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# A parametric lifetime model for a multicomponents system with spatial interactions

## F. Corset<sup>a</sup>, M. Fouladirad<sup>b\*</sup>, C. Paroissin<sup>c</sup>, E. Remy<sup>d</sup>

Summary: In this paper, we consider a system made of n components displayed on a structure (e.g. a steel plate). We define a parametric model for the hazard function which includes covariates and spatial interaction between components. The state (non-failed or failed) of each component is observed at some inspection times. From these data, we consider the problem of model parameter estimation. To achieve this, we suggest to use the SEM algorithm based on a pseudo-likelihood function. A definition for the time-to-failure of the system is given, generalizing the classical cases. A study based on numerical simulations is provided to illustrate the proposed approach.

Keywords: Parameter estimation, Pseudo-likelihood, SEM algorithm, Spatial physical interaction

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

The failure of industrial systems can cause irreversible damages, economic and human losses, and also bring an unrecoverable impact on the environment. In order to avoid such undesirable events, the system lifetime has to be studied, which implies to point out the interactions between the components constituting the system and to propose a tractable

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<sup>5</sup> model to describe and predict the system failure. A suitable model must be complex enough <sup>6</sup> to take into account most of the different features of the system and simple enough to <sup>7</sup> be used by practitioners in the field. One of the issues in system lifetime prediction is to <sup>8</sup> properly take into account the system behaviour which means on the one hand the impact <sup>9</sup> of the environmental conditions, and on the other hand the spatial interaction between the <sup>10</sup> components.

For complex equipment, it is convenient to define the system state by a binary random 11 variable. As long as the system is operational, its health indicator is equal to one and as soon 12 as a failure occurs the health indicator is equal to zero. This model can ignore the complexity 13 of the system and makes some potentially unrealistic, but necessary, simplifications on the 14 system lifetime distribution. However, in our context, it allows to take advantage of existing 15 results on binary data analysis with covariates and spatio-temporal models. Indeed, during 16 the last decades, a great attention has been given to this subject. In Diggle et al. [9] and 17 Gumpertz et al. [14], a marginal logistic regression model is used to characterize the impact 18 of covariates on binary data. These developments are based on the notion of neighbourhood 19 which is defined as a group of components related due to their spatial interaction. After the 20 definition of what is called a neighbourhood, Besag [2, 3] proposed an auto-logistic model for 21 spatial binary data, assuming a simple dependence on surrounding neighbours which may 22 interact with each other. The interest of this model is largely pointed out in the literature for 23 instance refer to [1, 12, 16, 20, 21, 22, 25]. They all brought out its simplicity and tractability 24 in presence of data. This model is extended by Gumpertz et al. and Huffer et al. [13, 17] in 25 order to integrate covariates. Afterwards, Zhu et al. [26] give another extension of this model 26 in order to take into account the temporal dependency. Later Caragea and Kaiser [5] point out 27 that these models are not suitable in the case of a neighbourhood with a large number of failed 28 components and propose a centered model in which the failure probability of each component 29 increases or decreases around the mean behaviour of the model describing the whole system. 30

Each of these models is used in the framework of parameter inference. The natural choice 31 of estimation technique for these models is the maximum likelihood method. However, for 32 the auto-logistic model with spatially correlated variables, the hypothesis of independence of 33 the observations is no longer valid. To overcome this difficulty, Besag [4] proposes to use the 34 pseudo-likelihood which mimics the likelihood function under the hypothesis of independence 35 of the observations. Its maximization is in general easy to implement and results have good 36 statistical properties when the considered neighbourhood is not very large [24, 11]. A Monte 37 Carlo maximum likelihood method is proposed by Geyer and Thompson [11]. Alternatively, 38 Zhu et al. [26] use maximum pseudo-likelihood for parameter estimation and develop a 39 Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) algorithm for predicting future observations. Li [18] 40 studies the existence of the joint distribution for a two-step centered auto-logistic causal 41 model by considering the process as a Markov chain Markov field [15]. However, since the 42 joint distribution is untractable, he proposes the expectation-maximization pseudo-likelihood 43 estimation method and studies its performance. 44

In this paper, the model is inspired by a real industrial system installed in electric power 45 plants of EDF, the main French electric utility company. This system may be assimilated to 46 a large plate vertically maintained by screws regularly distributed all over the surface of the 47 plate. The failure of one screw leads to an increase of mechanical stress on the other screws 48 surrounding the one that has failed, consequently increasing their own failure probability. 49 When a fixed number of failed screws is reached, the system is considered to be failed in turn 50 (the plate is no more sufficiently maintained and may fall down). In addition to this spatial 51 physical interaction between the screws, environmental conditions and material properties 52 may also impact the reliability of the screws, and thus the lifetime of the whole system. 53

Since the state (failed/non-failed) of the components is known thanks to inspections, the available data is binary but censored by interval and the main objective is to model both the impact of the covariates and the interactive neighbourhood on the components' lifetime. In

reliability analysis, the impact of environmental conditions on the systems lifetime is often 57 modelled via covariates through proportional hazards or additive hazards models [7, 19, 23]. 58 Therefore, in difference with the models studied in the literature and previously presented 59 in this section, we have here the constraint of using the hazard rate and we shall model the 60 impact of the spatial interaction on the failure rate of components. In this framework, we 61 integrate the censored data in the statistical inference and suggest a parameter estimation 62 procedure. Similarly to results previously exposed, a pseudo-maximum likelihood in the 63 framework of Monte Carlo simulations is proposed. 64

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, the problem statement and the survival model are described. Section 3 is devoted to parameter estimation and statistical studies. The system failure and time-to-failure distribution are detailed in Section 4. In Section 5, a numerical example is considered to illustrate the proposed methodology. The paper ends with a conclusion and some prospects.

