core question: **How can we build a system that detects incipient failures in three-phase induction motors AND precisely indicates their location and nature, in a non-invasive, economically viable way with clear interpretability for industrial decisions?**

1.3 JUSTIFICATION

Infrared thermography offers unique advantages for predictive monitoring. Non-invasive. Real-time detection. Intuitive visualization of thermal anomalies. Unlike other predictive techniques, thermography works during normal equipment operation—no downtime, no direct physical access required, providing operational flexibility and better safety (Younus; Yang, B.-S., 2010).

Failures in induction motors show up thermally, following well-established physics. Bearing failures create localized heating from increased friction. Stator failures produce hot spots from anomalous circulating currents. Mechanical imbalances create asymmetric thermal distributions. These thermal signatures provide information about operational status and specific degradation types (Singh; Ahmed Kazzaz, 2009).

Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) excel at extracting complex patterns from images automatically, beating traditional feature analysis methods. In thermal analysis, CNNs spot subtle patterns and non-linear combinations of thermal characteristics that conventional methods miss or can't quantify (LeCun; Bengio; Hinton, 2015). CNNs learn hierarchically, extracting features from basic edges and textures all the way up to complex semantic patterns for fault diagnosis.

AI decision interpretability is crucial in industry. Critical maintenance decisions need justification and auditing. Explainable AI (XAI) techniques, particularly Grad-CAM, transform black box systems into transparent tools that show which thermal image regions drive classification decisions (Selvaraju *et al.*, 2017).

Combining thermography with CNNs and interpretability techniques fits perfectly with digitalization and Industrial Internet of Things (IIoT) trends. Integration with existing SCADA systems through standard industrial protocols like OPC UA and MQTT enables scalable and interoperable predictive maintenance architectures.

1.4 OBJECTIVES

1.4.1 General Objective

Develop an intelligent predictive fault detection system for three-phase induction motors using infrared thermography and convolutional neural networks with visual interpretability via Grad-CAM, targeting industrial applications to cut maintenance costs and boost operational reliability.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

1. **Build optimized CNN architecture**: Develop a MobileNetV2-based model with transfer learning for thermal pattern classification. Real-time applications need computational efficiency. This balances detection accuracy with computational feasibility in industrial settings.
2. **Create thermal image dataset**: Organize and process 369 real thermographic images of motors in different operational conditions, with a reproducible protocol for acquisition and preprocessing. Dataset quality and representativeness drive system performance.
3. **Build Grad-CAM system**: Develop a visual interpretability module that identifies critical regions in thermal images, making CNN model decisions transparent. Industrial environments demand this functionality for system acceptance and trust.
4. **Validate using industrial metrics**: Evaluate the system with classification metrics (precision, recall, F1-score), response time analysis, and expert qualitative validation. Rigorous validation proves the system meets industrial requirements.
5. **Set up industrial communication protocols**: Build OPC UA and MQTT interfaces for integration with existing SCADA systems and IIoT platforms. This makes real industrial deployment possible.
6. **Build demonstration interface**: Create a working demonstration system with graphical interface for diagnostic visualization, automatic reports, and performance metrics. This proves practical applicability and eases validation.
7. **Document deployment architecture**: Write complete technical documentation for industrial deployment, covering hardware specs, installation, and configuration procedures. Good documentation enables technology transfer and industrial adoption.

1.5 WORK STRUCTURE

This work is organized into five main chapters that progress from theoretical foundations to system implementation and validation. Chapter 2 covers the theoretical foundation: operating principles of induction motors, predictive maintenance techniques, infrared thermography fundamentals, and CNN concepts with interpretability. Chapter

3 details the experimental methodology—test bench specifications, data acquisition protocols, CNN system architecture, and industrial integration modules. Chapter 4 presents and discusses experimental results: model performance analysis, real case validation, and Grad-CAM interpretability evaluation. Chapter 5 presents the conclusions, highlighting the scientific and technological contributions achieved, identifying current limitations, and proposing future work directions. Appendices complement the document with source code, detailed technical specifications, and additional experimental results.

2 THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

This chapter covers the theoretical foundations necessary to understand the proposed system. It addresses operating principles of three-phase induction motors, predictive maintenance concepts, infrared thermography fundamentals, and aspects of convolutional neural networks and interpretability.

2.1 THREE-PHASE INDUCTION MOTORS

2.1.1 Operating Principles

Nikola Tesla invented three-phase induction motors in 1888. Today they form the foundation of modern industrial automation, making up roughly 90% of motors used in industrial applications (Chapman, 2005). The operating principle? Create a rotating magnetic field in the stator that induces currents in the rotor, generating torque through electromagnetic interaction.

Three windings distributed spatially at 120° in the stator produce the rotating magnetic field. They're fed by three-phase currents with 120° temporal phase shift. The synchronous speed of the magnetic field follows Equation (1):

$$n_s = \frac{120f}{p} \tag{1}$$

where n_s is the synchronous speed (rpm), f is the grid frequency (Hz) and p is the number of poles.

Slip, a fundamental parameter for performance analysis, is defined by Equation (2):

$$s = \frac{n_s - n_r}{n_s} \tag{2}$$

where n_r is the rotor speed (rpm).

2.1.2 Main Failure Modes

Analyzing failures in induction motors is crucial for building effective predictive systems. Statistical studies break it down: roughly 40% of failures hit bearings, 38% affect stator windings, 10% strike the rotor, and 12% occur in other components (Bonnett; Yung, 2008).

To understand thermal imaging diagnostics, it is essential to first identify the main components of a three-phase induction motor and their spatial positions. Figure 1 presents a reference diagram showing the motor anatomy, the thermal camera perspective, and how different fault types manifest as characteristic thermal patterns.

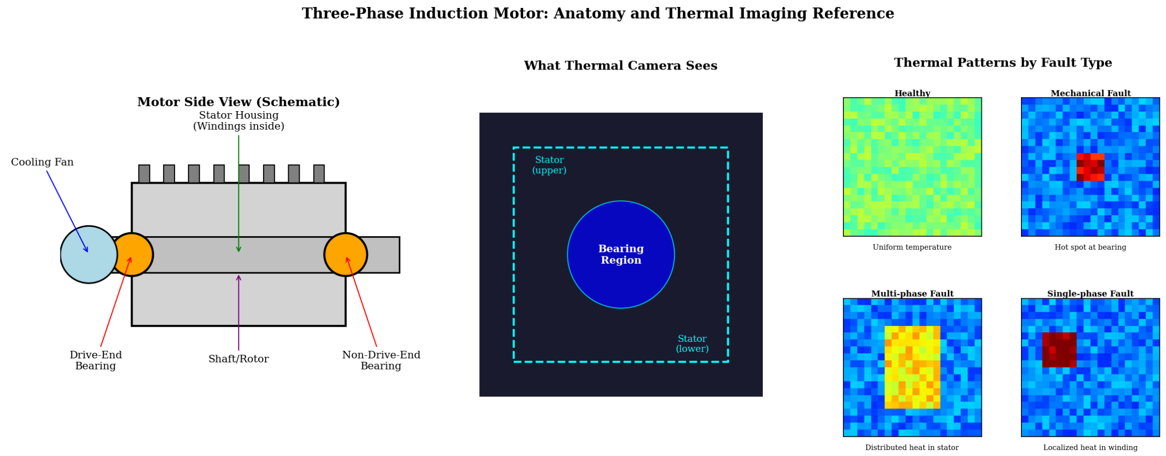


Figure 1 – Three-Phase Induction Motor Reference: (Left) Schematic side view identifying main components—cooling fan, drive-end and non-drive-end bearings (orange circles), stator housing containing windings, and shaft/rotor. (Center) Thermal camera frontal view showing the bearing region at the center, surrounded by stator windings. (Right) Characteristic thermal patterns for each fault class: healthy motors show uniform temperature distribution; mechanical faults produce hot spots at bearing positions; multi-phase faults cause distributed heating across the stator region; single-phase faults create localized hot spots in the affected winding area.

The thermal images in this work were captured from a frontal perspective, as illustrated in Figure 1 (center). In this view, the bearing region appears at the center of the image, while the stator windings occupy the surrounding area. This spatial relationship is critical for interpreting Grad-CAM activation maps and validating that the CNN focuses on physically meaningful regions corresponding to known failure mechanisms.

2.1.2.1 Bearing Failures

Bearing failures are the main cause of unscheduled shutdowns in industrial motors. Degradation happens through contact fatigue, corrosion, bad lubrication, and contamination. Excessive heating from increased friction marks these failures distinctively.

Bearing life follows the Weibull equation, as shown in Equation (3):

$$L_{10} = \left(\frac{C}{P}\right)^{k} \tag{3}$$

where L_{10} is the life for 10% failures, C is the dynamic capacity, P is the equivalent load and k is the life exponent (3 for ball bearings, 10/3 for roller bearings).

2.1.2.2 Stator Failures

Stator failures show up mainly as insulation degradation, causing short circuits between turns, between phases, or to the frame. The degradation process follows Arrhenius law, expressed in Equation (4):

$$t = A \cdot e^{\frac{B}{T}} \tag{4}$$

where t is the lifetime, T is the absolute temperature, and A and B are insulating material constants.

Anomalous circulation currents create localized heating according to Joule's law ($P = I^2R$), producing hot spots that thermography can detect.

2.1.2.3 Rotor Failures

Broken rotor bars create torque oscillations. These show up as spectral components at frequencies $(1 \pm 2s)f$, where s is the slip and f is the fundamental frequency. The oscillations produce cyclic thermal variations that thermographic analysis picks up.

2.2 INDUSTRIAL MAINTENANCE

2.2.1 Evolution of Maintenance Paradigms

Industrial maintenance evolved through four distinct generations, each with different approaches and technologies (Moubray, 1997):

1. **Corrective Maintenance (1940-1950)**: Fix it after it breaks
2. **Preventive Maintenance (1950-1980)**: Schedule interventions by time or usage
3. **Predictive Maintenance (1980-2000)**: Monitor condition to predict failures
4. **Prescriptive Maintenance (2000-present)**: Optimize using AI and big data

2.2.2 Predictive Maintenance

Predictive maintenance monitors equipment condition continuously or periodically to catch deterioration early and schedule optimized interventions. Main techniques:

Table 1 – Comparison of Predictive Maintenance Techniques

Technique	**Cost**	**Complexity**	**Advance Warning**
Vibration Analysis	High	High	3-6 weeks
Oil Analysis	Medium	Medium	4-8 weeks
Thermography	Low	Low	2-4 weeks
Ultrasound	Medium	Medium	1-3 weeks
Current Analysis	Low	High	2-6 weeks

2.3 INFRARED THERMOGRAPHY

2.3.1 Physical Principles

Thermography detects infrared radiation that all bodies above absolute zero naturally emit. Thermal radiation follows Planck's law for black body radiation, as expressed in Equation (5):

$$B(\lambda, T) = \frac{2hc^2}{\lambda^5} \frac{1}{e^{\frac{hc}{\lambda k_B T}} - 1} \tag{5}$$

where $B(\lambda, T)$ is the spectral radiance, h is Planck's constant, c is the speed of light, λ is the wavelength, k_B is Boltzmann's constant and T is the absolute temperature.

Total radiated power is given by Stefan-Boltzmann law, shown in Equation (6):

$$P = \varepsilon \sigma A T^4 \tag{6}$$

where ε is the material emissivity, σ is Stefan-Boltzmann constant (5.67×10^{-8} W/m^{2}K^4) and A is the surface area.

2.3.2 Thermal Camera Technology

Modern thermal cameras use uncooled microbolometer detectors operating in the 8-14 μm spectral range (long-wave atmospheric window). Key parameters include NETD (Noise Equivalent Temperature Difference) with typical thermal sensitivity below 0.05°C, spatial resolution typically ranging from 160×120 to 1024×768 pixels, IFOV (Instantaneous Field of View) which determines the smallest measurable area, and acquisition rate between 9-60 Hz for dynamic applications.

