Journal of Zhejiang University-SCIENCE A 2026 27(8):783-808
www.jzus.zju.edu.cn; www.springer.com/journal/11582
E-mail: jzus_a@zju.edu.cn

Review

https://doi.org/10.1631/jzus.A2600093

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Integrating artificial intelligence in the lifecycle evolution of district heating networks: challenges and opportunities

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Abstract: The evolution of next-generation district heating networks toward higher efficiency and sustainability is constrained by persistent challenges in supply–demand coordination and lifecycle optimization. This paper provides a comprehensive review of artificial intelligence (AI) integration across four key lifecycle stages of heating networks: planning and design, construction and renewal, operation and control, as well as maintenance and fault diagnosis. Critical research gaps are identified, including application fragmentation and persistent data silos. The literature has demonstrated that AI-based approaches can deliver significant performance improvements across multiple lifecycle stages. In the planning phase, AI can improve design computational efficiency, in some cases by up to an order of magnitude. In the construction phase, AI-enhanced management has been shown to accelerate project timelines while reducing costs. For operational control, deep learning models can reduce thermal load forecasting errors by more than half. In the maintenance phase, AI enables multiday early fault warnings with localization accuracies exceeding 95% in representative studies. To address the limitations of fragmented applications, a digital thread framework is proposed to enable cross-lifecycle data continuity and integration of decision-making across engineering phase. Finally, future research directions are outlined, emphasizing adaptive AI frameworks aligned with urban evolution, the integration of digital twins with intelligent optimization agents, and the development of interpretable and transferable AI models.

Key words: District heating networks (DHNs); Artificial intelligence (AI); Lifecycle; Digital thread (DT)

1 Introduction

The global energy transition, driven by the need to mitigate climate change and promote urban sustainability, has led to the redesign of energy infrastructure (Luderer et al., 2022). Broadly defined, energy systems encompass the generation, transmission, distribution, and consumption of energy across various sectors, including electricity, heating, and transportation (Wu et al., 2025). Heating demand currently accounts for approximately 50% of global energy consumption and generates 37% of energy-related CO_2 emissions (IEA, 2025). In China, coal accounted for 62% of the primary energy consumption in 2023, and fossil fuels still provided 63% of electricity generation in 2024 (EIA, 2024). Within this framework, district heating networks (DHNs) serve as a critical component of urban energy infrastructure, providing a reliable and centralized heat supply to residential, commercial, and industrial buildings.

Over the past few decades, many DHNs—particularly in regions such as northern Europe and China—have heavily relied on large-scale and usually coal-fired power plants or dedicated boilers for heat

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Received Feb. 10, 2026; Revision accepted May 2, 2026; Crosschecked July 16, 2026; Online first Aug. 19, 2026

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generation. While effective at meeting base-load heating demands, this traditional model faces increasing pressure from several converging factors (Lund et al., 2025).

First, mitigating climate change necessitates a diversified and fundamental shift toward decarbonization (Lin et al., 2026), as evidenced by record global energy-related CO_2 emissions of 37.8 Gt in 2024, with the Chinese power sector accounting for over 5.6 Gt alone (IEA, 2025). Second, air quality concerns in urban areas drive the replacement of polluting coal-fired boilers with long-distance large heating alternatives (Meibodi and Loveridge, 2022; Guelpa et al., 2023). Third, the growing penetration of renewable energy sources—such as geothermal, solar thermal, and waste heat recovery—presents both challenges and opportunities for integrating these variable and usually lower-temperature heat sources into existing DHN infrastructures (Zhang et al., 2022). Traditionally, their operation, planning, and maintenance have relied on physics-based models and expert-driven heuristics. All the factors above point to the need for a profound transformation of DHNs, moving beyond simple fuel substitution toward more holistic solutions—for example, involving upgrades to network components, redesign of operational strategies, and enhanced integration of diverse heat sources. Such a transition aims to improve energy efficiency, reduce carbon emissions, enhance system flexibility, and ensure long-term economic viability.

To navigate this complex transition, artificial intelligence (AI) technologies have emerged with the potential to significantly accelerate and optimize the transformation of DHNs across their entire life cycles. Importantly, AI is not a monolithic technology but a spectrum of methodologies, each offering distinct advantages for different DHN lifecycle stages, as summarized in Table 1.

Machine learning (ML), such as the support vector machine (SVM) and XGBoost methods, excels at extracting patterns from structured historical data; as such, it offers high computational efficiency for tasks such as load forecasting (Lin et al., 2026) and leakage detection (Xue et al., 2019). AI models deployed in district heating systems (e.g., XGBoost) have achieved a mean absolute percentage error (MAPE) as low as 2.47%, leading to operational cost savings and improved load balancing (Song et al., 2024).

Deep learning (DL)—including models such as CNNs and Transformers—utilizes multilayered architectures to process unstructured data (e.g., thermal imagery for anomaly detection) (Vollmer et al., 2025) and capture complex temporal dependencies in long-term sequence prediction (Zhou et al., 2021). PINNs represent a hybrid paradigm that integrates established physical laws—such as pipe heat balance and thermodynamics—directly into the neural network architecture or loss function (de Giuli et al., 2024). Related hybrid architectures, including CNN-LSTM models augmented with synthetic data, have achieved

Table 1 AI technologies for DHNs: principles, advantages, and models

AI technology	Principle	Advantage	Model	Reference
ML	Statistical induction from data patterns	Efficient; robust on limited data	SVR, XGBoost, KNN, RF	Zhou et al. (2024)
DL	Hierarchical representation via multilayer networks	Auto-feature extraction; spatiotemporal data	CNN, LSTM, Transformers, PINN	Chen et al. (2025)
Reinforcement learning (RL)	Reward-based interaction and policy learning	Autonomous real-time optimization	DDPG, SAC, PPO, DQN, SARSA	Elhafaia et al. (2025)
Evolutionary algorithm (EA)	Bioinspired population-based stochastic search	Nonconvex spaces without gradients	Genetic algorithms, PSO, ACO, simulated annealing	Chan (2024)
Multiagent system	Distributed negotiation and coordination	Decentralized coordination	Collaborative MAS, MARL	Mazzarino et al. (2022)
Expert system/NLP	Symbolic reasoning and semantic analysis	Automated text-based engineering	LLM, BERT, case-based reasoning, rule-based matching	Souza et al. (2025)

NLP is the natural language processing; SVR is the support vector regression; KNN is the *K*-nearest neighbor; RF is the random forest; CNN is the convolutional neural network; LSTM is the long short-term memory; PINN is the physics-informed neural network; DDPG is the deep deterministic policy gradient; SAC is the soft actor-critic; PPO is the proximal policy optimization; DQN is the deep Q-network; SARSA is the state-action-reward-state-action; PSO is the particle swarm optimization; ACO is the ant colony optimization; MAS is the multiagent system; MARL is the multiagent reinforcement learning; LLM is the large language model; BERT is the bidirectional encoder representations from Transformers

strong fault detection performance in both laboratory and real-world conditions, with reported F1-scores of approximately 95% and 92%, respectively (van Dreven et al., 2025).

RL represents a shift from simple prediction to autonomous decision-making. By learning through interaction, RL agents (e.g., DDPG) are particularly adept at optimizing real-time control strategies in dynamic multivector energy systems where traditional physical models may fall short (Elhafaia et al., 2025). Building on this autonomy, MAS provides the organizational structure for decentralized DHNs. By treating individual heat substations and prosumers as autonomous agents, MAS enables peer-to-peer energy trading and collaborative load balancing; this ensures system-wide stability through local negotiations rather than vulnerable centralized commands.

EAs are a core branch of AI focused on population-based stochastic search, as inspired by natural selection. Expert systems and NLP rely on knowledge bases and semantic analysis to handle deterministic tasks, such as compliance checking and contract risk assessment during engineering phases (Dikmen et al., 2025). As research on AI techniques matures, their scope of application within DHNs is continuously broadening, essentially touching every phase from initial planning and design (PD) through construction and renewal (CR) to ongoing operation and control (OC), and final maintenance and fault diagnosis (MD).

Several review articles have already explored the intersection of AI and DHNs, as summarized in Table 2. For example, Mbiydzenyuy et al. (2021) focused on load forecasting algorithms and the evolution of technical/business logic but largely omitted the CR phase of heating infrastructure. Moreover, Buffa et al. (2021) provided an in-depth analysis of advanced control and fault detection in the fourth-/fifth-generation (4G/5G) system.

However, their scopes were largely confined to the operational phase, overlooking the impact of early-phase design decisions on long-term maintenance. Zhang YH et al. (2024) reviewed temperature control strategies for 5G DHN systems using virtual testbeds but lacked a systematic discussion of how data flow across different lifecycle stages. Complementing these observations, Ntakolia et al. (2022) mapped ML applications to governance layers but provided limited insights into the granular engineering implementation details required for field deployment. Brown et al. (2022) systematically reviewed modeling tools and simulation strategies, although their focus on mathematical principles tended to bypass the dynamic evolution and construction risks inherent in aging networks. Finally, while Rafati and Shaker (2024) advanced the field of predictive maintenance (PdM), their analysis treated the maintenance phase as an isolated event, and thus lacked a robust feedback loop to optimize early-phase PD.

Collectively, these studies emphasize technical optimization in isolated phase, leaving the engineering construction phase and systemic cross-lifecycle data synergy as significant research gaps. Since the transition of DHNs is a complex system-wide process, it is vital to systematically map the diverse applications of

Table 2 Comparison of existing review articles on AI and digitalization in DHNs

Reference	PD	CR	OC	MD	Core focus and research gap
Mbiydzenyuy et al. (2021)	☐	☐	☑	☐	Focused on ML load forecasting; explicitly omitted construction
Buffa et al. (2021)	☐	☐	☑	☑	4G/5G control and FDD; scope was confined to operational phase
Zhang YH et al. (2024)	☐	☐	☑	☐	Focused on 5G DHN temperature curves; lacked lifecycle data flow analysis
Ntakolia et al. (2022)	☑	☐	☑	☐	ML technology and governance; lacked engineering implementation
Brown et al. (2022)	☑	☐	☐	☐	Modeling approaches; focused on principles rather than evolution
Kuntuarova et al. (2024)	☑	☐	☐	☐	Model validation lacked standardized real-world testing
Rafati and Shaker (2024)	☐	☐	☐	☑	Predictive maintenance; lacked a design–maintenance feedback loop
Gjoka et al. (2023)	☑	☐	☑	☐	5G DHN performance; scarce design guidelines and data integration
Jiang et al. (2022)	☑	☐	☐	☐	Optimal planning; insufficient discussion on dynamic evolution
Zhou et al. (2024)	☑	☐	☑	☐	Energy sharing in carbon-neutral districts; lacked construction analysis
This work	☑	☑	☑	☑	Full lifecycle perspective and DT framework

FDD is the fault detection and diagnosis; DT is the digital thread

AI across the entire lifecycle of DHN transformation. A comprehensive review is essential for highlighting the unique challenges and opportunities at each phase.

