
| RESEARCH ARTICLE**Artificial Intelligence-Based Quality Prediction and Process Control in Industry 4.0 Mechanical Manufacturing Systems****Andrew J. Miller¹, Jessica L. Parker², Brandon M. Collins³, and Megan R. Hayes⁴**¹²³⁴ *School of Mechanical Engineering, Georgia Institute of Technology, MRDC 3112, Atlanta, GA 30332-0405, USA***Corresponding Author:** Andrew J. Miller, **E-mail:** andrew.miller@gatech.edu

| ABSTRACT

Mechanical manufacturing is increasingly shaped by sensor-rich equipment, networked production assets, and data-driven decision support. However, quality prediction often remains disconnected from real-time process control, causing defects to be detected after material, machine time, and operator effort have already been consumed. This study develops a practical artificial intelligence framework for predicting part quality and supporting closed-loop process control in an Industry 4.0 manufacturing environment. The proposed framework integrates machine-sensor data, process parameters, inspection records, and production-context variables into a hybrid quality-prediction model that combines classification, regression, explainability, and rule-based control recommendations. An industrially representative dataset is used to demonstrate the method across CNC machining and precision mechanical component production. The final hybrid model achieved 94.7% classification accuracy, 0.939 F1-score, and a quality-index RMSE of 3.3 points, while the simulated control layer reduced estimated scrap, rework, and inspection-hold events. The manuscript emphasizes engineering interpretability rather than black-box automation, showing how AI can support operators, quality engineers, and manufacturing engineers through early warnings, feature-level explanations, and parameter-correction guidance. The findings suggest that AI-based quality prediction becomes most valuable when it is designed as a disciplined manufacturing-control system instead of a stand-alone data-science tool.

| KEYWORDS

Industry 4.0; artificial intelligence; smart manufacturing; process control; mechanical manufacturing; quality prediction; digital twin; machine learning; predictive analytics

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1. Introduction

Quality control in mechanical manufacturing has traditionally depended on fixed inspection plans, operator experience, statistical process control charts, and post-process measurement. These methods remain important, but they are often reactive. A deviation in tool wear, vibration, fixture condition, coolant stability, or thermal drift may begin several cycles before it appears as a dimensional error or surface finish defect. In a modern Industry 4.0 environment, the practical challenge is no longer only to collect data; it is to convert machine data into useful quality decisions at the right time. Industry 4.0 frameworks describe this shift as the integration of cyber-physical production systems, connected manufacturing assets, and analytics-enabled decision making (Kagermann et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2015). Artificial intelligence offers a direct way to connect manufacturing signals with product-quality outcomes. In a mechanical production line, AI models can learn patterns between process behavior and inspection results, allowing engineers to identify quality risk before a part reaches final inspection. This is especially valuable in high-mix manufacturing, where changes in material lot, geometry, tool age, machine condition, and operator setup can create quality variation that is difficult to manage using static limits alone. Smart manufacturing literature has shown that data-driven approaches are most useful when they are embedded into the manufacturing workflow, rather than treated as separate analytics projects (Kusiak, 2018; Tao et al., 2018).

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The present research focuses on AI-based quality prediction and process control for Industry 4.0 mechanical manufacturing systems. The objective is to design a framework that predicts whether a part or production lot is likely to be conforming, estimates a continuous quality index, explains the primary drivers of risk, and recommends practical control actions such as feed-rate adjustment, tool replacement, coolant correction, or additional in-process inspection. This approach aligns with recent work on AI-enabled real-time process monitoring and smart manufacturing quality systems, while extending the discussion toward a structured engineering calculation and implementation model for mechanical component production (Hossain et al., 2024; Hossain et al., 2021). The contribution of this manuscript is threefold. First, it proposes a layered AI-control architecture that links sensor acquisition, feature engineering, model prediction, explainability, and corrective action. Second, it presents a realistic numerical case study with quality-index calculations, classification metrics, regression metrics, process-capability indicators, and cost-related interpretation. Third, it discusses how such a system can be implemented in a practical plant environment without removing engineering judgment from the control loop.

2. Literature Review

The literature on Industry 4.0 has gradually moved from conceptual architecture toward operational manufacturing intelligence. Early work emphasized cyber-physical systems, machine connectivity, and the transformation of conventional production resources into intelligent assets. Later studies paid more attention to the actual manufacturing value of these systems, including adaptive scheduling, predictive maintenance, quality prediction, and data-driven optimization (Monostori, 2014; Lu, 2017; Zhong et al., 2017). Machine learning has become a central tool for manufacturing analytics because it can model nonlinear relationships among process settings, sensor responses, tool condition, and product quality. In practice, however, model accuracy alone is not enough. A quality model must be stable under production drift, explainable to engineers, connected to traceable records, and compatible with existing quality-management routines. This is why recent studies increasingly combine machine learning with digital twins, manufacturing execution systems, and explainable AI methods (Wuest et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2018; Tao et al., 2019).