#### 2. MODEL DESCRIPTION

We consider a system made of n components displayed on a structure, say, for instance, a 70 set of screws on a steel plate or on a steel cylinder, see Figure 1 giving an illustration of 71 such a system. We denote by  $V = \{1, \ldots, n\}$  the set of all components. Let  $T_1, \ldots, T_n$  be the 72 components' lifetimes. From these lifetimes, we can construct n binary stochastic processes 73 which switch from 0 to 1 after failure of the corresponding component: for any  $i \in V$  and for 74 any  $t \ge 0$ ,  $Y_i(t) = \mathbf{1}_{T_i \le t}$ . The failure of a component may lead to a higher mechanical stress 75 on the components in its neighbourhood. Hence, we aim at determining if each failure of a 76 component has an impact on the neighbouring components. This impact is assumed to lead 77 to an increase of the hazard function of these components. Let  $B_i$  be the neighbourhood 78 of the *i*-th component. We assume that symmetry about the neighbourhood holds, in the 79

sense that if  $i_1 \in B_{i_2}$  then  $i_2 \in B_{i_1}$ . This combination of components and neighbours can be viewed as a non-oriented graph where vertices are the components and where the edge between vertices  $i_1$  and  $i_2$  exists if  $i_1 \in B_{i_2}$ .

As the main example all along this paper, we assume that n is a square number and that 83 the components are located on a regular  $\sqrt{n} \times \sqrt{n}$  grid (of course, more complex topologies 84 could be considered). For such an example, natural definitions of neighbourhood are the 85 following ones. The first one is the case where the neighbourhood can be defined as the four 86 cardinal points (up to the edge effect): in such a case, a component will have between 2 and 4 87 neighbours (see Figure 1 on the left). A second example is the case where the neighbourhood 88 can be defined as the eight cardinal points (also up to the edge effect): in such a case, a 89 component will have between 3 and 8 neighbours (see Figure 1 on the right). Of course, 90 other neighbourhoods could be defined and also other system structures could be considered 91 (e.g. a cylinder). Note that sphericalness of the neighbourhood is not mandatory and, for 92 physical reasons, such assumption can be removed. 93

94

#### [Figure 1 about here.]

The lifetime distributions of the components will be defined through their hazard functions by considering that covariates and spatial interactions act multiplicatively on them. Let  $\mathcal{H}_{i,t}$ be the increasing  $\sigma$ -field generated by all the binary stochastic processes defined above, except the *i*-th one, and up to time *t*:

$$\mathcal{H}_{i,t} = \sigma\left(Y_j(s), s \leq t, j \in \{1, \dots, n\} \setminus \{i\}\right).$$

Since  $\mathcal{H}_{i,u} \subseteq \mathcal{H}_{i,t}$  for any  $u \leq t$ , therefore we have the following equality  $\lambda_i(u|\mathcal{H}_{i,u}) = \lambda_i(u|\mathcal{H}_{i,t})$  for  $u \leq t$ .

The hazard function of the *i*-th component, denoted  $\lambda_i$ , depends on the covariates and the state of its neighbours as follows:

$$\forall t \ge 0, \quad \lambda_i(t|\mathcal{H}_{i,t}) = \lambda(t) \exp\left(\alpha \sum_{j \in B_i} C_j(t) Y_j(t) + \beta' \mathbf{Z}_i(t)\right),\tag{1}$$

where  $\lambda(\cdot)$  is the baseline hazard function,  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$  and where, for the *i*-th component,  $\mathbf{Z}_i(\cdot)$  is a vector of p time-dependent covariates (environmental conditions, such as temperature, or material properties, such as steel plate, etc.) and  $C_j(\cdot)$ ,  $j \in B_i$ , is a time-dependent covariate (it may be one component of the vector  $\mathbf{Z}_j(\cdot)$ , e.g. the mechanical stress). In fact, it could be sufficient to condition with respect to  $\{Y_j(t), j \in B_i\}$  instead of  $\mathcal{H}_{i,t}$ , but it will be more convenient to condition on  $\mathcal{H}_{i,t}$  when considering the cumulative hazard function and/or the conditional survival function. Indeed, the conditional survival function of the *i*-th component is given by:

$$\forall t \ge 0, \quad S_i(t|\mathcal{H}_{i,t}) = \exp\left(-\int_0^t \lambda_i(u|\mathcal{H}_{i,u}) \mathrm{d}u\right)$$
(2)

If  $\alpha = 0$ , it corresponds to the standard Cox model with time-dependent covariates.

To simplify, we assume that  $\lambda$  is the hazard function of the Weibull distribution with scale parameter a > 0 and shape parameter b > 0:

$$\forall t \ge 0, \quad \lambda(t) = \frac{b}{a} \left(\frac{t}{a}\right)^{b-1}.$$
(3)

<sup>98</sup> However, any other parametric model could be considered for the baseline hazard function. <sup>99</sup> We illustrate the effect of the components' physical interaction through two simulations on <sup>100</sup> a square grid of 50 × 50 components, without imposing special impact from the mechanical <sup>101</sup> stress nor the other covariates (for all  $i \in V$ ,  $C_i(t) \equiv 1$  and  $\beta = 0$ ). The outputs are plotted <sup>102</sup> respectively in Figure 2 and Figure 3 (red points represent failed components). To perform <sup>103</sup> the simulations, we have used Algorithm 1 described in Sub-section 3.2. The parameter of the Weibull hazard function was set as follows: a = 2 and b = 2. Parameter  $\alpha$  has been set to 0 (no spatial interaction) and 2 (interaction). In both cases, the figures show the state of the system after 74, 274, 475 and 678 failures (for a total of 2500 components). We can observe that, on contrary to the model with physically independent components, clusters of failed components arise in the model with spatial interaction.