Accordingly, in this review, we aim to fill this gap by providing a holistic perspective on the role of AI technologies in supporting the transformation of DHNs throughout their complete lifecycles. The goal is to systematically identify, categorize, and discuss state-of-the-art AI applications in each key lifecycle stage: PD, CR, OC, and MD. By doing so, we seek to answer the following questions:

(1) How can AI technologies be effectively integrated into each distinct phase of the DHN lifecycle to address the specific challenges posed by the energy transition?

(2) What are the unique opportunities and gaps for AI applications at different lifecycle stages?

(3) How can the insights gained from AI applications in one stage inform and optimize processes in subsequent phases, fostering more cohesive and intelligent DHN ecosystems?

This overview is intended to provide researchers and practitioners with a clear understanding of the current landscape, identify future research directions, and support the successful, efficient, and sustainable transformation of DHNs.

2 Artificial intelligence and the DHN lifecycle

Energy systems—encompassing both the broader concept of energy infrastructure and the more specific domain of power systems—are undergoing a continuous and profound evolution. For instance, in the electric reliability council of Texas (ERCOT) market, an additional 1 GWh of wind energy generation reduces wholesale electricity prices by approximately 2.27 USD/MWh on average, while reported estimates across different regions range from 0.40 to 13.00 USD/MWh, reflecting strong system uncertainty and variability (Çolak and Irmak, 2023).

2.1 Evolution of power systems and low-carbon DHNs

Power systems are also undergoing an unprecedented transformation (Castaneda et al., 2017). The large-scale integration of renewable energy sources has played a positive role in reducing carbon emissions. However, their inherent intermittency and uncertainty have also presented new challenges to stable power grid operations (Çolak and Irmak, 2023). Quantitative analyses have shown that uncertainties in wind generation can nearly double both marginal operating costs and the number of conventional generator start-ups compared to perfectly forecasted conditions. Moreover, reducing renewable forecasting errors to the level of demand uncertainty could lower system integration costs by approximately 0.5 million USD per year in representative electricity markets. Simultaneously, the rise of distributed generation poses challenges to traditional business models (Castaneda et al., 2017). Against this backdrop, the application of smart grid technologies using AI has become crucial.

As an integral part of power systems, DHNs are undergoing a transformation due to challenges such as the energy transition, new technologies, and environmental concerns. Traditional district heating systems, which primarily rely on fossil fuels and operate at high temperatures, suffer from significant heat losses and are increasingly unable to meet the growing demand for low-carbon energy. To address these challenges, 5G DHNs were developed (Fig. 1). The transformation to 5G DHNs represents the forefront of the heating industry's response to the dual challenge of accelerating urbanization and climate change. Low-carbon 5G DHN features near-ambient temperature operation, bidirectional energy flow between users and producers, and decentralized heating (Gjoka et al., 2023). Unique developments have also emerged, such as the phasing out of coal-fired boilers (Wu et al., 2024), the rise of long-distance waste-heat supply, and the operation of multisource heating networks (Wang et al., 2019).

The literature has predominantly focused on individual transformation measures (Kleinertz and Gruber, 2022). To address this gap, we develop a comprehensive set of transformation strategies. As shown in Fig. 2, three core characteristics of the 5G DHN transformation are delineated: multisector coordination, multitime evolution, and multispace restructuring. (1) Multisector coordination encompasses both internal and external dimensions. Internally, it involves the collaboration of office automation systems across various departments within a heating enterprise. Externally, it necessitates procedural approvals and coordination between multiple municipal departments. (2) Multitime scale evolution spans the entire lifecycle of a DHN

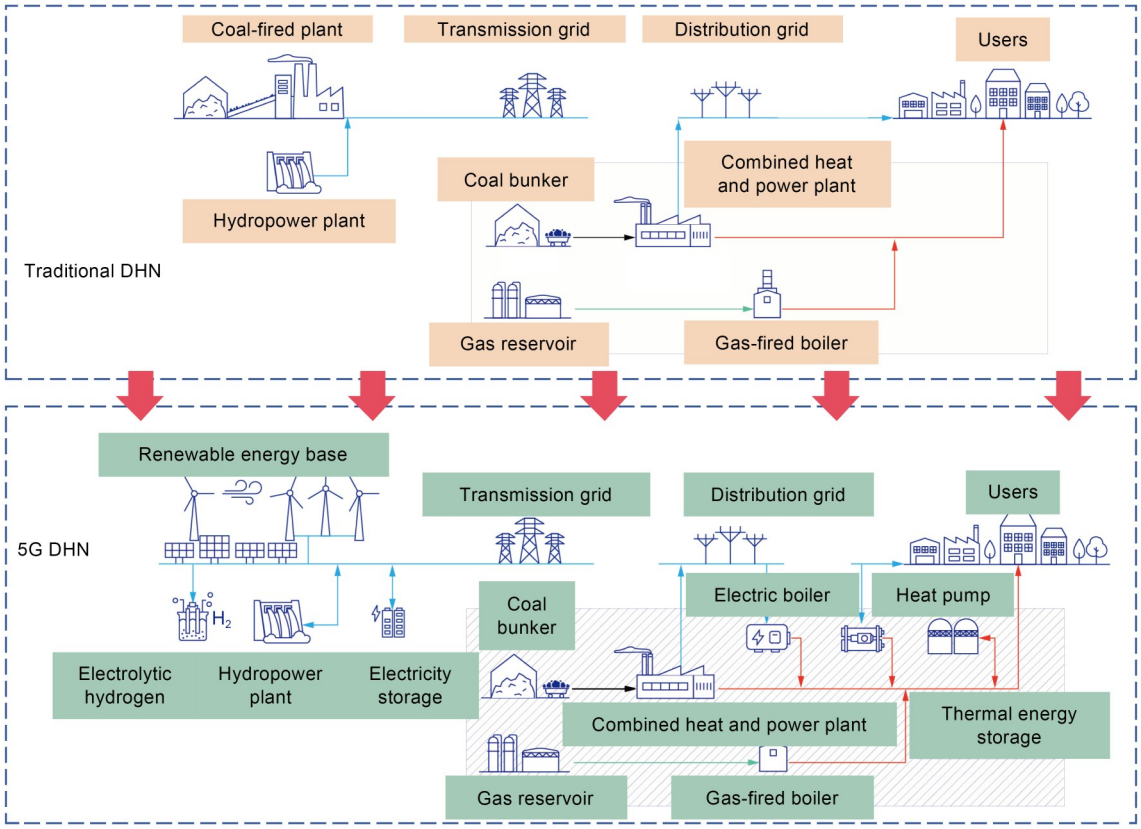


Fig. 1 Transformation from traditional DHN to 5G DHN

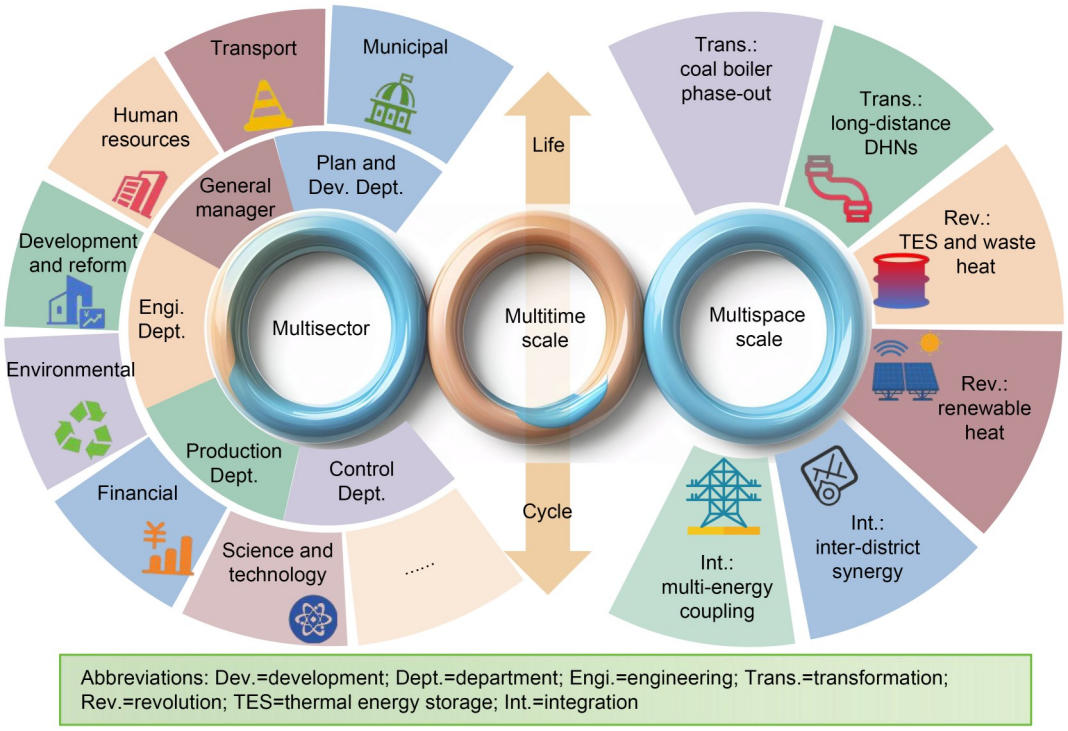


Fig. 2 Three core characteristics for the transformation of 5G DHN

throughout the transformation period, encompassing phases such as planning, construction, operation, and maintenance. (3) Multispace restructuring primarily manifests in the upgrading and reconstruction of heating networks and the transformation of heat sources (Johansen and Werner, 2022; Zhou et al., 2024).

