TOWARD RESILIENT AND INTELLIGENT INFRASTRUCTURE: A SURVEY OF SMART MONITORING SYSTEMS AND EMERGING TECHNOLOGIES

Segolame Rose Masalila¹, Sajid Mubashir Sheikh², Ali Akbar Firoozi³

1,2 Department of Electrical Engineering, University of Botswana, Botswana

3Department of Civil Engineering, University of Botswana, Botswana

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to explore the evolution, technologies, and applications of Smart Infrastructure Monitoring Systems, with a view to identifying current trends, technological gaps, and future research directions. With the increasing demand for efficient and sustainable infrastructure management, Smart Infrastructure Monitoring Systems have emerged as a vital solution by integrating the Internet of Things, Artificial Intelligence, Machine Learning, and Cloud/Fog Computing to enable real-time monitoring and predictive maintenance. This survey adopted a qualitative, descriptive methodology involving a review of peer-reviewed journal articles, conference papers, technical reports, and industry case studies published between 2015 and 2024. The findings reveal that Smart Infrastructure Monitoring Systems have significantly improved the efficiency and accuracy of infrastructure health monitoring through advanced sensing technologies and intelligent data analysis. Key applications are evident in structural health monitoring of buildings and bridges, transportation systems, energy grids, and water infrastructure. Notably, the integration of artificial intelligence and machine learning algorithms has enhanced fault detection and lifecycle management. However, the study identifies several challenges including data security, interoperability, high implementation costs, and the need for standardisation. The paper concludes that while Smart Infrastructure Monitoring Systems are revolutionising infrastructure management, greater emphasis is required on scalable architectures, real-time analytics, and cybersecurity. It recommends increased collaboration between academia, industry, and governments to develop open platforms, cost-effective solutions, and policies that encourage widespread adoption. Future research should focus on edge artificial intelligence, 5G-enabled monitoring, and context-aware systems to enhance the resilience and adaptability of Smart Infrastructure Monitoring Systems in diverse environments.

Keywords: Artificial Intelligence, Cloud Computing, Deep Learning, Fog Computing, Internet of Things, Machine Learning, Smart Infrastructure

1. Introduction

The ever-growing demand for resilient, safe, and sustainable infrastructure has led to the adoption of intelligent systems that can monitor the structural and operational integrity of critical assets [1]. Smart infrastructure monitoring systems have emerged as pivotal solutions in achieving this goal [2]. Smart infrastructure monitoring systems incorporate advanced sensing, communication, and computational technologies, thereby providing real-time data collection, processing, and interpretation to facilitate informed decision-making regarding infrastructure health and performance [3]. As infrastructures such as bridges, roads, buildings, tunnels, and pipelines age or become exposed to environmental and usage stresses, their potential to fail without warning increases [4]. Smart infrastructure monitoring systems counter this threat by continuously capturing and analysing data related to structural parameters, environmental conditions, and mechanical behaviour. They enable predictive maintenance, mitigate risk, and enhance public safety [5]. With technological evolution, Smart infrastructure monitoring systems now integrate cutting-edge advancements such as the Internet of Things (IoT), Artificial Intelligence (AI), Machine Learning (ML), Deep Learning (DL), Cloud Computing, and Fog Computing to enhance their performance and operational intelligence [3,6]. This survey provides a comprehensive overview of smart infrastructure monitoring systems, their applications across various domains, integration with emerging technologies, associated benefits, and notable contributions to the field. It also explores available technologies and their applications in real-world scenarios.

2. The Concept Smart Infrastructure Monitoring Systems

Smart infrastructure monitoring systems refer to automated, technology-driven systems designed to observe, analyse, and predict the performance and health status of infrastructure components [2]. The system comprises a network of embedded or remote sensors, communication devices, data storage platforms, and intelligent processing units [2]. These elements work together to measure parameters such as vibration, strain, displacement, temperature, corrosion, and tilt. The real-time data gathered is processed using AI and ML algorithms, enabling early detection of defects, trends in deterioration, or structural weakness [5]. Smart Infrastructure Monitoring Systems are founded on various technologies which include internet of things, artificial intelligence, machine learning,

deep learning, cloud computing and fog computing, fibre optics and wireless sensor networks (see section 3).

3. Technologies Applied in Smart Infrastructure Monitoring Systems

The main technologies applied in smart infrastructure monitoring systems internet of things, artificial intelligence, machine learning, deep learning, cloud computing, fog computing, fibre optics and wireless sensor networks.

3.1 Internet of Things

The Internet of Things (IoT) refers to a network of interconnected physical devices embedded with sensors and software, which are designed to communicate and exchange data [7]. This interconnected system enables real-time monitoring and control of various operations by collecting data from physical environments. Integration IoT into infrastructure can enable stakeholders to enhance operational efficiency, predict maintenance needs, and improve safety standards. IoT devices are commonly used in smart cities, manufacturing, transportation, and energy management. These systems can automatically trigger alerts or actions in response to specific conditions, enhancing automation and decision-making. The continuous stream of data generated by IoT devices supports long-term planning and resource optimisation [8]. As IoT continues to evolve, it plays a foundational role in enabling other advanced technologies in digital infrastructure [6].