[Figure 2 about here.]

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[Figure 3 about here.]

In the next section, we will propose an estimation procedure for the different parameters involved in the model described above. The approach is based on the SEM algorithm, a stochastic version of the EM algorithm proposed by Celeux et al. [6]. To this purpose, we need to simulate missing observations and thus simulation algorithms will be provided.

#### 3. STATISTICAL INFERENCE

Assume that the system is not often inspected and the inspections are not necessarily 115 periodical. At each control, all the components of the system are inspected. Consequently 116 the inspection times are the same for all the components: we will denote by m the number 117 of inspections and by  $\tau_1 < \cdots < \tau_m$  the associated deterministic times. The available data 118 at each inspection time is a binary information on whether each component is failed or 119 not. Since the failures may occur between two successive controls, the data are interval-120 censored. Here, we neglect the possibility of non-detection of a failure during an inspection. 121 For the time-dependent covariates  $C_1, \ldots, C_n$  and  $Z_1, \ldots, Z_n$ , it will be assumed that they 122 are observed continuously, otherwise they will be constant piece-wise or linear piece-wise 123 interpolated. 124

In Sub-section 3.1, we provide a methodology to estimate the parameters of the model (we consider a simplified parametric model). This approach requires to simulate missing data and the useful simulation algorithms are detailed in Sub-section 3.2.

#### <sup>128</sup> 3.1. Parameter estimation

<sup>129</sup> In order to proceed parameter estimation, first the expression of the likelihood function is <sup>130</sup> given. It is highlighted that it is numerically too complex to use this function to estimate <sup>131</sup> the model parameters. Hence, we suggest to rather use the SEM algorithm jointly with a <sup>132</sup> pseudo-likelihood function. Before giving details about the proposed approach, we introduce <sup>133</sup> some notations.

#### 134 3.1.1. Notation

We shall denote by  $\mathbf{Y}_{obs}$  the set of all the observations  $\{Y_i(\tau_j), i \in V, j \in \{1, \ldots, m\}\}$ . Notice that  $\mathbf{Y}_{obs} \in \bigcup_{i=1}^n \mathcal{H}_{i,\tau_m}$ . Let  $\mathcal{N}_1$  be the set of all failed components at the last inspection time  $\tau_m$ . For a component  $i, 1 \leq i \leq n$ , let  $j_i = \min\{j; Y_i(\tau_j) = 1\} \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$  be the inspection time such that the failure of component i is observed for the first time. Thus, for the *i*-th component, the failure occurs between  $\tau_{j_i-1}$  and  $\tau_{j_i}$ . For convenience, we denote by  $I_r$  the set of components failing between  $\tau_{r-1}$  and  $\tau_r$  for any  $r \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$  (with the convention that  $\tau_0 = 0$ ):

$$I_r = \{i \in \mathcal{N}_1; j_i = r\} \quad \text{and} \quad n_r = |I_r|.$$

Hence, we have  $\mathcal{N}_1 = I_1 \cup \cdots \cup I_m$ . Let  $I_{m+1} = V \setminus \mathcal{N}_1$  be the set of all components that have survived until the last inspection time  $\tau_m$ . Let  $n_{m+1} = |I_{m+1}|$ . Clearly we have  $n = n_1 + \cdots + n_m + n_{m+1}$ . For any  $r \in \{1, \ldots, m+1\}$ , let  $\mathcal{A}_r = \{T_i \in (\tau_{r-1}, \tau_r]; i \in I_r\}$ , with  $\tau_0 = 0$  and  $\tau_{m+1} = +\infty$ , be the set of events consisting of the components failed between  $\tau_{r-1}$  and  $\tau_r$ .

### <sup>140</sup> 3.1.2. Likelihood function expression and the encountered difficulties

The likelihood function can be expressed as follows:

$$L(\alpha, \beta, a, b; \mathbf{Y}_{obs}; C_1, \dots, C_n, \mathbf{Z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{Z}_n) = \mathbb{P}[\mathcal{A}_1] \mathbb{P}[\mathcal{A}_2 | \mathcal{A}_1] \mathbb{P}[\mathcal{A}_3 | \mathcal{A}_1 \cap \mathcal{A}_2]$$
$$\times \dots \times \mathbb{P}[\mathcal{A}_m | \mathcal{A}_1 \cap \dots \cap \mathcal{A}_{m-1}] \mathbb{P}[\mathcal{A}_{m+1} | \mathcal{A}_1 \cap \dots \cap \mathcal{A}_m].$$

Let us compute  $\mathbb{P}[\mathcal{A}_1]$ :

$$\mathbb{P}[\mathcal{A}_1] = \sum_{\sigma_1 \in \Sigma_1} \mathbb{P}[0 < T_{\sigma_1(i_1)} < \dots < T_{\sigma_1(i_{n_1})} < \tau_1]$$

where  $\Sigma_1$  is the set of all permutations of elements  $\{i_1, \ldots, i_{n_1}\}$  in  $I_1$ . We shall recall that  $|\Sigma_1| = n_1!$ . Next step consists in assessing all these  $n_1!$  probabilities:

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}[0 < T_{\sigma_{1}(i_{1})} < \cdots < T_{\sigma_{1}(i_{n_{1}})} < \tau_{1}] \\ &= \int_{0}^{\tau_{1}} \mathbb{P}[0 < T_{\sigma_{1}(i_{1})} < \cdots < T_{\sigma_{1}(i_{n_{1}})} < \tau_{1} | T_{\sigma_{1}(i_{1})} = u_{1}] f_{T_{\sigma_{1}(i_{1})}}(u_{1}) \mathrm{d}u_{1} \\ &= \int_{0}^{\tau_{1}} \mathbb{P}[u_{1} < T_{\sigma_{1}(i_{2})} < \cdots < T_{\sigma_{1}(i_{n_{1}})} < \tau_{1} | T_{\sigma_{1}(i_{1})} = u_{1}] f_{T_{\sigma_{1}(i_{1})}}(u_{1}) \mathrm{d}u_{1} \end{split}$$

where

$$f_{T_{\sigma_1(i_1)}}(u_1) = \frac{b}{a} \left(\frac{u_1}{a}\right)^{b-1} \exp\left(-\left(\frac{u_1}{a}\right)^b\right).$$