The transformation of 5G DHN is characterized by its prolonged duration, spatial variations, and involvement of numerous sectors. Therefore, AI-assisted digital transformation and intelligent upgrades will be pivotal in ensuring the smooth evolution of DHNs.

2.2 AI-assisted lifecycles of DHNs amid low-carbon evolution

The transformation of DHNs is fundamentally a temporal evolution underpinning reconfiguration across multiple spatial scales and coordination among various stakeholders. Consequently, this review focuses on the evolution of multiple time scales, delving into the strategic application of AI across the entire lifecycle of DHN evolution. Fig. 3 illustrates the different phases involved in the lifecycle of DHNs, encompassing PD, CR, OC, and MD.

AI is a critical driver of ongoing evolution within DHNs. Its application provides robust support for intelligent heating management, permeating every phase of the DHN lifecycle. Specifically, as illustrated in Fig. 4, AI can optimize PD methodologies, enhance the efficiency of CR schemes, bolster OC strategies, refine the precision of heating control mechanisms, and improve MD protocols. In the PD phase, AI can enhance design quality and efficiency by constructing surrogate models and leveraging intelligent algorithms.

In the CR phase, AI can leverage NLP techniques to analyze technical documents and computer vision techniques to analyze on-site images, providing real-time support for risk management and engineering progress tracking. In the OC phase, AI can empower load forecasting, the establishment of DHN models, and operational regulation, thereby enabling precise control of the DHN system. In the MD phase, AI can intelligently diagnose and locate leak positions and types, thus improving operational safety. These applications not only enhance the efficiency of heating management but also improve the resilience of DHNs, enabling them to better handle the intermittent nature of renewable heat sources and fluctuations in both supply and demand (Zhou et al., 2024).

The following sections will review the specific strategies and methods for integrating AI at each lifecycle stage of DHN evolution.

3 Artificial intelligence applications across the DHN lifecycle

The integration of AI technologies throughout the DHN lifecycle represents a fundamental shift from traditional empirical methods toward a data-driven paradigm that offers measurable gains in efficiency, reliability, and sustainability. To provide a high-level benchmark before delving into the specific technical pathways of each phase, Table 3 synthesizes key quantitative data from state-of-the-art studies. This summary highlights the transformative impact of AI—ranging from order-of-magnitude improvements in design efficiency to significant reductions in operational costs and fault lead times. As such, this points to its importance in the transition to next-generation heating systems.

3.1 Planning and design

The PD phase of DHNs is a complex and multistage optimization problem that is fundamentally concerned with the configuration of pipelines, heat substations, and related components.

As shown in Fig. 5, a widely adopted framework for this phase divides the PD phase into four hierarchical levels (Schmidt and Stange, 2021): level 0 uses geographic information systems (GIS) to collect data on heat loads and potential heat sources; level 1 ensures hydraulic balance and determines key operating parameters; level 2 optimizes the network topology and

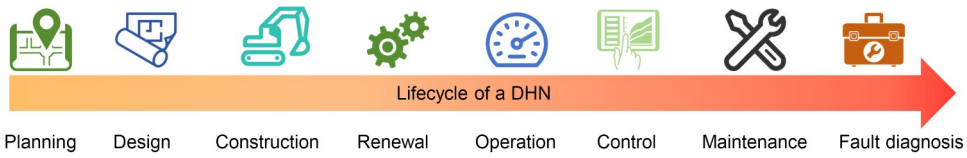


Fig. 3 Lifecycle of a DHN

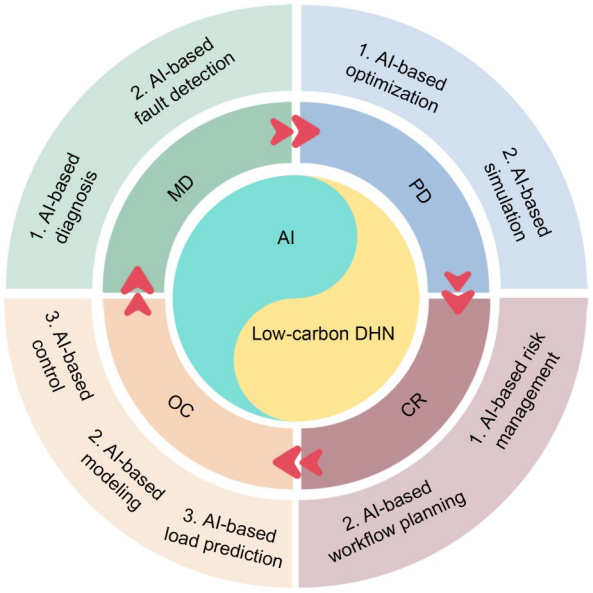


Fig. 4 Overview of AI in the lifecycle of a DHN

pipeline routing; level 3 solves the high-dimensional optimization problem of pipe diameter selection, which directly determines capital investment. Another critical optimization tier, situated between levels 2 and 3, involves the synergistic selection of insulation materials and thicknesses to balance heat losses with material costs; this represents a classic trade-off between operational and capital expenditures (Chen et al., 2022).

To overcome these limitations, AI, particularly evolutionary optimization algorithms (EOAs), has emerged as an alternative paradigm. EOAs—including methods such as simulated annealing (SA), ACO, and PSO—are well suited to the complex design landscape of DHNs. Their primary advantages lie in their gradient-free nature and their ability to handle nonlinear, nonconvex, and nondifferentiable objective functions without sensitivity to initial conditions (Sarbu et al., 2019). This makes them highly effective for optimizing diverse facets of DHN design, such as pipe sizing, substation siting, and network topology (Su et al., 2022).

In a large-scale network case study in Xi'an, China, the improved genetic algorithm reduced the number of design variables from 246 to 63 and the number of iteration steps from over 6000 to less than 60. This resulted in a 99.5% improvement in computational efficiency and a reconstruction profit of 25.4 million CNY (Xu et al., 2024). The main drawback of EOAs, however, is their potentially high computational cost for large-scale problems.

Table 3 Key performance indicators and quantitative benefits of AI integration across DHN lifecycle stages

Lifecycle stage	Improvement area	Key quantitative data	Reference
PD	Computational efficiency	99.5% improvement; variables reduced from 246 to 63 (74.4% reduction)	Xu et al. (2024)
	Simulation speed	0.77 s optimization time	Lambert and Spliethoff (2024)
	Heat loss accuracy	0.65% average error	Chen et al. (2022)
	Low-temperature efficiency	30% reduction in heat loss	Terhan (2022)
CR	Project timeline	50% faster completion	Sholeh et al. (2020)
	Construction cost	52.36% cost reduction	Sholeh et al. (2020)
	Safety monitoring	88% accuracy (YOLOv8)	Woźniak et al. (2025)
	Progress tracking	30% better reporting accuracy	Salimian (2025)
OC	Load forecasting	59.4% error reduction	Boutarene (2025)
	Pump performance; energy saving	25% increase in COP; 13% average savings	Fraunhofer ISE (2024)
	Forecasting error	MAPE reduced from 21.2% to 8.6%	Boutarene (2025)
	Electricity bill	10.6% power cost savings	Almatared et al. (2025)
MD	Leakage detection	85.85% to 97.50% accuracy	Yang et al. (2024)
	Early warning	3.9 d average lead time	Roelofs et al. (2026)
	Downtime	47.6% fewer unplanned outages	Mar-Hy Distributors (2023)
	Asset life	20% lifespan extension	Mar-Hy Distributors (2023)

COP is the coefficient of performance; YOLOv8 is a single-stage real-time DL framework for object detection

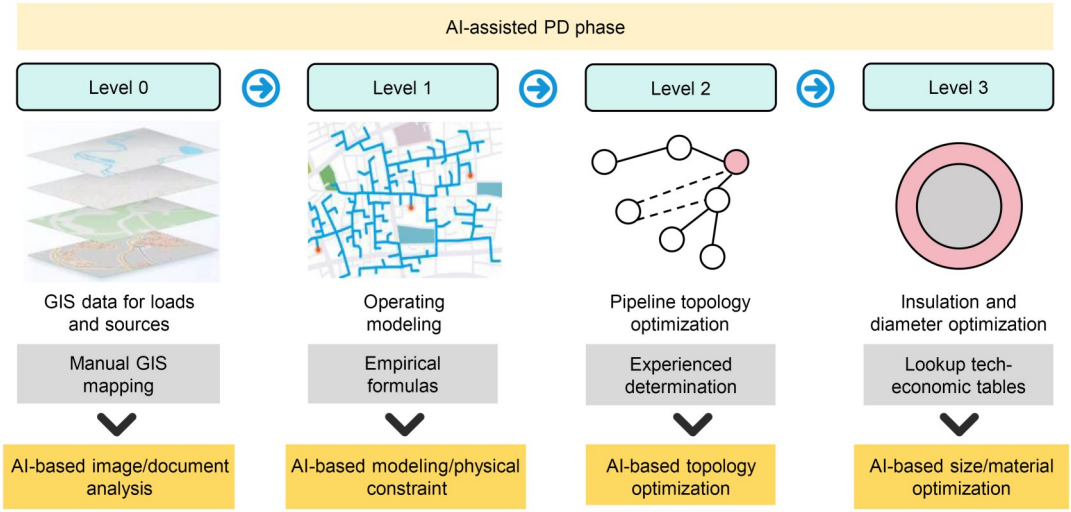


Fig. 5 Optimization levels in AI-assisted PD phase

Complementing this direct optimization approach, artificial neural networks (ANNs) offer a distinct and data-driven paradigm that functions primarily as a surrogate model or an accelerator within the design workflow. The data sources for these networks can be derived from simulation software such as TRNSYS (Abokersh et al., 2020) or calculated using mathematical formulas, such as those from lifecycle design analysis and heat-loss mechanistic models (Kayfeci et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2022). Related research has explored the application of ANNs to precisely determine optimal insulation thickness. For instance, Chen et al. (2022) developed a data-driven model employing an ANN to reconcile discrepancies between measured and theoretical heat-loss values in pipeline networks and to augment available datasets. This ANN-based approach reduced the average error in predicting the actual heat loss to 0.65% (Chen et al., 2022). The ANN model was able to map various input parameters—including the pipe diameter, thickness, and material of each insulation layer, flow rate, pipe temperature, pipe length, and pressure rating—to corresponding heat loss values. Moreover, optimizing temperature levels (e.g., from 80/40 °C to 60/30 °C) can reduce the network heat loss by up to 30% (Terhan, 2022).