The Internet of Things (IoT) is a foundational technology in smart infrastructure monitoring systems enabling the deployment of interconnected devices that continuously gather and transmit data without human intervention [9]. IoT facilitates the creation of a dense sensor network embedded within physical infrastructure, allowing systems to autonomously monitor variables such as strain, temperature, displacement, and humidity [10]. Through wireless communication protocols such as LPWAN (low power wide area networks), Zigbee, and 5G, these sensors can transmit data in real time to a central server or cloud platform. This capability greatly enhances the responsiveness of monitoring systems and allows them to adapt dynamically to evolving infrastructure conditions. For example, smart bridges equipped with IoT-enabled sensors can adjust the frequency of data collection based on traffic volume or environmental changes. As a

result, infrastructure managers can receive early alerts about potential threats and intervene proactively, thereby extending the life of assets and improving public safety [11,12,13,14,15].

3.2 Artificial Intelligence

Artificial Intelligence (AI) involves the development of systems that can mimic human cognitive functions such as reasoning, learning, and problem-solving [16]. AI plays a crucial role in analysing complex datasets, detecting anomalies, and supporting autonomous decision-making processes [17]. These capabilities make AI an invaluable tool for ensuring the reliability and optimisation of smart infrastructure systems. AI systems can process data at a speed and scale far beyond human capabilities, making them essential for managing large and complex infrastructure environments [16]. Through predictive analytics, AI can help prevent failures and optimize maintenance schedules. AI is also being integrated with IoT and other technologies to create intelligent ecosystems that adapt to changing conditions. The integration of AI contributes significantly to improving service delivery, operational efficiency, and user experience [16].

Artificial Intelligence (AI) significantly enhances the analytical capabilities of smart infrastructure monitoring systems by transforming raw sensor data into actionable insights. AI systems utilise algorithms that mimic human reasoning to detect patterns, classify anomalies, and predict failure scenarios [16]. One of the key applications of AI in smart infrastructure monitoring systems is in visual inspections conducted using unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs) or drones. AI-driven image recognition software can accurately identify structural defects such as cracks, rust, or spalling in concrete surfaces, often outperforming human inspectors in terms of speed and precision [18]. AI can synthesise data from multiple sensors to understand interdependencies between different components of infrastructure. This holistic approach allows AI systems to evaluate not only current conditions but also anticipate future degradation patterns based on historical trends. Consequently, infrastructure managers can shift from reactive to predictive maintenance strategies, which reduce costs and minimise risks [19,20].

3.3 Machine Learning and Deep Learning

Machine Learning (ML) is a subfield of AI that focuses on developing algorithms that can learn from data and improve their performance over time without being explicitly programmed [21].

Machine learning is used to analyse historical and real-time data to detect patterns, forecast outcomes, and automate decision-making [21]. There are three main types of ML: supervised learning, where models are trained on labelled data; unsupervised learning, where the system finds patterns in unlabelled data; and reinforcement learning, where the model learns by receiving feedback from actions in an environment [22]. ML is commonly applied in traffic prediction, energy management, predictive maintenance, and resource optimization. Its adaptability allows it to respond to changing conditions and improve accuracy with continued data exposure. As the volume of data increases, ML models become more robust and insightful, supporting more effective infrastructure decisions [21].

Deep Learning (DL), a specialised branch of ML, uses artificial neural networks that simulate the structure and function of the human brain to analyse complex data. DL is especially effective in tasks involving image and speech recognition, natural language processing, and detecting subtle patterns in large datasets. In infrastructure systems, DL is used for applications such as analysing satellite imagery for urban planning, detecting faults in structures, and classifying traffic patterns. These deep neural networks require large amounts of data and computing power but offer superior performance in handling unstructured data compared to traditional ML algorithms. The layered structure of DL models enables them to perform feature extraction and classification automatically, reducing the need for manual data preprocessing. DL continues to evolve with advancements in computational capabilities and the increasing availability of big data [23].

Machine Learning (ML) and Deep Learning (DL), as subsets of AI, provide advanced predictive modelling and pattern recognition capabilities for smart infrastructure monitoring systems [21]. ML algorithms are trained on vast datasets collected from infrastructure monitoring over time, learning the typical behaviour of assets under various conditions. These algorithms then use statistical and computational techniques to identify deviations that may indicate early stages of failure [24]. Deep Learning, particularly useful for handling complex and non-linear systems, uses artificial neural networks to model intricate relationships within the data [25]. DL is highly effective in processing time-series data, such as vibration signals or temperature cycles, and detecting subtle indicators of stress development or material fatigue. For instance, DL algorithms can assess sensor data from high-rise buildings during seismic activity to evaluate structural stability in real time [26]. The incorporation of ML and DL in smart infrastructure monitoring

systems enables a shift towards intelligent systems capable of autonomous decision-making and long-term infrastructure resilience planning.

3.4 Cloud Computing

Cloud computing is a technology model that delivers computing services (including storage, processing, and networking) over the internet. It allows users to access and manage data and applications remotely on demand [27]. Cloud computing offers a scalable model for storing and processing the vast amounts of monitoring data generated by smart infrastructure [28]. Through leveraging remote servers, organisations benefit from centralised control, enhanced accessibility, and reduced reliance on physical hardware. This model supports efficient data management, disaster recovery, and collaborative access to infrastructure insights [28]. Cloud services can be accessed from anywhere with an internet connection, facilitating real-time decision-making across multiple locations. Cloud computing offers elastic storage and processing power, which can be scaled up or down based on current needs [29, 30]. This flexibility makes it cost-effective and practical for both large-scale infrastructure projects and smaller initiatives. Integration with other technologies like AI and IoT further enhances the utility of cloud platforms in smart infrastructure management [10,11].