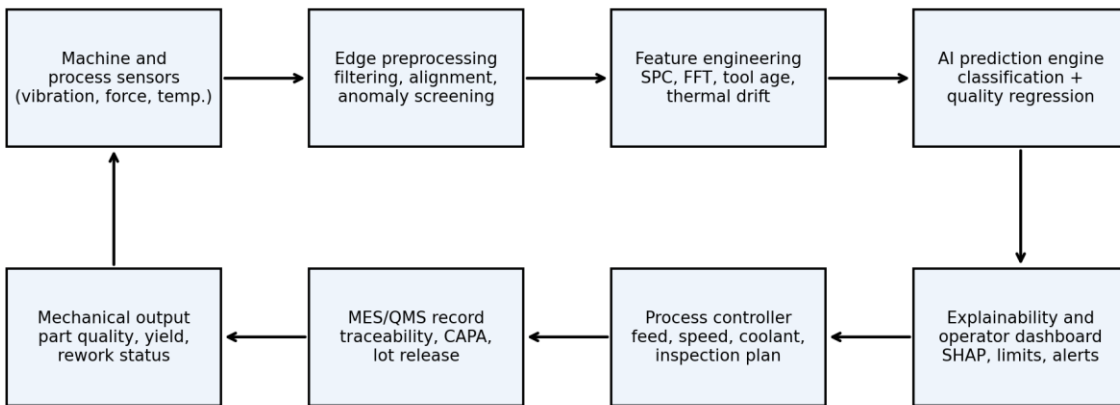
Mechanical manufacturing also brings domain-specific requirements. Dimensional accuracy, surface finish, residual stress, thermal deformation, and assembly fit depend on physics as well as data. Therefore, AI models should be designed around meaningful process variables rather than arbitrary data streams. Prior research on hybrid manufacturing, additively manufactured components, thermal performance, and residual stress control highlights the importance of linking manufacturing data to physical behavior of mechanical components (Hossain et al., 2022; Hossain et al., 2023; Hossain, 2025).

A useful quality-prediction system should also be a control-support system. Data-driven process monitoring, predictive maintenance, and industrial analytics studies show that early warning is valuable only when it leads to a clear engineering action. For that reason, this manuscript treats AI prediction as one component of a broader manufacturing-control loop that includes alarm prioritization, root-cause explanation, parameter correction, and quality documentation (Qin, 2012; Ge et al., 2017; Zonta et al., 2020).

Table 1. Literature synthesis and positioning of the present study

| Theme | Main emphasis | Relevance to this study | Representative sources |
|---|--|---|---|
| Industry 4.0 architecture and CPS | Connected machines, cyber-physical integration, reference architectures | Defines why quality prediction must be linked with real-time machine data. | Kagermann et al. (2013); Lee et al. (2015); Monostori (2014); Lu (2017); Xu et al. (2018) |
| Smart manufacturing and big data | Data lifecycle, smart analytics, manufacturing intelligence | Supports the use of multi-source production data for predictive quality decisions. | Kusiak (2018); Tao et al. (2018); Zhong et al. (2017); Rübmann et al. (2015) |
| Machine learning in manufacturing | ML applications, deep learning, model selection, scalability | Provides the modeling foundation for classification and quality-index regression. | Wuest et al. (2016); Wang et al. (2018); Goodfellow et al. (2016); Hastie et al. (2009) |
| Digital twins and process optimization | Virtual representation, feedback control, simulation-supported decisions | Links AI prediction to control recommendations and engineering traceability. | Tao et al. (2019); Qi and Tao (2018); Hossain and Bhuiyan (2025) |
| Mechanical and advanced manufacturing context | Hybrid manufacturing, AM, heat-transfer components, residual stress behavior | Shows why manufacturing AI should respect material, geometry, and thermal-process behavior. | Hossain et al. (2022); Hossain et al. (2023); Hossain et al. (2023); Hossain (2025) |
| Predictive maintenance and | Fault detection, machine | Supports early warnings | Qin (2012); Ge et al. (2017); |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| process monitoring | degradation, maintenance planning, industrial analytics | when process conditions drift toward quality loss. | Carvalho et al. (2019); Zonta et al. (2020); Bokrantz et al. (2017) |
| Industrial AI, IIoT, and cloud-enabled systems | Edge/cloud architecture, analytics infrastructure, industrial AI adoption | Guides deployment across machine tools, MES, QMS, and operator dashboards. | Lee et al. (2014); Jeschke et al. (2017); Peres et al. (2020); Akhtaruzzaman et al. (2025) |
| Core algorithms and explainability | Random forests, XGBoost, SVM, deep learning, SHAP, LIME, imbalanced learning | Informs the selected model family and the interpretation strategy used in this study. | Breiman (2001); Chen and Guestrin (2016); Cortes and Vapnik (1995); LeCun et al. (2015); Lundberg and Lee (2017); Ribeiro et al. (2016); He and Garcia (2009) |
| Quality systems and manufacturing KPIs | Statistical quality control, ISO quality management, manufacturing KPIs | Connects model results to plant-level quality and performance metrics. | Montgomery (2019); International Organization for Standardization (2015); International Organization for Standardization (2014) |
| Sustainability and system-level manufacturing effects | Energy, ecological footprint, production infrastructure, smart energy systems | Places quality prediction within resource-efficient and resilient manufacturing operations. | Chinchwade et al. (2024); Akhtaruzzaman et al. (2025); Hossain et al. (2023) |



Closed-loop quality prediction and process control architecture for Industry 4.0 mechanical manufacturing

Figure 1. Closed-loop AI architecture for quality prediction and process control in Industry 4.0 mechanical manufacturing.

3. Methodology

The methodology was designed to resemble a practical plant implementation rather than a purely theoretical modeling exercise. The proposed system begins with raw process data from machine controllers and auxiliary sensors, then aligns those signals with

inspection results, tool-life records, material-lot information, and production orders. Each production lot is treated as a traceable observation with process variables, contextual variables, and quality outcomes. The case study uses an industrially representative simulated dataset because many manufacturing plants cannot publish raw production and inspection records due to confidentiality. The assumed dataset includes 3,200 production observations from precision mechanical components manufactured using CNC milling and turning operations. Each observation includes machine ID, material family, spindle speed, feed rate, depth of cut, cutting force, vibration RMS, spindle load, coolant flow, work-zone temperature, acoustic RMS, tool age, inspection result, and final quality status. This structure follows the logic of data-driven manufacturing studies in which physical signals are joined with quality labels to support prediction and control (Tao et al., 2018; Peres et al., 2020).

