

# A Novel Neutrosophic-based Machine Learning Approach for Maintenance Prioritization in Healthcare Facilities

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## Abstract

The development of decision support tools for use in the maintenance management and renewal prioritization of healthcare facility assets is considered a highly challenging task due to the multiplicity of uncertainties and subjectivity levels available in such a decision-making process. Accordingly, this study utilizes a combination of Neutrosophic logic, Analytic Network Process (ANP) and Multi-Attribute Utility Theory (MAUT) to reduce the subjectivity pertaining to expert-driven decisions and produce a reliable ranking of hospital building assets based on their variable criticality levels and performance deficiencies. This is further integrated with the novel use of machine learning algorithms in this field, namely: Decision Trees, K-Nearest Neighbors and Naïve Bayes to automate the priority setting process and make it reproducible diminishing the need for additional expert judgments. The developed model was applied to Canadian healthcare facilities, and its corresponding predictive performance was validated by means of comparison against a

23 previously established model, and its excelling capability was clearly demonstrated. Accordingly,  
24 the developed integrated framework is expected to aid in creating a consistent, unbiased and  
25 automated prioritization scheme for hospital asset renewals, which in turn is expected to contribute  
26 to an efficient, informed and sound resources allocation process.

## 27 **Keywords**

28 Neutrosophic Logic; Analytic Network Process; Multi-Attribute Utility Theory; Decision Tree; K-  
29 Nearest Neighbors; Naïve Bayes; Healthcare Facilities

## 30 **1 Introduction**

31 Asset Management can be defined as the process of evaluating the value of assets within an  
32 organizational hierarchy. Maintenance and capital renewals are considered the most crucial  
33 functions of an asset management framework and are described by the International Organization  
34 for Standardization (ISO 2014) as a mixture of administrative and technical procedures undertaken  
35 to allow a building facility along with its underlying components to play the role they are designed  
36 for throughout their lifecycle. Thus, the disregard or untimely implementation of such maintenance  
37 activities can possibly result in significant process failures that can impose risks to people, revenue  
38 losses, or operational interruptions (da Silva et al. 2020).

39 In healthcare facilities, the traditional maintenance strategies that are used for the upkeep of the  
40 building assets and components are either preventive or reactive maintenance. As part of a  
41 preventive maintenance program, interventions are done on a timely-based manner. Although this  
42 strategy can contribute to the extension of the service life of the assets, it is rather labor-intensive  
43 and requires a large initial investment for the maintenance activities to take place on the designated  
44 time. Also, this maintenance strategy often leads to the implementation of redundant and/or  
45 unnecessary activities that could possibly be omitted without compromising the reliability or

46 performance of the building assets. On the other hand, reactive maintenance is less costly in the  
47 beginning as it does not require initial investments to be made, however, it is considered a short-  
48 sighted and unsustainable maintenance approach as unexpected failures are highly possible in such  
49 a maintenance program which can cause a substantial disruption in a hospital operation as well as  
50 elevated cost for maintenance activities due to the ill-planned resources and budget allocation  
51 (Ahmed et al. 2020). This led to the evolvement of an updated maintenance program by the Joint  
52 Commission on Accreditation of Healthcare Organization (JCAHO 2014), which emphasized on  
53 the need for more accurate planning and scheduling of maintenance activities in a healthcare  
54 facility taking the variability of asset criticality and risk levels into account. This approach is  
55 expected to reduce the cost and labor hours associated with unneeded maintenance activities by  
56 reducing the frequency of time-based maintenance and shifting towards a more predictive  
57 maintenance approach (Shamayleh et al. 2019).

58 Moreover, as stated by Elsayah et al. (2014), the estimation of the consequences and probability  
59 of failure of the asset components as part of an asset management framework can act as a beneficial  
60 aiding tool for municipalities and governments in order to make objective comparisons and  
61 prioritize assets with a higher potential failure impact for renewal purposes. The process of  
62 predicting the possible consequences and probability of failure is referred to as a Risk Assessment  
63 framework (Shahata and Zayed 2015). Risk assessment models that are developed as part of asset  
64 management frameworks have recently become a capital mission in healthcare organizations  
65 (Jamshidi et al. 2015).

66 However, the incorporation of such risk-based assessment approaches within healthcare facilities  
67 to prioritize the underlying assets has taken a rather subjective form in which experts are required  
68 to rank assets' priority levels according to their corresponding expertise and judgement. This can

69 possibly lead to inconsistencies between different experts' opinions as well as uncertainties found  
70 as a result of the absence of a systematic methodology for ranking hospital building assets and  
71 components.

72 Accordingly, this paper is realized to provide a systematic means of quantifying the priority levels  
73 for different hospital building components depending on the deficiencies detected within their  
74 course of operation, as well as their variable risk tendency or failure history experienced. This  
75 approach is also enhanced by the use of machine learning algorithms in order to automate the  
76 priority setting process reducing the reliance on further expert-based subjective techniques, which  
77 improves the overall prioritization process and makes it more consistent and reliable. The proposed  
78 framework also aims at providing a fair allocation mechanism of the limited resources and budgets  
79 available within healthcare organizations.

## 80 **2 Literature Review**

81 In the context of healthcare facilities, the asset prioritization topic has been tackled in numerous  
82 studies in the literature utilizing variant methodologies as elaborated as part of this section. First,  
83 a study by Joseph and Madhukumar (2010) assessed the urgency for conducting the maintenance  
84 interventions on medical equipment on the basis of three main criteria, namely: physical condition,  
85 function of equipment usage as well as the hazards expected if equipment is kept as is. In their  
86 study, the various identified criteria were equally weighted, and the final scores for the equipment  
87 were derived based on direct rating. The previous three criteria were also used by Sweis et al.  
88 (2014) to determine the priority level of medical equipment as well, however, they evaluated the  
89 weights of the criteria on an AHP basis to decrease the subjectivity associated with the ranking  
90 process. The previously outlined factors have been expanded by Faisal and Sharawi (2015) where  
91 the age of medical equipment since installation was included in the evaluation process, as well as

92 the maintenance cost required to rectify the asset's performance. In their study, the criteria weights  
93 were derived on an AHP basis which was found to provide a more objective representation of the  
94 real maintenance triggers and drivers. Diverging from the previous frameworks, Shamayleh et al.  
95 (2019) omitted the physical condition and the age parameters from their prioritization model and  
96 consequently stated that the only indicative factors of the urgency level of the medical equipment  
97 to receive a proper maintenance intervention is their relative function within the facility, their  
98 failure history, as well as the associated hazards and implications of their breakdown or failure.  
99 Adopting a similar understanding, Ahmed and Zayed (2019) assessed the priority level of hospital  
100 building components on an AHP basis considering only criticality and risk factors, without  
101 including the physical condition into the prioritization process.

102 On the other hand, Hamdi et al. (2012) and Moscato et al. (2017) determined a different ranking  
103 scheme for the assessment of the importance level of assets and their underlying components,  
104 namely: function and maintenance requirements. Hamdi et al. assumed that both criteria are of  
105 equal importance to the evaluation process of medical equipment, while Moscato et al. analyzed  
106 the evaluation criteria for hospital HVAC equipment on a risk matrix format, where the asset  
107 maintenance urgency receives a rating ranging from Minimum, Medium, High to Maximum risk  
108 level and thus a maximum maintenance consideration is required. Both studies concluded that the  
109 equipment's need for maintenance should be included in the priority evaluation process of hospital  
110 assets, which entails the quantification of all maintenance and renewal activities employed for the  
111 equipment under study in a given period of time illustrating the assets' performance deficiency or  
112 vulnerability levels.