Cloud computing plays a critical role in scaling smart infrastructure monitoring systems by offering flexible, centralised platforms for data storage, processing, and visualisation [31]. Given that smart infrastructure monitoring systems generate large volumes of continuous data from multiple locations, cloud services provide the infrastructure needed to manage these datasets efficiently. Data from remote sensors are transmitted to cloud servers, where they are aggregated, analysed, and presented on user-friendly dashboards accessible to authorised stakeholders [31]. Cloud platforms also enable integration with analytics tools and software for real-time decision-making, alerts, and reporting [30]. This enhances collaboration across various departments such as engineering, operations, and emergency services. Additionally, cloud computing supports historical data archiving, which is vital for longitudinal studies and model training. The scalability and accessibility of cloud infrastructure make it an indispensable component in the digital transformation of infrastructure monitoring practices [32].

3.5 Fog Computing

Fog computing is a decentralised computing model that processes and analyses data closer to the source of generation (such as sensors and edge devices). This reduces latency and bandwidth usage by minimising the need to send all data to centralised cloud servers [33]. This decentralised approach helps minimise latency and reduce bandwidth usage by handling data locally rather than transmitting everything to centralized cloud servers. As a result, fog computing supports faster response times and is particularly useful in scenarios where real-time decision-making is critical. It plays a significant role in applications such as autonomous vehicles, industrial automation, and emergency response systems. Fog computing reduces the risk of network congestion and enhances data privacy and security. This approach also ensures that essential operations can continue even in the event of connectivity issues with central servers. The combination of fog and cloud computing can provide a balanced infrastructure for both real-time responsiveness and long-term data analysis [33].

Fog computing complements the cloud model by decentralising certain processing tasks to the edge of the network, closer to the source of data generation [33]. This architecture reduces latency and bandwidth usage, making it ideal for time-sensitive applications and scenarios with limited internet connectivity [33]. In disaster-prone or rural areas, real-time data processing and decision-making are critical to prevent infrastructure failures and respond quickly to emerging threats [6]. Fog nodes can filter, aggregate, and analyse sensor data locally before sending only essential information to the cloud, thus improving operational efficiency [34]. For example, in a smart dam monitoring system, fog computing can instantly analyse pressure data to detect abnormal seepage and trigger local alarms before relaying the data to a central system [35]. This layered approach ensures system resilience, enhances real-time responsiveness, and reduces dependence on centralised computing resources.

3.6 Blockchain Technology

The integration of blockchain into smart infrastructure monitoring systems is an emerging innovation aimed at enhancing data integrity, transparency, and secure communication among stakeholders. Blockchain is a distributed ledger technology that records transactions in a secure,

immutable manner, making it ideal for verifying the authenticity and origin of infrastructure monitoring data [36]. In multi-stakeholder environments, such as those involving government agencies, engineering consultants, and contractors, blockchain can ensure that structural health reports, sensor data, and maintenance logs are tamper-proof and accessible in real time. This fosters trust and accountability in decision-making, especially in large-scale infrastructure projects with significant safety and financial implications [37]. Blockchain-based smart contracts can automate tasks such as issuing alerts, triggering maintenance workflows, or authorising payments once certain monitoring thresholds are met [38]. As digital infrastructure continues to evolve, blockchain is expected to play a crucial role in enhancing the security and reliability of smart infrastructure monitoring systems ecosystems [39].

3.7 Fibre Optics

Fibre Optics technology employs Fibre Bragg Grating (FBG) sensors, which are ideal for monitoring long and linear infrastructure such as oil and gas pipelines and power transmission lines. These sensors can measure key parameters including temperature, strain, and pressure with high precision and reliability. Fibre optic systems are immune to electromagnetic interference and suitable for harsh environments, making them highly dependable in industrial applications. Their ability to provide distributed sensing over long distances enhances the scope and granularity of infrastructure monitoring [40].

3.8 Wireless Sensor Networks

Wireless Sensor Networks (WSN) use Micro-Electro-Mechanical Systems (MEMS) sensors, piezometers, and tiltmeters to monitor various structural and environmental conditions in dams, high-rise buildings, and embankments. These sensors collect data on tilt, pore pressure, and deformation, providing insights into the stability and integrity of critical infrastructure. WSNs offer flexibility in deployment and real-time data transmission, making them suitable for both permanent and temporary monitoring scenarios. Their wireless nature reduces installation costs and enhances accessibility in complex or hazardous locations [75].

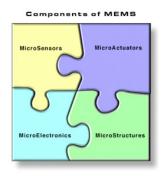






Figure 1: Components of MEMS [41]

Figure 2:Piezometers [42]

Figure 3: Tiltmeter [43]

4. Applications of Smart Infrastructure Monitoring Systems

Smart infrastructure monitoring systems are deployed in a wide array of infrastructure domains, each with unique operational contexts and monitoring requirements.

4.1 Civil Engineering

Smart Infrastructure Monitoring Systems are extensively applied in the field of civil engineering to ensure the structural integrity and operational safety of critical assets such as bridges, tunnels, roads, and high-rise buildings [44]. These structures are often subjected to dynamic loads, environmental degradation, and material fatigue over time, which necessitates continuous and precise monitoring [45]. Smart infrastructure monitoring systems integrate sensors like accelerometers, strain gauges, and displacement meters that collect real-time data on stress distribution, crack formation, vibrations, and load responses [45]. For example, on large bridges, strain gauges embedded within the structure can detect unusual stress levels or deformation (Figure 1), while accelerometers (Figure 2) can identify oscillations caused by wind or traffic, thereby signalling early warnings of structural anomalies [46,47]. The data is processed using AI and machine learning models that interpret trends and issue alerts for maintenance or inspections [3]. This proactive approach reduces the likelihood of catastrophic failures and extends the operational lifespan of civil structures.