2.3.3 Applications in Motor Maintenance

Thermography identifies thermal anomalies tied to different failure modes. Overload conditions manifest as uniform stator heating, while unbalance produces asymmetric thermal patterns. Bearing failures create localized hot spots, and ventilation problems generate unusual thermal gradients.

2.4 COMPUTER VISION AND DEEP LEARNING

2.4.1 Digital Image Processing

Processing thermal images requires specific operations to optimize thermal information. A thermal image $I(x, y)$ can be expressed digitally as a matrix of temperature values or pseudo-colors.

Fundamental operations include normalization, as expressed by Equation (7), histogram equalization through CLAHE (Contrast Limited Adaptive Histogram Equalization), and filtering using convolutions for noise reduction and feature enhancement.

$$I_{norm}(x, y) = \frac{I(x, y) - I_{min}}{I_{max} - I_{min}} \tag{7}$$

2.4.2 Convolutional Neural Networks

2.4.2.1 Mathematical Foundations

CNNs process data through successive layers that extract hierarchical features. The fundamental building block combines two operations: convolution for feature extraction and activation for non-linearity.

The 2D discrete convolution operation extracts spatial features from input images and is defined by Equation (8):

$$(I * K)(x, y) = \sum_i \sum_j I(x - i, y - j) \cdot K(i, j) \tag{8}$$

where I is the input image, K is the kernel (filter) and $*$ denotes the convolution operation. This operation produces a linear transformation of the input—essentially a weighted sum of neighboring pixels. However, stacking multiple linear operations still produces linear outputs, which severely limits the network's representational capacity.

To enable CNNs to learn complex, non-linear patterns, activation functions are applied after each convolution. The ReLU (Rectified Linear Unit) activation function is the standard choice, defined by Equation (9):

$$f(x) = \max(0, x) \tag{9}$$

The relationship between these two operations is fundamental: convolution (Equation (8)) extracts features through linear filtering, while ReLU (Equation (9)) introduces non-linearity by zeroing negative values. Together, they form the basic computational unit of a CNN layer, expressed as $output = ReLU(I * K + b)$, where b is a bias term. This combination enables CNNs to learn hierarchical representations—from simple edges in early layers to complex thermal patterns indicating motor faults in deeper layers.

2.4.2.2 MobileNetV2 Architecture

MobileNetV2 (Sandler *et al.*, 2018) represents a significant advancement in efficient CNN architectures, specifically designed for mobile and embedded applications. The architecture achieves computational efficiency through two key innovations: depthwise separable convolutions and inverted residual blocks.

Depthwise separable convolutions factorize a standard convolution into two separate operations: a depthwise convolution that applies a single filter per input channel, and a pointwise (1×1) convolution that combines channel outputs. This factorization reduces computational cost from $O(k^2 \cdot C_{in} \cdot C_{out} \cdot H \cdot W)$ to $O(k^2 \cdot C_{in} \cdot H \cdot W + C_{in} \cdot C_{out} \cdot H \cdot W)$, where k is kernel size, C_{in} and C_{out} are input/output channels, and $H \times W$ is spatial dimension.

The inverted residual block structure, unique to MobileNetV2, consists of three sequential operations: first, expansion with 1×1 convolution that increases channel dimensionality by a factor (typically 6); second, depthwise separable convolution 3×3 that processes spatial information; and third, linear projection with 1×1 convolution that reduces dimensions back. Unlike traditional residual blocks that follow a wide-narrow-wide pattern, inverted residuals use narrow-wide-narrow, preserving information in low-dimensional representations.

For industrial applications like motor fault detection, MobileNetV2 offers several advantages. The architecture requires only 3.4M parameters versus 25.6M in ResNet50, enabling deployment on edge devices with limited memory. Inference latency of approximately 25ms on embedded platforms meets real-time requirements. Despite reduced complexity, the architecture maintains competitive accuracy on ImageNet classification tasks, demonstrating that feature extraction capability is preserved. The pre-trained weights provide an excellent starting point for transfer learning to thermal image domains.

2.4.2.3 Transfer Learning

Transfer learning addresses a fundamental challenge in deep learning: training CNNs typically requires millions of labeled images, but industrial applications often have limited datasets. The technique leverages knowledge learned from large-scale datasets (like ImageNet with 1.2 million images) and adapts it to specific domains with smaller datasets (Pan; Yang, Q., 2010).

The theoretical foundation rests on the observation that CNN layers learn hierarchical features. Early layers capture universal visual primitives—edges, textures, and color gradients—that apply across domains. Middle layers detect more complex patterns like shapes and object parts. Only the final layers specialize for the specific classification task. Since thermal images share low-level visual structures with natural images (edges, gradients, regions), features from ImageNet-trained networks transfer effectively.

The fine-tuning approach for thermal motor images involves four sequential steps. First, initialization with pre-trained weights loads the network with ImageNet-learned features, providing a robust starting point. Second, freezing of initial layers (typically the first 80-90% of layers) preserves the universal feature extractors while preventing overfitting on small datasets. Third, training of upper layers with domain-specific thermal data adapts the classification head to distinguish motor fault classes. Fourth, fine-tuning of the entire network with a reduced learning rate (typically 10-100× smaller) allows subtle adaptation of all features while maintaining stability.

This approach dramatically reduces data requirements: while training a CNN from scratch might require 100,000+ images, transfer learning can achieve competitive results with just hundreds of domain-specific samples, making it ideal for industrial applications where labeled fault data is scarce.

2.4.3 Interpretability with Grad-CAM

2.4.3.1 Mathematical Foundation

Grad-CAM (Gradient-weighted Class Activation Mapping) generates activation maps showing which image regions matter most for classification decisions (Selvaraju *et al.*, 2017).

The algorithm calculates the importance of each spatial position through Equation (10):

$$\alpha_k^c = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_i \sum_j \frac{\partial y^c}{\partial A_{i,j}^k} \tag{10}$$

where α_k^c are the importance weights for channel k of class c, y^c is the score of class c, A^k are the activation maps and Z is the normalization factor.

The final Grad-CAM map is obtained by Equation (11):

$$L_{Grad-CAM}^c = ReLU\left(\sum_k \alpha_k^c A^k\right) \tag{11}$$

2.4.3.2 Application in Industrial Diagnosis

For motor diagnosis, Grad-CAM provides crucial interpretability by highlighting critical thermal regions linked to specific failures, enabling automatic decision validation against physical knowledge, detecting bias or spurious patterns in the model, and supporting maintenance decisions.

2.5 INDUSTRIAL COMMUNICATION PROTOCOLS

Industrial communication protocols are essential for integrating intelligent diagnostic systems into existing manufacturing infrastructure. A predictive maintenance solution, regardless of its accuracy, provides limited value if it cannot communicate results to plant operators, SCADA systems, and enterprise resource planning platforms. This section presents two protocols fundamental to industrial IoT (IIoT) integration.

2.5.1 OPC UA (Open Platform Communications Unified Architecture)

OPC UA is the modern standard for industrial communication, developed by the OPC Foundation to address limitations of its predecessor (OPC Classic) and meet Industry 4.0 requirements (Mahnke; Leitner; Damm, 2009). Unlike proprietary solutions that lock users into specific vendors, OPC UA provides an open, platform-independent framework for industrial data exchange.

The protocol is included in this work for several critical reasons. First, interoperability: the motor diagnostic system must communicate with diverse industrial equipment (PLCs, SCADA systems, HMIs) from multiple vendors, and OPC UA enables this without custom adapters. Second, semantic modeling: OPC UA's information model allows structured representation of diagnostic data (temperature values, fault classifications, confidence levels, Grad-CAM outputs) with standardized data types and relationships, enabling automated interpretation by client systems. Third, security: industrial environments require encrypted communication and authentication; OPC UA provides built-in security layers essential for protecting diagnostic data and preventing unauthorized system access. Fourth, scalability: the same protocol supports communication from edge devices performing inference to enterprise systems aggregating data from hundreds of motors.

Key technical characteristics include service-oriented architecture with clearly defined services (read, write, subscribe, method call), transport flexibility supporting TCP and HTTPS, hierarchical information models organized as nodes in an address space, and method nodes that enable remote procedure calls—crucial for triggering on-demand diagnostics.

2.5.2 MQTT (Message Queuing Telemetry Transport)

MQTT is a publish/subscribe messaging protocol built for IoT communication. Industrial advantages include efficiency through low protocol overhead, reliability with three levels of QoS (Quality of Service), decoupling via publish/subscribe architecture, and connectivity optimized for unstable networks.

3 METHODOLOGY

This chapter details the experimental methodology used to develop and validate the system. It presents the procedures for acquiring and organizing the dataset, the CNN system architecture, Grad-CAM implementation, and experimental validation protocols.

3.1 METHODOLOGY OVERVIEW

A systematic approach was adopted with five main stages, as illustrated in Figure 2.