113 Moving forward, Ali and Hegazy (2014) created a different ranking scheme for the prioritization  
114 of hospital building assets' renewal. In their framework, multiple rounds of expert surveys were

115 undertaken to arrive at a convenient ranking of the zones, systems and subsystems' importance  
116 within a hospital. This was followed by visual inspection to determine the physical condition,  
117 sustainability level, risk and level of service associated with the usage of each hospital asset. The  
118 priority level was then calculated based on the weighted sum between the weights and scores for  
119 the different indicators with respect to each hospital asset.

120 In the recent years, Salem and ElWakil (2018) introduced a prioritization framework for hospital  
121 MEP equipment based on the evaluation of the assets' respective physical condition, safety and  
122 infection hazards as well as revenue loss associated with the operation and maintenance of the  
123 assets per year. They evaluated the importance of the different criteria as opposed to one another  
124 on an AHP basis. Utilizing the same AHP weighting methodology, Abirami and Sudheesh (2020)  
125 analyzed the significance level of the medical equipment according to their age, function of usage  
126 and the hazards expected in the case maintenance interventions were delayed or disregarded.  
127 Similarly, Hernández-López et al. (2020) analyzed the priority of medical equipment using the  
128 exact criteria but utilizing a more simplistic approach to the weighting of the prioritization factors  
129 where the weights were determined by maintenance personnel on a direct rating basis and a  
130 combined score was consequently obtained on a SAW approach.

131 As previously presented, an extensive number of studies is observable within the asset  
132 prioritization field in healthcare facilities, however, the utilization of subjectively deterministic  
133 methodologies to arrive at a convenient and representative priority level for assets along with their  
134 underlying components is greatly evident. Also, the dearth of an integrated mechanism that  
135 combines and agglomerates all the different prioritization factors demonstrating high advantages  
136 to the overall prediction process is another limitation realized from reviewing previous studies. In  
137 addition to that, the incorporation of multiple-valued logics to facilitate the group-decision-making

138 process has not been explored before in the literature, despite the fact that healthcare facilities are  
 139 typically referred to as environments involving multiple experts with different views and  
 140 judgements brought together to arrive at a certain decision. This makes the inclusion of multiple-  
 141 valued logics in the decision-making process a prospective topic to tackle in future studies. Finally,  
 142 an important drawback of the previous studies is that the overall healthcare asset prioritization  
 143 process is judgment-based and experience-dependent. This in turn prevents prospective  
 144 advantages from employing progressive methodologies like machine learning algorithms to  
 145 produce a more automated prioritization scheme for assets in healthcare facilities. This observation  
 146 triggered the exploration of the machine learning utilization within the field of asset maintenance  
 147 decision-making. Being the largest multidisciplinary database of peer-reviewed literature (Bonato  
 148 2016), Scopus was employed for a non-exhaustive search including the following keywords  
 149 presented in Table 1. The search focused on the studies conducted in the past two decades from  
 150 the years 2000-2020 as illustrated below to draw conclusions about the sufficiency of machine  
 151 learning utilization within this field.

152 Table 1. Number of studies retrieved from Scopus search from the year 2000 to 2020

<b>Search Keywords</b>	<b>No. of Studies</b>
Machine Learning	286,177
Maintenance Management	86,366
Healthcare Maintenance Management	2,088
Maintenance Prioritization	1,474
Maintenance Management <i>AND</i> Machine Learning	836
Maintenance Prioritization <i>AND</i> Machine Learning	27
Healthcare Maintenance Prioritization	23
Healthcare Maintenance Management <i>AND</i> Machine Learning	18
Healthcare Maintenance Prioritization <i>AND</i> Machine Learning	0

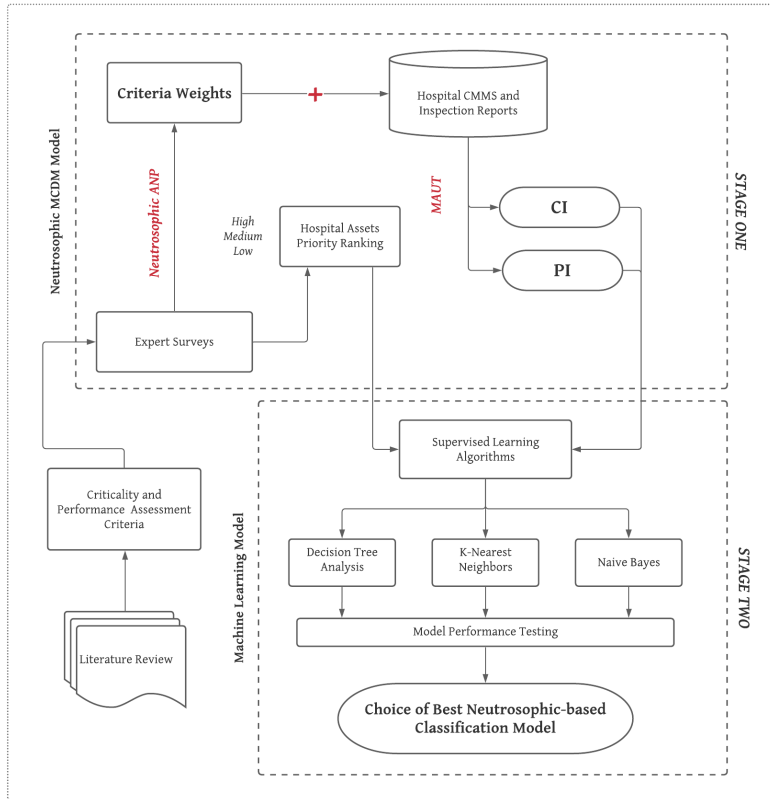
153 The previous table gives a broad overview of the research status within areas falling under the  
 154 scope of this paper. First, as it can be noted, the healthcare-related studies can safely be considered

155 limitedly tackled within the areas of maintenance management and prioritization. Moreover, the  
156 applications of machine learning techniques for maintenance purposes are evidently scarce with  
157 respect to all types of facilities or assets. However, the most obvious drawback in the literature lies  
158 within the scarce utilization of machine learning methods to facilitate the maintenance of  
159 healthcare assets, which is a gap this paper is aiming to fill and contribute towards its investigation.

### 160 **3 Methodology**

161 Analyzing the gaps and limitations of the previous literature, this study presents a novel  
162 classification-based automated priority setting tool for assets in healthcare facilities. Three  
163 algorithms were selected due to their demonstrated popularity and capability in the previous  
164 literature, namely: Decision Trees (DT), K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) and Naïve Bayes (NB). The  
165 scope of this study covers the building assets within a healthcare facility including civil,  
166 architectural, mechanical, electrical and plumbing systems along with their underlying  
167 components. The proposed tool is set to identify the corresponding priority level for the assets  
168 based on their criticality or risk rank as well as their performance deficiency with respect to their  
169 physical and functionality conditions. Also, for the purpose of minimizing the subjectivity within  
170 the decision-making process, an integration between Neutrosophic Logic and Multi-Criteria  
171 Decision-Making (MCDM) methods has been employed to arrive at a suitable benchmarking for  
172 the hospital building assets. This in turn rectifies the limitations identified within previous studies  
173 where most of the studies relied on a direct rating and an equal weighting for all evaluation criteria  
174 identified. The detailed steps undertaken within this study are illustrated in Fig. 1.





