

Behavioral Modeling of Real Dynamic Processes in an Industry 4.0-Oriented Context

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Abstract: With the Industry 4.0, new fashions to think the industry emerge: the production units are now orchestrated from some decentralized places to collaborate to improve efficiency, save time and resources, and reduce costs. To that end, Artificial Intelligence is expected to help manage units, prevent disruptions, predict failures, etc. A way to do so may consist in modeling the temporal evolution of the processes to track, predict and prevent the future failures; such modeling can be performed using the full dataset at once, but it may be more accurate to isolate the regions of the feature space where there is little variation in the data, then model these local regions separately, and finally connect all of them to build the final model of the system. This paper proposes to identify the compact regions of the feature space with unsupervised clustering, and then to model them with data-driven regression. The proposed methodology is tested on real industrial data, obtained in the scope of an Industry 4.0-oriented European project, and its accuracy is compared to that achieved by a global model; results show that local modeling achieves better accuracy, both during learning and testing stages.

1 INTRODUCTION

In the constant search for greater efficiency, the industrial sector has never stopped mutating; nowadays, the Industry 4.0 proposes to rethink the way industry is managed. To that end, hyper-connectivity and Artificial Intelligence are combined to propose new fashions to manage processes (Pozzi et al., 2023).


Real dynamic industrial systems are complex: they might evolve suddenly toward unwanted directions for any reason, which may affect efficiency; such events are known as disruptions, or anomalies. They should be prevented from occurring as soon as possible to avoid their propagation to other processes (Latham and Giannetti, 2022). A possible way to do so could be to use Artificial Intelligence to identify and point out anomalies, such as by building predictive models to estimate how the system will evolve.

System modeling is a common task in Machine Learning, especially with time series such as historical data, for instance by using data-driven regressors. However, due to the likely heterogeneity in the data, feeding a regressor with a full nonlinear dataset at once may decrease the accuracy of the approximation, for real processes are rarely perfectly continuous.

Since an industrial process often evolves slowly, it would be relevant to identify and model the different parts of the process. Indeed, when a system is crafted, it is designed to achieve some states, which are its normal ways to behave: these states can be seen as its regular behaviors, corresponding to the different tasks it was crafted to perform; they should be greatly representative of the processes (Molinié et al., 2022).

With slowly evolving processes, the sensors of a system should take lowly varying values when being in such a regular state (that one may call a behavior). Therefore, modeling these regular states separately, and then linking the different models to each other in some fashion, should be more accurate than modeling the whole system at once, since it should be easier for a regressor to approximate a lowly varying dataset than a one with greatly different values.

As such, this paper proposes to evaluate the relevancy of this approach, by splitting the system's feature space into local regions with unsupervised clustering, and then build local models upon each with data-driven regression, which are then used to model and predict the system's evolution. Finally, the relevancy of this structure is compared to the global model obtained by learning from the whole dataset at once, without passing by the split stage.

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This paper is composed as follows: next section is a short review of the literature dealing with similar approaches; third, the methodology is detailed; fourth, the proposed local-model-based methodology is applied to real industrial data and is confronted to a direct global model; last section concludes this paper.

2 STATE OF THE ART

In Industry 4.0, three areas of research may be distinguished: the hyper-connectivity of the units, the digital twin and the cognitive plant. Thus far, most of the work related to Industry 4.0 has dealt with the two first topics, but greatly less with the third, and particularly automatic modeling of industrial systems.

On that topic, the works available are general, not oriented toward Industry 4.0, or just discuss the future benefits of such approaches. For instance, (Cohen et al., 2017) explains how hyper-connectivity coupled with Artificial Intelligence should help improve efficiency, with a real use-case provided as example, but only theoretically. Similarly, (Chukalov, 2017) discusses the benefits of using a CPS for centralized control and how to integrate it within actual industry.

Maybe the closest work to the proposed one is (Baduel et al., 2018), who discusses the notion of regular states and modes (behaviors), and proposes unified definitions of these concepts, in the scope of testing, simulation and validation, with a real use-case provided as example; however, there is no true implementation of modeling of any sort.