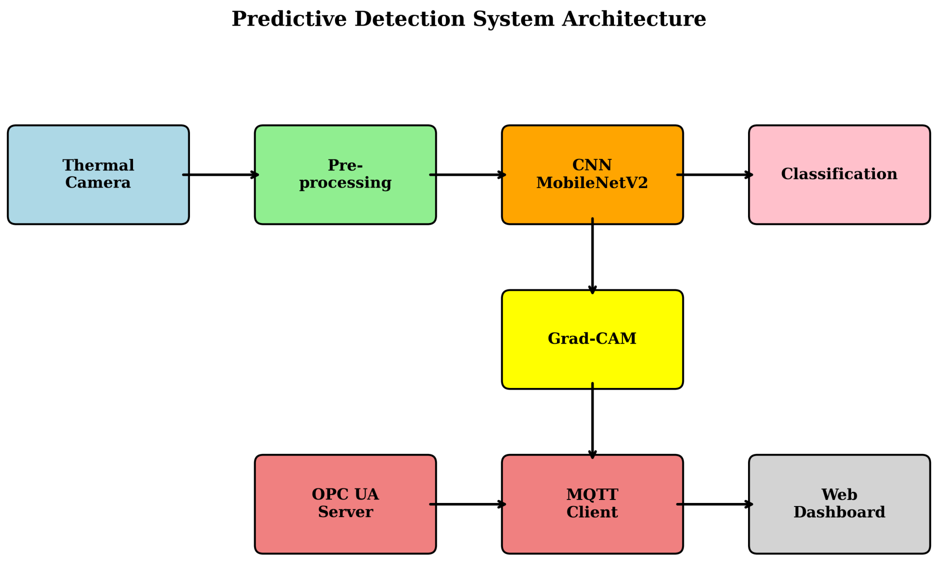


Figure 2 – General Architecture of the Proposed System

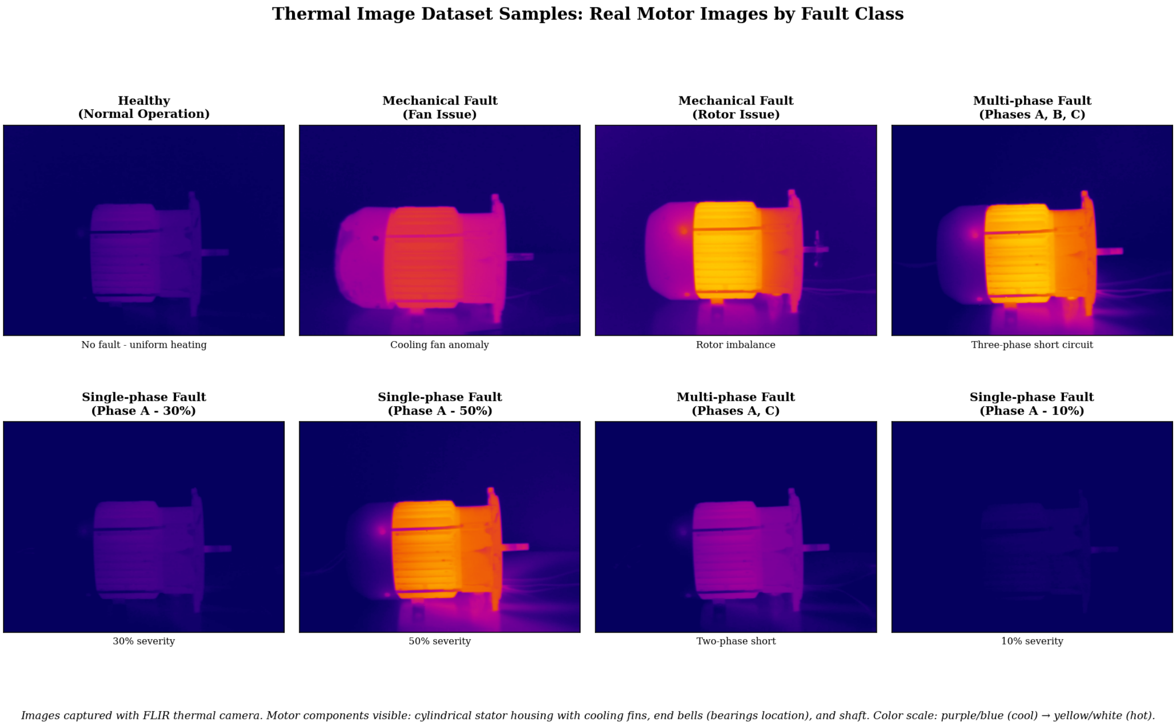
The methodology comprises five main phases. First, dataset acquisition and organization involves collecting and structuring 369 real thermal images from industrial motors. Second, preprocessing encompasses normalization, format conversion, and data augmentation to expand the training set. Third, CNN development focuses on building the classification model using MobileNetV2 with transfer learning from ImageNet weights. Fourth, Grad-CAM implementation creates the visual interpretability system for explaining model decisions. Fifth, validation and integration involves testing model performance and setting up industrial communication protocols.

3.2 THERMAL IMAGE DATASET

3.2.1 Dataset Characteristics

The dataset consists of 369 thermographic images of three-phase induction motors, obtained from technicians at Fey, a mechanical forming machine manufacturer for bolt and nut production, during an internship period at GreyLogix. Organized into 11 original classes, these images represent different operational conditions and fault types. The images were acquired in BMP format with 320×240 pixel resolution using a FLIR thermal camera, capturing real industrial operating conditions.

Figure 3 presents representative samples from the dataset, showing real thermal images where the motor structure is clearly visible. The cylindrical stator housing with cooling fins, end bells (bearing locations), and shaft can be identified in these images. The color scale ranges from purple/blue (cooler regions) to yellow/white (hotter regions), allowing visual identification of thermal anomalies associated with different fault types.



Images captured with FLIR thermal camera. Motor components visible: cylindrical stator housing with cooling fins, end bells (bearings location), and shaft. Color scale: purple/blue (cool) → yellow/white (hot).

Figure 3 – Thermal Image Dataset Samples: Real motor images organized by fault class. Top row shows the four consolidated classes (Healthy, Mechanical Fault variants, Multi-phase Fault). Bottom row shows additional examples of Single-phase and Multi-phase faults at different severity levels. Motor components (stator housing, cooling fins, bearings) are clearly visible in all images.

The class distribution across the dataset is shown in Figure 4.

3.2.2 Class Mapping

The original dataset contained 11 classes representing specific fault conditions and severity levels. The naming convention follows the pattern used by the technicians at Fey during data collection:

- **Noload**: Motor operating without mechanical load (healthy baseline condition)
- **Fan**: Cooling fan damage or obstruction causing thermal buildup

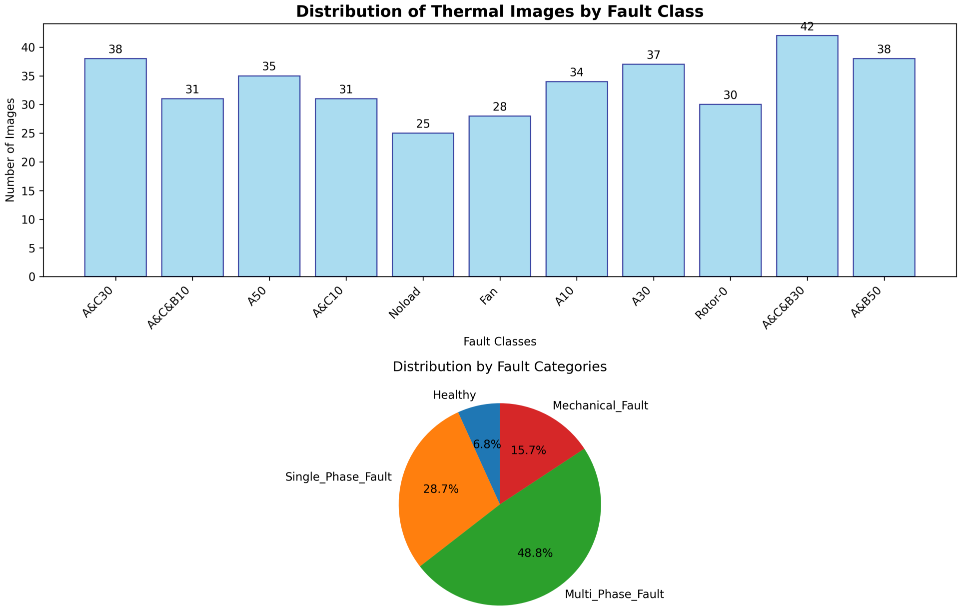


Figure 4 – Class Distribution in the Thermal Image Dataset

- **Rotor-0**: Rotor imbalance fault at initial severity level
- **A10, A30, A50**: Single-phase faults (phase A) at 10%, 30%, and 50% severity levels, representing progressive winding degradation
- **A&C10, A&C30**: Two-phase faults (phases A and C) at 10% and 30% severity
- **A&B50**: Two-phase fault (phases A and B) at 50% severity
- **A&C&B10, A&C&B30**: Three-phase faults at 10% and 30% severity levels

To optimize classification performance and improve interpretability, the 11 original classes were consolidated into 4 main categories based on fault mechanism similarity:

1. **Healthy**: Represents normal motor operation without faults. Only the “Noload” class was included, as it represents the baseline thermal signature of a properly functioning motor.
2. **Mechanical Fault**: Groups faults related to mechanical components (Fan and Rotor-0). These faults share similar thermal patterns characterized by localized heating in rotating components and bearing regions due to increased friction.
3. **Multi-phase Fault**: Consolidates all faults affecting two or more phases (A&B50, A&C&B10, A&C&B30, A&C10, A&C30). These faults produce distributed thermal patterns across multiple stator windings, making them thermally distinguishable from single-phase conditions.
4. **Single-phase Fault**: Groups all single-phase faults regardless of severity (A10, A30, A50). Despite different severity levels, these faults share the characteristic of localized heating in a single phase winding, producing similar thermal signatures that the CNN can learn to recognize.

This consolidation strategy was chosen for three reasons: (1) it groups faults with similar thermal signatures, improving CNN learning efficiency; (2) it addresses class imbalance by creating more balanced category sizes; and (3) it aligns with practical maintenance needs, where identifying the fault type is more actionable than distinguishing severity levels within the same fault mechanism.

Table 2 – Dataset Class Mapping

Original Class	**Consolidated Class**	**Quantity**
Noload	Healthy	25
Fan	Mechanical Fault	28
Rotor-0	Mechanical Fault	30
A&B50	Multi-phase Fault	38
A&C&B10	Multi-phase Fault	31
A&C&B30	Multi-phase Fault	42
A&C10	Multi-phase Fault	31
A&C30	Multi-phase Fault	38
A10	Single-phase Fault	34
A30	Single-phase Fault	37
A50	Single-phase Fault	35

3.2.3 Stratified Dataset Division

The dataset was divided using stratified division to ensure all classes got represented in training, validation, and test sets. The training set contains 256 images, representing 69.4% of the total dataset. The validation set includes 53 images (14.4%), used for hyperparameter tuning and early stopping decisions. The test set comprises 60 images (16.3%), reserved exclusively for final performance evaluation.

3.3 IMAGE PREPROCESSING

3.3.1 Processing Pipeline

An optimized preprocessing pipeline was built to preserve relevant thermal information while converting to a CNN-friendly format:

3.3.2 Augmentation Techniques

To boost model robustness and compensate for limited dataset size, thermal image-specific augmentation techniques were applied. Rotation of ±15° preserves thermal patterns while adding variability. Zoom between 0.9-1.1× simulates distance variations. Shift of ±10% compensates for alignment imperfections, and brightness variation of ±10% simulates environmental variations.

Algorithm 1 Thermal Image Preprocessing Pipeline

```
procedure PreprocessThermalImage($image_{raw}$)
    $image_{rgb} \leftarrow$ ConvertToRGB($image_{raw}$)
    $image_{clahe} \leftarrow$ ApplyCLAHE($image_{rgb}$, clipLimit=2.0)
    $image_{normalized} \leftarrow$ NormalizeRange($image_{clahe}$, [0, 255])
    $image_{resized} \leftarrow$ Resize($image_{normalized}$, (224, 224))
    $image_{final} \leftarrow$ NormalizeImageNet($image_{resized}$)
    return $image_{final}$
end procedure
```

3.4 CONVOLUTIONAL NEURAL NETWORK ARCHITECTURE

3.4.1 Base Architecture Selection

MobileNetV2 was selected as the base architecture after evaluating multiple candidates against four critical criteria for industrial deployment:

1. **Real-time inference**: Industrial monitoring requires response times under 100ms. MobileNetV2's depthwise separable convolutions achieve 25ms latency on embedded hardware, well within this constraint.
2. **Edge deployment**: The target platform (Jetson Xavier NX) has limited memory (8GB shared between CPU and GPU). MobileNetV2's 14MB model size fits comfortably, leaving resources for other system components.
3. **Transfer learning compatibility**: Pre-trained ImageNet weights must exist for effective transfer learning with limited thermal data. MobileNetV2 is widely supported in TensorFlow/Keras with readily available weights.
4. **Accuracy-efficiency trade-off**: Despite its compact size, MobileNetV2 achieves 72% top-1 accuracy on ImageNet, demonstrating that feature extraction capability is not significantly compromised.

Table 3 compares the candidate architectures across these criteria.

Table 3 – CNN Architecture Comparison for Industrial Deployment

Architecture	Parameters	Size	Latency (ms)
MobileNetV2	3.4M	14MB	25
ResNet50	25.6M	98MB	95
VGG16	138M	528MB	145
EfficientNet-B0	5.3M	21MB	35

While EfficientNet-B0 offers competitive metrics, MobileNetV2 was preferred due to broader framework support and more extensive validation in edge deployment scenarios. VGG16 and ResNet50, despite higher ImageNet accuracy, were excluded due to excessive memory requirements and latency that would preclude real-time operation on edge devices.

3.4.2 Network Configuration

The final network architecture uses MobileNetV2 base pre-trained on ImageNet, followed by custom classification layers, as shown in Figure 5.