Now we compute the inner probability. In the same way,

$$\mathbb{P}[u_1 < T_{\sigma_1(i_2)} < \dots < T_{\sigma_1(i_{n_1})} < \tau_1 | T_{\sigma_1(i_1)} = u_1] \\ = \int_{u_1}^{\tau_1} \mathbb{P}[u_2 < T_{\sigma_1(i_3)} < \dots < T_{\sigma_1(i_{n_1})} < \tau_1 | T_{\sigma_1(i_2)} = u_2] f_{T_{\sigma_1(i_2)} | T_{\sigma_1(i_1)}}(u_2 | u_1) \mathrm{d}u_2$$

where

$$f_{T_{\sigma_1(i_2)}|T_{\sigma_1(i_1)}}(u_2|u_1) = \lambda_{T_{\sigma_1(i_2)}|T_{\sigma_1(i_1)}}(u_2|u_1) \exp\left(-\int_0^{u_2} \lambda_{T_{\sigma_1(i_2)}|T_{\sigma_1(i_1)}}(v|u_1) \mathrm{d}v\right)$$

with

$$\lambda_{T_{\sigma_1(i_2)}|T_{\sigma_1(i_1)}}(v|u_1) = \frac{b}{a} \left(\frac{v}{a}\right)^{b-1} \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\beta}' \boldsymbol{Z}_{i_2}(v)\right)$$

if  $i_2 \notin B_{i_1}$ , and with

$$\lambda_{T_{\sigma_1(i_2)}|T_{\sigma_1(i_1)}}(v|u_1) = \begin{cases} \frac{b}{a} \left(\frac{v}{a}\right)^{b-1} \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\beta}' \boldsymbol{Z}_{i_2}(v)\right) & \text{for } v \le u_1 \\ \frac{b}{a} \left(\frac{v}{a}\right)^{b-1} \exp\left(\alpha C_{i_1}(v) + \boldsymbol{\beta}' \boldsymbol{Z}_{i_2}(v)\right) & \text{for } v > u_1 \end{cases}$$

if  $i_2 \in B_{i_1}$ . Finally the probability  $\mathbb{P}[\mathcal{A}_1]$  appears to be a  $n_1$ -dimensional integral and thus its contribution to the likelihood function is the sum of  $n_1$ ! integrals in dimension  $n_1$ . It will be similar for other contributions: for any  $j \in \{1, \ldots, m+1\}$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}_j | \bigcap_{i=1}^{j-1} \mathcal{A}_i)$  is the sum of  $n_j$ ! integrals in dimension  $n_j$ .

Consequently two problems may arise with the direct MLE method if some of the  $n_1, \ldots,$ 145  $n_{m+1}$  are too large: (1) at each step of the optimization algorithm, a numerical procedure has 146 to be used to compute an integral in possibly high dimension; (2) a combinatorial explosion 147 when considering the different permutations. To avoid such problems, an alternative method 148 is proposed. Before presenting this approach, we discuss some special cases. For instance, the 149 two previously mentioned problems will not arise if  $n_j \leq 2$  for all  $j \in \{1, \ldots, m+1\}$ . This 150 may occur if m is close to n and if the components' lifetimes are uniformly distributed 151 between 0 and  $\tau_m$ . However, spatial physical interaction between components reinforces 152 clusters of failed components (as shown in the simulations, see Figure 3), thus this particular 153 case may arise essentially when there is no interaction between components. 154

To conclude the section, we give the likelihood function when components are physically independent (i.e., when  $\alpha = 0$ ) and when there is no effect of the covariates (i.e.,  $\beta = 0$ ),

since we will need it later:

$$\log L(a,b;\mathbf{Y}_{obs}) = \sum_{r=1}^{m} n_r \log \left[ S(\tau_{r-1};a,b) - S(\tau_r;a,b) \right] + n_{m+1} \log \left[ S(\tau_m;a,b) \right]$$
(4)

with

$$\forall t \ge 0, \quad S(t;a,b) = \exp\left(-\left(\frac{t}{a}\right)^b\right).$$

#### 155 3.1.3. SEM algorithm and pseudo-likelihood

As seen above, the maximum likelihood estimator of the parameters cannot be computed 156 neither in a closed-form, nor numerically. Due to the censoring mechanism (failure times 157 are never observed exactly, only interval censored data are available), we have a problem 158 of missing observations. Indeed, hazard functions depend on binary stochastic processes 159  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$  which are only observed at inspection times. A solution to this problem consists 160 in applying the SEM algorithm. This algorithm requires to simulate the missing data, which 161 are the times-to-failure of the components (this will be described in the next sub-section). 162 The SEM algorithm is described below. 163

Step 0: parameter initialization. In equation 1, set  $\hat{\alpha}^{(0)} = 0$  and  $\hat{\beta}^{(0)} = 0$  (no effect). Parameters *a* and *b* can thus be estimated by maximizing the equation (4)(since components are not interacting):  $\hat{a}^{(0)}$  and  $\hat{b}^{(0)}$ .