Finally, it is worth mentioning (Thiaw, 2008), who expands the notion of multi-model to nonlinear dynamic systems. The proposed concepts are applied to model and predict the evolution of a real river flow, by building a multi-model and training it over historical values. The proposed multi-model based predictor splits the feature space (composed of the system's sensors) into several intervals (sub-spaces) using basic and simple clustering (such as grid partitioning). The obtained clusters are used to construct the set of models and associated membership functions composing the target multi-model. The final prediction is achieved by using polynomial interpolation of outputs of constituent models. The accurate obtained results make the proposed approach appealing for modeling complex plants within the context of Industry 4.0.

Additionally, a few European projects dealing with the future cognitive plant are worth being introduced. The project COGNIPLANT proposes to use the concept of the digital twin to create a virtualization of real plants, i.e. a fully virtual model, in which the control, management and modeling could be per-

formed to help the end-users (Ellinger et al., 2023). Another project is INEVITABLE, which aims to improve the control one has on the production chain by extracting as much information as possible from unlabeled sensor data, such as by using Bayesian optimization (Tomažič et al., 2022).

Finally, another project which should be discussed is HyperCOG, whose purpose is to investigate the feasibility of the cognitive plant. To that end, fourteen partners are gathered in the development of intelligent, Machine Learning-based solutions, integrated into a Cyber-Physical System (Huertos et al., 2021). This paper and the proposed methodology belong to that project, and propose a new fashion to model real dynamic processes in an Industry 4.0 context.

3 METHODOLOGY

This paper proposes to evaluate the benefits of local modeling in an industrial context. To that end, the feature space is split into pieces, and every region is then modeled separately. The final model is obtained by linking the local models, which are later triggered by some inputs to provide the corresponding outputs.

Notice that this paper aims to assess if multi-modeling is suited for the prediction of industrial processes in the context of Industry 4.0, not that clustering can isolate anomalies (see (Molinié et al., 2022)).

3.1 Split of the Feature Space

Even though industrial processes evolve through time, they are not directly dependent of time itself, since the processes should evolve the same way when fed with a same material. Therefore, the space where to perform region partitioning will be the N -dimensional feature space spanned by the N sensors of the system.

Clustering consists in gathering data sharing similar features, while also isolating such groups from one another: the goal is to find the best borders between the groups so as to minimize an error function.

In order to ensure the maximal generalization capability, the proposed methodology operates in a blind context, assuming no prior information on the dataset; therefore, only unsupervised clustering can be considered, such as the K-Means (Lloyd, 1982) or the Self-Organizing Maps (Kohonen, 1982). With respect to the observations drawn in (Molinié and Madani, 2022), this study will use the Bi-Level Self-Organizing Maps (BSOMs), for they proved to be more accurate in the identification of an unknown system's behaviors than both the SOMs and K-Means, and are resilient to outliers and sporadic events.

The BSOMs are an improvement of the SOMs, which consists in clustering several times a dataset and then projecting all these maps into a final one. The operating principle of a BSOM is depicted on Figure 1, where every hexagon of the left grid is a full SOM, and where a same color represents the different nodes being part of a same region, thus behavior in the case of industrial data. The BSOMs were crafted to compensate the stochastic aspect of the SOMs, which often makes the results barely reproducible: a BSOM is still stochastic, but averaging several SOMs allows to identify and isolate the largest groups (behaviors), while making the results more reproducible.

3.2 Modeling of Time-Series

System modeling is one of the commonest tasks in Machine Learning; two very widespread Machine Learning, data-driven tools for time-series modeling and prediction are the Multi-Layer Perceptron and the Decision Trees. The first may be one of the most universal approximators, but are long to build and train, and there is always a certain risk for overlearning, thus the proposed methodology will focus on regression by decision trees. Indeed, there are greatly sufficient for this study, since they can accurately approximate both continuous and discontinuous sets of data, and perform well with even sporadic events.