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Figure 1 Methodology undertaken to fulfill study objectives

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### 3.1 Multi-Criteria Decision-Making (MCDM)

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The first stage is the utilization of MCDM methods to assess the criticality and performance evaluation criteria weights by means of the N-ANP process discussed below, followed by the exploitation of a MAUT to derive the corresponding indices of the hospital building assets.

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#### 3.1.1 Neutrosophic Analytic Hierarchy Process (N-ANP)

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Neutrosophic logic was introduced by Smarandache (1999) as an extension for intuitionistic and fuzzy logics. Intuitionistic logic is the generalization of Fuzzy logic where two degrees of memberships are involved, namely: degree of Truth (membership) and degree of Falseness (non-membership). However, given that intuitionistic logic can only handle incomplete information, it can be insufficient to deal with inherent inconsistency or indeterminacy levels that are often present

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187 in fuzzy systems. Therefore, Neutrosophic sets evolved to overcome this drawback and are  
188 represented in the form of a Truth, Indeterminacy, and Falseness degrees of membership. Those  
189 three values are independent, and their sum lies between 0 and 3.

190 Neutrosophic sets are based on a relatively new philosophical branch named Neutrosophy, and are  
191 capable of mimicking human knowledge, preference and evaluation scheme by dealing with  
192 inherent uncertainties, inconsistencies and indeterminacies in a given set of information. A special  
193 case of Neutrosophic sets is a Single Valued Neutrosophic Set (SVNS), which was also proposed  
194 by Smarandache (1999) to facilitate the use of Neutrosophic sets in real world applications.  
195 Accordingly, this study uses SVNSs to apply the Neutrosophic-based ANP methodology into the  
196 assessment and ranking of identified criteria and sub-criteria to measure the criticality, risk and  
197 performance levels of hospital building components. The classical form of ANP is regarded as a  
198 generalization of the Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) and is considered the most comprehensive  
199 technique for use in strategic decisions due to its proven capability to handle all tangible and  
200 intangible criteria of influence (Saaty 2004). ANP forms a network structure of clusters and nodes  
201 to facilitate the decision-making process allowing the existence of complex dependencies and  
202 interrelationships between different levels and attributes (Otay and Kahraman 2019).

203 Decision-makers perform several levels of pair-wise comparisons to derive inner and outer  
204 dependencies and preferences of elements in a problem, and priorities derived are accumulated  
205 both vertically and horizontally into a matrix known as the Unweighted Super Matrix.  
206 Accordingly, a Weighted Super Matrix can be derived from the calculated Unweighted Super  
207 Matrix by normalizing each column in the matrix to make it equal to "1.0". Finally, the priorities  
208 for each of the identified elements within the ANP problem can be obtained from the Limit Super  
209 Matrix which is attainable upon raising the Weighted Super Matrix to "k" powers.

210 Therefore, the steps adopted to assess the criteria preferences on an N-ANP basis were adopted  
 211 from Otay and Kahraman (2019) as described below.

212 1) Determine the weight given to each of the experts surveyed  $ew_t$  as per Eq. 1

$$213 \quad ew_t = y + a + c \quad (1)$$

214 where  $t$  is the counter for experts surveyed,  $y$  represents the years of experience of the expert,  $a$   
 215 describes the area of expertise of the expert, and  $c$  is the country where the expert gained most of  
 216 his experience.

217 2) Design the Influence Matrix of the problem's network composed of 0's and 1's indicating the  
 218 absence and presence of relationships between factors respectively.

219 3) Form a comparison matrix for each group of clusters or criteria to represent the preference or  
 220 influence given by the experts of one element on another.

221 4) Translate the linguistic terms assigned by experts surveyed to illustrate their inner and outer  
 222 relationships between different criteria and sub-criteria according to the scale given in Table 2.

223 Table 2 Linguistic scale, the corresponding Neutrosophic values and Crisp values

<b>Crisp Scale</b>	<b>Linguistic Term</b>	<b>Neutrosophic Set</b>
<b>9</b>	Extremely More Important	(0.90, 0.10, 0.10)
<b>7</b>	Very Strongly More Important	(0.80, 0.25, 0.20)
<b>5</b>	Strongly More Important	(0.70, 0.30, 0.30)
<b>3</b>	Moderately More Important	(0.60, 0.35, 0.40)
<b>1</b>	Equally Important	(0.50, 0.50, 0.50)
<b>1/3</b>	Moderately Less Important	(0.40, 0.65, 0.60)
<b>1/5</b>	Strongly Less Important	(0.30, 0.70, 0.70)
<b>1/7</b>	Very Strongly Less Important	(0.20, 0.75, 0.80)
<b>1/9</b>	Extremely Less Important	(0.10, 0.90, 0.90)

224 5) Verify the consistency of each of the expert responses by formulating a perfectly consistent  
 225 Neutrosophic matrix ( $T'_{ik}$ ,  $I'_{ik}$ ,  $F'_{ik}$ ), and then comparing it with the actual responses.

Consistency Ratio (CR) =

$$\frac{1}{2(n-1)(n-2)} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n (|T'_{ik}-T_{ik}|+|I'_{ik}-I_{ik}|+|F'_{ik}-F_{ik}|) \quad (2)$$

226

227 6) Aggregate all expert responses into one single group decision-making matrix using the Eq. 3.

228 This aggregated matrix is the Unweighted Super Matrix.

229 For  $A_j$  ( $j=1, 2, 3, \dots, n$ ):

$$Y_w = (1 - \prod_{j=1}^n (1 - T A_j)^{w_j}, 1 - \prod_{j=1}^n (1 - I A_j)^{w_j}, 1 - \prod_{j=1}^n (1 - F A_j)^{w_j}) \quad (3)$$

231 where  $j$  represents the experts' counter;  $w = (w_1, w_2, w_3, \dots, w_n)$  is the weight vector of experts

232 respectively; and  $\sum_{j=1}^n w_j = 1$

233 7) Calculate the Weighted Super Matrix by normalizing each column in the Unweighted Super

234 Matrix by means of Eq. 4.

$$x_{n_{cr}} = \frac{x_{cr}}{\sum x_c} \quad (4)$$

236 where  $x_{n_{cr}}$  is the notation for the normalized element "x" in column "c" and row "r",  $x_{cr}$

237 represents the corresponding element with the same position in the Unweighted Super Matrix

238 which is divided by the sum of all the elements in the same column to obtain the normalized value.

239 8) De-neutrosophy the three-components weights derived for each element in the Weighted Super

240 Matrix into single crisp numbers  $W_c$  using Eq. 5.

$$W_c = \frac{3 + T_i - 2I_i - F_i}{4} \quad (5)$$

242 9) Obtain the Limit Super Matrix in which the element weights in the Weighted Super Matrix are

243 raised to power "z" as shown in Eq. 6.