Figure 4: Seismic Accelerometer [48]

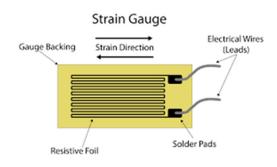


Figure 5: Strain gauge [47]

4.2 Energy Sector

Smart infrastructure monitoring systems play a vital role in safeguarding critical infrastructure such as power transmission lines, oil and gas pipelines, renewable energy installations, and substations [3]. These assets often operate in remote or harsh environments, making manual inspection costly and inefficient. Smart infrastructure monitoring systems use a combination of fibre optic sensors, thermal cameras, and vibration monitors to track parameters such as temperature, corrosion, voltage surges, and mechanical wear [49]. For instance, distributed fibre optic sensing (DFOS) systems can detect strain and temperature variations along pipelines, providing early detection of corrosion, leakage, or pressure abnormalities [50]. Similarly, in wind turbines, vibration sensors and blade monitoring systems assess mechanical stress and rotor integrity to optimise performance and avoid failures [24]. The use of real-time data analytics and predictive maintenance models, energy operators can enhance the reliability, safety, and efficiency of energy distribution systems while minimising downtime and repair costs.



Figure 6: Thermal camera [50]



Figure 7: Fibre optic sensors [51]

4.3 Transportation Infrastructure

The integration of smart infrastructure monitoring systems within transportation systems significantly enhances the management and maintenance of infrastructure such as railway tracks, airport runways, highways, and traffic signal systems [52]. These systems rely on embedded sensors, GPS technologies, and computer vision tools to monitor usage patterns, detect anomalies, and assess infrastructure health [52]. For railways, track-mounted sensors and ultrasonic testing devices help in detecting rail fractures, alignment shifts, and wear in rail joints [53]. Roads and pavements benefit from dynamic weighing systems that monitor traffic loads and identify subsurface defects before they manifest visibly. In intelligent transport systems (ITS), smart infrastructure monitoring systems contribute to traffic flow optimisation and road safety by monitoring structural elements like sign gantries and overpasses. The continuous flow of sensor data supports asset managers in planning timely maintenance and upgrades, thus improving public safety and ensuring the uninterrupted operation of transport networks [54].

4.4 Environmental and Water Infrastructure

Environmental and water-related infrastructures, including dams, reservoirs, levees, and water treatment facilities, are critical for public safety and resource management. Smart infrastructure monitoring systems are indispensable tools for monitoring these infrastructures, especially in regions vulnerable to climate change and hydrological risks. Technologies such as piezometers, inclinometers, tiltmeters, and water level sensors are deployed to measure parameters like porewater pressure, structural tilt, seepage, and hydrostatic loads [55]. For example, in a dam, smart infrastructure monitoring systems can detect early signs of seepage through embankments or internal structural stress caused by fluctuating water levels, enabling preventative measures before

a collapse or breach occurs. Data collected is analysed to assess long-term trends in structural health and environmental impact, facilitating informed decision-making [56]. These systems not only enhance the safety of water-related infrastructure but also support sustainable water resource management by enabling early intervention in potential hazard zones.

4.5 Industrial and Commercial Buildings

In modern industrial facilities and commercial buildings, smart infrastructure monitoring systems are employed to support smart building management, improve energy efficiency, and enhance structural safety. These systems integrate a wide array of technologies including smart meters, HVAC (Heating, Ventilation, and Air Conditioning) monitoring sensors, occupancy detectors, and structural health monitoring tools [57,58]. Through continuous monitoring of parameters such as temperature, humidity, vibration, and power consumption, smart infrastructure monitoring systems enable facility managers to optimise energy usage, identify inefficiencies, and detect potential mechanical or structural faults. For instance, vibration sensors can detect unusual activity in HVAC systems, signalling the need for maintenance before a breakdown occurs [59]. AI-powered platforms analyse building data to predict maintenance needs, improve occupant comfort, and ensure compliance with safety standards. This level of intelligent monitoring supports sustainable development goals by reducing energy waste and promoting operational excellence in commercial infrastructure.

5. Communication Technologies in Smart Infrastructure Monitoring Systems

5.1 Wired Communication

Smart infrastructure monitoring systems rely heavily on robust communication technologies to ensure the seamless transmission of data between sensors, processing units, and decision-making platforms [60]. At the foundational level, wired communication methods such as Local Area Networks (LAN) and serial communication are employed in scenarios where reliability and high-speed data transfer are paramount [61,62]. These methods are typically used in fixed installations, such as industrial facilities and large buildings, where physical cabling is feasible. Wired systems

are generally less susceptible to interference, offering consistent performance and data integrity over time. However, their inflexibility and installation costs make them less suited for remote or mobile applications, prompting the need for more versatile wireless alternatives.

5.2 Wireless Communication

Wireless communication plays a pivotal role in expanding the reach and adaptability of smart infrastructure monitoring systems, particularly in outdoor and dispersed environments. Short-range wireless technologies such as WiFi, Bluetooth, Zigbee, and Radio Frequency (RF) are commonly integrated into sensor nodes for efficient local data exchange [63]. These technologies enable the creation of compact, low-power sensor networks that can be deployed with minimal infrastructure [64]. Conversely, long-range wireless options like LoRaWAN (Long Range Wide Area Network), Narrowband IoT (NB-IoT), and Sigfox offer low-power, wide-area connectivity, ideal for infrastructure assets spread across large geographical areas, such as pipelines, bridges, and agricultural networks. Cellular communication technologies, ranging from 2G to the more advanced 5G, provide high-bandwidth, low-latency connections suitable for real-time applications and high data volumes. satellite communication extends smart infrastructure monitoring systems functionality to remote or inaccessible regions where terrestrial networks are unavailable, such as in mountainous terrains or offshore installations [65,66,67].