Decision trees are a data-driven model based on a cascade of comparisons, leading to a certain decision, taking the form of a label or a numerical value in case of classification or regression, respectively. The most common decision trees are binary, meaning that every stage of such comparison, called "nodes", can take two directions: the comparison is either true or false. Binary trees are simple and intuitive, but may lack of generalization capabilities, and may have difficulties in modeling nonlinear data or classes.

Even though several algorithms to train decision trees exist, they all work in much the same way: they aim to optimize some quantities or criteria, such as the minimization of the explained variance. This study will use the CART algorithm (Pedregosa et al., 2011).

3.3 Combination of the Local Models

Once the local models are built upon every identified region of the feature space, a way to select the correct model according to the input data is needed.

A possibility to do so could be to activate several models at the same time, and provide a weighted combination of them. However, this paper only aims to provide clues on the relevancy of local modeling in an industrial context. For that reason, to select the cor-

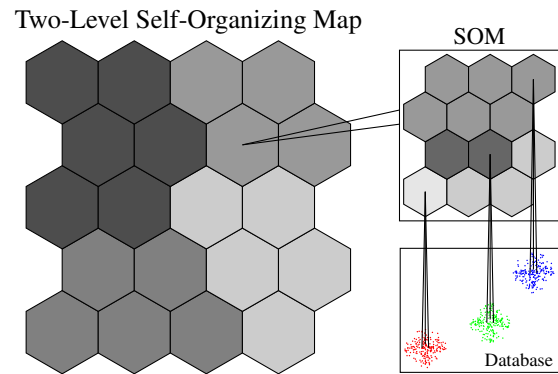


Figure 1: BSOM operating principle (picture taken from (Molinić and Madani, 2022)).

rect model to activate, one can compare the input vector to the behaviors' representatives (the feature vectors issued by clustering), and then trigger the model whose representative is the closest to the input vector.

As a consequence, to select the correct model to be activated by a given data, its distance to every clusters' barycenters must be computed, and the smallest value indicates the closest representative feature vector, hence the correct model to activate and to use for modeling and/or prediction. The operating principle of the proposed methodology is depicted on Figure 2.

3.4 Quantification of the Error

In order to evaluate the correctness of the estimates, they should be compared to the real objective values. To that purpose, one may consider using the Mean Squared Error (MSE); it is defined as the sum of the squared differences between the expected outputs and their respective estimates, normalized by the number of values, as expressed by (1).

$$MSE_{\mathcal{D}} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}|} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 \quad (1)$$

where $N = |\mathcal{D}|$ is the cardinal of dataset \mathcal{D} , with $\mathcal{D} = \{y_i\}_{i \in [1, N]}$ the set of the objective values, and $\{\hat{y}_i\}_{i \in [1, N]}$ is the set of the corresponding estimates.

Regarding the local models, the MSE will be computed for every of them, and the total error will be expressed as the sum of all these values respectively weighted by their number of estimates, finally divided by the total number of estimates, as given by (2).

$$MSE_{\mathcal{D}} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}|} \sum_{k=1}^K |C_k| \times MSE_{C_k} \quad (2)$$

with $\{C_k\}_{k \in [1, K]}$ the K clusters, such as $\mathcal{D} = \cup_{k=1}^K C_k$.

Notice this measure should be interpreted relatively, by comparing values to each other, since its absolute values have no true meaning by themselves.

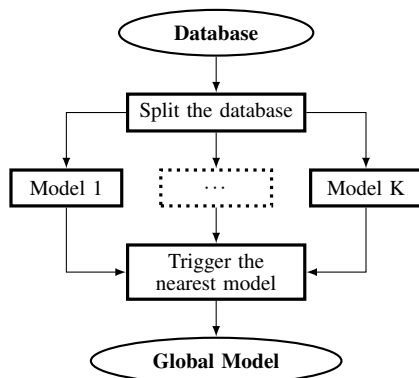


Figure 2: Representation of the proposed methodology.