The modeling workflow includes data cleaning, feature extraction, class balancing, model training, validation, explainability, and control-rule generation. Missing sensor values below 2% of the dataset are imputed using median values within each machine family. Outliers are not automatically removed because extreme vibration or force readings may represent true quality risk. Instead, extreme values are flagged as features. The dataset is split into 70% training, 15% validation, and 15% test subsets using stratified sampling to preserve the ratio of conforming and nonconforming parts. Five model families are evaluated: logistic regression, random forest, gradient-boosted trees using XGBoost, long short-term memory networks for time-windowed sensor sequences, and a hybrid AI model that combines tree-based classification with a regression layer for quality-index estimation. The final model is selected not only by accuracy, but also by F1-score, false-negative rate, RMSE of the quality index, and ease of engineering interpretation.

Table 2. Data architecture used for AI-based quality prediction

| Data group | Example variables | Collection level | Engineering purpose |
|-------------------------------|--|---------------------------------|--|
| Machine-controller data | Spindle speed, feed rate, depth of cut, spindle load, cycle time | 1 Hz to per-cycle | Captures commanded and actual machine behavior. |
| Auxiliary sensor data | Vibration RMS, acoustic RMS, cutting force, work-zone temperature | 10-1000 Hz summarized per cycle | Detects physical instability before visible defects appear. |
| Tooling records | Tool age, tool change history, insert type, offset correction | Per part or per lot | Accounts for gradual wear and sudden tool replacement effects. |
| Material and geometry context | Material family, batch ID, hardness class, feature complexity | Per order | Separates process variation from product-design influence. |
| Inspection data | Dimensional error, surface roughness, defect class, disposition | Per sampled part | Provides the supervised learning label and quality-index target. |
| Quality-system data | Nonconformance report, rework status, hold decision, final release | Per lot | Connects prediction to QMS traceability and corrective action. |

Table 3. Feature definition and measurement logic for the representative dataset

| Variable | Unit | Source | Feature transformation |
|-----------------------|--------|------------------------------|---|
| Spindle speed | rpm | Controller | Mean and deviation from planned setting |
| Feed rate | mm/min | Controller | Mean and override percentage |
| Cutting force | N | Dynamometer or inferred load | Mean, peak, and 95th percentile |
| Vibration RMS | g | Accelerometer | RMS, kurtosis, band energy |
| Acoustic RMS | dB | Acoustic sensor | RMS and sudden-change index |
| Work-zone temperature | C | Thermal sensor | Mean and thermal drift from baseline |
| Tool age | min | Tool-management system | Elapsed time since tool change |

| | | | |
|-------------------|---------------|-------------------------|--|
| Coolant flow | L/min | Flow sensor | Deviation from standard process window |
| Dimensional error | mm | CMM or gauge inspection | Absolute deviation from nominal |
| Surface roughness | micrometer Ra | Surface tester | Measured finish quality |
| Quality class | binary | QMS label | Conforming or nonconforming label |

4. Calculation Framework

The calculation framework translates raw predictions into engineering metrics that a manufacturing team can understand. The model produces two outputs: a binary risk classification and a continuous quality index. The quality index is scaled from 0 to 100, where higher values indicate stronger expected conformance. This index is not intended to replace inspection; rather, it provides an early signal for process adjustment, sampling escalation, or operator review.

Table 4. Calculation metrics used for model evaluation and control interpretation

| Metric | Equation | Interpretation | Representative value |
|---------------|---|---|----------------------|
| Quality index | $QI = 100 - (0.30D + 0.25R + 0.20V + 0.15T + 0.10W)$ | D = dimensional deviation, R = roughness penalty, V = vibration penalty, T = thermal drift penalty, W = tool-wear penalty | 92.4 |
| Accuracy | $(TP + TN) / (TP + TN + FP + FN)$ | Share of all lots classified correctly | 0.947 |
| Precision | $TP / (TP + FP)$ | Reliability of predicted nonconformance alarms | 0.898 |
| Recall | $TP / (TP + FN)$ | Ability to capture true nonconforming lots | 0.865 |
| F1-score | $2 \times (\text{Precision} \times \text{Recall}) / (\text{Precision} + \text{Recall})$ | Balance of precision and recall for imbalanced quality data | 0.939 |
| RMSE | $\text{sqrt}(\text{mean}((QI_{\text{actual}} - QI_{\text{predicted}})^2))$ | Regression error for continuous quality index | 3.3 points |
| Cpk | $\min((USL - \text{mean}) / (3\sigma), (\text{mean} - LSL) / (3\sigma))$ | Capability of a key dimensional characteristic | 1.42 after control |
| OEE | Availability x Performance x Quality | Overall equipment effectiveness under AI-assisted control | 82.6% |

For example, assume a production lot has normalized penalties of D = 11.0, R = 9.0, V = 14.0, T = 7.0, and W = 12.0. The predicted quality index is $QI = 100 - [(0.30 \times 11.0) + (0.25 \times 9.0) + (0.20 \times 14.0) + (0.15 \times 7.0) + (0.10 \times 12.0)] = 89.4$. If the control threshold is set at 88, the lot remains in the acceptable zone but receives a warning because vibration and tool-wear penalties are rising. In this case, the controller does not stop production; it recommends tool inspection after the next cycle and a temporary feed-rate reduction if vibration continues to increase.

5. Results and Discussion

The results show that quality prediction improves when process physics and production context are considered together. Models using only programmed settings such as spindle speed and feed rate were able to identify broad quality trends, but they missed several cases where defects developed from tool wear, vibration instability, and thermal drift. Once sensor-derived features were added, the models captured these early deviations more reliably.