- $_{167}$  Step k: time-to-failures simulation and updating estimation.
- 1. simulate  $T_1, \ldots, T_n$  using Algorithm 2 (see next Sub-section) and considering parameters  $\hat{\alpha}^{(k-1)}, \hat{\beta}^{(k-1)}, \hat{a}^{(k-1)}$  and  $\hat{b}^{(k-1)};$
- 2. update the estimation by maximizing numerically the log-likelihood function:  $\hat{\beta}^{(k)}$ ,  $\hat{\alpha}^{(k)}, \hat{a}^{(k)}$  and  $\hat{b}^{(k)}$ .

The final estimator is then given by considering the ergodic average of the estimators. After K iterations of the algorithm, let:

$$\widehat{\alpha} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \widehat{\alpha}^{(k)}, \quad \widehat{\beta} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \widehat{\beta}^{(k)}, \quad \widehat{a} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \widehat{a}^{(k)} \quad \text{and} \quad \widehat{b} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \widehat{b}^{(k)}.$$

To finish the description of this approach, the expression of the likelihood function is provided. Algorithm 2 simulates in fact the random vector of order statistics  $T_{(1)}, \ldots, T_{(n)}$ (notice that the algorithm simulates also the random vector of rank statistics and let us recall that the knowledge of these two random vectors is equivalent to the knowledge of  $T_1, \ldots, T_n$ ). Hence, a likelihood function may be defined from such simulated data. However, a drawback of this approach is that it relies too strongly on the simulated missing observations and may fail (in fact, SEM is mainly used for unsupervised classification problem and, in such problems, only labels are not observed, so "less" data is not observed and less information is missing). For this reason, it is suggested to use the SEM algorithm based on a pseudolikelihood function which is obtained by ignoring the dependency between observations. Pseudo-likelihood functions have been successfully considered in the literature, see, e.g., [8]. Here, we propose the following pseudo-likelihood function based on Equation (2):

$$pL(\alpha, \boldsymbol{\beta}, a, b; \mathbf{Y}_{obs}, C_1, \dots, C_n, Z_1, \dots, Z_n, t_1, \dots, t_n)$$

$$= \prod_{i \notin \mathcal{N}_1} S_i(\tau_m | \mathcal{H}_{i,\tau_m}) \prod_{i \in \mathcal{N}_1} [S_i(\tau_{j_i-1} | \mathcal{H}_{i,\tau_m}) - S_i(\tau_{j_i} | \mathcal{H}_{i,\tau_m})]$$

$$= \prod_{i \in I_{m+1}} S_i(\tau_m | \mathcal{H}_{i,\tau_m}) \prod_{r=1}^m \prod_{i \in I_r} [S_i(\tau_{r-1} | \mathcal{H}_{i,\tau_m}) - S_i(\tau_r | \mathcal{H}_{i,\tau_m})]$$

(a product over an empty set is considered to be equal to 1) where  $t_1, \ldots, t_n$  are the missing observation which are reconstructed by using Algorithm 2. In fact, the simulated lifetimes are only used to determine the order of failureness of each components.

#### 175 3.2. Simulation algorithms

In this section, several simulation procedures are proposed. The first one will allow to simulate
data that will be used in the next section for the numerical illustrations of the methodology.
The second algorithm is used within the SEM algorithm.

#### 179 3.2.1. Data generation algorithm

To generate lifetimes from the model described in Section 2, we can apply Algorithm 1. It draws the lifetimes  $T_1, \ldots, T_n$  and allows to construct the stochastic processes  $Y_1(\cdot), \ldots, Y_n(\cdot)$ . At least, to get data as considered in the previous Sub-section, we have to sample  $Y_1(\cdot), \ldots, Y_n(\cdot)$  at times  $\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_m$ . To achieve this, we can stop Algorithm 1 at step rsuch that  $T_{i_{r-1}} < \tau_m < T_{i_r}$  (it is not useful to simulate all the n lifetimes).

**Require:**  $n, a, b, \alpha, \beta, \mathbf{Z}_1(\cdot), \ldots, \mathbf{Z}_n(\cdot)$ 

- 1:  $T \leftarrow \text{Vector}(\text{length} = n)$
- 2:  $\tilde{T} \leftarrow \text{Vector}(\text{length} = n)$
- 3: draw  $U_1, \ldots, U_n$  i.i.d. from the uniform distribution over [0; 1]
- 4:  $\{\underline{\text{Step 1}}\}$
- 5: set  $\overline{R} \leftarrow \{1, \dots, n\}$  {set of non-failed components}
- 6: draw  $\tilde{T}_1, \ldots, \tilde{T}_n$  by solving the following equation with respect to  $t_1, \ldots, t_n$ :

$$\log(U_i) + \int_0^{t_i} \lambda(s) \exp(\boldsymbol{\beta}' \boldsymbol{Z}_i(s)) \, \mathrm{d}s = 0$$

7:  $i_1 \leftarrow \operatorname{argmin}_{j \in R} \tilde{T}_j \{ \text{select the next component to fail} \}$ 

- 8:  $T_{i_1} \leftarrow \tilde{T}_{i_1} \{ \text{store the next failure times} \}$
- 9: for  $r \in \{2, ..., n\}$  do
- 10:  $\{\underline{\operatorname{Step} r}\}$
- 11:  $\overline{R \leftarrow R} \setminus \{i_{r-1}\} \{ \text{update the set of non-failed components} \}$
- 12: for  $j \in B_{i_{r-1}} \cap R$  do
- 13: draw  $\tilde{T}_j$  by solving the following equation with respect to  $t_j$ :

$$\log(U_j) + \int_{T_{i_{r-1}}}^{t_j} \lambda(s) \exp\left(\alpha \sum_{k \in B_j} C_k(s) Y_k(s) + \beta' \mathbf{Z}_j(s)\right) \, \mathrm{d}s = 0$$

```
14: end for
```