5.3 Hybrid and Mesh Networks

Smart infrastructure monitoring systems are adopting hybrid and mesh network architectures to enhance connectivity, redundancy, and scalability. Mesh networks allow devices to communicate directly with one another, forwarding data through multiple hops until it reaches the destination. This decentralised structure improves the network's resilience and coverage, particularly in scenarios where nodes may intermittently fail or move [68]. Gateway-based systems, by contrast, consolidate data from multiple sensors and route it through a central access point, which then transmits the information to remote servers or cloud platforms [69]. These hybrid solutions are particularly effective in balancing the strengths of both localised processing and centralised oversight, thus supporting more intelligent and responsive monitoring systems.

5.4 Cloud-Based Communication Protocols

The integration of cloud-based communication protocols further enhances the efficiency and interoperability of smart infrastructure monitoring systems. Protocols such as MQTT (Message Queuing Telemetry Transport), HTTP (Hypertext Transfer Protocol), and CoAP (Constrained Application Protocol) facilitate lightweight, scalable data exchange between devices and servers [70,71]. These protocols are crucial in ensuring that the vast amount of sensor data generated by smart infrastructure monitoring systems is reliably transmitted, processed, and stored in real time. Moreover, cloud services including ThingSpeak, AWS IoT Core, Azure IoT Hub, and Google Cloud IoT offer comprehensive platforms for data analytics, visualisation, and alert management. Leveraging these services enables infrastructure managers to gain actionable insights from complex datasets, automate maintenance workflows, and ensure system-wide coordination [72].

6. Benefits of Smart Infrastructure Monitoring Systems

The implementation of Smart Infrastructure Monitoring Systems delivers substantial benefits that span technical, economic, and social dimensions. One of the most significant advantages lies in early fault detection, where sensors and analytics tools identify abnormalities such as structural strain, vibration, or temperature changes before they escalate into major issues. This proactive monitoring capability allows infrastructure managers to take timely corrective measures, thereby averting potential disasters. As a result, Smart Infrastructure Monitoring Systems play a crucial role in enhancing public safety, particularly for high-risk assets like bridges, tunnels, dams, and transport systems where failure could result in loss of life and severe economic disruption [58,59].

From an economic standpoint, smart infrastructure monitoring systems provide a more costeffective approach to infrastructure maintenance. Traditional models often rely on periodic manual
inspections and reactive repairs, which can be labour-intensive and inefficient. In contrast, smart
infrastructure monitoring systems facilitate a shift to predictive maintenance strategies that are
guided by real-time performance data [20]. Addressing issues before they become severe helps
asset managers can reduce unplanned downtime, extend the operational lifespan of infrastructure,
and optimise maintenance budgets. This financial efficiency is especially valuable for governments
and organisations managing large-scale infrastructure networks with limited resources.

In terms of operation, smart infrastructure monitoring systems enhance decision-making processes by supplying continuous, high-resolution data on structural health, environmental conditions, and system performance. These real-time insights support data-driven planning, enabling decision-makers to prioritise maintenance, rehabilitation, or replacement efforts based on objective indicators rather than estimates. This improves transparency, accountability, and the strategic allocation of funds, particularly in infrastructure-intensive sectors such as transport, energy, and water management [20,73].

In addition to safety and cost savings, smart infrastructure monitoring systems also support sustainability goals. They improve energy use efficiency, thereby reducing material wastage, and minimising the need for unnecessary interventions, smart infrastructure monitoring systems contribute to the broader aims of environmentally responsible development. The integration of smart infrastructure monitoring systems within smart city frameworks further enhances their impact by enabling decentralised monitoring, remote access to infrastructure data, and rapid response capabilities in emergency situations [9]. In general, the benefits of smart infrastructure monitoring systems extend beyond technical gains to encompass economic resilience, environmental stewardship, and improved quality of life for communities.

7. Challenges in implementing smart infrastructure monitoring systems

Despite the remarkable progress and growing adoption of smart infrastructure monitoring systems, several implementation challenges persist that hinder their full potential. One of the most critical issues is interoperability. Smart infrastructure monitoring systems comprise diverse hardware and software components sourced from multiple vendors, each with unique data formats, communication protocols, and technical specifications. Integrating these heterogeneous systems into a seamless and cohesive monitoring framework is a complex task. The lack of universal standards often results in compatibility problems, increased setup time, and higher maintenance costs. In addition, proprietary systems can limit scalability and flexibility, making it difficult for organisations to upgrade or expand their monitoring capabilities without significant reinvestment [74].

Another major challenge is data security and privacy. As smart infrastructure monitoring systems rely on continuous data acquisition, transmission, and storage, they are highly vulnerable to cyber threats, including unauthorised access, data breaches, and malicious tampering. This is particularly concerning in critical infrastructure sectors such as energy, transport, and water supply, where compromised systems can have severe societal consequences [75]. Ensuring end-to-end encryption, secure authentication, and robust access control mechanisms is essential, yet many existing implementations lack sufficient cybersecurity measures. The adoption of technologies such as blockchain and secure cloud protocols offers promising solutions but also introduces added complexity and resource requirements [76].