244  $Wc^\infty = \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} Wc^z$  ( 6)

245 10) Prioritize the different criteria based on the ranking obtained from the Limit Super Matrix  
246 calculated in Step 9.

### 247 **3.1.2 Multi-Attribute Utility Theory (MAUT)**

248 Consequently, an MAUT method is utilized in order to formulate utility functions used for scoring  
249 different alternatives with regards to pre-defined criteria. In a typical MAUT problem, weights for  
250 criteria identified are obtained by means of a subjective preference of experts, however, as part of  
251 this study, the criteria weights utilized are obtained by means of a Neutrosophic-based ANP as per  
252 the previously illustrated methodology. This procedure is performed to reduce the relative  
253 subjectivity associated with the typical MAUT and take the uncertainty associated with expert  
254 judgements into consideration.

255 The MAUT is employed in the developed framework to derive a single Criticality Index (CI) or  
256 Performance Deficiency Index (PDI) for each asset studied as per Eq. 7 (Kaddoura et al. 2018).

257  $CI_m \text{ or } PDI_m = \sum_{c=1}^n W_c \times U_c$  ( 7)

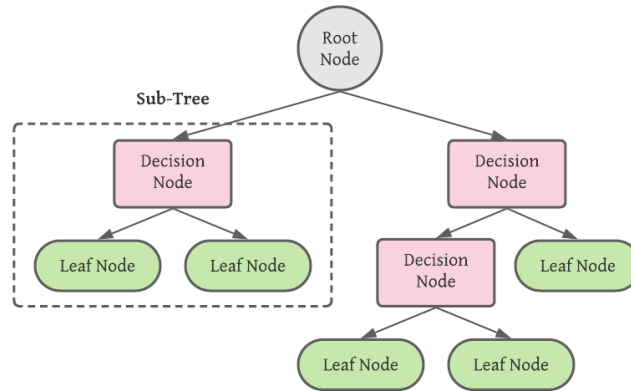
258 where  $W_c$  is the weight for criterion  $c$  obtained by means of the N-ANP methodology,  $U_c$  is the  
259 utility score given by experts in the hospital building inspection process,  $n$  is the total number of  
260 criteria for assessing either Criticality or Performance Deficiency of building assets represented  
261 by the counter  $m$ .

### 262 **3.2 Machine Learning (ML)**

263 In this stage, the performance of three machine learning algorithms in classifying the correct  
264 priority levels of assets as per their corresponding CI and PDI is compared to select the most  
265 appropriate methodology for future applications on hospital building assets.

266 **3.2.1 Decision Trees (DT)**

267 Decision Trees are supervised machine learning models capable of predicting variable representing  
268 a target by analyzing a set of given input variables through a tree-like structure of rules governing  
269 the input-output relationship. Training this tree-based model type is first initiated by a root node  
270 representing all observations primarily assigned. After that, this initial root node is further divided  
271 and split into decision nodes built upon values of variables used for prediction purposes. Those  
272 decision nodes are normally represented by a set of branches where the upper branch illustrates  
273 the observations count representing cases to be distributed to a lower branch/node. This branching  
274 process is carried on repeatedly until a point where all observations within a decision node carry a  
275 similar classification is reached (Syachrani et al. 2013). The point that stops the branching and  
276 splitting process of decision nodes is called a leaf node as shown in Fig. 2.



277

278 Figure 2 Components of a typical decision tree model

279 The branching process starts by selecting the most suitable variable from the given input  
280 parameters to act as a splitting variable based on a comparison of their relative splitting quality. In  
281 the case of a continuous-based predictor variable, all variables can be used as part of the splitting

282 process. On the other hand, in a model with a categorical-based predictor variable, values of target  
283 variables present in each category is utilized for the splitting of branches.

284 The splitting process is performed based on the value obtained from Eq. 8 representing the Pearson  
285 Chi-Squared ( $\chi^2$ ) statistical test of predictor variables.

$$286 \quad \chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i} \quad (8)$$

287 where  $\chi^2$  represents the Chi-Squared distribution with  $k - 1$  degrees of freedom;  $O_i$  is the observed  
288 frequency; and  $E_i$  is the expected frequency. A larger value for  $\chi^2$  indicates a better split between  
289 the left and right branches.

290 The value obtained for  $\chi^2$  is consequently converted into a probability value ( $P_v$ ) by means of  
291 comparison of the  $\chi^2$  distribution. The  $P_v$  represents the likelihood of deriving the observed value  
292 with the assumption of having identical target proportions in every direction of the branches. This  
293  $P_v$  value can be highly close to 0 if the dataset is largely sized. To facilitate the reporting of the  
294 probability value, the logworth of the  $P_v$  is used instead of its actual value as shown in Eq. 9.

$$295 \quad \text{logworth} = -\log(P_v) \quad (9)$$

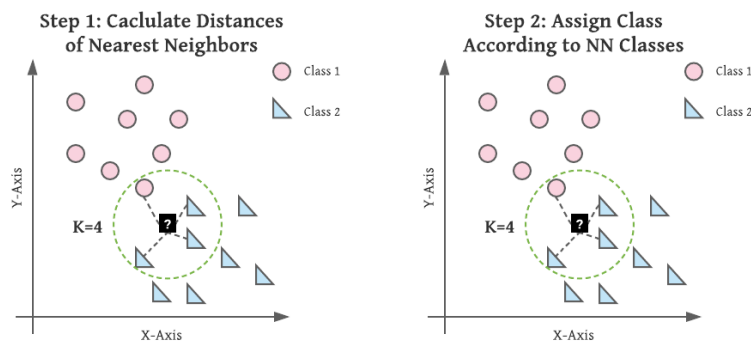
296 The previously elaborated splitting process is recursively repeated until all available variables are  
297 surpassed by either of the logworth value or the value of  $P_v$ .

298 The larger size of a decision tree increases its overall complexity and can increase the likelihood  
299 of the model's overfitting thus decreasing its robustness. Accordingly, pruning can be applied to  
300 the developed model in order to simplify it without sacrificing the overall accuracy by removing  
301 unnecessary leaves from trees to sustain a high accuracy level.

302 **3.2.2 K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN)**

303 KNN is a supervised machine learning algorithm utilized for regression and classification  
304 purposes. In general, the KNN is an algorithm of low complexity, and high applicability due to its  
305 ability to produce a highly accurate prediction with a little training requirement, and few  
306 parameters to tune (Ran et al. 2019).

307 A typical KNN classification process comprises of the following steps to determine the class of  
308 the testing instance by obtaining the class of its neighboring peer instances as demonstrated in Fig.  
309 3.



310

311 Figure 3 Steps followed as part of a typical KNN classification model

312 The initial step in a KNN classification is to set a K value that is used to compute distances between  
313 a testing instance and all the available input training datapoints. These distances are used to yield  
314 the K training instances exhibiting minimal distance calculations in order to assign the testing  
315 instance to the most common class demonstrated by its K neighboring points. Furthermore, the  
316 assignment of a class to the testing instance is done by calculating the ratio of the different classes  
317 available within the neighboring K instances, and the testing instance takes the highest voted class.  
318 On a different note, the distances' calculation process in a typical KNN scenario often uses the  
319 Minkowski Distance which can take different forms of the generalized form shown in Eq. 10.