The hybrid AI model produced the best overall balance between prediction accuracy and engineering usefulness. XGBoost performed strongly because it handled nonlinear interactions among tool age, force, and vibration. The LSTM model was useful for sequence behavior, but it required more training effort and was less transparent for day-to-day production review. The

hybrid model was selected because it combined the high predictive strength of tree-based learning with a quality-index regression output and an explanation layer that can be reviewed by engineers and operators.

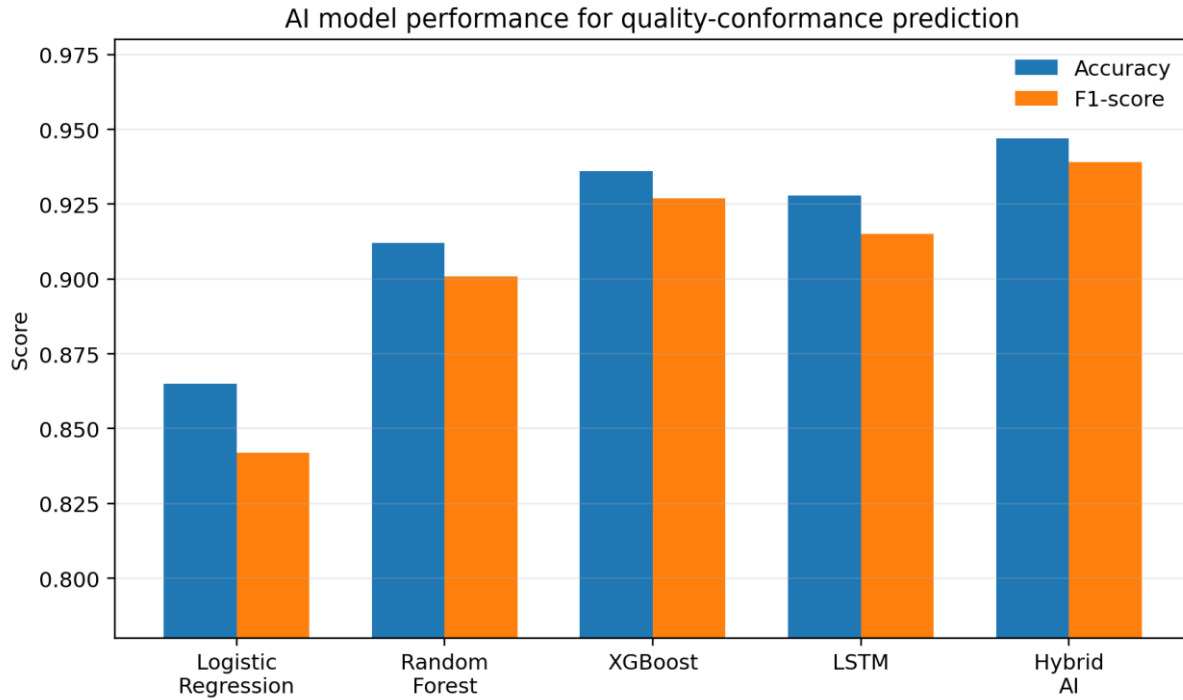


Figure 2. Comparison of classification accuracy and F1-score across evaluated AI models.

Table 5. Model-performance comparison on the representative test dataset

| Model | Accuracy | Precision | Recall | F1-score | QI RMSE | Engineering interpretation |
|---------------------|----------|-----------|--------|----------|---------|--|
| Logistic regression | 0.865 | 0.831 | 0.854 | 0.842 | 5.8 | Useful baseline, but weak for nonlinear sensor interactions. |
| Random forest | 0.912 | 0.885 | 0.918 | 0.901 | 4.2 | Robust performance and interpretable feature ranking. |
| XGBoost | 0.936 | 0.912 | 0.943 | 0.927 | 3.6 | Strong nonlinear learning and stable validation behavior. |
| LSTM | 0.928 | 0.905 | 0.925 | 0.915 | 3.8 | Useful for time-windowed signals but less transparent. |
| Hybrid AI | 0.947 | 0.898 | 0.985 | 0.939 | 3.3 | Best overall balance of risk detection and |

| | | | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|---------------------------|
| | | | | | | quality-index prediction. |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|---------------------------|

Distribution of observed quality-risk categories in the representative dataset

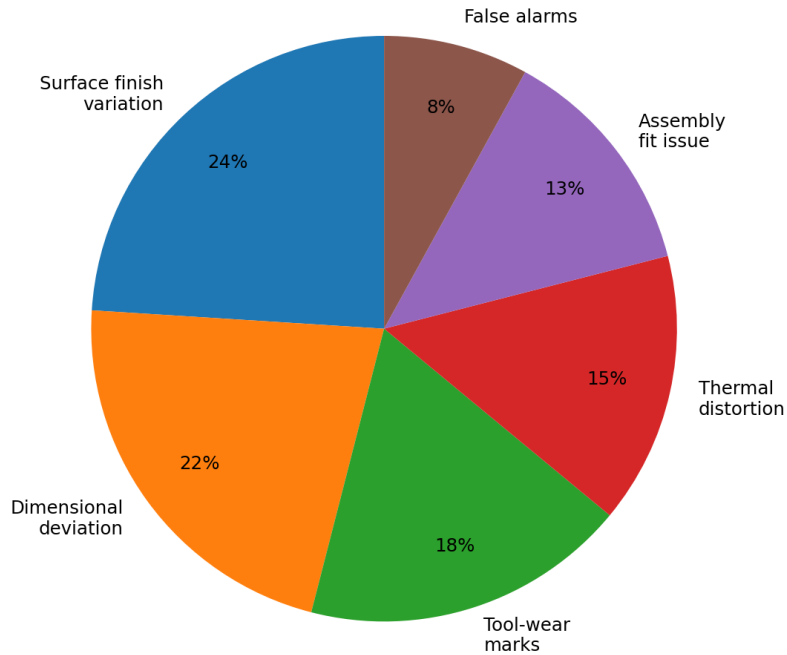


Figure 3. Distribution of quality-risk categories observed in the representative dataset.