High implementation and operational costs remain a barrier, particularly for governments or institutions in developing regions. The initial investment required for deploying sensors, communication networks, processing units, and cloud services can be substantial. Ongoing expenses related to calibration, data storage, analytics tools, and skilled personnel for system maintenance add to the financial burden. Limited funding often results in fragmented or short-term monitoring initiatives, which fail to deliver sustained infrastructure benefits. There is a growing need for cost-effective, scalable smart infrastructure monitoring systems models that can be adapted to various budgetary constraints without compromising performance [77].

Technical expertise and institutional readiness pose significant constraints. The successful deployment of smart infrastructure monitoring systems requires multidisciplinary knowledge across fields such as civil engineering, computer science, data analytics, and communication systems. Many infrastructure management agencies lack the in-house capacity to design, implement, and maintain sophisticated monitoring systems. Furthermore, decision-makers may be reluctant to adopt new technologies due to uncertainties regarding return on investment, lack of awareness, or resistance to change. Overcoming these challenges will require targeted training programmes, increased industry-academia collaboration, and policies that promote innovation, capacity building, and long-term digital transformation strategies in infrastructure management [76].

8. Future Research Directions

Future research in smart infrastructure monitoring systems should focus on creating more autonomous, intelligent and resilient systems capable of adapting to diverse and evolving infrastructure environments. Current systems often face limitations such as high energy consumption, dependence on centralised computing, insufficient real time responsiveness, and poor scalability in remote or high-risk locations. For example, many existing monitoring frameworks rely heavily on cloud computing for data analysis, which results in excessive bandwidth consumption, increased latency and vulnerability to communication disruptions. These drawbacks make such systems less suitable for time-sensitive decision making and limit their effectiveness in critical infrastructure settings.

A promising direction for future research is the advancement of Edge Artificial Intelligence (Edge AI). This refers to the application of artificial intelligence at the location where data is generated, such as sensor nodes. Unlike traditional cloud-based approaches, Edge AI significantly reduces the volume of data transmitted to central servers, which in some cases can lower bandwidth usage by as much as seventy to eighty percent. This not only decreases operational costs, but also enhances real time responsiveness and allows systems to function independently when connectivity is limited [78]. Processing data locally improves privacy and reliability, particularly in environments where continuous cloud access cannot be guaranteed [79].

Another key area for development is the improvement of bulk water monitoring systems. Many current systems are reactive. They rely on scheduled maintenance and manual inspections which may fail to detect issues early. Future systems should incorporate intelligent algorithms that enable predictive analysis and fault detection. Unsupervised learning models such as Autoencoders or K-means clustering could be employed to identify unusual patterns in pressure, flow or quality without needing pre-labelled data [80]. When combined with Edge AI, these algorithms would allow for local processing of sensor inputs, enabling early identification of problems such as leaks or contamination while reducing the need for continuous data transmission.

The development of digital twin technologies also presents significant opportunities. These virtual replicas of physical infrastructure can support simulation, predictive maintenance and lifecycle

management. However, current digital twins are often constrained by the need for centralised computing resources. Future work should explore how decentralised, edge-enabled systems can make digital twins more scalable and responsive. This would make it easier to model real time conditions and make proactive decisions based on continuously updated data [81].

The development of self-powered sensors through energy harvesting techniques such as solar, thermal or vibration energy will be essential to achieve long-term autonomous monitoring. Present systems are frequently limited by their reliance on batteries or external power sources, which increases maintenance costs and restricts deployment in inaccessible areas. Future research should therefore aim to develop hybrid energy harvesting systems that can support continuous monitoring with minimal intervention, especially in remote or hazardous environments [82].

One practical example currently under development is a streetlight fault detection system that will rely on Edge AI. This system will include embedded sensors and low-power microcontrollers that collect data on light status, voltage and environmental conditions. A supervised learning algorithm, specifically the Random Forest classifier, will be used to detect faults due to its ability to manage complex data and deliver accurate results [83]. To reduce communication costs and conserve bandwidth, the system will be designed to transmit data every two weeks unless a fault is detected. If a fault is found, it will immediately send an alert to maintenance personnel. This approach is both cost effective and efficient, offering a model for future intelligent infrastructure monitoring solutions.

9. Conclusion

Smart infrastructure monitoring systems have revolutionised the way critical infrastructure is managed and maintained. Combining a rich set of technologies, ranging from IoT and AI to cloud and fog computing helps smart infrastructure monitoring systems to provide a sophisticated platform for ensuring safety, sustainability, and efficiency. As infrastructure networks become more complex and interconnected, the continued development and deployment of smart infrastructure monitoring systems will be essential in fostering smart, resilient, and future-ready cities. These systems not only help prevent catastrophic failures through early detection and

predictive maintenance but also optimise resource allocation and operational planning. The integration of digital twins and UAV-based inspection tools offers a new dimension of virtual infrastructure management and risk assessment. Advancements in self-powered sensors and edge computing are extending the reach of smart infrastructure monitoring systems into remote and disaster-prone areas. With ongoing collaboration between academia, industry, and governments, smart infrastructure monitoring systems are poised to become the backbone of next-generation infrastructure stewardship.