15:  $i_r \leftarrow \operatorname{argmin}_{j \in R} \tilde{T}_j \{ \text{select the next component to fail} \}$ 

16:  $T_{i_r} \leftarrow \tilde{T}_{i_r} \{ \text{store the next failure times} \}$ 

17: end for 18: return  $T_1, \ldots, T_n$ 

#### <sup>185</sup> 3.2.2. Simulation algorithm using observation data

In this paragraph, the general idea of the algorithm required to use the SEM algorithm is described. Roughly speaking, the idea is to simulate data by considering the successive observation intervals. Recall that, for any  $j \in \{1, ..., m\}$ ,  $I_j$  is the set of components whose lifetimes are between  $\tau_{j-1}$  and  $\tau_j$  and  $I_{m+1}$  is the set of non-failed components at the last inspection time  $\tau_m$ . The procedure starts by simulating lifetimes for components in  $I_1$ , then in  $I_2$ , and so on. Algorithm 2 describes the suggested approach.

#### 4. SYSTEM TIME-TO-FAILURE

<sup>192</sup> A definition of the system time-to-failure (system TTF, in short) can be based on a spatial <sup>193</sup> extension of consecutive k out of n systems. In such a model, when components are displayed <sup>194</sup> on a line (which appears to be a special case of our model) or on a circle, the system <sup>195</sup> is assumed to be failed as soon as k consecutive components have failed. To achieve this <sup>196</sup> generalization, several notations and random variables are introduced.

Let us recall that  $V = \{1, ..., n\}$  denotes the set of all components. For any subset  $U \subseteq V$ , set  $\mathcal{T}_U = \max_{i \in U}(T_i)$ . It corresponds to the time such that all components in U have failed. Next, for any  $k \in \{1, ..., n\}$ , let :

$$\mathcal{U}_k = \{ U \subseteq V; |U| = k \text{ and } U \text{ is connected} \}$$

be the set of all subsets made of k connected components. We recall that two components are connected if they are neighbours (in other words, if there exists an edge between these two components) and that a sub-graph is connected if there exists a path between any two components in this sub-graph. Imposing the connectivity of U is important due to the spatial interaction of the components. We could also impose a condition on the diameter of the subgraph as follows (recall that the diameter of a graph is the longest shortest path between **Require:**  $n, a, b, \alpha, \beta, Z_1(\cdot), \ldots, Z_n(\cdot), \mathbf{Y}_{obs}$ 

- 1:  $T \leftarrow \text{Vector}(\text{length} = n)$
- 2:  $\tilde{T} \leftarrow \text{Vector}(\text{length} = n)$
- 3: draw  $U_1, \ldots, U_n$  i.i.d. from the uniform distribution over [0; 1]
- 4: {Interval  $I_1$ }
- 5:  $R \leftarrow I_1$  {set of non-failed components in  $I_1$ }
- 6: for  $j \in I_1$  do

7: draw  $\tilde{T}_i$  by solving the following equation with respect to  $t_i$ :

$$\log(U_j) + \int_0^{t_j} \lambda(s) \exp(\boldsymbol{\beta}' \boldsymbol{Z}_j(s)) \, \mathrm{d}s = 0$$

8: end for

9:  $h \leftarrow \operatorname{argmin}_{j \in R} \tilde{T}_j$  {select the next component to fail}

- 10:  $T_h \leftarrow \tilde{T}_h$  {store the next failure times}
- 11: if  $n_1 > 1$  then
- 12: **for**  $r \in \{2, \dots, n_1\}$  **do**
- 13:  $R \leftarrow R \setminus \{h\}$  {update the set of non-failed components in  $I_1$ }
- 14: for  $j \in B_h \cap R$  do
- 15: draw  $\tilde{T}_j$  by solving the following equation with respect to  $t_j$ :

$$\log(U_j) + \int_{T_h}^{t_j} \lambda(s) \exp\left(\alpha \sum_{k \in B_j} C_k(s) Y_k(s) + \beta' \mathbf{Z}_j(s)\right) \, \mathrm{d}s = 0$$

- 16: **end for**
- 17:  $h \leftarrow \operatorname{argmin}_{j \in R} \tilde{T}_j \{ \text{select the next component to fail} \}$
- 18:  $T_h \leftarrow \tilde{T}_h$  {store the next failure times}

19: end for

20: end if

21: for  $i \in \{2, ..., m\}$  do

22: {Interval  $I_i$ }

23:  $R \leftarrow I_i$ 

- 24: **if**  $n_i > 0$  **then**
- 25: for  $j \in I_i$  do

26: draw  $T_j$  by solving the following equation with respect to  $t_j$ :

$$\log(U_j) + \int_{\tau_{i-1}}^{t_j} \lambda(s) \exp\left(\alpha \sum_{k \in B_j} C_k(s) Y_k(s) + \beta' \mathbf{Z}_j(s)\right) \, \mathrm{d}s = 0$$

27: end for

32:

34:

- 28:  $h \leftarrow \operatorname{argmin}_{j \in R} \tilde{T}_j \{ \text{select the next component to fail} \}$
- 29:  $T_h \leftarrow \tilde{T}_h$  {store the next failure times}
- 30: if  $n_i > 1$  then
- 31: **for**  $r \in \{2, ..., n_i\}$  **do** 
  - $R \leftarrow R \setminus \{h\}$  {update the set of non-failed components in  $I_i$ }
- 33: for  $j \in B_h \cap R$  do

draw  $\tilde{T}_i$  by solving the following equation with respect to  $t_i$ :

$$\log(U_j) + \int_{T_h}^{t_j} \lambda(s) \exp\left(\alpha \sum_{k \in B_j} C_k(s) Y_k(s) + \beta' \mathbf{Z}_j(s)\right) \, \mathrm{d}s = 0$$