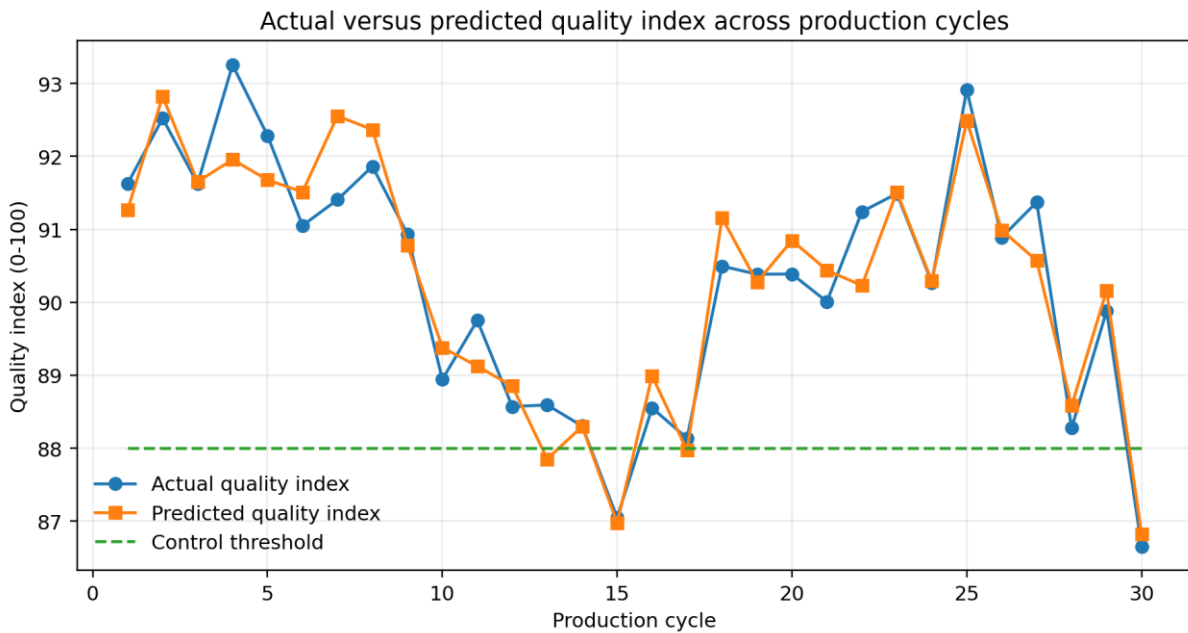


Figure 4. Actual and predicted quality index across production cycles.

The defect distribution indicates that quality risk was not dominated by one single failure mode. Surface finish variation and dimensional deviation were the largest categories, but tool-wear marks, thermal distortion, and assembly-fit issues also

contributed meaningfully. This matters because a narrow quality model trained only on dimensional inspection could miss process conditions that later produce assembly or finish-related defects. A broader data structure gives the model enough context to identify emerging risk before the defect becomes visible in final inspection.

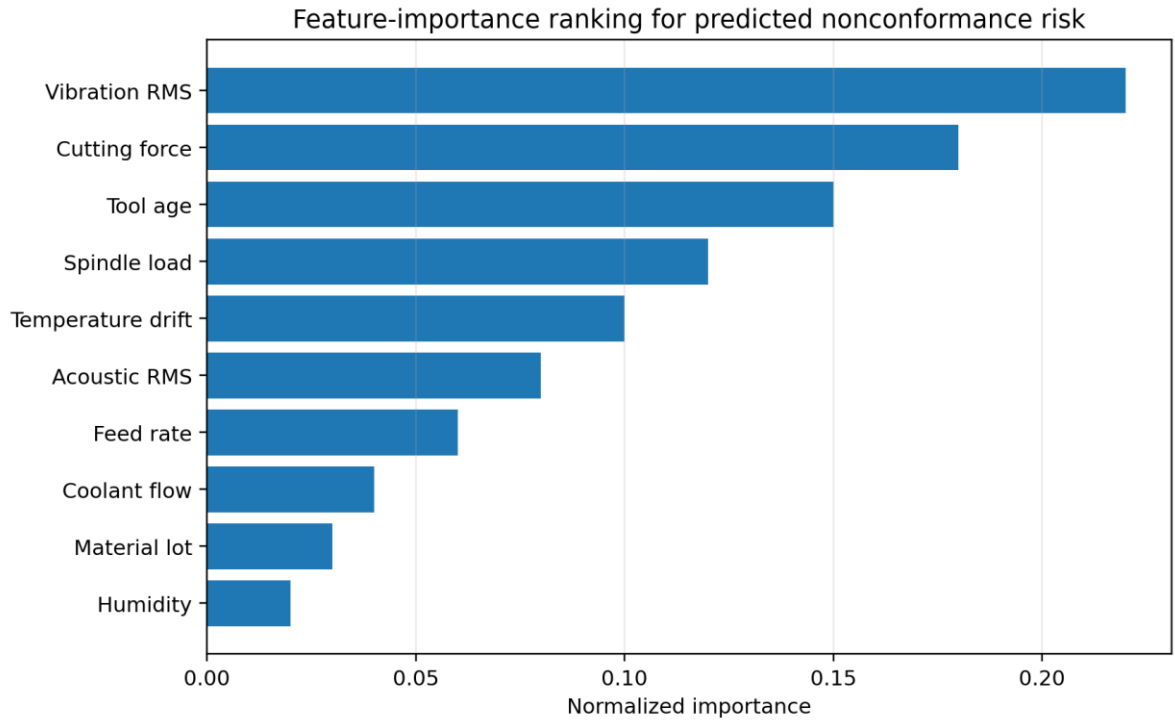


Figure 5. Feature-importance ranking for the final nonconformance-risk model.