References

- [1]. Waqar, A. H. Alshehri, F. Alanazi, S. Alotaibi, and H. R. Almujibah, "Evaluation of challenges to the adoption of intelligent transportation system for urban smart mobility," Research in Transportation Business and Management, vol. 51, 2023, doi: 10.1016/j.rtbm.2023.101060.
- [2]. S. N. S. Al-Humairi and A. A. A. Kamal, "Design a smart infrastructure monitoring system: a response in the age of COVID-19 pandemic," Innovative Infrastructure Solutions, vol. 6, no. 3, 2021, doi: 10.1007/s41062-021-00515-y.
- [3]. D'Alessandro, H. B. Birgin, G. Cerni, and F. Ubertini, "Smart Infrastructure Monitoring through Self-Sensing Composite Sensors and Systems: A Study on Smart Concrete Sensors with Varying Carbon-Based Filler," Infrastructures (Basel), vol. 7, no. 4, 2022, doi: 10.3390/infrastructures7040048.
- [4]. Z. Wang, Y. Dong, and W. Jin, "Life-Cycle Cost Analysis of Deteriorating Civil Infrastructures Incorporating Social Sustainability," Journal of Infrastructure Systems, vol. 27, no. 3, 2021, doi: 10.1061/(asce)is.1943-555x.0000607.
- [5]. J. Döpke, "Real-Time Data and Business Cycle Analysis in Germany," SSRN Electronic Journal, 2021, doi: 10.2139/ssrn.2785056.
- [6]. Z. Ye et al., "IoT-enhanced smart road infrastructure systems for comprehensive real-time monitoring," Internet of Things and Cyber-Physical Systems, vol. 4, 2024, doi: 10.1016/j.iotcps.2024.01.002.

- [7]. M. Soori, B. Arezoo, and R. Dastres, "Internet of things for smart factories in industry 4.0, a review," 2023. doi: 10.1016/j.iotcps.2023.04.006.
- [8]. A. Toor, M. Usman, F. Younas, M. Habib, and A. C. M. Fong, "Efficient mining of IoT based data streams for advanced computer vision systems," Multimed Tools Appl, vol. 83, no. 5, 2024, doi: 10.1007/s11042-020-09175-z.
- [9]. P. Chiradeja and S. Yoomak, "Development of public lighting system with smart lighting control systems and internet of thing (IoT) technologies for smart city," Energy Reports, vol. 10, 2023, doi: 10.1016/j.egyr.2023.10.027.
- [10]. Hammi, R. Khatoun, S. Zeadally, A. Fayad, and L. Khoukhi, "Internet of Things (IoT) Technologies for Smart Cities," IET Networks, vol. 7, no. 1, 2018.
- [11]. Y. Idris and N. A. Muhammad, "A Comparative Study of Wireless Communication Protocols: Zigbee vs Bluetooth," International Journal of Engineering Science and Computing, vol. 6, no. 4, 2016, doi: 10.4010/2016.867.
- [12]. F. Moreno-Cruz, V. Toral-López, A. Escobar-Molero, V. U. Ruíz, A. Rivadeneyra, and D. P. Morales, "Trench: Ultra-low power wireless communication protocol for iot and energy harvesting," Sensors (Switzerland), vol. 20, no. 21, 2020, doi: 10.3390/s20216156.
- [13]. S. Li, L. Da Xu, and S. Zhao, "5G Internet of Things: A survey," 2018. doi: 10.1016/j.jii.2018.01.005.
- [14]. A. Zohourian et al., "IoT Zigbee device security: A comprehensive review," 2023. doi: 10.1016/j.iot.2023.100791.
- [15]. K. Mekki, E. Bajic, F. Chaxel, and F. Meyer, "A comparative study of LPWAN technologies for large-scale IoT deployment," ICT Express, vol. 5, no. 1, 2019, doi: 10.1016/j.icte.2017.12.005.
- [16]. Adams and T. Krulicky, "Artificial intelligence-driven big data analytics, real-time sensor networks, and product decision-making information systems in sustainable manufacturing internet of things," Economics, Management, and Financial Markets, vol. 16, no. 3, 2021, doi: 10.22381/emfm16320215.
- [17]. F. Michelinakis et al., "AI Anomaly Detection for Cloudified Mobile Core Architectures," IEEE Transactions on Network and Service Management, vol. 20, no. 2, 2023, doi: 10.1109/TNSM.2022.3203246.

- [18]. A. Laghari, A. K. Jumani, R. A. Laghari, and H. Nawaz, "Unmanned aerial vehicles: A review," 2023. doi: 10.1016/j.cogr.2022.12.004.
- [19]. L. Wang, Z. Zhu, and X. Zhao, "Dynamic predictive maintenance strategy for system remaining useful life prediction via deep learning ensemble method," Reliab Eng Syst Saf, vol. 245, 2024, doi: 10.1016/j.ress.2024.110012.
- [20]. Chen, C. Wang, N. Lu, B. Jiang, and Y. Xing, "A data-driven predictive maintenance strategy based on accurate failure prognostics," Eksploatacja i Niezawodnosc, vol. 23, no. 2, 2021, doi: 10.17531/EIN.2021.2.19.
- [21]. C. Janiesch, P. Zschech, and K. Heinrich, "Machine learning and deep learning," Electronic Markets, vol. 31, no. 3, 2021, doi: 10.1007/s12525-021-00475-2.
- [22]. V. Verdhan, Supervised Learning with Python: Concepts and Practical Implementation Using Python. 2020. doi: 10.1007/978-1-4842-6156-9.
- [23]. Y. Matsuo et al., "Deep learning, reinforcement learning, and world models," Neural Networks, vol. 152, 2022, doi: 10.1016/j.neunet.2022.03.037.
- [24]. N. Dimitrov and T. Göçmen, "Virtual sensors for wind turbines with machine learning-based time series models," Wind Energy, vol. 25, no. 9, 2022, doi: 10.1002/we.2762.
- [25]. L. Vanneschi and S. Silva, "Artificial Neural Networks," in Natural Computing Series, 2023. doi: 10.1007/978-3-031-17922-8_7.
- [26]. M. K. Tefera, S. Zhang, and Z. Jin, "Deep Reinforcement Learning-Assisted Optimization for Resource Allocation in Downlink OFDMA Cooperative Systems," Entropy, vol. 25, no. 3, 2023, doi: 10.3390/e25030413.
- [27]. Huawei Technologies Co., Ltd., Cloud Computing Technology. 2023. doi: 10.1007/978-981-19-3026-3.
- [28]. V. Kumar, S. Chaisiri, and R. Ko, Data security in cloud computing. 2017. doi: 10.1049/PBSE007E.
- [29]. N. Taleb and E. A. Mohamed, "Cloud computing trends: A literature review," 2020. doi: 10.36941/ajis-2020-0008.
- [30]. S. A. Bello et al., "Cloud computing in construction industry: Use cases, benefits and challenges," 2021. doi: 10.1016/j.autcon.2020.103441.