- 35: end for
- 36:  $h \leftarrow \operatorname{argmin}_{j \in R} \tilde{T}_j \{ \text{select the next component to fail} \}$
- 37:  $T_h \leftarrow \tilde{T}_h \{ \text{store the next failure times} \}$
- 38: end for

39: end if

40: end if

41: **end for** 

42: return  $T_1, \ldots, T_n$ 

Algorithm 2: Lifetimes simulation based on observations  $\mathbf{Y}_{obs}$ 

any two vertices):

$$\mathfrak{U}_{k,d} = \{ U \subseteq V; |U| = k, \ U \text{ is connected } and diam(U) = d \}$$

with  $d \leq k \leq n$  (the case with d = k is when failed components are aligned). In the sequel, we will only consider  $\mathcal{U}_k$  for defining the system TTF, but of course similar definition for the system TTF can be obtained by considering  $\mathcal{U}_{k,d}$ .

Now, let us define the system TTF  $\mathcal{T}$  of the system as follows:

$$\mathfrak{T} = \min_{U \in \mathfrak{U}_k} (\mathfrak{T}_U).$$

Hence,  $\mathcal{T}$  is the first time that k connected components have all failed. We can clearly recover the classical cases of parallel and series systems. Indeed, if k = n, then  $\mathcal{U}_n = V = \{1, \ldots, n\}$ and thus  $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{T}_V = \max(T_1, \ldots, T_n)$ : this is a parallel system made of n identical components. If k = 1, then  $\mathcal{U}_1 = \{\{i\}, 1 \le i \le n\}$  is just the set of a single component and thus  $\mathcal{T}_{\{i\}} = T_i$ and  $\mathcal{T} = \min(T_i)$ : this is a series system composed by n identical components.

Now the survival function of the system TTF can be derived. For any  $t \ge 0$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}[\mathbb{T} \ge t] = \mathbb{P}[\min_{U \in \mathcal{U}_k}(\mathbb{T}_U) \ge t] = \mathbb{P}[\forall U \in \mathcal{U}_k, \mathbb{T}_U \ge t].$$

Since  $\{\mathcal{T}_U, U \in \mathcal{U}_k\}$  is not a set of independent random variables, the survival function of 205  $\mathcal{T}$  cannot be computed explicitly. A solution is to estimate it through simulation. However, 206 the simulation of system TTF is also a challenging problem, since we have to detect the first 207 time that k connected components fail. A brutal way to achieve this consists in enumerating 208 the set of k connected components and, at each step of the simulation algorithm, to check if 209 the failure of a new component induces that there exists such a sub-graph with only failed 210 components. Such an enumerating task is a well known difficult problem and the number 211 of k connected components is increasing exponentially with k (see the sequence A000088) 212

in the OEIS - On-Line Encyclopedia of Integer Sequences - for the number of graphs on kunlabelled nodes). Clearly, the event of k connected failed components may arise quickly in presence of interaction between components.

To illustrate this approach, a numerical study will end this section. Let us consider a grid 216 made of  $10 \times 10$  components without imposing special impact from the mechanical stress 217 nor the other covariates (for all  $i \in V$ ,  $C_i \equiv 0$  and  $\beta = 0$ ). For the baseline distribution, 218 parameters are set as follows: a = 2 and  $b \in \{1.5, 3\}$ . For the parameter modelling the 219 physical interaction between components, let us consider three different values:  $\alpha \in \{0, 3, 5\}$ 220 (from no interaction to strong interaction). At last,  $k \in \{4, 9, 16\}$ . However, for sake of 221 simplicity, only square shapes are considered for the sub-graphs (instead of any connected 222 sub-graph with k vertices). Based on 1,000 simulations, empirical means and standard 223 deviations of system TTF are reported in Table 1. The empirical survival curves are 224 represented in Figure 4. 225

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[Figure 4 about here.]

It can be noticed in Figure 4 that when parameter  $\alpha$  grows, the system lifetime decreases. Indeed,  $\alpha$  quantifies the interaction level between components in a neighbourhood. As  $\alpha$ increases, the impact of a component failure on the lifetime of its neighbours becomes more significant. Therefore, for high values of  $\alpha$ , the number of failed components increases and the system failure becomes more imminent. Thus, it is logical to obtain results given in Table 1 where the MTTF of the system decreases when  $\alpha$  increases.

Regarding parameter b, the shape parameter of the Weibull distribution (baseline hazard rate), we can notice its impact on the system MTTF in Table 1. For  $\alpha > 0$  as b grows the empirical means and standard deviations increase. In cases  $k \in \{9, 16\}$  for  $\alpha = 0$  as b grows the empirical means and standard deviations decrease.

#### 5. NUMERICAL ILLUSTRATIONS

In this section, the SEM algorithm described above is illustrated on simulated data. For sake of simplicity, assume that:

• components are displayed on a  $\sqrt{n} \times \sqrt{n}$  grid;

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• the inspection times are time equally spaced, say  $\tau_k = k\delta$  for some  $\delta > 0, 1 \le k \le m$ ;

• the baseline hazard function is defined in equation 3.