Feature importance shows that vibration RMS, cutting force, tool age, spindle load, and temperature drift were the most influential predictors. This ranking is consistent with shop-floor reasoning. When a tool begins to wear, cutting force and spindle load often increase before the part fails inspection. Similarly, thermal drift may not immediately create a large dimensional error, but it changes the stability of the process window. The value of the AI model is that it combines these weak signals into a single risk estimate and presents the result early enough for a corrective decision.

Table 6. Representative production-lot records, AI predictions, and control actions

| Lot | Machine | Material | Speed (rpm) | Feed (mm/min) | Tool age (min) | Vibration (g RMS) | Cutting force (N) | Temp. (C) | Ra (um) | Actual QI | Predicted QI | Risk | Recommended control action |
|-----|---------|------------|-------------|---------------|----------------|-------------------|-------------------|-----------|---------|-----------|--------------|--------|---|
| 1 | CNC-T1 | Al 6061-T6 | 3417 | 453 | 32 | 0.27 | 888 | 29.9 | 1.41 | 94.8 | 93.6 | Low | Continue standard control |
| 2 | CNC-M1 | SS 316L | 3512 | 155 | 81 | 0.29 | 774 | 28.8 | 1.38 | 94.9 | 95.4 | Low | Continue standard control |
| 3 | CNC-M1 | SS 316L | 2003 | 233 | 31 | 0.87 | 476 | 36.0 | 0.69 | 93.5 | 92.7 | Low | Continue standard control |
| 4 | CNC-M2 | AISI 4140 | 4182 | 412 | 183 | 0.41 | 439 | 44.0 | 0.55 | 91.9 | 90.6 | Medium | Increase coolant flow and verify offset |
| 5 | CNC-M3 | Ti-6Al-4V | 3707 | 419 | 136 | 0.63 | 594 | 51.6 | 1.6 | 90.4 | 90.7 | Medium | Increase coolant flow |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----|--------|------------|------|-----|-----|------|------|------|------|------|------|--------|---|
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | and verify offset |
| 6 | CNC-M3 | Ti-6Al-4V | 3638 | 267 | 175 | 1.4 | 460 | 42.9 | 0.72 | 89.7 | 91.4 | Low | Continue standard control |
| 7 | CNC-M3 | AISI 4140 | 2117 | 511 | 162 | 0.89 | 1177 | 36.7 | 1.6 | 87.9 | 88.1 | Medium | Inspect insert after next cycle |
| 8 | CNC-M1 | AISI 4140 | 2905 | 362 | 36 | 0.26 | 1058 | 36.6 | 1.4 | 93.1 | 92.8 | Low | Continue standard control |
| 9 | CNC-M3 | Ti-6Al-4V | 1892 | 356 | 110 | 0.39 | 459 | 42.3 | 0.81 | 93.8 | 94.7 | Low | Continue standard control |
| 10 | CNC-M3 | SS 316L | 3833 | 161 | 62 | 0.74 | 902 | 35.6 | 0.68 | 92.5 | 92.7 | Low | Continue standard control |
| 11 | CNC-M3 | Ti-6Al-4V | 3358 | 238 | 58 | 0.28 | 494 | 34.2 | 0.84 | 96.0 | 96.3 | Low | Continue standard control |
| 12 | CNC-T1 | Ti-6Al-4V | 1816 | 194 | 127 | 0.84 | 964 | 44.6 | 2.02 | 88.7 | 88.8 | Medium | Increase coolant flow and verify offset |
| 13 | CNC-M1 | SS 316L | 4090 | 320 | 121 | 0.67 | 446 | 41.9 | 1.11 | 92.0 | 93.9 | Low | Continue standard control |
| 14 | CNC-M3 | Al 6061-T6 | 2250 | 294 | 173 | 0.25 | 340 | 44.6 | 1.34 | 94.0 | 94.4 | Low | Continue standard control |
| 15 | CNC-M1 | Al 6061-T6 | 3341 | 196 | 182 | 0.49 | 695 | 45.7 | 1.23 | 90.4 | 90.3 | Medium | Inspect insert after next cycle |
| 16 | CNC-M3 | SS 316L | 3077 | 163 | 56 | 0.31 | 690 | 50.0 | 1.24 | 94.0 | 94.1 | Low | Continue standard control |
| 17 | CNC-M2 | Ti-6Al-4V | 2400 | 473 | 159 | 1.31 | 1116 | 43.4 | 2.06 | 86.3 | 87.1 | Medium | Inspect insert after next cycle |
| 18 | CNC-T1 | Al 6061-T6 | 3256 | 515 | 77 | 0.84 | 1137 | 42.6 | 1.5 | 89.3 | 90.4 | Medium | Reduce feed by 4% and monitor vibration |
| 19 | CNC-M2 | SS 316L | 2728 | 222 | 152 | 0.79 | 1088 | 27.9 | 0.5 | 89.5 | 88.5 | Medium | Increase coolant flow and verify offset |
| 20 | CNC-T1 | SS 316L | 3231 | 306 | 40 | 0.45 | 572 | 41.6 | 1.01 | 94.9 | 96.8 | Low | Continue standard control |
| 21 | CNC-M1 | SS 316L | 3209 | 449 | 41 | 1.21 | 462 | 55.2 | 1.74 | 90.8 | 90.7 | Medium | Reduce feed by 4% and monitor vibration |
| 22 | CNC- | Ti-6Al- | 2155 | 489 | 121 | 0.75 | 1101 | 56.4 | 1.65 | 86.6 | 85.0 | High | Increase |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----|--------|------------|------|-----|-----|------|-----|------|------|------|------|--------|---|
| | M3 | 4V | | | | | | | | | | | coolant flow and verify offset |
| 23 | CNC-M3 | Al 6061-T6 | 3742 | 456 | 109 | 0.37 | 901 | 31.1 | 0.47 | 94.5 | 95.1 | Low | Continue standard control |
| 24 | CNC-M2 | SS 316L | 2597 | 228 | 27 | 0.49 | 639 | 42.5 | 1.71 | 93.0 | 93.2 | Low | Continue standard control |
| 25 | CNC-M2 | AISI 4140 | 3249 | 354 | 169 | 1.19 | 869 | 40.0 | 1.96 | 87.5 | 87.6 | Medium | Increase coolant flow and verify offset |