3.5 Materials

As mentioned in section 2, this paper is supported by the European project HyperCOG. One of the industrialists involved in the project is Solvay, a chemical plant specialized in the production of Rare Earth specialty products. They provided the authors with a six-month long record of a set of twelve key sensors, at a frequency of one sample every five minutes, for a total of 52,560 samples. Therefore, the feature space where the proposed methodology will be applied is that spanned by these twelve key sensors. Notice that the Solvay's plant has a weekly schedule: it is turned on on Monday, and turned off on Friday, thus a motif repeats over time; such a periodic motif helps identify the real behaviors of the plant, and generally improves the relevancy of the clusters issued by a BSOM. Notice that the sensors record different dimensions (e.g. temperature, pressure), but normalization removes the dimensions; as a Data-Mining approach, all sensors are used, without distinction of their respective types.

The dataset is split into two parts, one for training, and the second for validation. Since there are six months, a two-thirds split seems appropriate: four months for training and two months for testing. Notice that successive data are used to build the subsets.

The dataset is depicted on Figure 3, where every of the twelve sensors is represented against time. For confidentiality concerns, data have been randomized: sensors' tags and dimensions are removed, and values are normalized from 0.0 to 1.0, for every dimension. On the figure, the training and testing data are represented as black and white crosses, respectively.

4 RESULTS

To evaluate the benefits of a local model-based approach compared to a direct global model, the modeling will be performed in a predictive fashion, i.e. by linking the expected outputs to the past inputs, as expressed by $\hat{y}_i = f(x_{i-\mu})$, with μ the prediction step. Indeed, modeling a process itself should be highly accurate, therefore the MSE would be very low for both local and global approaches; prediction is more complex, hence the MSE should be higher: the benefits of local modeling over global modeling should be easier to notice. For that reason, the step μ is set to 12, corresponding to a prediction of an hour ahead with a sampling rate of one value every 5 minutes.

Notice that the entire study will use all the twelve sensors introduced in Figure 3, but only Sensors 3, 9 and 12 will be represented since they greatly differ from one another, and the differences between the two approaches are more easily noticeable on them.

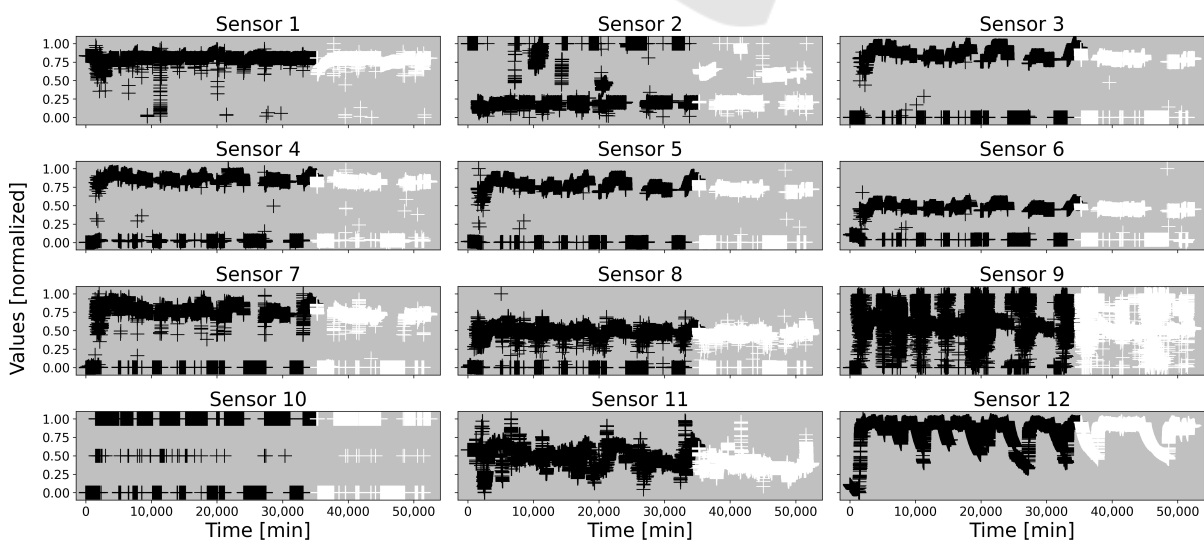


Figure 3: The Solvay sensors' values against time. Training and testing data in black and white, respectively.