Subsequently, a nonlinear programming algorithm was executed using MATLAB to further optimize the thickness configuration for each insulation layer. Kayfeci et al. (2014) focused on employing ANNs to predict the optimal insulation thickness and its associated lifecycle costs (LCCs). By first establishing optimal values through traditional LCC analysis, and then training an ANN to learn this parametric relationship, a rapid prediction tool that could generalize to various operating conditions was obtained; as such, the need for repetitive and computationally intensive calculations was dramatically reduced. In both cases, the ANN does not replace the optimization algorithm but rather augments it by providing a fast and accurate approximation of the objective function or constraints, thereby streamlining the design process.

In conclusion, while traditional optimization methods remain relevant for specific and simplified scenarios, AI-based techniques—particularly EOAs—have emerged as the dominant paradigm for tackling the intricate design challenges of next-generation DHNs. However, their widespread adoption is still contingent on overcoming the hurdle of high computational intensity, which remains a primary focus of ongoing research and development.

3.2 Construction and renewal

3.2.1 Construction risk assessment

Large-scale DHNs exhibit three key characteristics during the construction phase: long project durations, extensive distances covered, and high cost and risk exposure. These factors make DHN construction projects particularly vulnerable to delays, safety incidents, and budget overruns; large-scale DHN construction is particularly susceptible to budget overruns. AI technologies have proven effective in mitigating such challenges within broader construction projects (Kazeem

et al., 2023), and their potential to improve risk management in DHN projects is being increasingly recognized. Case studies on market-based AI frameworks have reported annual cost savings on the order of hundreds of thousands of US dollars, along with relative market efficiency improvements of approximately 28% (Dmytro et al., 2024).

(1) Preconstruction risk assessment

As illustrated in Fig. 6, before construction, AI techniques can be employed to systematically assess contract documents, drawing errors, and other potential issues. Additionally, techniques such as NLP can automate the analysis of construction contracts, enabling the detection of critical issues such as missing clauses and ambiguous terms, with reported F1-score values ranging from 70.0% to 88.4% and recall rates ranging from 84.6% to 99.3% across different contract analysis tasks (Dikmen et al., 2025). Additionally, AI algorithms have the ability to analyze drawing errors and discrepancies, enabling early identification of project vulnerabilities such as inaccurate man-hour estimates or resource allocation issues (Choi et al., 2021).

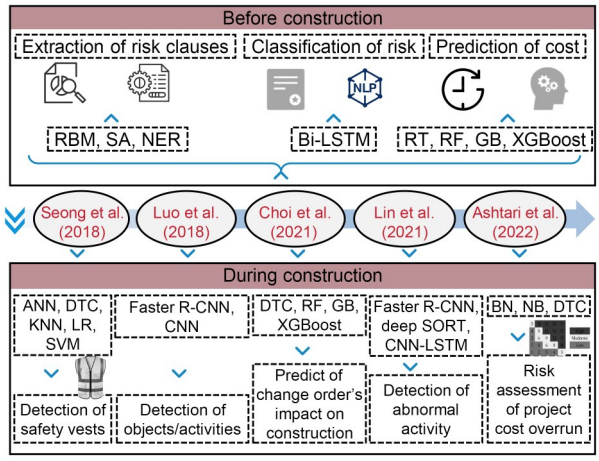


Fig. 6 AI techniques applied to construction risk assessment. RBM is the rule-based matching; NER is the named entity recognition; Bi-LSTM is the bidirectional long short-term memory; RT is the regression tree; GB is the gradient boosting; DTC is the decision tree classifier; LR is the linear regression; R-CNN is the region-based convolutional neural network; SORT is the simple online and real-time tracking; BN is the Bayesian network; NB is the naive Bayes

(2) Risk management during construction

During the construction phase itself, AI facilitates comprehensive and real-time risk management, such as handling scope changes and controlling cost overruns (Ashtari et al., 2022). In terms of site safety, computer vision algorithms (e.g., YOLOv8) for monitoring hardhat compliance achieved 88% accuracy and 93% precision (Woźniak et al., 2025). AI systems have also reduced construction monitoring costs by 10% while increasing progress reporting accuracy by 30% (Salimian, 2025). Furthermore, computer vision-based AI technologies can be utilized to bolster on-site safety measures. Specifically, during DHN pipeline construction, the SORT method enables real-time monitoring of the worksite environment with a multiple object tracking accuracy of 82%. This includes terrain analysis and identification of potential hazards via drone inspections, as well as dynamic prediction and adjustment of construction progress (Lin et al., 2021).

Methods, such as expert system models, are commonly used AI techniques in construction management and enable new problems to be solved by leveraging existing experience; examples include RBM and case-based reasoning (CBR) (Yau and Yang, 1998). Nevertheless, expert system models still face challenges in contemporary construction management, including imperfections in their systems, the lack of real-time data streams, and deficiencies in case similarity definitions and retrieval mechanisms. NLP algorithms have also been applied to automated risk analysis of construction contracts, demonstrating promising baseline performance in tasks such as NER and semantic analysis.

Within the realm of ML, supervised learning is widely employed for training models and evaluating their applications in risk management and construction safety supervision; commonly used models include the DTC, RT, RF, GB, XGBoost, BN, NB, KNN, LR, and SVM. Given that the performance of different ML algorithms varies across tasks and even on the same task using other datasets (as encapsulated by the no free lunch theorem) (Xu and Saleh, 2021), nearly all studies conduct comparative analyses across multiple ML algorithms, examining the impact of various hyperparameters on the model results and generalization capabilities. However, ML models often require manual feature engineering, for example, by exploring different color spaces, making them less practical for direct deployment on construction sites (Seong et al., 2018).

DL methods have gained traction in safety monitoring due to their capabilities in adaptive feature extraction and generalization, leading to notable applications such as Bi-LSTM, fast region-based convolutional

neural networks (F-RCNNs), and simple online and real-time tracking with a deep association metric (Fang et al., 2018). However, since detection based solely on individual image frames fails to capture sequential actions, such as the cyclical movements of an excavator, the integration of CNNs and recurrent neural networks (RNNs) has become a promising trend (Luo et al., 2018). When processed through hybrid CNN-RNN architectures, multimodal data streams enable temporal pattern recognition of precursor signatures corresponding to structural failures or operational hazards.

3.2.2 Construction workflow planning

The extended construction lifecycle characteristic of large-scale DHNs necessitates the application of AI technologies to support the following critical aspects: construction progress management and quality control process management (Baduge et al., 2022), as shown in Fig. 7. Our subsequent discussion will focus on these two points. The following analysis draws insights from the broader architecture–engineering–construction (AEC) industry, as DHN construction is an integral component of urban infrastructure development and falls under the category of municipal public works (Hanafy, 2025).

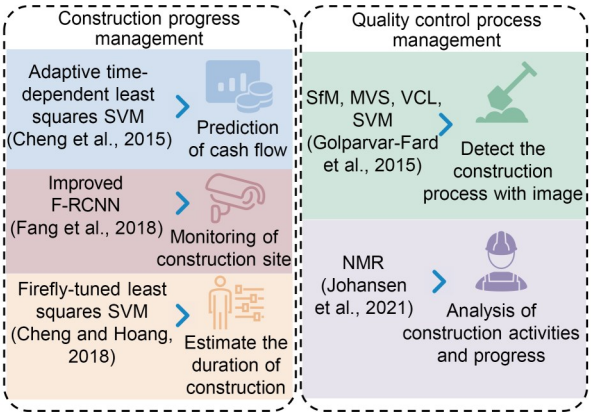


Fig. 7 AI techniques applied to construction workflow planning. SfM is the structure-from-motion; MVS is the multiview stereo; VCL is the voxel coloring and labeling; NMR is the nonmonotonic reasoning

Construction progress management primarily aims to address cash flow and cost control throughout the construction lifecycle, as well as to optimally allocate labor and resources over the project duration. For example, an average deviation in construction cash flow predictions as low as 1.8% was achieved using a time-dependent least squares SVM (Cheng et al., 2015).

Quality control and construction process management, on the other hand, focus on implementing comprehensive monitoring throughout the construction lifecycle; it encompasses both quality and progress oversight. For instance, computer vision techniques, such as SfM, MVS, and VCL, are often used to reconstruct 3D models from unordered 2D photographs (Golparvar-Fard et al., 2015). This approach effectively addresses occlusion and partial visibility issues, enabling AI systems to analyze the state of construction elements from multiple perspectives and manage complex 3D construction scenarios. To quantify this, automated progress detection accuracies of 82.89%–91.05% have been achieved for real construction datasets, as-built and as-planned model registration errors were within 0.20–0.73 mm, and the progress monitoring efficiency increased by more than 80% compared with manual methods (Golparvar-Fard et al., 2015). NMR, when integrated with field data and a construction knowledge base, facilitates logical inference within answer set programming (Johansen et al., 2021). By applying predefined rules, it can assess worker states and basic operational behaviors, thereby improving construction efficiency and progress.

By applying AI to track timelines, allocate resources, and monitor construction quality in real time, projects can be completed more efficiently and with fewer risks. The integration of advanced computer vision and reasoning techniques further enhances the ability to manage complex construction processes, improving overall outcomes.

3.3 Operation and control

3.3.1 Load forecasting

Load forecasting is an essential component of operational control in DHNs and represents one of the primary application domains for AI technologies (Mbiydzenyuy et al., 2021). A mainstream development trend involves integrating forecasts of individual building thermal loads into regional thermal loads (Sakkas and Abang, 2022). Two methodologies are primarily employed: physics-based engineering methods and data-driven approaches (Jiang et al., 2022). This review focuses predominantly on data-driven methods, particularly those leveraging AI.