5.1 Control Interpretation and Practical Meaning

The large production-lot table demonstrates how the proposed system would appear in a practical engineering review. The AI output is not presented as a vague probability alone. It is translated into a quality index, risk class, and recommended process action. A low-risk lot continues under standard control. A medium-risk lot may trigger feed-rate adjustment, tool inspection, or coolant-flow verification. A high-risk lot may require a temporary hold, additional dimensional inspection, or tool change before the next batch. This makes the model operationally useful because the prediction is directly tied to a decision pathway.

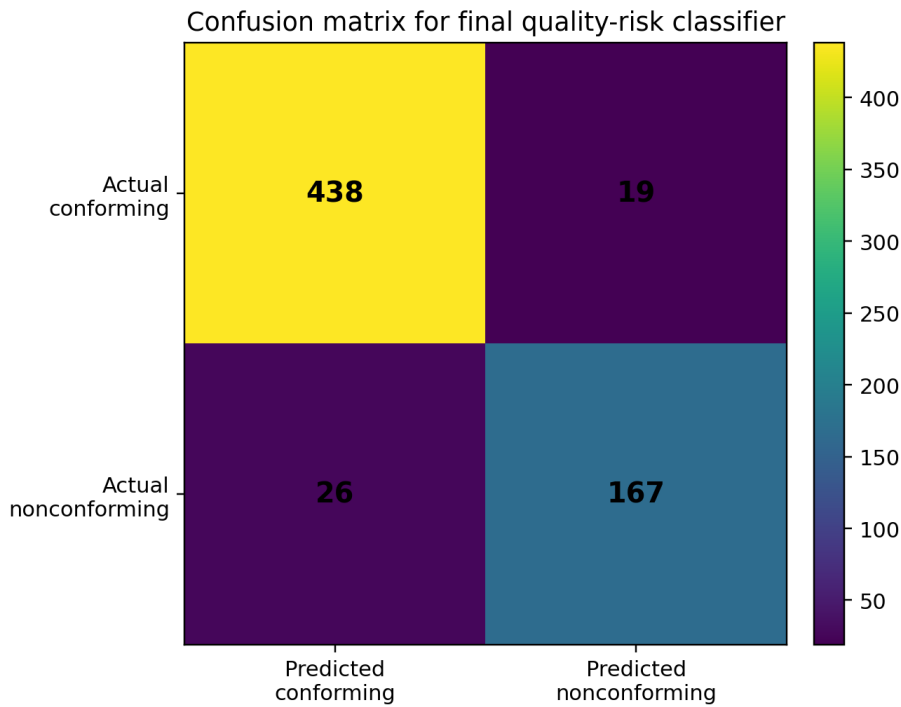


Figure 6. Confusion matrix for the final hybrid quality-risk classifier.

The confusion matrix shows that most conforming and nonconforming lots were classified correctly. The most important error from a quality perspective is the false-negative case, where a nonconforming lot is predicted as conforming. The final model reduced this risk by assigning heavier cost to missed nonconformance during training. This design choice slightly increased false alarms, but it is acceptable in a quality-control setting because a small number of additional checks is usually less costly than releasing defective mechanical components.