320 
$$D = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|^f \right)^{\frac{1}{f}} \quad (10)$$

321 where D is the absolute sum of difference between coordinates; n is the total number of variables;  
322  $x_i$  and  $y_i$  are the  $i^{\text{th}}$  variables in the two-dimensional vector space; and f can take three values  
323 corresponding to the form of the distance calculated, either 1 for Manhattan Distance, 2 for  
324 Euclidean Distance, or  $\infty$  for Chebychev Distance.

325 Moreover, the choice of the value of K is either data-driven, where a cross validation approach can  
326 result in the selection of the most accurate and representative number of K where higher values  
327 can decrease the noise effect but result in a less distinct boundaries within classes (Ran et al. 2019).  
328 A more accommodating approach is to experiment the performance of the model using different  
329 K values and select the value with the highest performance (Martinez et al. 2019).

### 330 **3.2.3 Naïve Bayes**

331 A Naïve Bayesian classification is a supervised learning methodology that belongs to the family  
332 of probabilistic classification models. The main benefit associated with the utilization of this  
333 methodology is its low sensitivity to outliers due to its probabilistic nature, lowering the chances  
334 of skewness within the prediction process resulting in a reliable analysis for the given data. Another  
335 advantage of this algorithm is the reduced amount of data required for building and training the  
336 model due to the exploitation of a utility function that minimizes the relearning process of the  
337 conditional probability. Thus, the Naïve Bayesian model is a robust classification tool that involves  
338 simple assumptions and algorithms to accordingly produce powerful predictions (Jang et al. 2015).

339 The Bayesian theory was developed by the English Reverend Thomas Ferguson in 1763 (Bayes  
340 1763). The established theory suggests that a certain likelihood level for a target event Y is

341 expected to occur given that a certain feature event X has been formerly observed. The variable X  
342 is represented by Eq. 11.

$$343 \quad X=(x_1,x_2,x_3,\dots,x_n) \quad (11)$$

344 where the values of  $x_{1:n}$  represent all features included in building the predictor model

345 A simple form of the Bayesian equation is thus given in Eq. 12.

$$346 \quad P(Y|X)=\frac{P(Y)P(X|Y)}{P(X)} \quad (12)$$

347 where  $P(Y|X)$  is the probability of observing event Y after the occurrence of event X;  $P(Y)$  is the  
348 probability of occurrence of event Y;  $P(X|Y)$  is the probability of occurrence of event X if Y had  
349 already occurred; and  $P(X)$  is the probability of event X being observed.

350 And  $P(X)$  can be written as:

$$351 \quad P(X)=\sum_{Y \in Y} P(X,Y) = \sum_{Y \in Y} P(X|Y)P(Y) \quad (13)$$

352 where  $P(X)$  is considered a normalizing constant for the term  $P(X|Y)$  guaranteeing that the sum of  
353  $P(Y|X)$  equals to 1 for all possible values of Y belonging to Y

354 The optimal target class  $\hat{Y}$  can thus be derived based on the values of features or input predictors  
355 by using Eq. 14.

$$356 \quad \hat{Y}=\operatorname{argmax}_Y P(Y) \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i|Y) \quad (14)$$

357 where  $\hat{Y}$  can either consist of two outcomes in which case the problem is called a “binary”  
358 classification problem, or more than two outcomes in which the problem becomes a  
359 “multiclass/multilabel” classification problem.

360 There are three main types of Naïve Bayesian Classifiers, namely: Multinomial, Gaussian and  
361 Bernoulli. The Multinomial type is the most popular type of Naïve Bayesian algorithms and is  
362 mainly utilized in cases where the features or model predictors are represented in the form of  
363 categorical values (i.e. like in rating scales 1 – 5). The Bernoulli type is utilized for the target  
364 prediction in problems where the features are illustrated on a Boolean pattern. Finally, Gaussian-  
365 based Naïve Bayes is employed where continuous or non-discrete values for predictors are  
366 available in a machine learning problem.

### 367 **3.2.4 Model Performance Evaluation**

368 In order to validate the performance of the machine learning algorithms in accordance with the  
369 actual priorities obtained for the hospital building assets, the following tests are deployed. The  
370 algorithm with the highest performance is selected as the automated tool for priority setting.

371 The first test is the Area Under Receiver Operating Characteristic Curve (AUC-ROC). The ROC  
372 is utilized to determine the model’s capacity to determine classification classes for given assets  
373 (Davis and Goadrich 2006), while the AUC is a representation of the aggregated predictive  
374 performance of the model across all thresholds. Two parameters are thus evaluated as per Eq. 15  
375 and 16, namely: True Positive Rate (TPR) and False Positive Rate (FPR).

$$376 \quad TPR = \frac{TP}{TP+FN} \quad (15)$$

$$377 \quad FPR = \frac{FP}{FP+TN} \quad (16)$$

378 where TP, TN, FP and FN represent the numbers of True Positives, True Negatives, False Positives  
379 and False Negatives respectively.

380 The second testing parameter is the Accuracy of prediction exhibited by the model, calculated as  
381 a ratio between correct predictions made and the total number of predictions by means of Eq. 17.

$$382 \quad AP = \frac{TP+TN}{TP+TN+FP+FN} \quad (17)$$

383 Additionally, the Precision (P) and Recall (R) provide the relevance of the retrieved values  
384 resulting from the model's implementation, as per Eq. 18 and 19.

$$385 \quad P = \frac{TP}{TP+FP} \quad (18)$$

$$386 \quad R = \frac{TP}{TP+FN} \quad (19)$$

387 Upon calculating the values of P and R for every model included, their respective F-Scores are  
388 calculated as part of their performance testing. An inverse relationship is often observed between  
389 P and R values; therefore, the F-Score measure provides a harmonic mean between P and R as  
390 shown in Eq. 20.

$$391 \quad F = 2 \times \frac{P \times R}{P + R} \quad (20)$$

## 392 **4 Implementation**

393 The preliminary step to achieve the sought-after objectives is the identification of criteria and  
394 categories used to evaluate the criticality and performance deficiency levels of hospital building  
395 assets. The categories and criteria were collected from the literature review formerly presented.  
396 Upon criteria identification, their relative importance is validated and weighted by means of the  
397 N-ANP expert surveying methodology.

398 Experts involved within the current study add up to a total of thirty-one sharing similar  
399 professional backgrounds relevant to the healthcare facility management fields including hospital

400 operation and maintenance management personnel (30%), maintenance engineers (60%), as well  
401 as government officials involved with the planning, auditing and prioritization of infrastructure  
402 needs and investments (10%). 58% of the respondents to the developed survey were affiliated with  
403 Canadian healthcare facilities with more than 10 years of experience in healthcare organizations  
404 in Canada, while the rest were from other parts of the world. Experts were asked to confirm the  
405 influence of the identified criteria and factors on the prioritization process of healthcare building  
406 assets, and thus were invited for weighting and ranking the superiority of criticality and  
407 performance deficiency factors on a pair-wise comparison basis.