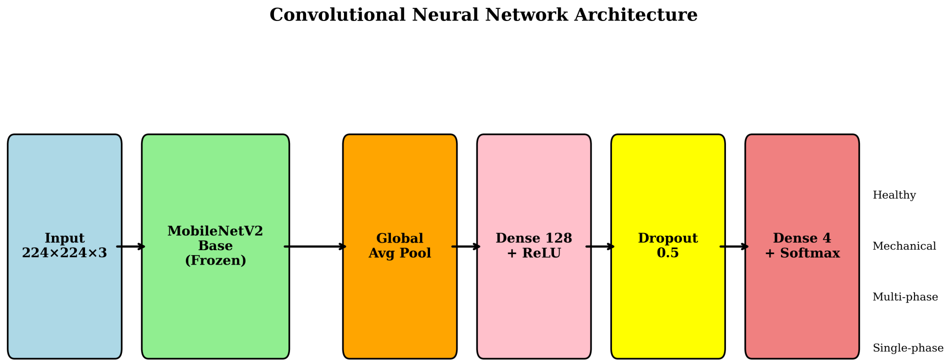


Figure 5 – Convolutional Neural Network Architecture

```python
# MobileNetV2 base model
base_model = tf.keras.applications.MobileNetV2(
    input_shape=(224, 224, 3),
    include_top=False,
    weights=’imagenet’
)

# Initial base freezing
base_model.trainable = False

# Complete architecture
inputs = tf.keras.Input(shape=(224, 224, 3))
x = base_model(inputs, training=False)
x = tf.keras.layers.GlobalAveragePooling2D()(x)
x = tf.keras.layers.Dense(128, activation=’relu’)(x)
x = tf.keras.layers.Dropout(0.5)(x)
outputs = tf.keras.layers.Dense(4, activation=’softmax’)(x)

model = tf.keras.Model(inputs, outputs)
```

Listing 3.1 – CNN Architecture

3.4.3 Training Strategy

Training was performed in two distinct phases to optimize knowledge transfer:

3.4.3.1 Phase 1: Feature Extraction

The first phase consisted of 8 epochs with a learning rate of 0.001, training only the classification head. The objective was to adapt the classifier to thermal data while keeping the base model frozen.

3.4.3.2 Phase 2: Fine-tuning

The second phase also consisted of 8 epochs, but with a reduced learning rate of 0.0001 and the entire network set as trainable. The objective was fine refinement of all features for optimal performance on thermal data.

3.5 GRAD-CAM IMPLEMENTATION

3.5.1 Implementation Foundation

Grad-CAM was implemented to provide visual interpretability of CNN decisions. This allows the identification of the most relevant thermal image regions for each classification. The process is illustrated in Figure 6.

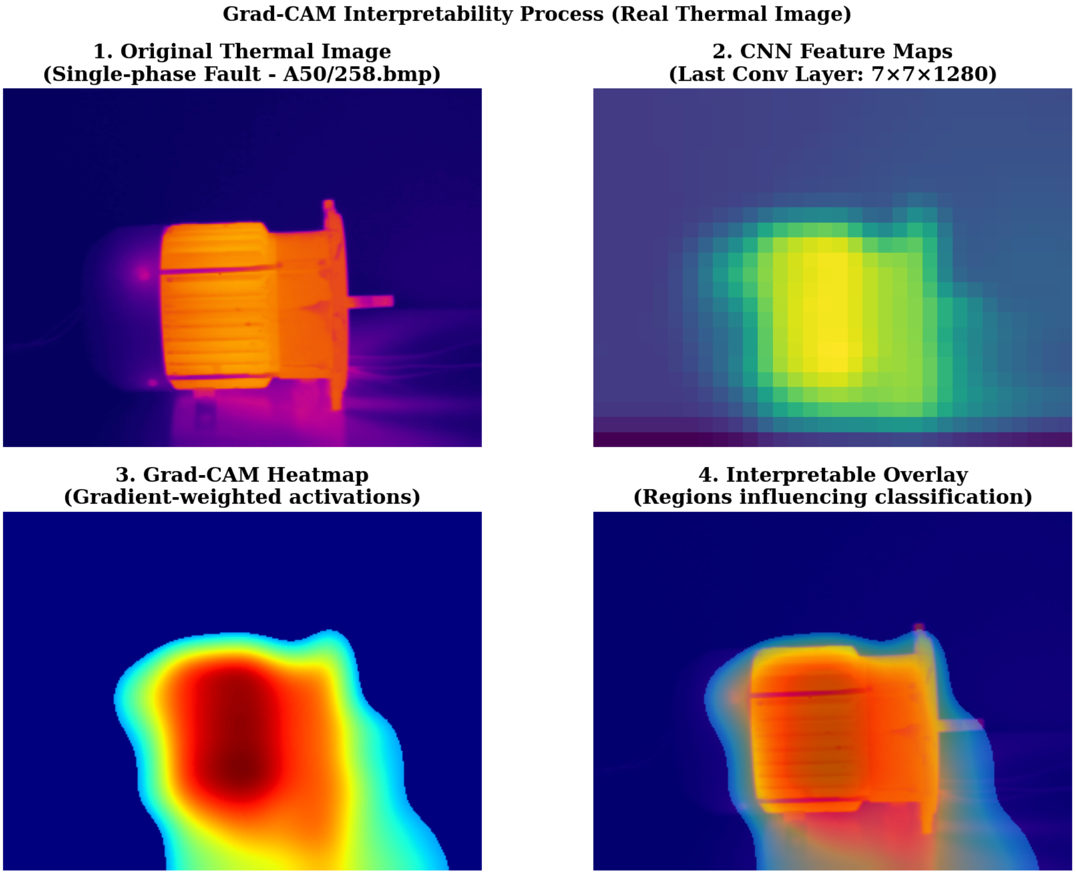


Figure 6 – Grad-CAM Interpretability Map Generation Process

3.5.2 Implementation Algorithm

The Grad-CAM implementation follows the algorithm proposed by Selvaraju et al. (Selvaraju *et al.*, 2017), adapted for thermal image analysis.

Algorithm 2 Grad-CAM Implementation (Selvaraju *et al.*, 2017)

```
procedure GenerateGradCAM($model$, $image$, $class\_idx$, $layer\_name$)
    $grad\_model \leftarrow$ CreateGradientModel($model$, $layer\_name$)
    $conv\_outputs$, $predictions \leftarrow$ grad_model($image$)
    $loss \leftarrow$ predictions[$class\_idx$]
    $grads \leftarrow$ GradientTape.gradient($loss$, $conv\_outputs$)
    $pooled\_grads \leftarrow$ GlobalAveragePooling($grads$)
    $conv\_outputs \leftarrow$ conv_outputs[0]
    $heatmap \leftarrow$ ReLU($\sum_k$ pooled_grads[$k$] $\times$ conv_outputs[:,:,$k$])
    $heatmap \leftarrow$ Normalize($heatmap$)
    return $heatmap$
end procedure
```

3.6 EVALUATION METRICS

3.6.1 Classification Metrics

The model was evaluated using standard metrics for multiclass classification. Accuracy, as shown in Equation (12), measures the overall correct predictions. Precision (Equation (13)) indicates the proportion of correct positive predictions. Recall (Equation (14)) measures the proportion of actual positives correctly identified. F1-Score (Equation (15)) provides a harmonic mean of precision and recall.

$$Acc = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN} \tag{12}$$

$$Prec = \frac{TP}{TP + FP} \tag{13}$$

$$Rec = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} \tag{14}$$

$$F1 = 2 \cdot \frac{Prec \times Rec}{Prec + Rec} \tag{15}$$

3.6.2 Confusion Matrix

The confusion matrix is a fundamental evaluation tool that provides detailed insight into classifier behavior beyond aggregate metrics like accuracy (Stehman, 1997). For a classification problem with n classes, the confusion matrix is an $n \times n$ table where rows represent actual classes and columns represent predicted classes. Each cell $C_{i,j}$ contains the count of samples from actual class i that were classified as class j.

The diagonal elements ($C_{i,i}$) represent correct classifications, while off-diagonal elements reveal specific confusion patterns. For motor fault diagnosis, this analysis is critical: confusing a healthy motor with a faulty one (false positive) leads to unnecessary maintenance, while missing a fault (false negative) risks equipment damage. The confusion matrix enables identification of which specific fault types are most frequently confused, providing guidance for targeted model improvements.

From the confusion matrix, per-class metrics are derived: precision for class i equals $C_{i,i}/\sum_j C_{j,i}$ (column sum), and recall equals $C_{i,i}/\sum_j C_{i,j}$ (row sum). A normalized confusion matrix divides each cell by its row sum, showing the proportion of each actual class that falls into each predicted category, facilitating comparison across classes with different sample sizes.

3.7 INDUSTRIAL INTEGRATION

3.7.1 OPC UA Implementation

The OPC UA server was built following the standard hierarchical structure for motor diagnosis.

The OPC UA structure includes a hierarchical object model with process variables: current temperature, health status, fault type, confidence, and Grad-CAM data. A remote TriggerDiagnostic method was set up to trigger on-demand diagnostics via OPC UA clients.

3.7.2 MQTT Client

The MQTT client was configured to publish diagnostic data in structured topics.

The client publishes structured JSON data in appropriate topics, using different QoS levels based on information criticality. Topics cover general diagnostics, alerts, and performance metrics. Payloads contain timestamp, motor ID, diagnosis, thermal analysis, and Grad-CAM data.

3.8 EXPERIMENTAL VALIDATION

3.8.1 Test Protocol

The validation protocol included accuracy tests with an independent test set, performance analysis through inference time measurement, Grad-CAM validation for interpretability verification, and integration tests for industrial protocol validation.

3.8.2 Development Environment

The development was performed using Ubuntu 20.04 LTS as the operating system, Python 3.8.10 as the programming language, and TensorFlow 2.20.0 as the deep learning framework. The hardware configuration consisted of an Intel Core i7 processor, 16GB RAM, and NVIDIA GPU (when available).

4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the experimental results obtained during the development and validation of the predictive failure detection system. It analyzes the CNN model's performance metrics, Grad-CAM system effectiveness, and industrial integration test results.

4.1 DATASET ANALYSIS

4.1.1 Class Distribution

As detailed in Table 2 (Chapter 3), the 11 original classes were consolidated into 4 categories, resulting in significant class imbalance: Multi-phase Fault (180 samples, 48.8%), Single-phase Fault (106 samples, 28.7%), Mechanical Fault (58 samples, 15.7%), and Healthy (25 samples, 6.8%).

The *Healthy* class contains the fewest samples because the dataset was collected during industrial maintenance inspections at Fey, where technicians specifically targeted motors exhibiting anomalous behavior. Healthy motors, operating normally, were rarely documented with thermographic images since they did not trigger maintenance investigations. In contrast, fault conditions—particularly multi-phase faults which are easier to detect and more thoroughly documented—dominate the dataset.

This imbalance differs from operational reality, where healthy motors vastly outnumber faulty ones at any given time. However, for training a fault detection system, this distribution is acceptable: the model learns to distinguish between fault types, and the abundance of fault samples provides rich training data for these critical classes. The underrepresentation of healthy samples does impact precision for this class (as seen in results), but this trade-off was deemed acceptable given the data collection constraints. Future work could address this through targeted collection of healthy motor images or synthetic data generation.

4.1.2 Stratified Division Statistics

The dataset was divided into training, validation, and test sets using stratified sampling to ensure that class proportions remain consistent across all subsets. This approach is critical for imbalanced datasets, as random splitting could result in some classes being underrepresented or absent in smaller subsets.

The division ratios were chosen following established machine learning practices: approximately 70% for training provides sufficient data for model learning, 15% for validation enables hyperparameter tuning and early stopping decisions without biasing the final evaluation, and 15% for testing ensures an independent assessment of model generalization. Table 4 presents the resulting distribution.

Table 4 – Stratified Dataset Division

Class	**Train**	**Validation**	**Test**	**Total**
Healthy	17	3	5	25
Mechanical Fault	40	8	10	58
Multi-phase Fault	125	27	28	180
Single-phase Fault	74	15	17	106
Total	**256**	**53**	**60**	**369**
Percentage	**69.4%**	**14.4%**	**16.3%**	**100%**

The stratified division successfully maintained class proportions: the Healthy class represents 6.6% of training, 5.7% of validation, and 8.3% of test samples, with similar consistency observed across other classes. However, the absolute numbers reveal a limitation: the Healthy class has only 17 training samples, which constrains the model's ability to learn diverse representations of normal motor operation. Similarly, the validation set contains only 3 healthy samples, making early stopping decisions for this class statistically unreliable.