Previous reviews in this field have noted that ML methods remain the dominant technology, with hybrid approaches combining techniques such as ANN and

SVM attracting increasing research interest (Xue et al., 2019; Mbiydzenyuy et al., 2021). ML techniques demonstrate significantly higher accuracy than traditional statistical regression methods (Geysen et al., 2018; Jiang et al., 2022). As an example, in heat load forecasting, a hybrid denoising autoencoder-LSTM model reduced the MAPE from 21.2% to 8.6% in high-noise internet of things (IoT) environments, representing a performance gain of 59.4% (Boutarene, 2025). Moreover, in Denmark, large operators achieved 15% to 30% accuracy improvements in load forecasting (Madsen, 2023). However, there is no conclusive evidence identifying a universally superior ML model for specific problem domains. Furthermore, data quality and scale are arguably more critical factors for enhancing predictive accuracy (Zdravković et al., 2022).

As depicted in Fig. 8, a variety of models are widely utilized in thermal load forecasting studies (Idowu et al., 2016), such as multiple linear regression (MLR), LR, extra tree (ET), SVR, deep neural network (DNN), ridge regression (RR), autoregressive with exogenous input (ARX) model, fuzzy logic (FL), partially linear model (PLM), graph neural network (GNN) (Wang ZJ et al., 2023), and ensemble methods (Johansson et al., 2017; Shakeel et al., 2023). Among these, traditional ML models—particularly SVR—are prevalent.

In the realm of AI techniques, ANNs are sometimes regarded as the optimal model (Kurek et al., 2021), while at other times, they are considered inferior to models such as SVMs (Mbiydzenyuy et al., 2021). By integrating real-case data into system training, ANNs can account for social parameters, thereby enhancing the adaptability and accuracy of load forecasting. However, a primary drawback of this method is the potential for overfitting and the need for substantial training data. Therefore, the essence of achieving superior prediction results lies in the alignment between the model, the data quality, the data quantity, and the task at hand.

At the same time, DL models are increasingly being applied for forecasting (Song et al., 2021). Based on Transformer architectures, Informers use improved sparse self-attention mechanisms. This significantly enhances the efficiency and accuracy of long-sequence time series forecasting, making it well suited for complex load prediction tasks (Gong et al., 2022; Wang ZJ et al., 2023). While ML and DL methods offer substantial advantages over traditional forecasting techniques, their success depends heavily on alignment between the type of model, the data quality, and the specific characteristics of the forecasting task. Future research should continue to explore hybrid models and further refine data-driven techniques to improve the reliability and precision of load forecasting for DHNs.

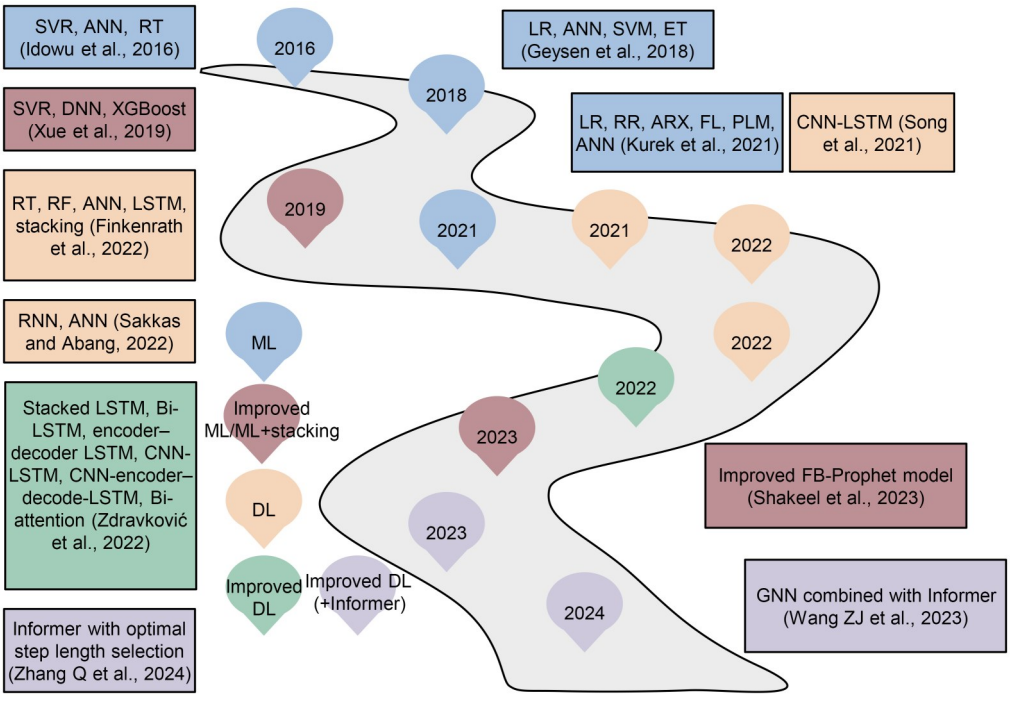


Fig. 8 AI techniques applied to thermal load prediction. FB-Prophet model is the Facebook-Prophet model

3.3.2 Hydraulic and thermal modeling

The development of digital twins for DHNs can be achieved by establishing hydraulic and thermal models, which are crucial for optimized OC. Modeling of heating networks typically employs either physical modeling methods or data-driven methods. The former involves individually designing each component and expressing its flow and pressure loss using sets of equations. Meanwhile, the latter utilizes methods such as the overall network's transfer functions or ANNs. Hydraulic and thermal models are traditionally developed based on graph theory, conceptualizing the heating pipeline network as a graph structure and utilizing incidence matrices and loop matrices based on Kirchhoff's laws to comprehensively and uniquely describe its topology.

Hydraulic models primarily rely on the continuity equation for flow and the pressure balance equation to analyze flow distribution and pressure losses within the network. Conversely, thermal models employ heat balance equations to evaluate the system's heat demand, heat losses, and heat exchange processes at the consumer end. These models holistically consider pipe geometric characteristics, fluid physical properties, and operating conditions, providing a theoretical foundation for the design, optimization, and operation of heating networks (Sarbu et al., 2019). Commercial software packages, such as TERMIS (Saarinen and Boman, 2012) and Modelica (del Hoyo Arce et al., 2018), serve as powerful tools for the design, optimization, and operational management of heating networks. However, this review mainly focuses on the application of AI techniques in DHN modeling, specifically highlighting the integration of AI with data-driven DHN modeling approaches, as illustrated in Fig. 9.

The core idea behind using AI techniques as alternatives to physical models is to develop methods that learn and replicate the physical dynamic behavior of heat substations or consumer nodes within a DHN while also incorporating physical model insights into the data-driven framework. The aforementioned AI techniques possess distinct advantages in the context of heating network modeling but also exhibit certain limitations. Future research directions in heating network modeling might concentrate on the following aspects: (1) combining the strengths of linear and nonlinear models to enhance the applicability and accuracy of the methods; (2) further optimizing the incorporation of physical constraints to improve model robustness and interpretability (Lu et al., 2024); (3) reducing the computational cost of complex models through algorithmic optimization and hardware acceleration (Rodrigue et al., 2024). Therefore, a combination of data and physical information is needed in AI-based modeling of DHNs. The physically guided spatio–temporal graph convolutional network (STGCN) model achieved an average error of 0.5 K and 0.002 bar in the prediction of DHNs, and its computational time was 99% less than that of traditional dynamic calculation methods (Boussaid et al., 2024). Additionally, by adding physical information, the lower bound of the predicted coefficient of determination (R^2) could be increased by

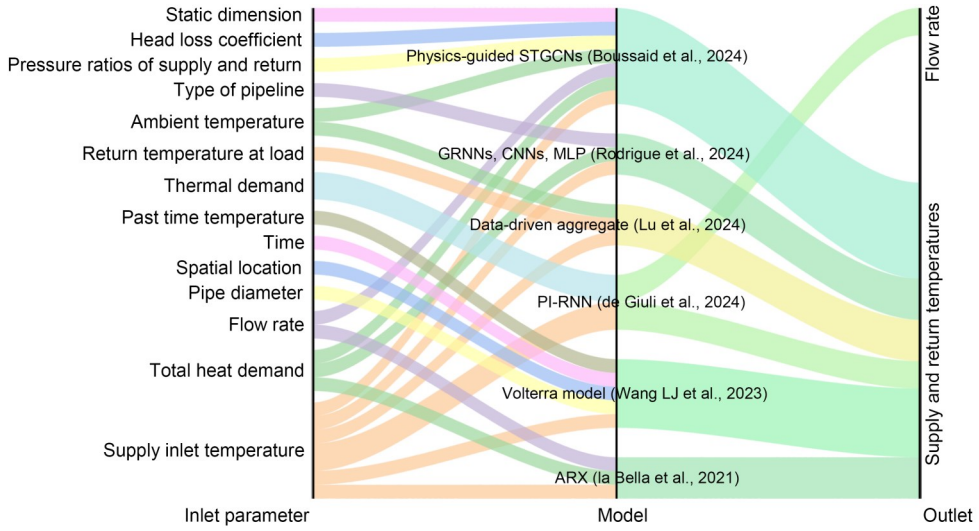


Fig. 9 AI techniques applied to hydraulic and thermal modeling. GRNN is the generalized regression neural network

74.6% with the physics-informed recurrent neural network (PI-RNN) method (de Giuli et al., 2024).

3.3.3 Optimal operational control

Recent studies have also explored PINNs to support both DHN modeling and predictive control (de Giuli et al., 2024). Operational control of DHNs aims to optimize the heating system's operational efficiency and reduce energy waste through intelligent scheduling and real-time regulation (Boussaid et al., 2024). Traditional control methods—such as rule-based control and proportional–integral–derivative control (Ntakolia et al., 2022)—are increasingly struggling to meet economic regulation demands (Lee et al., 2020) for DHN supply–demand matching under the trends of high renewable heat integration and convergence of multi-type energy networks (Buffa et al., 2021). Therefore, the development of AI-based operational control strategies and technologies for DHNs is becoming increasingly vital.