#### 408 **4.1 Criticality and Performance Deficiency Criteria Evaluation**

409 In order to assess the levels of criticality and risk associated with hospital building assets, four  
410 categories were identified and included in the surveying process of the experts in the fields of  
411 facility and maintenance management of healthcare facilities to assess their respective priorities  
412 and rankings. The four categories describing the vulnerability aspects of the hospital building  
413 assets are: Significance of Component (SC) which includes factors that rank the importance level  
414 of the asset within the hospital hierarchy and operation, Operational Criticality (OC) which  
415 quantifies the risks associated with the failure of the asset on an operational level as well as the  
416 previously experienced failure trend of components based on historical records and work orders,  
417 the Environmental and Social Criticality (ESF) which is an indicator of the extent of risks and  
418 severity of the component's failure to the surrounding environment and hospital building  
419 occupants, and finally the Economic Criticality (EC) which includes aspects illustrating the  
420 average resources consumed as part of failures experienced within the studied component. Within  
421 the aforementioned categories, fourteen criteria were identified and confirmed by experts for their  
422 relative importance and influence on ranking the urgency or priority levels of hospital building

423 components as shown in the following table. Table 3 shows the criteria used to evaluate the  
 424 criticality level of hospital building assets as well as the weights given to them as per the expert  
 425 survey process previously discussed where more weight was given to responses of experts with  
 426 more years of experience and higher experience relevance to Canadian-based organizations and  
 427 facilities.

428 Table 3 Expert-derived weights for criticality evaluation criteria

<b>Categories</b>	<b>Criteria</b>	<b>Weights</b>
Significance of Component (0.3117)	Purpose of Component Usage (PU)	0.0825
	Location of Component (LC)	0.0971
	Relative Age of Component (RA)	0.0708
	Redundancy Available for Component (RD)	0.0613
Operational Criticality (0.3136)	Presence of Dependent Systems/Components (DS)	0.0673
	Mission Criticality of Component (MC)	0.0898
	Failure Occurrence Rate (OR)	0.0873
	Failure Detectability Level (DL)	0.0692
Environmental and Social Criticality (0.1556)	Failure Effect on Indoor Air Quality (IEQ)	0.0477
	Emissions, Toxic Releases or Contamination Accompanying Failure (ETC)	0.0453
	Failure Effect on Health, Safety and Sanitation of Hospital Occupants (HSS)	0.0626
Economic Criticality (0.2195)	Repair Cost (RC)	0.0670
	Resources Required (RR)	0.0653
	Downtime (DT)	0.0872

429 According to the gathered responses, the five criteria receiving the highest rating in assessing the  
 430 criticality level of the hospital building component are: The Location of the building asset within  
 431 the hospital hierarchy, its Mission Criticality level, the failure Occurrence Rate experienced for  
 432 that asset, the average Downtime resulting from asset failure, and the Purpose of component usage  
 433 within the hospital operation.

434 On the other hand, for the purpose of evaluating the performance deficiency levels of hospital  
 435 building assets and components, four criteria were identified that are calculated as an inverse of  
 436 the actual observable condition and performance rating during inspections and facility audit cycles,  
 437 namely: Physical Condition Deficiency (PC) which is based on the physical observable condition  
 438 rating received by the component as per the latest inspection or testing, Code Incompliance (CC)  
 439 which evaluates the level of agreement or disagreement of the component's configuration and  
 440 usage with the current or future code requirements, Energy and Water Inefficiency (EE) that  
 441 evaluates the current state of energy and water efficiency within the operation of component being  
 442 studied, and Capacity Inappropriateness (CA) used to measure the adequacy of the component  
 443 sizing to serve and maintain the current and seasonal operational condition within the hospital  
 444 facility. In summary, the PDI is the inverse of the Performance Index (PI) observable within  
 445 hospital building assets. Table 4 shows the weighting given by the experts to each of the four  
 446 criteria identified.

447 Table 4 Performance assessment criteria and their respective weights

<b>Performance Deficiency Criteria</b>	<b>Weights</b>
Physical Condition Deficiency (PC)	0.3761
Code Incompliance (CC)	0.1499
Energy and Water Inefficiency (EE)	0.3418
Capacity Inappropriateness (CA)	0.1321

## 448 4.2 CI and PDI Calculation

449 The succeeding stage is calculating the overall Criticality Index (CI) and Performance Deficiency  
 450 Index (PDI) for every hospital component studied following the aforementioned MAUT  
 451 methodology.

452 The utility scores given to components utilize the weights derived in the previous step, as well as  
 453 the measuring scales shown in Table 5 to derive the overall indices. The indices are based on the

454 data collected from the inspection records attained from five healthcare facilities in the province  
 455 of Alberta, Canada. Table 5 shows the measuring scales given to the identified criteria in order to  
 456 derive their corresponding scores.

457 Table 5 Measuring scales for the criteria within the Component Significance category

Criteria	Purpose	Location	Relative Age	Redundancy
Measuring Scale (Most to Least Critical)	Life Support and Safety (LSS)	Hospital-Wide (HWD)	> 1	None
	Environmental and Infection Control (EIC)	Acute Care and Emergency (ACE)	0.75 – 1	Partial
	Mobility (MOB)	InPatient Wards (IPW)	0.50 – 0.74	Full
	Communication (COM)	Diagnostics and OutPatient Clinics (DOC)	0.25 – 0.49	Double or More
	Shell and Structure (SST)	Ancillary and Support Departments (ASD)	< 0.25	---

458 Furthermore, Table 6 demonstrates the calculation methodology of the Component Significance  
 459 for a group of components and the overall normalized weighted scores given for each evaluation  
 460 criterion.

461 Table 6 Component Significance scoring methodology for hospital components

Criteria \ Systems	Roofing	Medical Gas	HVAC
Purpose (PU)	SST	LSS	EIC
Location (LC)	HWD	IPW	ASD
Relative Age (RA)	0.5	0.35	1.1
Redundancy Available (RD)	None	Partial	Full
<b>Weighted Score</b>	=0.0825×0.01 +0.0971×1.00 +0.0708×0.50 +0.0613×1.00 =0.1946	=0.0825×1.00 +0.0971×0.50 +0.0708×0.25 +0.0613×0.67 =0.1896	=0.0825×0.75 +0.0971×0.01 +0.0708×1.00 +0.0613×0.33 =0.1541



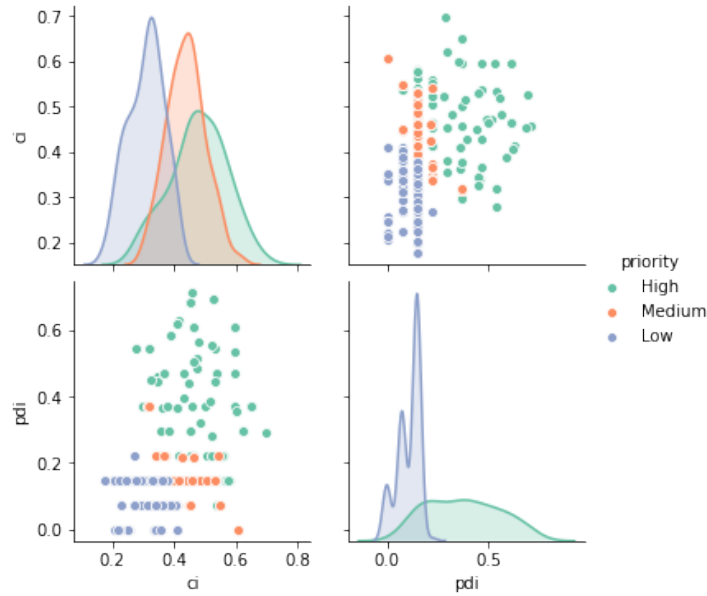
462 Moreover, a similar approach is undertaken to calculate the overall Performance Deficiency Index  
 463 (PDI) as shown in the following Table 7 that illustrates the calculation procedure of the PI of a  
 464 sample of hospital building components.