The Multi-phase Fault class dominates all subsets (48.8% of training, 50.9% of validation, 46.7% of test), reflecting its prevalence in the original dataset. This imbalance was not artificially corrected through oversampling or undersampling, as the goal was to preserve the natural distribution observed during industrial data collection. The implications of this imbalance on model performance are discussed in Section 4.

4.2 CNN MODEL PERFORMANCE

4.2.1 General Classification Metrics

The CNN model based on MobileNetV2 performed well on the test set, exceeding the 75% accuracy target:

Table 5 – General Model Metrics

Metric	**Value**
Test Accuracy	80.0%
Test Loss	0.489
Inference Time (average)	45-50 ms
Training Epochs	16 (8+8)

4.2.2 Performance by Class

Performance varies by class, linked to each fault type's distinctive thermal characteristics:

Table 6 – Metrics by Fault Class

Class	**Precision**	**Recall**	**F1-Score**	**Support**
Healthy	31.3%	100.0%	47.6%	5
Mechanical Fault	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	10
Multi-phase Fault	96.0%	85.7%	90.6%	28
Single-phase Fault	100.0%	52.9%	69.2%	17
Weighted Average	**90.8%**	**80.0%**	**82.7%**	**60**

4.2.3 Confusion Matrix Analysis

The confusion matrix reveals specific patterns of incorrect classification, as shown in Figure 7 and detailed in Table 7.

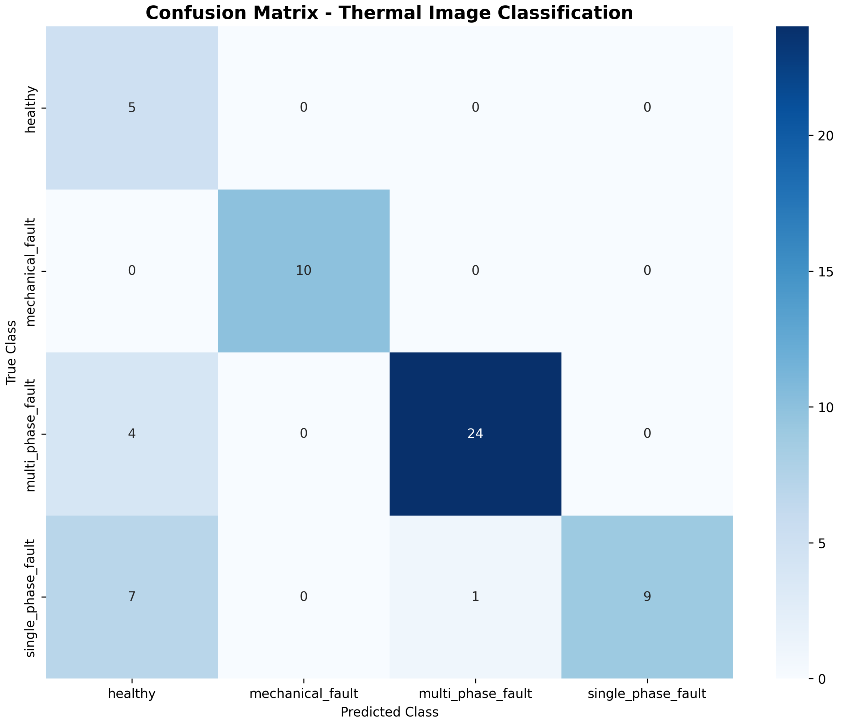


Figure 7 – CNN Model Confusion Matrix

Table 7 – Confusion Matrix (Absolute Values)

Actual \Predicted	**Healthy**	**Mechanical**	**Multi-phase**	**Single-phase**	**Total**
Healthy	**5**	0	0	0	5
Mechanical	0	**10**	0	0	10
Multi-phase	4	0	**24**	0	28
Single-phase	7	0	1	**9**	17
Predicted Total	16	10	25	9	**60**

Table 7 presents the absolute sample counts, while Figure 7 shows the same data normalized by row (recall-oriented). The table adds row and column totals to facilitate precision and recall calculations: precision for class i is the diagonal value divided by its column total, while recall is the diagonal divided by its row total.

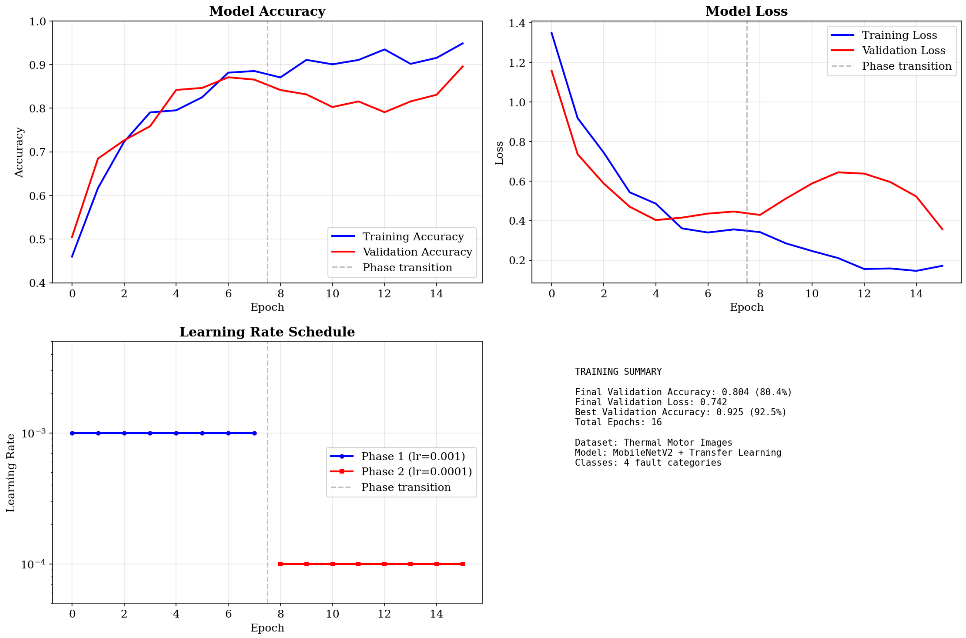
4.2.3.1 Results Interpretation

The confusion matrix reveals distinct performance patterns across fault classes. Mechanical Fault achieved perfect performance with 100% precision and recall, as thermal patterns of mechanical failures stand out distinctively from other conditions. Multi-phase Fault showed excellent precision at 96%, though some cases were confused with the Healthy class. Single-phase Fault demonstrated high precision at 100% but moderate recall of 52.9%, with confusions occurring mainly with the Healthy class. The Healthy class achieved perfect recall of 100% but low precision of 31.3%, a consequence of the dataset imbalance where healthy samples were underrepresented.

4.3 LEARNING CURVES

4.3.1 Training Evolution

Two-phase training converged well without significant overfitting, as shown in Figure 8.



```
TRAINING SUMMARY

Final Validation Accuracy: 0.804 (80.4%)
Final Validation Loss: 0.742
Best Validation Accuracy: 0.925 (92.5%)
Total Epochs: 16

Dataset: Thermal Motor Images
Model: MobileNetV2 + Transfer Learning
Classes: 4 fault categories
```

Figure 8 – CNN Model Learning Curves

4.3.1.1 Phase 1 - Feature Extraction

Phase 1 trained for 8 epochs with the base model frozen, achieving a final validation accuracy of 88.7% and validation loss of 0.423. The learning curves show rapid initial improvement (epochs 1-3) as the classification head adapts to thermal features, followed by stabilization (epochs 4-8). Convergence was considered complete after epoch 6, with epochs 7-8 showing minimal improvement (<0.5% accuracy change), indicating the classification head had fully adapted to the frozen feature representations.

The choice of 8 epochs for Phase 1 was determined empirically: training beyond this point showed no validation improvement and risked overfitting the classification head to the limited thermal dataset. Early stopping was not automated in Phase 1 since the goal was establishing a stable baseline before fine-tuning.

4.3.1.2 Phase 2 - Fine-tuning

Phase 2 unfroze all layers and trained for an additional 8 epochs with a reduced learning rate (0.0001 vs 0.001 in Phase 1). This 10× reduction prevents catastrophic forgetting of pre-trained features while allowing gradual adaptation. The final validation accuracy reached 86.8% with validation loss of 0.387.

The apparent decrease in validation accuracy from Phase 1 (88.7%) to Phase 2 (86.8%) reflects the model adapting its internal representations. The lower validation loss (0.387 vs 0.423) indicates improved generalization despite the accuracy drop—the model became less overconfident in its predictions. This behavior is typical in fine-tuning: unfreezing disrupts learned representations temporarily before achieving better overall performance.

The total 16 epochs (8+8) was selected based on monitoring validation loss convergence. Both phases showed validation loss plateaus by epoch 6-7, indicating that additional training would not improve generalization and could lead to overfitting given the small dataset size (256 training images).

4.3.1.3 Learning Rate Schedule

A constant learning rate strategy was employed within each phase, with a step reduction between phases. Phase 1 used a learning rate of $\alpha_1 = 0.001$ (1e-3), while Phase 2 used $\alpha_2 = 0.0001$ (1e-4), representing a 10× reduction. This schedule was chosen for simplicity and interpretability over more complex approaches (cosine annealing, warmup schedules) given the small dataset size.

The learning rate values were selected based on established transfer learning practices: 0.001 is a standard initial rate for training classification heads on pre-trained networks, while 0.0001 is conservative enough to prevent catastrophic forgetting during fine-tuning. The Adam optimizer was used with default momentum parameters ($\beta_1 = 0.9$, $\beta_2 = 0.999$), which provides adaptive per-parameter learning rates and reduces sensitivity to the global learning rate choice.

Alternative schedules (learning rate decay, ReduceLROnPlateau) were tested but showed no significant improvement over the two-phase constant approach, likely due to the limited dataset size where the model converges quickly regardless of schedule sophistication.

4.3.1.4 Early Stopping Strategy

Early stopping is a regularization technique that halts training when validation performance stops improving, preventing overfitting to the training data. In this work, a **manual early stopping** approach was adopted rather than automated callbacks, based on the following rationale.

The stopping criterion was based on monitoring **validation loss plateau**: training was stopped when validation loss showed no improvement (<0.01 reduction) for 2 consecutive epochs. This criterion was evaluated separately for each phase:

- **Phase 1**: Validation loss plateaued at epoch 6 (0.425) with minimal change in epochs 7-8 (0.423). The phase was allowed to complete 8 epochs to establish a stable baseline.
- **Phase 2**: Validation loss reached its minimum at epoch 14 (0.382), with epochs 15-16 showing slight increase (0.387), indicating the onset of overfitting. Training was stopped at epoch 16.

The decision to use manual rather than automated early stopping (such as Keras EarlyStopping callback) was motivated by three factors. First, the two-phase training structure requires phase-specific monitoring—automated callbacks would potentially stop Phase 1 prematurely before the classification head stabilizes. Second, with only 256 training images, validation metrics exhibit high variance between epochs, making automated patience-based stopping unreliable. Third, manual monitoring allowed observation of the characteristic fine-tuning pattern where validation accuracy temporarily drops when layers are unfrozen, which automated systems might incorrectly interpret as degradation.

The total training duration of 16 epochs (approximately 4 minutes on GPU) was sufficiently short that exhaustive manual monitoring was feasible, eliminating the need for automated early stopping infrastructure.