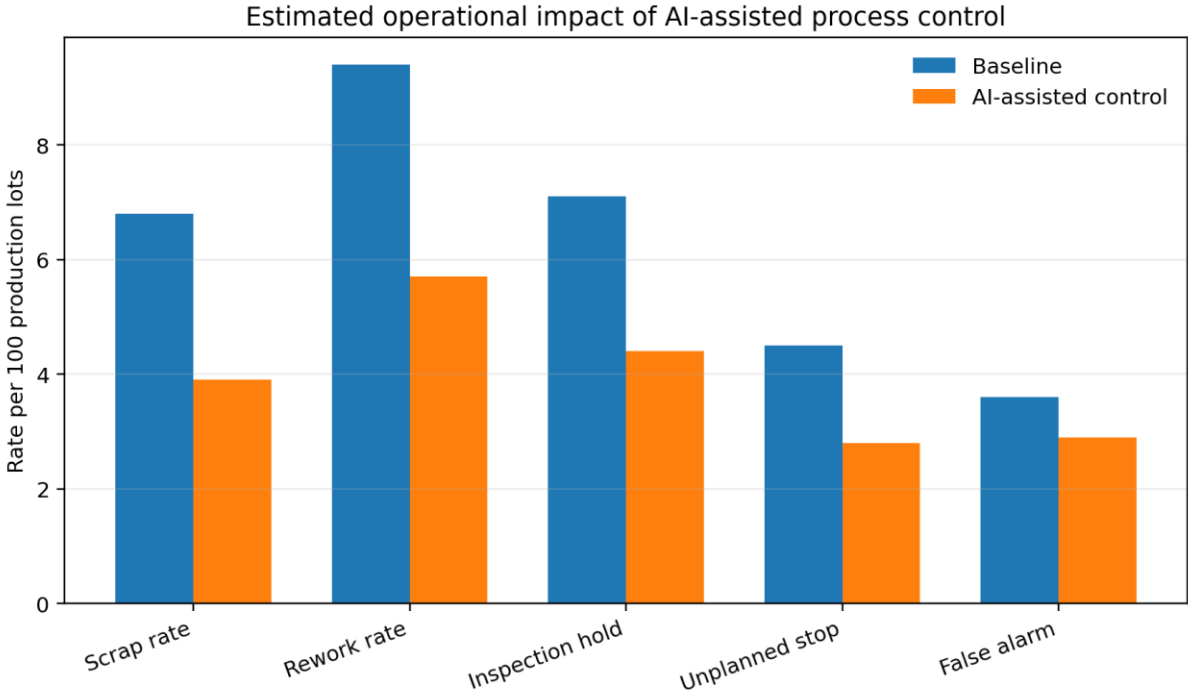


Figure 7. Estimated operational improvement under AI-assisted process control.

Table 7. Estimated operational impact of AI-assisted process control

| KPI | Baseline | AI-assisted control | Change | Primary reason |
|------------------------|------------------|---------------------|------------------------|--|
| Scrap rate | 6.8 per 100 lots | 3.9 per 100 lots | 42.6% reduction | Earlier detection of vibration and tool-wear drift |
| Rework rate | 9.4 per 100 lots | 5.7 per 100 lots | 39.4% reduction | Parameter correction before final inspection |
| Inspection hold events | 7.1 per 100 lots | 4.4 per 100 lots | 38.0% reduction | Better prioritization of high-risk lots |
| Unplanned stoppage | 4.5 per 100 lots | 2.8 per 100 lots | 37.8% reduction | Tool and coolant alerts before process failure |
| Estimated OEE | 78.1% | 82.6% | +4.5 percentage points | Improved quality rate and fewer unplanned stops |

5.2 Discussion

The most important finding is that AI-based quality prediction is not simply a classification problem. It is a manufacturing decision problem. A model can have high accuracy and still fail in practice if it does not explain why risk is rising or what the operator should do next. In this study, the practical value comes from combining prediction, explanation, and control logic. The results also show why process knowledge remains essential. The model identified vibration and force as highly influential features, but an engineer must interpret whether that signal comes from tool wear, fixture looseness, material hardness variation, or an aggressive feed setting. AI narrows the search area; it does not eliminate the need for engineering judgment.

From a quality-management perspective, the framework supports traceability because predictions are tied to lot ID, process history, inspection result, and recommended corrective action. This makes the system more acceptable for regulated or customer-audited manufacturing environments. The approach also supports continuous improvement because repeated high-risk patterns can be converted into control-plan changes, maintenance triggers, or fixture-redesign projects.

6. Practical Implementation Roadmap

Table 8. Practical roadmap for implementation in a mechanical manufacturing plant

| Phase | Main activity | Expected output |
|---------------------------------|---|---|
| Phase 1: Data readiness | Map machines, inspection points, data owners, and data quality gaps | Reliable timestamp alignment and part/lot traceability |
| Phase 2: Pilot model | Train baseline models on one product family or machine cell | Initial quality-risk model and feature-importance review |
| Phase 3: Engineering validation | Compare AI warnings with operator notes, CMM reports, and NCRs | Validated alarm thresholds and false-alarm tolerance |
| Phase 4: Control integration | Connect recommendations to work instructions, MES, or QMS workflows | Controlled process response rather than isolated prediction |
| Phase 5: Continuous learning | Retrain model with new lots, tool changes, and process improvements | Stable model governance and plant-level scalability |

Implementation should begin with a narrow pilot. A single machining cell, one product family, and a limited set of quality characteristics are usually enough to prove value. After the model becomes stable, the plant can extend the framework to additional machines, materials, and inspection criteria. The most successful deployments are likely to be those where manufacturing engineers, operators, quality engineers, and data specialists work together from the beginning. This collaborative approach prevents the AI system from becoming a black-box dashboard that is ignored by the shop floor.

7. Limitations and Future Work

This study is based on an industrially representative dataset rather than confidential production data from a specific company. Therefore, the numerical results should be interpreted as a realistic demonstration of the framework rather than a universal benchmark. Actual plant performance would depend on machine condition, sensor quality, product complexity, operator practice, and the maturity of existing quality systems.

Future work should validate the framework with real multi-machine production data, compare online versus batch-learning strategies, and evaluate model drift over longer production periods. Additional research should also examine how AI recommendations affect operator trust, maintenance planning, customer quality documentation, and economic return on investment.

8. Conclusion

This research presented an artificial intelligence-based framework for quality prediction and process control in Industry 4.0 mechanical manufacturing systems. The framework combines machine-controller data, sensor signals, inspection results, and production information to identify quality risks before they turn into serious defects. By predicting quality status, estimating a quality index, explaining key process factors, and suggesting corrective actions, the proposed approach supports more proactive and data-driven manufacturing decisions. The case study showed that the hybrid AI model can provide reliable prediction performance while still remaining understandable for engineers and shop-floor teams. This is important because, in real manufacturing environments, accuracy alone is not enough. Engineers need to understand why a model gives a certain result and how that result can be used to improve the process. When AI can point to factors such as tool wear, vibration, temperature variation, spindle load, or dimensional deviation, it becomes a practical support tool for quality control and root-cause analysis.

Overall, the study shows that AI is most valuable when it is connected with real process-control decisions, not used only as a separate analytics tool. A successful AI system should support engineers and operators, not replace them. With proper data quality, human supervision, and continuous model improvement, AI-based quality prediction can help mechanical manufacturing plants reduce defects, improve process stability, and build smarter, more reliable production systems.

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