465 Table 7 Calculation methodology for the Performance evaluation criteria for hospital components

<b>Criteria</b> \ <b>Systems</b>	<b>Smoke Control</b>	<b>Chiller</b>	<b>Elevator</b>
Physical Condition Deficiency (PC)	Excellent	Poor	Marginal
Code Incompliance (CC)	Compliant	Modifications Required	Non-Compliant
Energy and Water Inefficiency (EE)	High Efficiency	Substantial Upgrades Required	Minimal Upgrades Required
Capacity Inappropriateness (CA)	Adequately Sized	Occasional Issues	Inadequately Sized
<b>Overall PDI</b>	$=1 - PI$ $=1 - (0.3761 \times 1.00$ $+ 0.1499 \times 1.00$ $+ 0.3418 \times 1.00$ $+ 0.1321 \times 1.00)$ $=0.0000$	$=1 - (0.3761 \times 0.21$ $+ 0.1499 \times 0.50$ $+ 0.3418 \times 0.01$ $+ 0.1321 \times 0.50)$ $=0.7766$	$=1 - (0.3761 \times 0.41$ $+ 0.1499 \times 0.01$ $+ 0.3418 \times 0.50$ $+ 0.1321 \times 0.01)$ $=0.6721$

466 **4.3 Machine Learning Methods Implementation**

467 Upon gathering all relevant datasets associated with the 394 different asset types that are present  
 468 in 5 hospital buildings in the province of Alberta, the methodology was applied for all datapoints  
 469 to derive the individual CI and PDI of all assets. An overall visualization of the final dataset  
 470 obtained is shown in Fig. 4.



471

472

Figure 4 Visualization of the collected datasets

473

Decision Tree, K-NN and Naïve Bayesian analyses codes were consequently built on a Python environment in order to evaluate their respective performance in predicting a correct priority level for hospital building assets based on their criticality and deficiency levels.

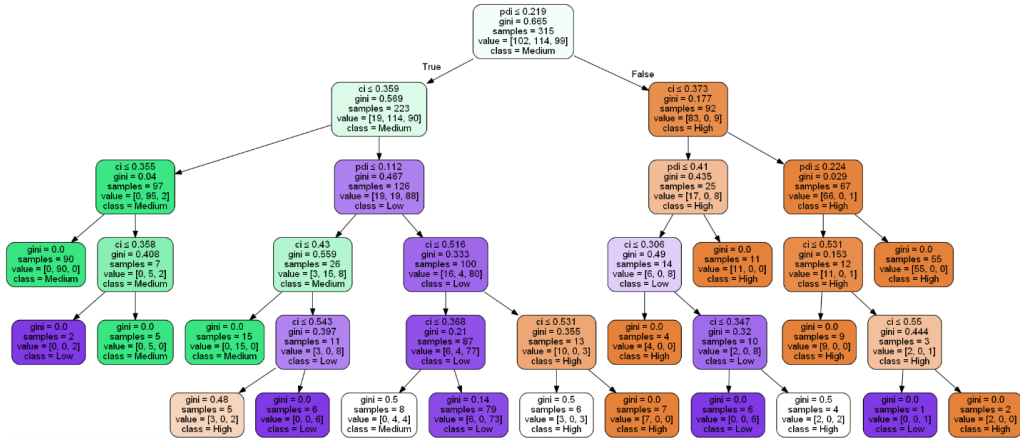
476

For the purpose of building optimal classification models, all possible parameter combinations were investigated by means of an integration between Grid Search and Ten-Fold Cross-Validation. This was performed to obtain the highest Information Gain that represents a successful splitting/classification scheme. In each fold, the AUC-ROC is calculated, and the average is then used to indicate the overall model performance.

481

For the decision tree model, the optimal combination of parameters derived from the search process resulted in an AUC-ROC score of 0.917339 on the training portion of the dataset. The effect of each of the CI and PDI of assets on the overall assigned priority level was also evaluated, and their relative importance levels were 0.563194 and 0.436806 respectively. Fig. 5 shows the developed tree as per the pruned parameters chosen.

485



486

487

Figure 5 Decision Tree classification model visualization

488

Accordingly, the predictor model was formed, and it received an overall AUC-ROC score of

489

0.862709 based on weighting the results of the One-vs-One and One-vs-Rest tests by prevalence.

490

Moreover, the overall Accuracy was calculated to be 0.90 which indicates a high performing

491

model. Precision, Recall and F-Scores were calculated for each individual class, and their weighted

492

average was obtained as per Table 8.

493

Table 8 Decision Tree model performance evaluation results

Class	Precision	Recall	F-Score
High Priority	0.93	0.83	0.88
Medium Priority	1.00	0.91	0.95
Low Priority	0.71	1.00	0.83
<b>Weighted Average</b>	0.92	0.90	0.90

494

495

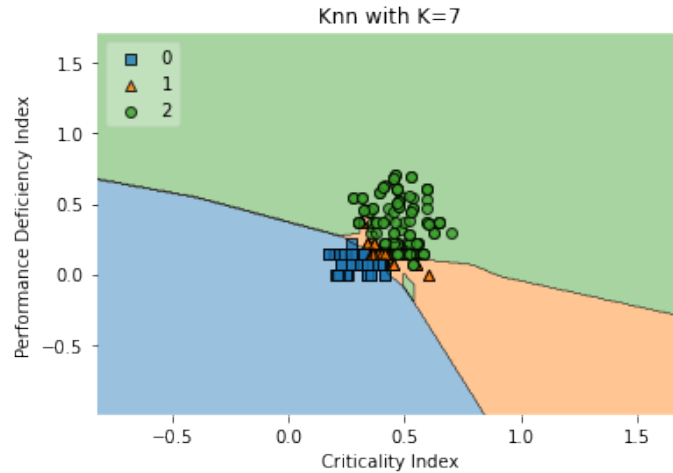
Secondly, the best estimator model parameters for the K-NN algorithm resulted in an AUC-ROC

496

score of 0.947011. A visualization of the KNN with the chosen number of neighbors is provided

497

in Fig.6.



498

499

Figure 6 K-Nearest Neighbors classification model visualization

500

Accordingly, the predictor model was built by using the best combination of parameters and the

501

corresponding AUC-ROC scores of 0.825764 and 0.825234 for the One-vs-One and One-vs-Rest

502

methodologies were obtained respectively. The overall Accuracy was then calculated it received a

503

value of 0.86 which is less than the score achieved by the Decision Tree Analysis, however it also

504

indicates a high performing model. Precision, Recall and F-Scores were calculated for each

505

individual class, and their weighted average was obtained as per Table 9.