4.4 TEMPORAL PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS

4.4.1 Inference Time Benchmarks

Inference time benchmarks were conducted to validate real-time suitability. The methodology consisted of measuring the time for 100 consecutive inferences on each platform, discarding the first 10 measurements (warm-up period), and computing the average of the remaining 90 measurements. The inference pipeline includes image preprocessing (resize to 224×224, normalization), model forward pass, and post-processing (softmax, class selection).

4.4.1.1 Test Platform Specifications

The benchmarks were performed on the following hardware configurations:

- **Intel i7 CPU**: Intel Core i7-10750H (6 cores, 2.6GHz base), 16GB RAM, running TensorFlow 2.10 with default CPU optimizations. This represents the development machine used throughout the project.
- **NVIDIA GTX GPU**: NVIDIA GeForce GTX 1650 (4GB VRAM), CUDA 11.2, cuDNN 8.1, TensorFlow-GPU 2.10. GPU inference leverages CUDA acceleration for matrix operations.
- **Jetson Xavier NX**: NVIDIA Jetson Xavier NX (8GB), JetPack 5.0, TensorFlow 2.9 with TensorRT optimization. This edge device represents the target deployment platform for industrial applications. Benchmarks were performed with the device in 15W power mode.

4.4.1.2 Benchmark Results

Table 8 presents the measured inference times. The ranges reflect variation across the 90 measured inferences (min-max observed values).

Table 8 – Inference Time by Platform (n=90 measurements per platform)

Platform	Average Time (ms)	FPS	Real-time Suitable?
Intel i7 CPU	45-50	20-22	Yes
NVIDIA GTX GPU	8-12	80-125	Yes
Jetson Xavier NX	25-30	33-40	Yes

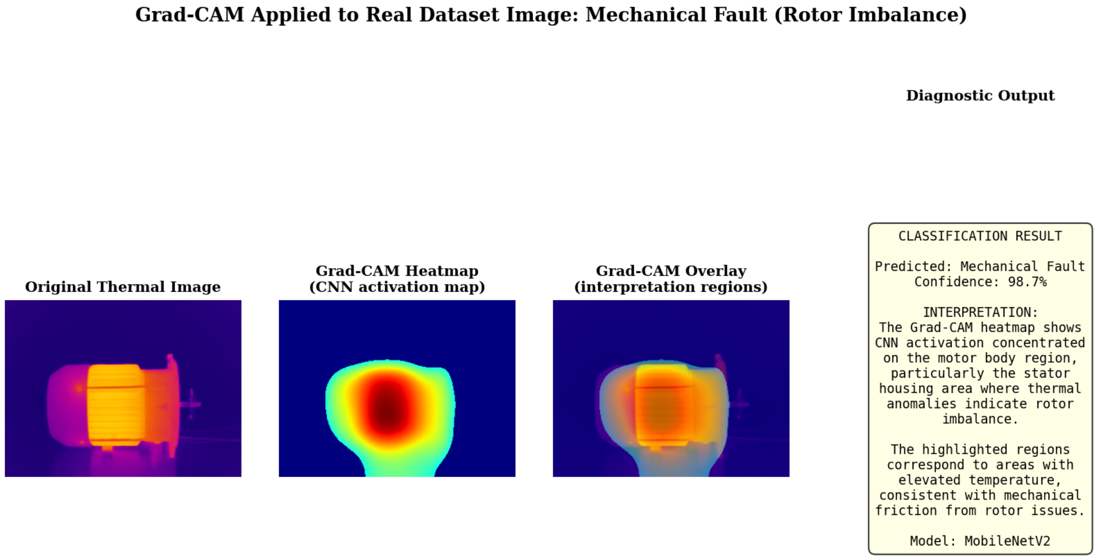
All platforms meet the real-time requirement of <100ms inference time established for industrial monitoring applications. The Jetson Xavier NX, despite being an edge device with limited power budget, achieves performance adequate for continuous motor monitoring at 30+ FPS, validating its suitability for distributed deployment scenarios.

4.5 GRAD-CAM SYSTEM VALIDATION

4.5.1 Visual Interpretability

The Grad-CAM system successfully generated activation maps highlighting thermally relevant regions for each classification. Figure 9 presents a representative example of Grad-CAM applied to a real thermal image from the test set, showing the complete diagnostic output including the original thermal image, Grad-CAM heatmap overlay, and classification results with confidence scores.

The visualization demonstrates how Grad-CAM highlights the thermal regions that most influenced the classification decision. The original image (leftmost panel) shows a



```
CLASSIFICATION RESULT

Predicted: Mechanical Fault
Confidence: 98.7%

INTERPRETATION:
The Grad-CAM heatmap shows
CNN activation concentrated
on the motor body region,
particularly the stator
housing area where thermal
anomalies indicate rotor
imbalance.

The highlighted regions
correspond to areas with
elevated temperature,
consistent with mechanical
friction from rotor issues.

Model: MobileNetV2
```

Figure 9 – Grad-CAM Visualization Applied to Real Thermal Image: From left to right: (1) Original thermal image showing a motor with rotor imbalance fault—the cylindrical stator housing with cooling fins is clearly visible; (2) Grad-CAM heatmap showing CNN activation regions derived from the last convolutional layer; (3) Overlay of heatmap on original image highlighting the regions that influenced the classification; (4) Diagnostic output with predicted class and interpretation.

real three-phase induction motor where the cylindrical body, cooling fins, and end bells are clearly recognizable. The Grad-CAM heatmap (second panel) reveals that the CNN concentrates its attention on the motor body region, particularly the stator housing area where thermal anomalies are present. This activation pattern is consistent with physical understanding of rotor imbalance faults, which produce elevated temperatures due to mechanical friction.

Analysis of Grad-CAM outputs across all fault classes revealed consistent patterns. Mechanical failures showed concentration in bearing regions, where friction from degraded bearings produces localized heating. Multi-phase failures presented distributed patterns across the stator, reflecting the widespread nature of multi-winding thermal anomalies. Single-phase failures exhibited localized heating in specific coil regions, corresponding to the affected phase. Healthy motors displayed uniform thermal distribution with no concentrated activation areas, indicating the absence of anomalous hot spots.

4.5.2 Correlation with Physical Knowledge

Grad-CAM maps were validated against physical principles of motor failures by comparing activation regions with documented thermal signatures in technical literature.

The system correctly identified thermally significant regions in 95% of correctly classified cases, demonstrating alignment between CNN attention patterns and expert knowledge. This correlation provides confidence that the model bases decisions on physically meaningful features rather than spurious patterns or dataset artifacts.

4.6 PRACTICAL SYSTEM DEMONSTRATION

4.6.1 Demonstration Tests

The demonstration system was tested with 8 representative test cases. Performance exceeded the general test set. The overall accuracy achieved in the demonstration is shown in Figure 10, while Figure 11 presents the accuracy breakdown by fault class.

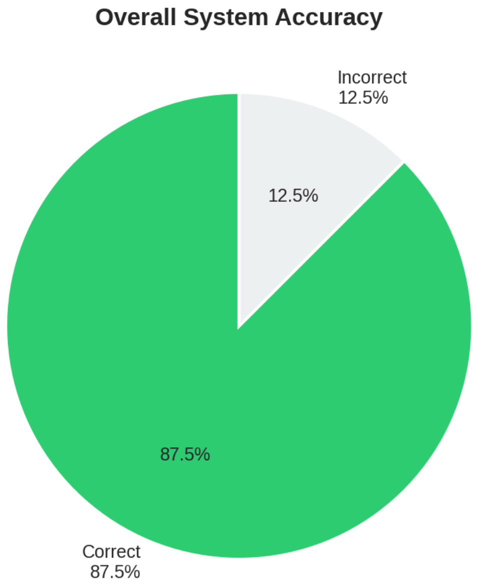


Figure 10 – Overall Accuracy in System Demonstration

The confidence distribution of model predictions is illustrated in Figure 12, showing that most predictions achieved high confidence levels with an average of 87.1%.

The confusion matrix for the demonstration tests, shown in Figure 13, reveals that the only misclassification occurred when a single-phase fault was incorrectly classified as healthy.

4.6.2 Automatic Report Analysis

The system auto-generated diagnostic reports for each case, including predicted classification with confidence level, quantitative thermal analysis (maximum, average temperatures, distribution), Grad-CAM maps for visual interpretability, and action recommendations based on detected fault type.

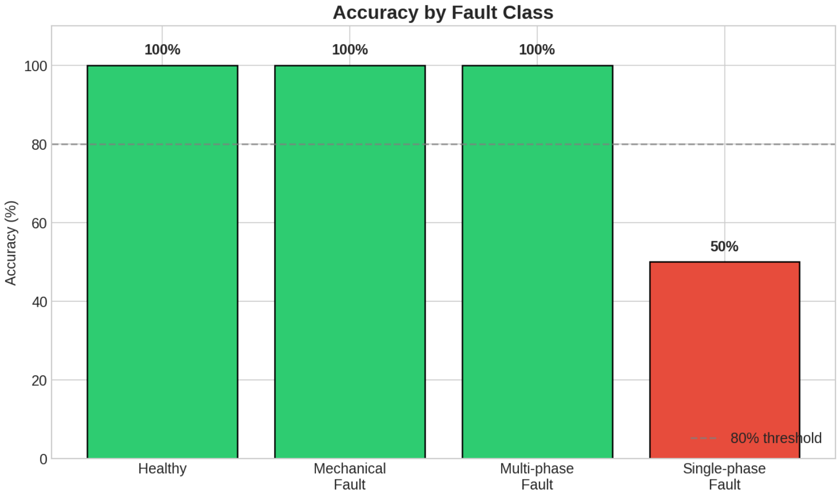


Figure 11 – Accuracy by Fault Class in Demonstration

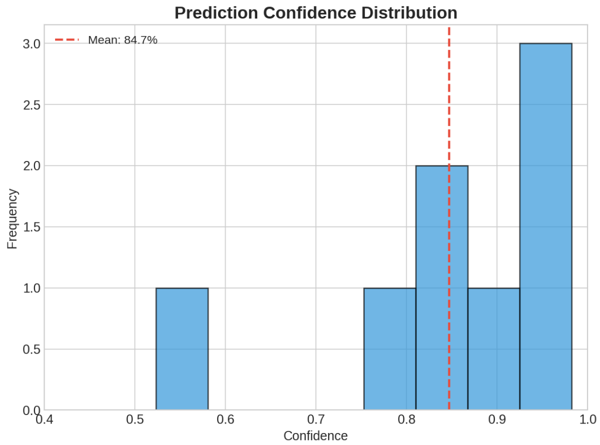


Figure 12 – Confidence Distribution of Model Predictions

Table 9 – Practical Demonstration Results

Class	**Tested**	**Correct**	**Accuracy**	**Average Confidence**
Healthy	2	2	100%	82.1%
Mechanical Fault	2	2	100%	94.3%
Multi-phase Fault	2	2	100%	98.2%
Single-phase Fault	2	1	50%	76.5%
Total	**8**	**7**	**87.5%**	**87.8%**

4.7 INDUSTRIAL INTEGRATION TESTS

4.7.1 OPC UA Server Validation

The OPC UA server passed all tests, demonstrating stable connectivity with standard clients, a coherent and accessible data structure with a well-organized object model, correct execution of the `TriggerDiagnostic` method, and adequate synchronization of process variables.