4.1 Feature Space Partitioning

The first step of the proposed approach is to split the feature space; to that end, a BSOM consisting of 10 SOMs of size 3×3 is applied to the dataset. Indeed, with real industrial systems, one may observe a few distinct states: the shutdown and running states, the power on and off procedures, the transient phases, plus some sporadic events. Therefore, one may expect up to a ten of states at most, hence the 3×3 SOMs.

The clusters issued by the BSOM are depicted on Figure 4, where every color corresponds to a unique group; the color scheme and the size of the clusters are summarized in Table 1. Notice that the map comprised nine actual groups, but the smallest groups (comprising a few data) were merged with the largest ones for simplicity, resulting in a total of five groups. These ones are actually representative of the regions of the feature space, themselves representative of the regular behaviors of the system: blue cluster corresponds to the steady state, green and red ones are the power off and on procedures, respectively, the data in orange represent some transient state, and the purple ones are more sporadic data, corresponding to some transient values reached due to the processes' inertia.

The results meet the expectations: with no prior information, a BSOM proved able to automatically, blindly identify the regular behaviors of a real system.

4.2 Training Local and Global Models

The second step of the proposed methodology consists in building local models upon every of the behaviors identified in the first stage. To that purpose, regression by decision tree is used; the depth of the trees is set to 10 in order to store as many as $2^{10} = 1024$ cases, which is expected to be sufficient to represent the about 35,000 values of the training dataset, since there should be little variation in the data of a given region of the feature space (the regular states).

Notice that a higher value for the depth could improve accuracy, but there might be an overlearning, thus the accuracy of the testing data would drop. For

Table 1: Color scheme and size of the clusters.

Cluster	clt1	clt2	clt3	clt4	clt5
Color					
Size	20,219	5709	5335	2395	1544

that reason, with respect to the size of the dataset, a depth of 10 appears to be a good trade-off.

Figure 5 depicts the models issued when training a decision tree with the training dataset using a global approach (upper row) and a local one (lower row). As a remainder, global approach means that every data was used at the same time to build one unique model; local approach means that every cluster got its model, trained using only its own data. On the figure, the objective data are represented as black crosses, whilst the estimates outputted by the trees are represented as colored dots (in blue for the global model, and in the same color as the clusters for the local models, with respect to Table 1). Notice that only the training data and their estimates are represented on these graphs.

One may notice that global modeling tends to generate outliers, such as data whose value is around 0.4 for Sensor 3, but they are fewer with local modeling. This is due to the sudden changes of values in data: since there are some representatives of such values nonetheless, the global model learnt them and returns them when the input corresponds to a similar case, e.g. at the junctions of differing states (behaviors). On the opposite, with local modeling, since the different states of the system are modeled separately, such intermediate steps can not occur, whence the slightly better accuracy in the estimation in that last case.

Additionally, the corresponding MSEs are gathered within Table 2, for both global and local models; in the last case, the errors of every cluster is provided. A noticeable fact is that the errors of estimation for Sensor 3 are always lower with every local model, compared to that of the global model. However, local modeling may also tend to increase the error: clt4 (red) got higher MSEs for Sensors 9 and 12; this is due to the greater dispersion of that cluster, which is minimized with the global model since there are always intermediate data between sudden changes. In-