506

Table 9 KNN model performance evaluation results

Class	Precision	Recall	F-Score
High Priority	0.76	0.83	0.79
Medium Priority	0.80	0.77	0.78
Low Priority	1.00	0.97	0.98
<b>Weighted Average</b>	0.88	0.87	0.87

507

508

Lastly, for the purpose of building a Naïve Bayes-based classification model, a Grid Search

509

methodology is found inapplicable, due to the absence of parameters to tune within Naïve-Bayes

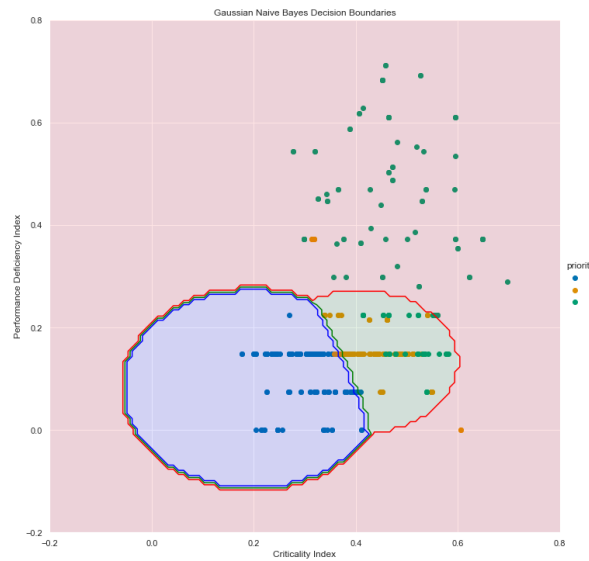
510

models. Accordingly, considering the nature of data features included within the datasets, a

511

Gaussian Naïve Bayes (GNB) model was formulated, and a label encoding was applied to the

512 classes to transform string class labels, namely: High, Medium and Low priority levels into  
 513 numerical ones, namely: 0, 1 and 2. This process was performed using the Label Encoder library  
 514 in Scikit-Learn in Python. The preliminary AUC-ROC is found to be 0.855329. Visualizing the  
 515 estimator model, Fig. 7 was generated.



516

517 Figure 7 Naive Bayes classification model visualization

518 Consequently, the modified AUC-ROC scores were derived for the predictor model upon  
 519 employing One-vs-One and One-vs-Rest evaluation procedures resulting in scores of 0.669037  
 520 and 0.625558 respectively and the overall Accuracy was found to be 0.49. This score is  
 521 outperformed by both the Decision Tree Analysis and K-Nearest Neighbors models. Furthermore,  
 522 the Precision, Recall and F-Scores were calculated for each class as per Table 10.

523

Table 10 Naive Bayes model performance evaluation results

Class	Precision	Recall	F-Score
High Priority	1.00	0.33	0.50
Medium Priority	0.00	0.00	0.00
Low Priority	0.46	1.00	0.63
<b>Weighted Average</b>	0.39	0.49	0.37

524 As illustrated by the previously presented investigation results of the three machine learning  
525 algorithms employed, two conclusions were deduced which are: 1) Criticality and Performance  
526 Deficiency levels of hospital building components provide a valid foundation for predicting the  
527 appropriate components' priority level; which was verified by the high capability demonstrated by  
528 the algorithms given the CI and PDI scores as input parameters, and 2) Decision Tree was the  
529 highest performing algorithm in predicting the appropriate priority level; which suggests that  
530 further future predictions would best be made using the developed N-ANP-MAUT Decision Tree  
531 methodology for an automated, less-subjective and more data-driven prioritization mechanism.

#### 532 **4.4 Model Validation**

533 For the purpose of providing a further validation of the proposed model, the capability of the  
534 proposed Decision Tree model was compared to results derived from applying a previously  
535 established model in the literature. The model chosen for verification is the one by Ali and Hegazy  
536 (2014), due to its relative popularity and applicability in the case study hospital chosen within the  
537 scope of this study. Assuming the accuracy of expert judgements regarding the prioritization of  
538 hospital assets, the developed model and the verification model were both compared against  
539 expert-driven decisions.

540 Applying the methodology of Ali and Hegazy (2014), the same weights for systems, subsystems  
541 and zones were utilized in the case study hospital to arrive at the relative Overall System  
542 Importance (OSI) for every asset analyzed. Moreover, this value was multiplied by the Overall  
543 System Deficiency (OSD) scores calculated following the exact pattern outlined as part of their  
544 study. Since their weighted sum-based final score ranged from 0 to 10000, a "Low" priority was  
545 assumed for scores less than 3333, "Medium" priority for scores less than 6666 and "High" priority  
546 was for assets receiving higher score values. Consequently, the level of agreement between their

547 ranking scheme, the proposed model as part of this study and the actual priority level arrived at by  
 548 means of expert opinions was calculated as shown in Table. The conformance level represents the  
 549 accuracy of the models in identifying correct priority levels for given instances.

550 Table 11 Level of conformance between proposed model, model from the literature and actual priority levels

<b>Class</b>	<b>Actual Priority Levels</b>	<b>Proposed N-ANP-DT Model</b>	<b>Ali and Hegazy (2014)</b>
High Priority	117	111	115
Medium Priority	129	120	98
Low Priority	148	125	99
<b>Conformance Level</b>		0.9058%	0.7937%

551 As it can be noted from Table 11, the model from the literature exceeded the proposed model in  
 552 correctly identifying the high priority instances. However, the proposed model’s capability  
 553 significantly surpassed the model from the literature in the two other priority classes. Also, the  
 554 overall conformance level of the proposed model outweighed the model by Ali and Hegazy (2014)  
 555 by almost 11% in correctly identifying priority classes which validates the proposed model as a  
 556 beneficial tool for the automated priority setting of hospital building assets for renewal purposes.

## 557 **5 Conclusion**

558 As proved by the recent COVID-19 pandemic, the continuous availability and operability of  
 559 healthcare facilities and their underlying assets are considered of utmost importance. This triggered  
 560 the need to develop efficient methodologies to prioritize the healthcare assets’ renewal to face the  
 561 continuously deteriorating condition levels of facilities as well as the limited budgets and resources  
 562 available to meet their corresponding maintenance and renewal requirements. In this study, a  
 563 prioritization model is developed where the variable asset failure consequences and mission-  
 564 dependability influence their priority level as opposed to the models in the literature mostly relying  
 565 on physical condition for such purpose. The developed model utilizes an integration between  
 566 Neutrosophic Logic and Multi-Criteria Decision-Making techniques to result in an objective and

567 reliable priority level for hospital assets. A combination of machine learning algorithms was also  
568 introduced for the first time in the asset prioritization field where Decision Trees, K-Nearest  
569 Neighbors and Naïve Bayesian classification algorithms were experimented, and the highest  
570 performing algorithm was outlined. Furthermore, the developed model was validated by means of  
571 a comparison with a previously established model against the actual priority levels derived for  
572 components and it exhibited a higher predictive performance by around 11% which makes it  
573 suitable for the automated and efficient prioritization of hospital building assets for renewal  
574 purposes. The proposed model was applied on Canadian healthcare facilities which proposes a  
575 possible path for further research by expanding the application of the model on different parts of  
576 the world mimicking their respective prioritization mechanisms. The criticality and performance  
577 deficiency-based priority levels derived can also be used in future models to rank and evaluate the  
578 applicability of different maintenance strategies to each building asset. The identification and  
579 analysis of more criteria to evaluate the priority and urgency of hospital assets, as well as the  
580 experimentation of different algorithms can also work as an interesting expansion endeavor.

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