We also consider the basic model where there is no covariate, nor specific impact of the mechanical stress, but only a neighbourhood effect. In other words,  $C_{i,j} \equiv 1$  and  $\mathbf{Z}_{i,j} \equiv 0$  for any  $(i, j) \in \{1, \ldots, n\}^2$ :

$$\forall t \ge 0, \quad \lambda_{i,j}(t|\mathcal{H}_{(i,j),t}) = \lambda(t) \exp\left(\alpha \sum_{(i',j') \in B_{i,j}} Y_{i',j'}(t)\right).$$

In Table 2, the Root mean Square Errors (RMSE) of the parameter estimates are presented 243 for different inspection steps  $\delta \in \{0.1, 0.5\}$  and censoring rates  $\{20\%, 50\%\}$ . The real 244 parameters are set as follows: a = 2, b = 3 and  $\alpha = 1$ . We have considered a  $20 \times 20$  grid and 245 performed 50 iterations of the SEM algorithm. The Root mean Square Errors of estimated 246 values have been computed by considering 50 repetitions. When the sampling is very frequent, 247 the increase of the censoring rate has no substantial impact on the RMSE. But when 248 the sampling is less frequent, the censoring rate can significantly degrade the RMSE. The 249 relatively small values of RMSE bring out the performance of our estimation method. 250

<sup>251</sup> [Table 2 about here.]

#### 6. CONCLUDING REMARKS

<sup>252</sup> In this paper, we have considered a model allowing a physical interaction between the <sup>253</sup> components. This interaction is based on a choice of a spatial neighbourhood for the <sup>254</sup> components. For such a model, we proposed a methodology to estimate the parameters using <sup>255</sup> the SEM algorithm which requires appropriate simulation algorithms. These algorithms seem <sup>256</sup> to be efficient, and they are expected to have the following behaviour: (a) the 'larger' the <sup>257</sup> neighbourhood is, the slower the algorithm reaches its stationary regime; (b) the 'larger' the <sup>258</sup> interval between two inspections is (say, as in the example studied in Section 5, the larger <sup>259</sup>  $\delta$  is), the slower the algorithm converges.

As examples of more sophisticated models, we may consider the following ones.

1) Model with covariates and without covariates  $(C_i(t) = 1, i \in \mathbb{N})$ : consider a random time-dependent covariate as follows

$$Z_{i,j}(t) = A_{i,j}\phi(t),$$

where  $A_{i,j}$  are independent and identically distributed random variables and  $\phi$  is for example one of the following deterministic functions: (a) constant:  $\phi(t) = w$ ; (b) linear:  $\phi(t) = wt$ ; (c) periodic:  $\phi(t) = w \cos\left(\frac{2\pi t}{q}\right)$ .

2) Model without covariates ( $\beta = 0$ ) and with more complex impact of mechanical stress: the stress may be applied at the center of the grid (for sake of simplicity, set n = 2p + 1) and be diffused isotropically from the center as follows:

$$C_{i,j}(t) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{\sigma^2}\left((i-p-1)^2 + (j-p-1)^2\right)\right).$$

3) Model with both covariates and mechanical stress: for this last case, we may combine
 the covariates and the constraint introduced above.

This paper focused on the case of a parametric shape for the baseline hazard function. In fact, the original Cox model is a semi-parametric model: the baseline hazard function is a functional parameter (any positive function) while the parameters allowing to consider covariates are Euclidean parameters. Our assumption of fully parametric model can be <sup>270</sup> relaxed as it is done in the Cox model and a similar approach (as the one usually done <sup>271</sup> with the Cox model) can be adopted by considering profile likelihood function (see e.g. [10]). <sup>272</sup> For short term perspectives, we can extend the numerical illustrations for the Time-To-<sup>273</sup> Failure, etc. Other definitions of the system failure can be considered and the system TTF <sup>274</sup> distribution be calculated accordingly. The impact of covariates can also be modelled through <sup>275</sup> another type of models such as accelerated failure time ones.

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### FIGURES



Figure 1. Illustrations of neighbourhoods: case of at most 4 neighbours (left) and case of at most 8 neighbours (right)

### FIGURES



Figure 2. Case of lifetimes without physical neighbourhood interaction ( $\alpha = 0$ ): plot of failed components after 74, 274, 475 and 678 failures



Figure 3. Case of lifetimes with physical neighbourhood interaction ( $\alpha > 0$ ): plot of failed components after 74, 274, 475 and 678 failures



Figure 4. Empirical survival function of the system TTF with k = 4, a = 2, b = 3 and for different values of  $\alpha$ 

## TABLES

**Table 1.** Comparison of empirical means and standard deviations of system TTF for a = 2and for different values of  $\alpha$ , b and k

$k = 2 \times 2 = 4$					
	b = 1.5		b = 3		
$\alpha$	Emp. mean	Emp. std dev.	Emp. mean	Emp. std dev.	
0	1.0876427	0.26016099	1.4638320	0.18031572	
3	0.1945712	0.06079317	0.6161269	0.09767111	
5	0.1077648	0.05126087	0.4520419	0.10582526	
$k = 3 \times 3 = 9$					
	b = 1.5		b = 3		
$\alpha$	Emp. mean	Emp. std dev.	Emp. mean	Emp. std dev.	
0	2.0649072	0.34523175	2.0249579	0.17143298	
3	0.2382229	0.06000859	0.6847956	0.08665092	
5	0.1173860	0.04992673	0.4744119	0.09856479	
$k = 4 \times 4 = 16$					
	b = 1.5		b = 3		
$\alpha$	Emp. mean	Emp. std dev.	Emp. mean	Emp. std dev.	
0	2.1105592	0.36572650	2.0466196	0.18027440	
3	0.2560497	0.06160885	0.7104521	0.08581691	
5	0.1220024	0.04954813	0.4846096	0.09574726	

**Table 2.** The Root Mean Square Error of estimated values  $(\hat{a}, \hat{b}, \hat{\alpha})$  where a = 2, b = 3 and  $\alpha = 1$ 

$\begin{array}{c} \text{censoring rate} \\ \text{inspection step } \delta \end{array}$	0.2	0.5
0.1	(0.3494, 0.5352, 0.1589)	$(0.3562 \ 0.5627 \ 0.1802)$
0.5	$(0.9932 \ 0.6844 \ 0.2321)$	$(1.2623\ 0.7665\ 0.2491)$