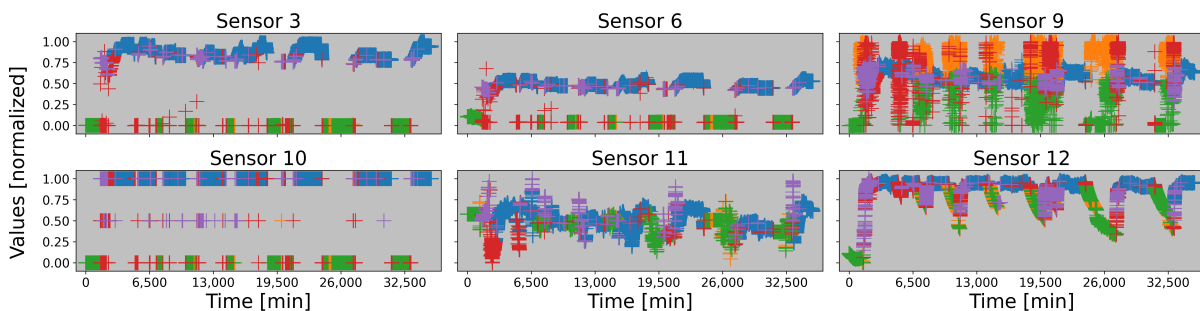


Figure 4: The clusters issued by the 3×3 BSOM; every color corresponds to a unique cluster.

deed, since red cluster contains data which do not always follow each other, the estimation is abrupt, whilst it is less when dealing with all data at once. Nonetheless, the errors are smaller for the four other clusters compared to that obtained with the global model. Therefore, in the learning stage, local modeling provided more accurate estimates than global one.

4.3 Testing Local and Global Models

Now that the models are built, their accuracy must be assessed over unknown data as of the testing dataset.

Alike the previous section, Figure 6 depicts the original data and their corresponding estimates using the global model (upper row) and the local models (lower row). On the graphs, the objective data are anew represented as white crosses, whilst the estimates are colored dots (blue for the global model on the upper row, and using the same color scheme as Table 1 for the local models on the lower row).

First, for both approaches, the accuracy of the estimation is smaller than that achieved in the training stage; this is not surprising, since the new data are actually similar, but not exactly the same, thus the corresponding outputs are also similar, but not exactly the same neither, whence the slight drop in accuracy.

Second, for both approaches anew, the models of Sensors 9 and 12 are acceptable, but positively not perfect: for instance with Sensor 12, from time 42,000 to time 48,000, the global model provides an almost constant estimate, whilst there is a real decrease in values. This also happens with the local models, but their estimates are nevertheless closer to the objective

data. This limitation is directly due to the depth of the trees: data are dropping in values, but there are not enough leaves to store all possibilities, hence the almost constant outputted estimates.

Third, local models issued more outliers than the global model, fact which is noticeable with Sensor 3, especially the red cluster (ct4). This is due to a weak classification of some data; indeed, it can happen that a data is close to several clusters' barycenters at the same time, but only the closest is actually activated with the actual version of the proposed methodology. For instance, consider the case where a data would be distant of 1 unit from a cluster, of 1.01 units from another cluster, and of more than 3 units from the others; in that case, the models of the two first clusters should be activated, and their respective estimates should be fused in some fashion, since 1 and 1.01 are very close on this scale. This is exactly what happens there: some data are close to several clusters' barycenters at the same time, but only one model is activated, which may not be the most appropriate one.

Finally, the MSEs of the predictions are gathered in Table 3. These values emphasize the observations made in the previous paragraph. Indeed, clt1 (blue) got smaller MSEs than the global model, for every of the sensors considered, since it is the largest cluster, thus an error of classification has a very little impact (it is drowned out); on the contrary, clt4 (red) is itself rather small, thus an error of classification has a significantly bad impact (wrong model activated), whence its poor accuracy. That being said, except for Sensor 9 and clt4, the MSEs are often smaller with the local models compared to that of the global one.

Table 2: The training errors of local and global models.