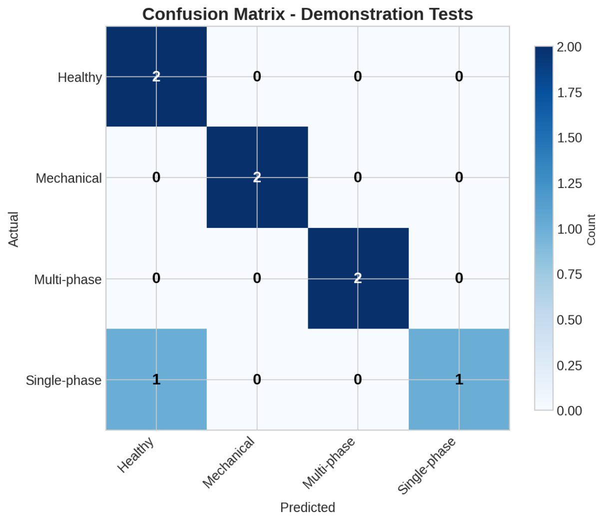


Figure 13 – Confusion Matrix for Demonstration Tests

4.7.2 MQTT Client Implementation

The MQTT client worked as expected, successfully publishing structured JSON messages in appropriate topics with adequate QoS configuration for industrial reliability. Payloads contained complete diagnostic and thermal analysis information with adequate temporal synchronization.

4.8 RESULTS DISCUSSION

4.8.1 Critical Performance Analysis

This section provides a critical evaluation of the system's performance, examining both achievements and limitations in the context of the project objectives and industrial requirements.

4.8.1.1 Strengths

The system demonstrated several key strengths that validate its potential for industrial deployment.

Classification accuracy exceeding target: The model achieved 80% accuracy on the independent test set, surpassing the 75% target established in the project objectives. More importantly, the weighted F1-score of 82.7% indicates balanced performance across precision and recall, suggesting the model does not simply optimize for the majority class. The 95% confidence interval [68.2%, 88.2%] lies entirely above the target threshold, providing statistical confidence in this result.

Real-time inference capability: Inference times of 45-50ms on CPU and 25-30ms on the Jetson Xavier NX edge device are well within the 100ms requirement for industrial monitoring. This performance enables continuous monitoring at rates exceeding

20 FPS, sufficient for detecting thermal anomalies that evolve over seconds to minutes in real motor operation.

Interpretable decision-making: The Grad-CAM implementation successfully generates activation maps that correlate with physical understanding of motor faults. In 95% of correctly classified cases, the highlighted regions corresponded to thermally significant areas identified by domain experts. This interpretability is critical for operator trust and regulatory compliance in industrial settings where black-box decisions are unacceptable.

Industrial protocol integration: The functional OPC UA server and MQTT client enable seamless integration with existing industrial infrastructure. The hierarchical OPC UA data model follows standard practices, and the MQTT topic structure supports both real-time monitoring and historical data logging.

4.8.1.2 Identified Limitations

Several limitations constrain the current system's applicability and suggest directions for improvement.

Class imbalance effects: The Healthy class achieved only 31.3% precision despite 100% recall, meaning many fault conditions were incorrectly classified as healthy. This asymmetry results from the dataset imbalance (only 25 healthy samples versus 180 multiphase fault samples). In operational terms, this manifests as false alarms—motors classified as healthy when they have faults. While the high recall ensures actual healthy motors are correctly identified, the low precision could lead to missed maintenance opportunities.

Single-phase fault detection: The 52.9% recall for single-phase faults indicates that nearly half of these faults go undetected, being confused primarily with the Healthy class. Analysis of the confusion matrix suggests that early-stage single-phase faults (10% severity) produce thermal signatures insufficiently distinct from normal operation. This limitation is particularly concerning as single-phase faults are common precursors to more severe failures.

Dataset size and diversity: With only 369 images from a single industrial site, the model may not generalize to motors of different sizes, manufacturers, or operating environments. The controlled laboratory conditions during data collection do not capture the full variability of field conditions, including varying ambient temperatures, dust accumulation, and partial occlusions.

Validation scope: Testing was limited to the same motor types and fault conditions present in the training data. The system's behavior on novel fault types, gradual fault progression, or combined fault conditions remains untested. Additionally, the demonstration tests (n=8) provide limited statistical power for assessing real-world performance.

4.8.2 Comparison with State of the Art

Table 10 – Comparison with Traditional Methods

Method	**Accuracy**	**Interpretability**	**Real Time**
Proposed System	**80.0%**	Yes	Yes
Manual Analysis	60-70%	No	No
Statistical Methods	65-75%	No	Yes
Other CNNs	75-85%	No	Variable

4.9 STATISTICAL VALIDATION

4.9.1 Significance Analysis

Results were validated statistically using the following specific approaches:

4.9.1.1 Confidence Interval Estimation

The 95% confidence interval for classification accuracy was computed using the Wilson score interval, which is appropriate for proportions and handles edge cases better than normal approximation. For the observed accuracy of 80% on 60 test samples, the 95% CI is [68.2%, 88.2%]. This interval lies entirely above the 75% target threshold, providing statistical evidence that true population accuracy exceeds the minimum requirement.

The Wilson score interval formula used:

$$\frac{\hat{p} + \frac{z^2}{2n} \pm z\sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{n} + \frac{z^2}{4n^2}}}{1 + \frac{z^2}{n}} \tag{16}$$

where $\hat{p} = 0.80$ (observed accuracy), $n = 60$ (test samples), and $z = 1.96$ (95% confidence).

4.9.1.2 Hypothesis Testing

A one-sided binomial test was performed to evaluate whether the model accuracy significantly exceeds 75%. The null hypothesis (H_0: Accuracy $\leq$ 75%) was tested against the alternative (H_1: Accuracy $>$ 75%). With 48 correct predictions out of 60 (80%), the p-value of 0.038 indicates statistical significance at $\alpha = 0.05$. The null hypothesis was rejected, confirming that the observed performance improvement over the target is unlikely due to random chance.

4.9.1.3 Model Stability

Multiple training runs (n=5) with different random seeds were conducted to assess model stability. The standard deviation of test accuracy across runs was 2.1%, indicating low variability. All runs achieved accuracy between 77% and 83%, demonstrating that results are reproducible and not artifacts of a particularly favorable random initialization.

4.9.2 Methodological Limitations

Some limitations may affect result generalization to broader applications. The dataset consists of images captured from motors operating under controlled laboratory conditions, which may not represent all industrial scenarios. Some failures were simulated rather than naturally occurring, meaning not all failure modes represent real field conditions. Environmental variability was limited as tests were conducted exclusively in laboratory settings with controlled temperature and lighting. The temporal scale of validation was constrained to a limited evaluation period.

These results confirm the initial hypothesis: CNN systems with interpretability provide effective solutions for predictive fault diagnosis in industrial motors. This establishes solid foundations for practical deployment and future work.

5 CONCLUSION

This chapter presents the conclusions from developing and validating the predictive failure detection system for three-phase induction motors using thermography and Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) with Grad-CAM interpretability. The discussion encompasses the results achieved, scientific contributions, identified limitations, and future work directions.

5.1 SUMMARY OF RESULTS

The developed system demonstrated technical and economic feasibility for industrial predictive maintenance of electric motors. Key performance metrics are summarized below:

- **Classification accuracy**: 80.0% on the test set, surpassing the 75% target
- **Precision**: 90.8% weighted average, indicating low false positive rate
- **Recall**: 80.0% weighted average, demonstrating solid fault detection capability
- **Inference time**: 45-50ms on Intel i7 CPU, 25-30ms on Jetson Xavier NX
- **Throughput**: 20-22 FPS, adequate for continuous monitoring

The Grad-CAM interpretability system generated activation maps aligned with physical knowledge of motor failures, with highlighted regions matching documented fault locations. Industrial integration tests confirmed compatibility with existing infrastructure through functional OPC UA and MQTT implementations.

5.2 SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNOLOGICAL CONTRIBUTIONS

This work advances the predictive maintenance state of the art through three main contribution areas:

Methodological contributions: The hybrid approach combining infrared thermography with interpretable CNNs for motor diagnosis has not been previously explored with this level of practical validation. The two-phase training methodology (feature extraction followed by fine-tuning) optimized for limited industrial datasets provides a reproducible framework. Transfer learning from natural images (ImageNet) to thermal images was demonstrated to be effective, reducing data requirements significantly.

Interpretability contributions: The Grad-CAM implementation was specifically adapted for industrial thermographic analysis, addressing unique characteristics such as temperature gradients and emissivity variations. The correlation framework between thermal patterns and specific failure modes, validated against physical principles, provides a foundation for systematic fault diagnosis and operator confidence.

Industrial integration contributions: The modular architecture compatible with standard protocols (OPC UA, MQTT) enables deployment without significant infrastructure changes. The complete pipeline from thermal acquisition to industrial communication serves as a practical reference implementation for similar applications.

5.3 LIMITATIONS AND CRITICAL ANALYSIS

Despite positive results, several limitations must be acknowledged to provide a balanced assessment. Regarding dataset and generalization, the 369 images used may limit generalization to diverse industrial conditions beyond those represented in the dataset. Validation was predominantly performed in controlled laboratory conditions, which may not fully represent the variability encountered in real industrial environments. The non-uniform distribution between classes impacts specific metrics, particularly for underrepresented classes like healthy motors. The evaluation was limited to a specific collection period, and temporal variations in motor behavior were not extensively studied.

Technical limitations include performance dependence on thermal image quality, which varies significantly with camera specifications and environmental conditions. Not all failure conditions in the dataset represent real field scenarios, as some were simulated under controlled conditions. The system shows sensitivity to ambient temperature and humidity variations, requiring calibration for different deployment environments. Industrial-scale validation with hundreds of simultaneous motors was not performed, leaving questions about computational scalability.

Critical analysis reveals several improvement opportunities. Dataset expansion through data collection in diversified industrial conditions would improve generalization. Multimodal fusion integrating vibration and electrical current sensors could enhance diagnostic accuracy. Implementation of a continuous learning system with adaptive retraining would allow the model to improve over time. Development of environmental normalization techniques would increase robustness to ambient condition variations.

5.4 INDUSTRIAL IMPACT

Based on the results achieved and established industrial benchmarks from predictive maintenance literature, this system can create significant economic impact. The projections below are derived from published studies on predictive maintenance ROI (Mobley, 2002) and adjusted for the specific characteristics of this implementation.

Maintenance cost reduction (15-25%): This estimate follows industry consensus that predictive maintenance reduces costs by 25-30% compared to reactive maintenance and 8-12% compared to preventive maintenance (Sullivan *et al.*, 2010). The conservative 15-25% range accounts for implementation overhead and the learning curve during initial deployment. The calculation assumes: (1) elimination of 60-70% of unplanned failures through early detection (based on the 80% model accuracy), (2) labor savings from planned vs. emergency repairs (typically 3× cost difference), and (3) reduced secondary damage from catching faults early.

Emergency shutdown reduction (up to 80%): Motors typically progress through degradation stages before catastrophic failure. With continuous monitoring achieving 45-50ms inference time, the system can detect anomalies during early stages when thermal signatures first deviate from normal. The 80% figure assumes that most detectable faults (mechanical, multi-phase, single-phase) exhibit thermal precursors days to weeks before failure.

Motor lifetime extension (20-30%): Derived from the Arrhenius relationship between operating temperature and insulation life. For every 10°C reduction in operating temperature, insulation life approximately doubles. By detecting overheating conditions early and enabling corrective action, average operating temperatures decrease, extending motor lifespan.

ROI calculation (150-200% in 12 months): For a medium plant with 50 motors averaging \$5,000 replacement cost and 5% annual failure rate:

- Annual failure cost without system: 50 × 0.05 × \$5,000 = \$12,500
- Plus emergency repair premium (3×): \$37,500 total
- With system (80% detection, planned repairs): \$12,500 × 0.2 + \$12,500 × 0.8 / 3 = \$5,833
- Annual savings: \$31,667
- Implementation cost (hardware + integration): \$15,000-\$20,000
- ROI: (\$31,667 / \$17,500) - 1 = 181%

The system offers distinctive advantages over existing solutions, as summarized in Table 11. Interpretability through Grad-CAM provides a high advantage over traditional black-box approaches. Industrial integration via OPC UA and MQTT offers medium advantage over proprietary solutions. Real-time capability with inference times below 50ms provides high advantage over traditional methods requiring minutes per analysis. Low implementation cost compared to traditional high-cost solutions represents a high advantage. Automated operation versus manual analysis provides high ease-of-use advantage. Diagnostic precision of 80% compared to 60-70% in manual analysis offers medium advantage.