As Buffa et al. (2021) suggest, advanced control technologies can be primarily categorized into model predictive control (MPC), linear programming, mixed integer programming (MIP), mixed integer linear programming (MILP), and MAS (Wei et al., 2024). In a DHN case study from Verona, Italy, MPC achieved a reduction of approximately 12.5% in operational costs during a representative mid-season week and 5.8% in a winter week compared to conventional control (Quaggiotto et al., 2021). When the flexibility was increased by adding centralized heat storage, the cost reductions increased to 20.0% and 6.3%, respectively. Among these, MAS employs various control schemes to manage different types of agents within DHNs or buildings, addressing interdependencies among control variables through agent coordination (Wang LJ et al., 2023). The aforementioned control methods can be integrated with various AI techniques. In MPC, predictive accuracy is critical, and AI-optimized MPC frameworks, often using hybrid surrogate models, enable real-time multiboiler control, reducing energy costs by up to 29% (Boussaid et al., 2026) and emissions by up to 23.3 t CO_2 (Mugnini et al., 2022). Notably, traditional physical models can struggle to describe complex dynamic systems. In contrast, ML (Johansson et al., 2017) and DL models (Xue et al., 2020) can leverage historical data to learn a system's dynamic characteristics, thereby enhancing predictive and control accuracy. Furthermore, in dynamically changing environments, system parameters will vary. Adaptive control techniques combined with AI enable real-time adjustment of MPC parameters to adapt to different operating conditions (Lauenburg and Wollerstrand, 2014). In the context of MILP, optimization algorithms such as genetic algorithms and PSO can be employed to reduce the solution time, addressing the demands of high-dimensional nonlinear optimization and regulation (Urbanucci et al., 2019).

However, as shown in Fig. 10, RL techniques are gradually emerging as a research hotspot (Solinas et al., 2021; Gong et al., 2024). Unlike MPC, which integrates AI-based predictive models as the basis for its control actions, RL often uses reduced-order or surrogate models (Pinto et al., 2021) to predict states or reward functions (Zhang et al., 2019). Despite the significant potential demonstrated by RL, several challenges

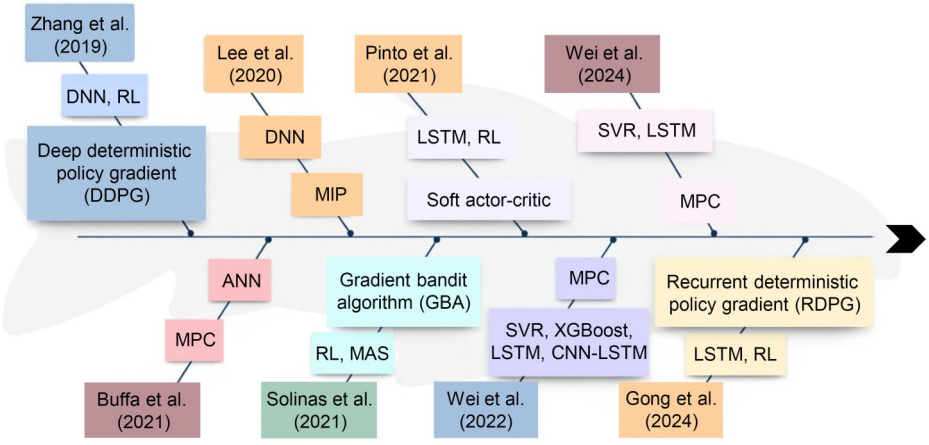


Fig. 10 AI techniques applied to operational control research

persist. First, there are often issues with the quantity and quality of the training data. Although simulation software packages (e.g., EnergyPlus and TRNSYS) or specific environments (e.g., CityLearn) exist for training, it is challenging to ensure tight consistency between simulation and reality (the sim-to-real gap) before deployment in real systems. Second, the training process is typically complex and computationally intensive. RL training can be unstable, requiring meticulous hyperparameter tuning and substantial computational resources, which may pose obstacles for practical applications. Third, RL policies generally offer limited interpretability, which can be a disadvantage in energy systems where strict safety regulations must be met, or detailed fault diagnoses are needed.

In summary, AI-based control strategies, such as MPC, MILP, MAS, and RL, are key to improving DHN operational efficiency under complex and dynamic conditions (Finkenrath et al., 2022). While RL shows great promise, challenges such as data requirements, computational demands, and limited interpretability remain. Addressing these issues is crucial for deployment in real-world systems.

3.4 Maintenance and fault diagnosis

Beyond daily OC, efficient operation necessitates MD for DHNs. As DHNs continue to expand and the integration of multiple networks deepens, manual maintenance and monitoring techniques are becoming increasingly challenging. Timely fault localization and quantitative assessments within DHNs have become more difficult, posing obstacles to large-scale operation. Xue et al. (2020) demonstrated that XGBoost-based models for leak identification achieved an average accuracy of 85.85%; more advanced hybrid models have reached 97.50% accuracy in leakage localization (Yang et al., 2024). Therefore, the adoption of AI-based technologies is particularly promising.

At this stage, routine maintenance of DHNs primarily requires technologies for monitoring and metering (Pałasz and Przysowa, 2019), while fault management mainly relies on FDD (Losi et al., 2024). Monitoring and metering primarily aim to continuously monitor changes in temperature, pressure, and flow within a DHN to promptly identify anomalies, including those related to sensors themselves and within the DHN system (Li et al., 2020). FDD seeks to assist operation and maintenance personnel in quickly formulating repair plans by promptly identifying fault types (such as pipeline leaks, heat loss, and pressure loss) and locating their positions, both before and during a fault event (Xi et al., 2024). AI models have been shown to detect 60% of faults before customers report them, with an average lead time of 3.9 d (Roelofs et al., 2025).

MD for DHNs can be achieved using both physics-based and data-driven methods (Manservigi et al., 2022). Physics-based methods require the construction of numerous models, often via digital twins (Bahlawan et al., 2022), and their accuracy can be unreliable in actual operational scenarios because DHN model parameters may deviate significantly over time. In contrast, data-driven methods—particularly those incorporating AI technologies—can rapidly and accurately implement detection through pattern analysis of monitoring data (Shen et al., 2021).

As can be observed from Table 4, research on pipeline leakage detection dominates studies that concern fault detection and metering. However, there is a relative lack of research focusing on the operation, maintenance, fault diagnosis, and monitoring of other DHN systems, such as heat substations and pumping stations. Furthermore, few studies explicitly discuss data related to the speed and real-time performance of detection. This aspect partially depends on the output capability and speed of the specific AI model and

Table 4 AI techniques applied to fault detection and metering

Detection task	AI technology	Reference
Failure of component	CNN	Li et al. (2020)
	SVM, ANN, bagging DTC	Pałasz and Przysowa (2019)
Pipeline leakage detection and localization	XGBoost	Xue et al. (2020)
	Contextual bandit	Shen et al. (2021)
	ANN	Liu et al. (2023)
	Cuckoo search algorithm and clustering	Xi et al. (2024)
Pipeline pressure and heat loss	Nonlinear ARX neural network	Losi et al. (2024)

partially depends on the frequency and interval of the collected data. Thus, it is essential to understand the response speed and time-consumption aspects of AI technologies applied to pipeline leakage and fault detection, differentiating them from manual operation and maintenance approaches.

Regarding AI techniques, most studies combine simulations/modeling with neural networks to extract fault-related information and use it to train AI systems for timely fault detection and localization. While it is effective for known faults, this approach cannot handle fault information that is not present in the simulations. Consequently, fault diagnoses based on data generated through experiments or simulations and combined with AI techniques may lack practical utility (Bode et al., 2020; Buffa et al., 2021). Simultaneously, anomaly detection methods exhibit significant variations depending on the specific application, meaning that their evaluation also differs based on their inherent characteristics and the nature of the datasets used (Mbiydzenyuy et al., 2021).

To address these challenges, transfer learning methods could be explored, leveraging real-world fault detection data to enhance the quality of the training datasets (Liu et al., 2023). Concurrently, the development of RL-based fault detection methods warrants further investigation. Given that DHN systems operate under dynamic conditions with numerous interacting factors, digital twin models often fail to detect sudden faults. However, RL's ability for sequential decision-making and predictive foresight—utilizing historical data to anticipate future states—offers a promising approach for proactive fault detection and early warning systems.

4 Opportunities and challenges for integrating AI into the DHN lifecycle

Based on the lifecycle stages of DHNs discussed above, the opportunities and challenges of AI can be summarized as shown in Fig. 11.

4.1 Dynamic planning and multiperiod design

DHNs serve large communities or cities and are inherently dynamic, especially during their evolution over time. Factors such as population growth, changes in land use, increasing building density, and adjustments in functional zoning all influence the heat load distribution. Consequently, static planning models may struggle to keep pace with urban evolution, necessitating continuous updates. PD phase requires constant

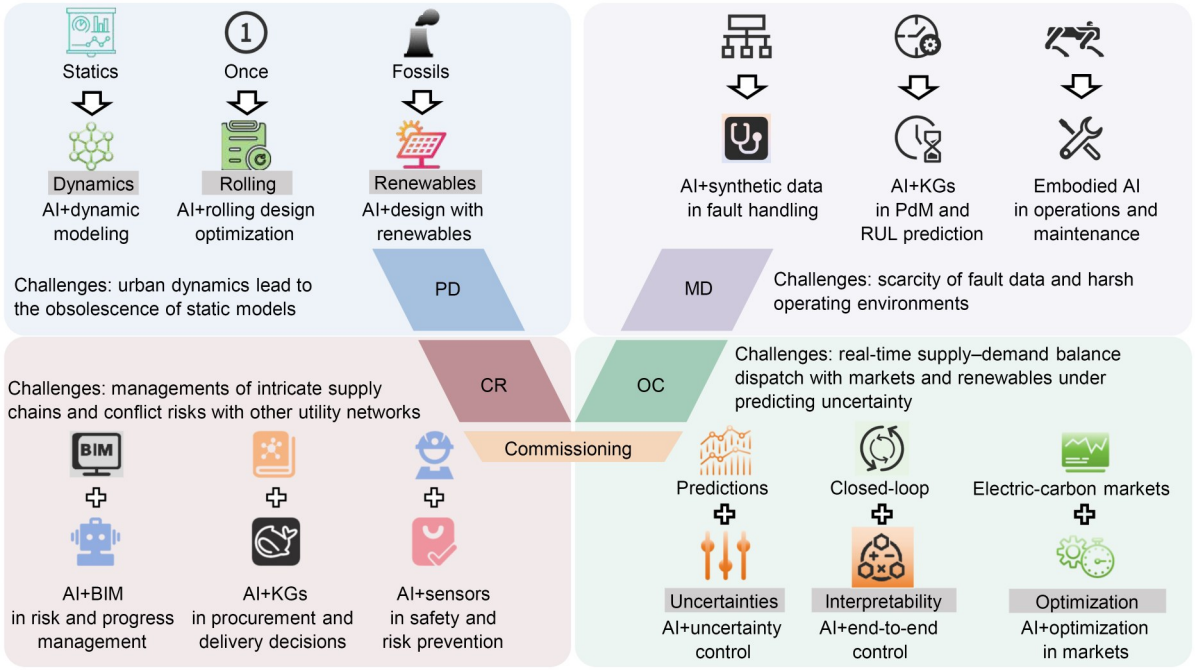


Fig. 11 Summary of the opportunities and challenges for AI within the DHN lifecycle. BIM is the building information modeling; KG is the knowledge graph; RUL is the remaining useful life

updates to align with the city's development and evolution of the DHN. Therefore, in addition to the integration of cleaned GIS and actual operational data (Wang RH et al., 2021), AI-enhanced modeling should be improved to create high-fidelity digital twins and enhance the accuracy and reliability of planning outcomes.