		Sensor 3	Sensor 9	Sensor 12
Global	($\times 10^3$)	1.909	5.489	0.456
Local	clt1	0.018	0.054	0.026
	clt2	0.000	2.420	0.205
	clt3	0.000	1.489	0.180
	clt4	0.114	7.629	1.460
	clt5	0.017	0.204	0.240

Table 3: The testing errors of local and global models.

		Sensor 3	Sensor 9	Sensor 12
Global	($\times 10^3$)	12.244	23.949	5.107
Local	clt1	3.611	1.526	0.656
	clt2	4.622	27.283	5.614
	clt3	8.065	76.445	12.145
	clt4	72.084	33.644	14.172
	clt5	1.609	3.946	6.511

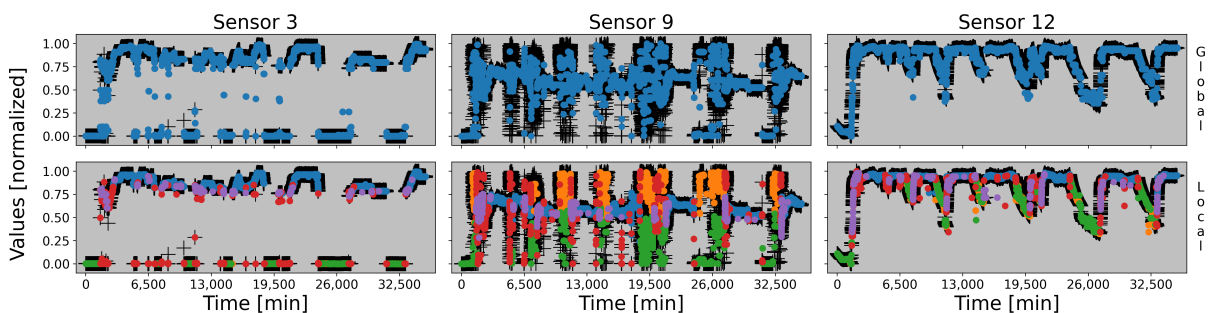


Figure 5: The global (upper) and local (lower) models trained over the training dataset.

These remarks mean that a local-model-based approach works well with large behaviors, but the accuracy of the more sporadic events is badly affected, due to a wrong classification and activation of the models. Nonetheless, with respect to the amount of estimates of every cluster, the overall MSE is smaller when considering the local models, as shown thereafter.

4.4 Comparison for the Twelve Sensors

Thus far, the study has focused on three sensors, in order to underpin the benefits of using local modeling on real dynamic industrial processes; nonetheless, the nine other sensors should also be checked.

To that end, Table 4 regroups the MSEs obtained with both approaches, for every of the twelve sensors. For every of them, the ratio between the MSE of the global model and that of the local models is also provided so as to ease the interpretation; indeed, if the ratio is higher than 1, it means that global modeling has a higher error, and the other way around if lower.

The local MSEs obtained over the training dataset are always lower than that of the global model (all ratios higher than 1), meaning the learning dataset has been more accurately approximated by local models. Consequently, one can confidently state that a local-model-based approach is beneficial in order to both model and predict (twelve steps ahead) real industrial dynamic processes, at least when learning them.

That observation is a little more mitigated for the testing dataset, for which, in the average, the MSEs achieved by the local models are very often smaller than that of the global model, except for Sensors 1 and 11. The mean of the twelve ratios is 1.744, meaning that local modeling is globally beneficial, for it has decreased the error by 74%; however, it was at the cost of a loss in accuracy for two sensors. This loss in accuracy is due to the presence of more outliers compared to the global predictor, due to the higher dispersion of the data of some clusters of these sensors.

5 CONCLUSION

This paper discussed the benefits of using a local-model-based approach in the scope of modeling and predicting real Industry 4.0-related processes.

The proposed methodology consists of three steps: first, the system’s feature space is split by unsupervised clustering, second the different regions identified are modeled separately, and third the models are eventually activated with respect to the closeness of input data. By using a high-level averaging clustering algorithm, the first step aims to automatically identify and isolate the behaviors historically encountered of any unknown system; then local modeling aims to build a set of models to represent these behaviors. The final model can therefore be seen as a smart, self-organizing combination of the system’s behaviors.