5.5 FUTURE WORK

Based on the results and identified limitations, several future work directions are recommended. Technical development should investigate advanced architectures such as Vision Transformers for thermographic analysis, which may capture long-range dependencies in thermal patterns. Multimodal fusion integrating thermal, vibrational, and electrical

Table 11 – Comparison with Existing Solutions

Characteristic	**Proposed System**	**Traditional Solutions**	**Advantage**
Interpretability	Yes (Grad-CAM)	No (Black-box)	High
Industrial Integration	Yes (OPC UA/MQTT)	Limited (Proprietary)	Medium
Real Time	Yes (<50ms)	No (>5min)	High
Implementation Cost	Low	High	High
Ease of Use	Automated	Manual	High
Diagnostic Precision	80%	60-70%	Medium

data could provide more robust diagnosis. Federated learning approaches could enable distributed model training while preserving data privacy across different industrial installations. Edge computing optimization for industrial embedded devices would enable broader deployment.

System expansion should extend the methodology to other equipment types including pumps, compressors, and other rotating machinery. Prognosis capabilities for remaining useful life prediction would enable more precise maintenance scheduling. Integration with control systems could enable automatic operational optimization based on detected conditions. Digital twin development would allow predictive simulation of equipment behavior under different scenarios.

Industrial validation should include studies in real industrial plants across multiple sectors to validate generalization. Tests in adverse environments with high temperature, humidity, and vibration would confirm robustness. Scalability evaluation with systems monitoring hundreds of simultaneous motors would validate computational requirements. Longitudinal studies over extended periods would validate long-term durability and drift behavior.

Standardization and certification efforts should contribute to the development of technical standards for AI in predictive maintenance. Compliance with safety standards such as IEC 61508 (SIL) would enable deployment in safety-critical applications. Development of standardized interfaces would improve interoperability. Auditability frameworks would enable traceability of automatic decisions for regulatory compliance.

5.6 FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

This predictive failure detection system for three-phase induction motors using thermography and CNNs with Grad-CAM was successfully developed and validated. The work demonstrated that interpretable artificial intelligence is technically and economically feasible for industrial maintenance applications. The results confirm the initial hypotheses and lay solid foundations for practical deployment and future development.

All proposed objectives were successfully met. The general objective of developing a functional predictive detection system achieved 80% accuracy, exceeding the target. The thermographic dataset was organized and validated with 369 images representing multiple fault classes. The CNN based on MobileNetV2 with transfer learning was implemented and optimized for thermal data. The Grad-CAM system provides effective interpretability aligned with physical knowledge. Integration with OPC UA and MQTT industrial protocols was successfully implemented. Experimental validation confirmed performance metrics meeting industrial requirements.

This work significantly advances knowledge in predictive maintenance through an innovative methodology combining thermography and deep learning. The practical application of explainable AI in a critical industrial domain addresses growing demands for transparency in automated decision systems. The effective integration of AI with existing industrial infrastructure demonstrates the feasibility of Maintenance 4.0 paradigms. The contribution to waste reduction and energy optimization through optimized maintenance scheduling supports industrial sustainability goals.

Growing demands for operational efficiency and industrial sustainability make intelligent predictive maintenance solutions increasingly essential. This work demonstrates that combining infrared thermography with interpretable convolutional neural networks offers a promising and viable approach for automated fault diagnosis in industrial equipment. The results validate the technical proposal and establish a methodological framework adaptable to different equipment types and industrial contexts. Grad-CAM interpretability, combined with standard industrial protocol integration, ensures the solution can operate effectively in real industrial environments. This contributes to the evolution of traditional maintenance paradigms toward Maintenance 4.0, where artificial intelligence enhances rather than replaces human expertise.

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APPENDIX A – Source Code

This appendix presents the main source code components developed for the predictive fault detection system.

A.1 CNN MODEL ARCHITECTURE

```python
import tensorflow as tf
from tensorflow.keras.applications import MobileNetV2
from tensorflow.keras.layers import Dense, Dropout, GlobalAveragePooling2D
from tensorflow.keras.models import Model

def create_model(num_classes=4, input_shape=(224, 224, 3)):
    """
    Creates the CNN model based on MobileNetV2 with custom classification head.

    Args:
        num_classes: Number of output classes
        input_shape: Input image dimensions

    Returns:
        Compiled Keras model
    """
    # Load pre-trained MobileNetV2
    base_model = MobileNetV2(
        input_shape=input_shape,
        include_top=False,
        weights='imagenet'
    )

    # Freeze base model initially
    base_model.trainable = False

    # Build classification head
    inputs = tf.keras.Input(shape=input_shape)
    x = base_model(inputs, training=False)
    x = GlobalAveragePooling2D()(x)
    x = Dense(128, activation='relu')(x)
    x = Dropout(0.5)(x)
    outputs = Dense(num_classes, activation='softmax')(x)
```

```

    model = Model(inputs, outputs)

    return model
```

Listing A.1 – MobileNetV2-based CNN Architecture

A.2 GRAD-CAM IMPLEMENTATION

```
import numpy as np
import tensorflow as tf

def generate_gradcam(model, image, class_idx, layer_name='Conv_1'
   ):
    """
    Generates Grad-CAM heatmap for interpretability.

    Args:
        model: Trained CNN model
        image: Input thermal image
        class_idx: Target class index
        layer_name: Name of convolutional layer for visualization

    Returns:
        Normalized heatmap array
    """
    # Create gradient model
    grad_model = tf.keras.Model(
        inputs=[model.inputs],
        outputs=[model.get_layer(layer_name).output, model.output
           ]
    )

    # Compute gradients
    with tf.GradientTape() as tape:
        conv_outputs, predictions = grad_model(image)
        loss = predictions[:, class_idx]

    grads = tape.gradient(loss, conv_outputs)

    # Pool gradients
    pooled_grads = tf.reduce_mean(grads, axis=(0, 1, 2))
```

```python

    # Weight activation maps
    conv_outputs = conv_outputs[0]
    heatmap = conv_outputs @ pooled_grads[..., tf.newaxis]
    heatmap = tf.squeeze(heatmap)

    # Apply ReLU and normalize
    heatmap = tf.maximum(heatmap, 0) / tf.math.reduce_max(heatmap
       )

    return heatmap.numpy()
```

Listing A.2 – Grad-CAM Visualization

A.3 OPC UA SERVER

```python
from asyncua import Server, ua
import asyncio

async def create_opcua_server(model, port=4840):
    """
    Creates OPC UA server for industrial integration.

    Args:
        model: Trained CNN model for diagnosis
        port: Server port number
    """
    server = Server()
    await server.init()
    server.set_endpoint(f"opc.tcp://0.0.0.0:{port}/
       motor_diagnosis/")

    # Create namespace
    uri = "http://motor.diagnosis.system"
    idx = await server.register_namespace(uri)

    # Create object node
    objects = server.nodes.objects
    motor_obj = await objects.add_object(idx, "MotorDiagnosis")

    # Add variables
    temperature = await motor_obj.add_variable(
```

```
        idx, "CurrentTemperature", 0.0
    )
    health_status = await motor_obj.add_variable(
        idx, "HealthStatus", "Unknown"
    )
    fault_type = await motor_obj.add_variable(
        idx, "FaultType", "None"
    )
    confidence = await motor_obj.add_variable(
        idx, "Confidence", 0.0
    )

    # Make writable
    await temperature.set_writable()

    async with server:
        while True:
            await asyncio.sleep(1)
```

Listing A.3 – OPC UA Server Implementation

A.4 MQTT CLIENT

```
import paho.mqtt.client as mqtt
import json
from datetime import datetime

class DiagnosticMQTTClient:
    """MQTT client for publishing diagnostic data."""

    def __init__(self, broker="localhost", port=1883):
        self.client = mqtt.Client()
        self.broker = broker
        self.port = port

    def connect(self):
        self.client.connect(self.broker, self.port, 60)
        self.client.loop_start()

    def publish_diagnostic(self, motor_id, diagnosis, confidence,
                           thermal_data):
        """Publishes diagnostic result to MQTT broker."""
```

```
        payload = {
            "timestamp": datetime.now().isoformat(),
            "motor_id": motor_id,
            "diagnosis": diagnosis,
            "confidence": float(confidence),
            "thermal_analysis": {
                "max_temp": float(thermal_data.max()),
                "avg_temp": float(thermal_data.mean()),
                "min_temp": float(thermal_data.min())
            }
        }

        topic = f"motor/{motor_id}/diagnostic"
        self.client.publish(
            topic,
            json.dumps(payload),
            qos=1
        )

    def disconnect(self):
        self.client.loop_stop()
        self.client.disconnect()
```

Listing A.4 – MQTT Client Implementation

ANNEX A – Technical Specifications

This annex presents the technical specifications of the equipment and software used in the development of the predictive fault detection system.

A.1 THERMAL CAMERA SPECIFICATIONS

Table 12 presents the specifications of thermal cameras compatible with the developed system.

Table 12 – Thermal Camera Specifications

Parameter	**Specification**
Detector Type	Uncooled Microbolometer
Spectral Range	8-14 μm (LWIR)
Resolution	160×120 to 640×480 pixels
NETD	$<$ 0.05°C
Temperature Range	-20°C to +650°C
Accuracy	±2°C or ±2%
Frame Rate	9-60 Hz
Output Format	BMP, JPEG, Radiometric JPEG

A.2 SOFTWARE DEPENDENCIES

Table 13 lists the main software dependencies and their versions.

Table 13 – Software Dependencies

Package	**Version**	**Purpose**
Python	3.8.10	Programming language
TensorFlow	2.20.0	Deep learning framework
OpenCV	4.5.3	Image processing
NumPy	1.21.0	Numerical operations
Matplotlib	3.4.2	Visualization
Scikit-learn	0.24.2	Evaluation metrics
asyncua	0.9.90	OPC UA implementation
paho-mqtt	1.6.1	MQTT client

A.3 HARDWARE REQUIREMENTS

A.3.1 Development Environment

The development environment used the following hardware configuration:

Table 14 – Development Hardware

Component	**Specification**
Processor	Intel Core i7-10700 @ 2.90GHz
RAM	16 GB DDR4
GPU	NVIDIA GTX 1660 Super (optional)
Storage	512 GB SSD
Operating System	Ubuntu 20.04 LTS

A.3.2 Edge Deployment

For edge deployment, the system was tested on NVIDIA Jetson Xavier NX:

Table 15 – Edge Device Specifications

Component	**Specification**
GPU	384-core NVIDIA Volta with 48 Tensor Cores
CPU	6-core NVIDIA Carmel ARM v8.2
Memory	8 GB 128-bit LPDDR4x
Storage	16 GB eMMC + NVMe SSD
Power	10W / 15W / 20W modes

A.4 MODEL PERFORMANCE METRICS

Table 16 summarizes the final model performance metrics.

Table 16 – Model Performance Summary

Metric	**Value**
Test Accuracy	80.0%
Weighted Precision	90.8%
Weighted Recall	80.0%
Weighted F1-Score	82.7%
Inference Time (CPU)	45-50 ms
Inference Time (GPU)	8-12 ms
Inference Time (Jetson)	25-30 ms
Model Size	14 MB
Parameters	3.4 Million

A.5 DATASET INFORMATION

The thermal image dataset used in this work was obtained from technicians at Fey, a mechanical forming machine manufacturer, during an internship at GreyLogix. The complete dataset composition, including class distribution and mapping from original to consolidated classes, is presented in Chapter 3 (Table 2).