Due to the development and scaling-up of urban clean energy, the design of DHNs cannot be completed in a single step. As heat sources, thermal loads, and network topologies evolve throughout the planning process, it becomes necessary to revisit and redesign the system at multiple critical nodes. AI-enabled retrofit planning and control strategies have yielded 17%–77% CO_2 emission reductions in case studies; moreover, thermal energy storage (TES) optimization has lowered emissions by 17.33% (Hassan et al., 2024; Seraj et al., 2025). This necessitates the development of AI agents capable of automatically executing multi-period rolling design optimization decisions for the DHN, specifically through analytical judgments and decision-making, thereby ensuring that the design outcomes continuously meet operational demands.

At the same time, DHNs are evolving toward greater integration with thermal storage (Mehraj et al., 2024) and renewable heat sources, such as geothermal and industrial waste heat, solar thermal, and biomass resources (Jiang et al., 2022). Beyond merely optimizing the design parameters of DHNs, it is essential to develop AI-based models of renewable energy systems and integrate them into the design process to enable coordinated optimization.

4.2 Enhancing BIM integration, supply chain efficiency, and safety systems

DHN projects inherently involve a full lifecycle: preconstruction, construction, and postconstruction phases (Choi et al., 2021). An automated platform consolidates risk management and decision-making at each stage across the entire lifecycle, but AI integration still requires improvements in key areas. On the one hand, enhanced AI integration with BIM is essential to avoid utility conflicts with other networks in large DHN projects, such as gas and water networks—this has been proven to cut construction time by 50% and reduce total costs by 52.36% (Sholeh et al., 2020). On the other hand, resource and supply chain management is crucial for efficiency improvement and waste reduction in construction (Abioye et al., 2021). An AI-driven supply chain platform can leverage KGs and LLMs to dynamically analyze market and supplier data, thus optimizing procurement decisions for construction (Mishra et al., 2024). AI-assisted forecasting of the supply–demand relationship for construction materials should also be established, proactively initiating replenishment requests and planning optimal delivery routes.

Additionally, AI enables the establishment of an intelligent safety and risk prevention system for construction. In the context of contract risks, traditional expert systems or NLP models demonstrate limited effectiveness when faced with complex projects (Dikmen et al., 2025). However, integrating fine-tuned Transformer models such as BERT can enhance generalization capabilities. For cash flow and safety risks, a collaborative and comprehensive framework between intelligent decision-making systems and smart sensing devices should be established, such as the "digital skin" concept proposed by Edirisinghe (Edirisinghe, 2019) using smart wearables. Such a framework is essential to meet the demands for comprehensive protection, real-time responsiveness, and early warning in the complex construction of DHNs.

4.3 Optimization and control of operations under uncertainties

Thermal load forecasting is critical for the optimization of DHNs, as it directly determines the accuracy of supply–demand matching. However, uncertainties on both the supply and demand sides pose significant challenges to reliable prediction. AI-based uncertainty quantification techniques enable the explicit decomposition of predictive uncertainty, accordingly improving model robustness and decision reliability (Abdar et al., 2021). Recent studies further demonstrate that physics-informed transfer learning can significantly enhance extrapolation performance under unmeasured operating conditions, reducing aleatoric, epistemic, and total uncertainties by 73.4%, 70.4%, and 72.2%, respectively, while maintaining prediction errors within the limits recommended by the American Society of Heating Refrigerating and Airconditioning Engineer (Kim et al., 2025). In addition, integrating historical and real-time IoT data is essential for improving model adaptability under dynamic operating conditions.

Building upon uncertainty-aware predictive models, advanced optimization and control strategies have been shown to deliver measurable system-level benefits.

Published studies have reported reductions in peak demand and operational variability, while AI-optimized thermal energy storage sizing and operation can reduce investment costs by 4%–7% (Jebamalai et al., 2020) and operational costs by up to 18% (Hering et al., 2022); these results provide quantitative benchmarks for evaluating the performance of uncertainty-aware control strategies. Future research should focus on integrating AI frameworks with probabilistic forecasting, uncertainty propagation, and optimization-based control to facilitate more robust DHN operation and management.

Moreover, an end-to-end control loop leveraging AI should be established. To address practical demands such as real-time control, optimized scheduling, supply–demand balance, cost–benefit analysis, and data acquisition, future research should be dedicated to constructing AI surrogate models using mechanistic models and data, as well as integrating them into advanced control strategies such as MPC and RL. Furthermore, it may be worthwhile to leverage LLMs to generate explanatory documentation, thereby enhancing the interpretability of AI control strategies and increasing the credibility of decision-making.

The integration of electricity markets and carbon markets is also crucial for developing efficient and low-carbon DHNs. In electricity markets, by forecasting thermal loads, electrical loads, and market trends, AI can enable DHN operators to formulate heating and power generation strategies and assist distribution network operators in determining transaction decisions. In carbon markets, AI can aid heating enterprises in developing carbon trading and low-carbon strategies by predicting carbon prices and transaction volumes.

Improving fault diagnosis robustness to data issues also remains a challenge, as this limits the comprehensive application of AI in practical fault identification and handling scenarios. This limitation manifests in two aspects: (1) data acquisition from real-world operational conditions is challenging due to the high cost of sensor deployment and the scarcity of fault data; (2) AI models typically recognize only a limited number of fault types. To address these challenges, an end-to-end AI-driven fault handling system should be constructed. Such a platform might integrate simulated and real-world data and leverage techniques such as transfer learning and domain adaptation to enhance generalization ability across diverse DHN systems and operational scenarios.

PdM analyzes current and historical operational conditions to forecast future states, failures, or the remaining useful life of equipment (Upasane et al., 2024); as such, it enables the prevention of pipeline corrosion, heat loss, and equipment malfunctions (Rafati and Shaker, 2024). As an emerging research field, the advancement of PdM relies on the progress of various sensor and metering technologies (Lv and Li, 2021). This transition to PdM has been shown to reduce unplanned downtime by 47.6% and maintenance-related costs by 40% (Mar-Hy Distributors, 2023). In addition to data-driven AI models, the integration of other AI technologies, such as NLP and LLMs, offers further potential. By parsing unstructured text and constructing knowledge graphs, these technologies facilitate deeper analysis and prediction, consequently reducing reliance on observational data and enhancing model generalization (Sun et al., 2025).

Embodied intelligence, another branch of AI, emphasizes the physical interactions between agents and their environments. In the context of DHN inspection, embodied intelligence is poised to further demonstrate its value. From the air, research should focus on enhancing unmanned aerial vehicle-based DHN inspection through path optimization (Yan et al., 2019). On the ground, there is potential for broader adoption of quadruped robots to autonomously read instrument data, detect acoustic signals, and perform other inspection tasks (Zhang YK et al., 2024). Inside pipelines, AI-equipped microrobots are expected to achieve intelligent anomaly diagnosis in a mobile fashion.

5 Summary and outlook

5.1 Summary of the current state

Across the entire lifecycle of DHNs—including PD, CR, OC, and MD—AI has been reported to enhance efficiency, reliability, and cost-effectiveness. Existing studies demonstrate that these benefits are measurable and attainable under specific system configurations and assumptions, with reported examples showcasing substantial reductions in design costs, shortened construction timelines, improved heat pump efficiency, and several days of advance fault warning. These findings indicate that AI offers not only a conceptual advantage but also a quantitatively robust solution for the transition toward 5G DHNs.

However, current research has exhibited fragmentation in focus, leading to several limitations. These include insufficient generalization capability to unforeseen conditions, data silos stemming from incompatible data formats across different phases or departments, and the "black-box" nature of AI, which exacerbates trust barriers and operational risks. This lack of interoperability between different lifecycle stages prevents the effective transfer of intelligent outcomes from one phase to another and limits the realization of closed-loop optimization across the evolution of DHNs. Moreover, although the transformation of DHNs relies on continuous feedback loops among the PD, CR, OC, and MD stages, AI outcomes from one phase often fail to effectively transfer to the next—for example, to subsequent design cycles. This hinders the integration of intelligent solutions into a coherent pipeline and obstructs the path to iterative optimization across the entire DHN lifecycle.

5.2 Digital thread and AI integration

To break down these barriers, it is recommended to adopt a DT paradigm, which provides a unified data stream throughout the whole lifecycle and connects various departments and engineering stages (Wang HN et al., 2021); accordingly, it enables seamless information transfer and sharing across lifecycle stages through a persistent semantic backbone that supports interoperability between heterogeneous engineering environments. This capability further supports continuous iterative improvements to the transformation process within a digital twin environment (Zhang Q et al., 2024). This capability of providing coherent, real-time data is fundamental to enhancing organizational decision-making. Analysis from industry indicates that adopting a DT framework can enable organizations to accelerate decision cycles by 72% and improve decision accuracy by 30% (Almatared et al., 2025). Therefore, adopting a DT framework with model-based system engineering (MBSE) to unify modeling languages and processes has emerged as an imperative choice for breaking down information barriers across the entire DHN lifecycle; it enables effective transfer and closed-loop optimization of intelligent outcomes between different stages (Fu et al., 2021). Fig. 12 illustrates the conceptual architecture of the DT paradigm of the DHN. It depicts a central DT, underpinned by MBSE models, connecting and integrating data and processes across the distinct lifecycle phases of a DHN. In particular, the DT framework is designed to address lifecycle data fragmentation by establishing semantic consistency and structured interoperability across engineering stages.