Applied to real industrial data, provided by a real chemical plant in the scope of the Industry 4.0-orientated European project HyperCOG, this approach proved to be more accurate than directly feeding the time-series into some modeling tools. That behavioral approach has the advantage of being simple, not case-dependent, and requires no prior knowledge to perform; moreover, it increases the accuracy of the results, and diminishes the severity of the outliers.

Nonetheless, it seems that the actual way to activate the different local models is too limited, since it does not take into account the case when a data is close to several clusters at the same time, and that several models may be considered. Nonetheless, the initial objective of the paper has been achieved, i.e. assessing that local modeling is an appropriate fashion to model industrial, nonlinear dynamic processes.

Solving that limit will constitute our next work, i.e. thinking, implementing and assessing a fashion to intelligently activate several local models in parallel so as to account for the possible closeness of a data to several clusters at the same time. This fusion should be experience-based and data-driven, therefore we are thinking about Machine Learning optimization tools to deal with that task, such as, why not, fuzzy logic.

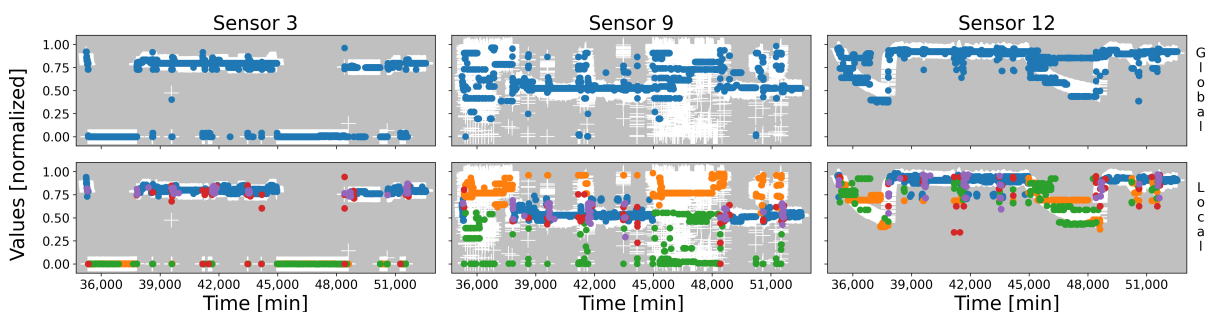


Figure 6: The testing dataset’s estimates issued by the global (upper) and local (lower) models.

Table 4: The training and testing errors of both local and global approaches.

	Training			Testing		
	Local ($\times 10^3$)	Global ($\times 10^3$)	$\frac{\text{Global}}{\text{Local}}$	Local ($\times 10^3$)	Global ($\times 10^3$)	$\frac{\text{Global}}{\text{Local}}$
Sensor 1	0.039	0.220	5.687	3.146	2.377	0.756
Sensor 2	0.183	0.881	4.823	16.258	29.986	1.844
Sensor 3	0.019	1.909	99.848	4.597	12.244	2.664
Sensor 4	0.032	1.975	61.958	4.820	12.778	2.651
Sensor 5	0.330	1.173	3.556	2.602	3.935	1.512
Sensor 6	0.081	0.471	5.786	1.133	1.637	1.445
Sensor 7	0.156	1.719	11.036	3.718	9.871	2.655
Sensor 8	0.624	2.869	4.599	9.109	10.551	1.158
Sensor 9	1.175	5.489	4.672	16.546	23.949	1.447
Sensor 10	0.255	2.725	10.697	8.445	24.097	2.853
Sensor 11	0.283	0.845	2.988	3.915	1.841	0.470
Sensor 12	0.185	0.456	2.465	3.483	5.107	1.466
Mean	0.280	1.728	18.176	6.481	11.531	1.744
Standard deviation	0.314	1.409	29.212	4.933	9.278	0.763

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