The DT paradigm of the DHN emphasizes structured, contextualized, and lifecycle-spanning data,

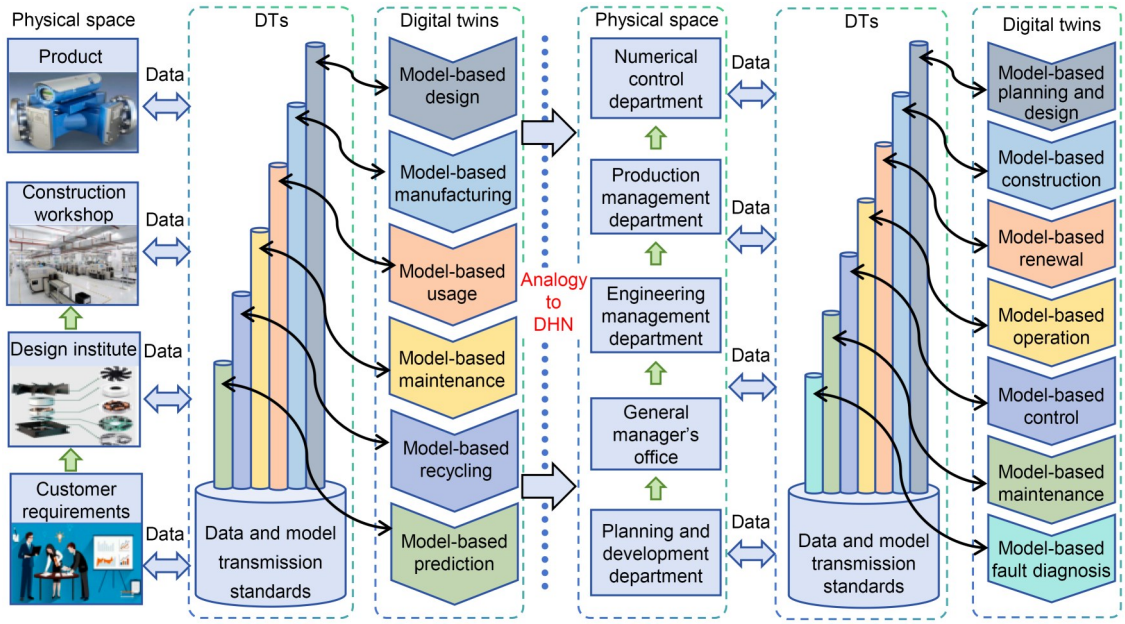


Fig. 12 Conceptual architecture of the DT paradigm of the DHN, showcasing the central thread integrating all lifecycle phases

providing an ideal foundation for the integration of AI. AI algorithms can identify patterns, predict future states, optimize complex operations, and support human decision-makers in novel ways (Rafsanjani and Nabizadeh, 2023). In particular, the emergence of foundation models such as TSNet model (a Transformer-based foundation model for predicting various network status measurements) for status prediction in digital twins (Song et al., 2025) provides a new paradigm for handling high-dimensional and dynamic network data, offering insights for the cross-lifecycle intelligence of DHNs. This systemic integration ensures that design parameters are optimized based on real-world maintenance logs and operational dynamics. Therefore, by acting as an enabler, AI consumes data from DT and feeds insights back into it, creating a cycle of continuous improvement and learning for the DHN system. Fig. 13 depicts a layered architecture demonstrating the integration of AI capabilities with the DT paradigm of the DHN. This architecture promotes modularity and clear separation of concerns, facilitating the development, deployment, and management of AI services.

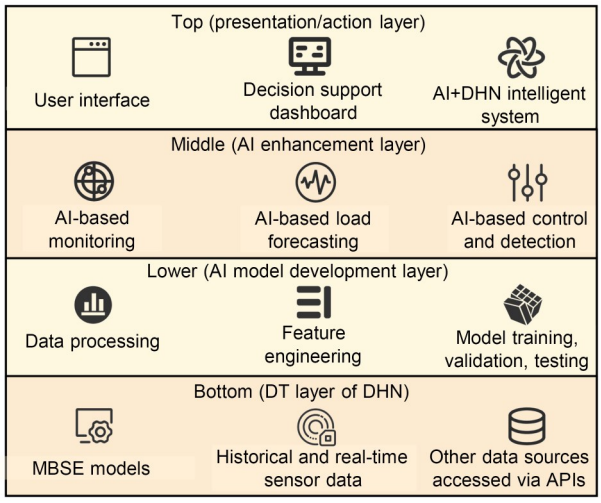


Fig. 13 Four-layer architecture of a typical AI-assisted DT platform of the DHN. API is the application programming interface

Achieving cross-stage data interoperability is a key prerequisite for implementing a DT framework in a DHN. Within the proposed architecture, interoperability across lifecycle stages is supported through three complementary mechanisms.

First, MBSE provides a unified semantic modeling structure that maintains consistency between the planning, construction, operation, and maintenance models. Second, standardized interfaces enable structured interaction among heterogeneous engineering platforms such as BIM, GIS, and supervisory control and data acquisition system (SCADA) systems, thereby supporting continuous lifecycle data flow and synchronization. Third, knowledge-graph-based semantic mapping technologies transform heterogeneous lifecycle datasets into machine-readable representations, enabling cross-stage decision support and closed-loop lifecycle optimization within the DT architecture.

From an organizational perspective, the proposed DT framework supports coordination between planning, construction, operation, and maintenance teams by providing a shared lifecycle data environment. Planning teams contribute to system topology and design parameters through MBSE models, construction teams update as-built information via BIM platforms, operation teams provide real-time monitoring data through SCADA systems, and maintenance teams supply asset health records and fault diagnosis results. By integrating these heterogeneous inputs within a unified semantic framework, the DT approach enables role-oriented access to consistent system information and supports coordinated decision-making across departments throughout the DHN lifecycle.

An AI-assisted DT paradigm of the DHN acts as a data flow catalyst for several key functions:

AI enables closed-loop optimization between planning/design and maintenance by extracting fault patterns and optimizing parameters based on operational data. With this knowledge, AI can automatically suggest modifications to design parameters.

AI links the optimization of construction and operations by identifying discrepancies between construction and design states and adjusting parameters to reduce risks. AI models can adjust operational parameters based on real construction data, mapping quality issues to operational risks and automatically refining monitoring strategies and safeguards, thus reducing performance gaps and operational risks.

AI can coordinate optimization between operations and maintenance by employing algorithms that adjust strategies in response to changing conditions, consequently facilitating integrated PdM. Advanced time-series analysis and causal reasoning algorithms can be used to identify causal relationships between specific operational modes (e.g., frequent start–stop

cycles and extreme temperature conditions) and degradation to the health of components. AI may also dynamically adjust maintenance strategies based on operating conditions, thus balancing component lifespan, energy efficiency, and maintenance costs.

Furthermore, knowledge graphs and semantic mapping technologies can automatically map heterogeneous data generated across various lifecycle stages (GIS, BIM, SCADA, and maintenance records) to corresponding elements in an MBSE model, maintaining the consistency and integrity of the DT paradigm. This allows genuine system-level optimization based on full-lifecycle data rather than local optima.

5.3 Outlook and future research directions

Overall, while the potential of AI for DHN transformation is immense, realizing its full benefits necessitates addressing integration challenges and embracing holistic approaches such as DT. Looking ahead, several innovations are expected to further enhance AI's capability as a cross-lifecycle data flow catalyst within DTs of the DHN:

(1) Adaptive cross-stage semantic interfaces: future AI systems will likely develop more advanced adaptive semantic understanding capabilities capable of automatically learning and adjusting term mappings and data transformation rules across different lifecycle stages, gradually reducing the need for manual intervention. These semantic interfaces are expected to further enhance interoperability across heterogeneous lifecycle platforms and reduce the manual data translation effort required between engineering stages.

(2) Proactive cross-stage data augmentation: novel AI systems will likely shift from passively processing existing data to proactively identifying critical gaps in the lifecycle data flow. By using advanced causal reasoning, physical models, and semantic reasoning techniques, they will automatically generate or infer critical missing data points and relationships, ensuring the integrity of the DT even when data collection is incomplete in certain stages.

(3) Distributed collaborative AI agent networks: instead of a single central AI system, the future may see the development of a network composed of multiple specialized AI agents, each focusing on specific lifecycle stages or specific types of cross-stage data flows. These agents may collaborate through standardized protocols to collectively maintain and optimize the entire DT. This distributed approach will enhance the system's scalability, robustness, and specialization ability.

Acknowledgments

This work is supported by the National Key R&D Program of China (No. 2024YFB4206500), the "Pioneer" and "Leading Goose" R&D Program of Zhejiang Province (No. 2025C02237), China, and the Foundation of the Key Laboratory of Cleaner Intelligent Control on Coal & Electricity, Ministry of Education (No. CICCE202510), China.

Author contributions

Xu ZHOU and Lingkai ZHU processed the corresponding data. Songjie WANG and Nan ZHANG revised and edited the final version. Yanhao FENG and Xueru LIN designed the research. Yanhao FENG and Wenxuan GUO wrote the first draft of the manuscript. Wei ZHONG and Xingtao TIAN were responsible for funding acquisition. Zitao YU helped to organize the manuscript.

Conflict of interest

Xu ZHOU, Songjie WANG, Yanhao FENG, Xueru LIN, Wenxuan GUO, Nan ZHANG, Lingkai ZHU, Wei ZHONG, Zitao YU, and Xingtao TIAN declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

Declaration on the use of generative AI tools

No generative AI tools were used in the preparation of this manuscript.

Data availability

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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