- [31]. M. H. Ali, M. M. Jaber, S. K. Abd, A. Alkhayyat, and M. F. Albaghdadi, "Big data analysis and cloud computing for smart transportation system integration," Multimed Tools Appl, 2022, doi: 10.1007/s11042-022-13700-7.
- [32]. L. Novais, J. M. Maqueira, and Á. Ortiz-Bas, "A systematic literature review of cloud computing use in supply chain integration," Comput Ind Eng, vol. 129, 2019, doi: 10.1016/j.cie.2019.01.056.
- [33]. R. Das and M. M. Inuwa, "A review on fog computing: Issues, characteristics, challenges, and potential applications," 2023. doi: 10.1016/j.teler.2023.100049.
- [34]. R. A. C. da Silva and N. L. S. da Fonseca, "On the location of fog nodes in fog-cloud infrastructures," Sensors (Switzerland), vol. 19, no. 11, 2019, doi: 10.3390/s19112445.
- [35]. H. M. Almawgani, "Smart monitoring system of Najran dam," International Journal of Electrical and Computer Engineering, vol. 10, no. 4, 2020, doi: 10.11591/ijece.v10i4.pp3999-4007.
- [36]. J. Veuger, Blockchain Technology and Applications III. 2022. doi: 10.52305/JDEF4870.
- [37]. S. S. Muthu, "Blockchain technologies for sustainability," Research Gate, no. January, 2022.
- [38]. T. Hewa, M. Ylianttila, and M. Liyanage, "Survey on blockchain based smart contracts: Applications, opportunities and challenges," 2021. doi: 10.1016/j.jnca.2020.102857.
- [39]. M. Lei, S. Liu, N. Luo, X. Yang, and C. Sun, "Trusted-auditing chain: A security blockchain prototype used in agriculture traceability," Heliyon, vol. 8, no. 11, 2022, doi: 10.1016/j.heliyon.2022.e11477.
- [40]. K. Ibrahim, S. Tariq, B. Bakhtawar, and T. Zayed, "Application of fiber optics in water distribution networks for leak detection and localization: a mixed methodology-based review," H2Open Journal, vol. 4, no. 1, 2021, doi: 10.2166/h2oj.2021.102.
- [41]. R. B. Panuntun, A. Aminullah, B. Suhendro, and P. K. Wardana, "Bridge Displacement Estimation using Tiltmeter Data," Journal of the Civil Engineering Forum, vol. 5, no. 2, 2019, doi: 10.22146/jcef.43670.
- [42]. N. Young et al., "Field performance of four vibrating-wire piezometer installation methods," Canadian Geotechnical Journal, vol. 59, no. 8, 2022, doi: 10.1139/cgj-2021-0020.

- [43]. Q. Yuan, Z. Cheng, and X. Li, "Dynamics of periodic solution to a electrostatic Micro-Electro-Mechanical system," Commun Nonlinear Sci Numer Simul, vol. 116, 2023, doi: 10.1016/j.cnsns.2022.106828.
- [44]. K. Smarsly and K. Dragos, "Advancing civil infrastructure assessment through robotic fleets," Internet of Things and Cyber-Physical Systems, vol. 4, 2024, doi: 10.1016/j.iotcps.2023.10.003.
- [45]. Z. Berglund et al., "Smart Infrastructure: A Vision for the Role of the Civil Engineering Profession in Smart Cities," Journal of Infrastructure Systems, vol. 26, no. 2, 2020, doi: 10.1061/(asce)is.1943-555x.0000549.
- [46]. Grouios, E. Ziagkas, A. Loukovitis, K. Chatzinikolaou, and E. Koidou, "Accelerometers in Our Pocket: Does Smartphone Accelerometer Technology Provide Accurate Data?," Sensors, vol. 23, no. 1, 2023, doi: 10.3390/s23010192.
- [47]. B. Szinyéri, B. Kővári, I. Völgyi, D. Kollár, and A. L. Joó, "A strain gauge-based Bridge Weigh-In-Motion system using deep learning," Eng Struct, vol. 277, 2023, doi: 10.1016/j.engstruct.2022.115472.
- [48]. S. H. Jeong, W. S. Jang, J. W. Nam, H. An, and D. J. Kim, "Development of a structural monitoring system for cable bridges by using seismic accelerometers," Applied Sciences (Switzerland), vol. 10, no. 2, 2020, doi: 10.3390/app10020716.
- [49]. N. Mohamed Mokhtar, A. Magdy, B. El-Hady, and khaled abd elsalam, "Improving Smart Infrastructure Monitoring System as a Response to Prevalent Pandemic," Port-Said Engineering Research Journal, vol. 27, no. 1, 2023, doi: 10.21608/pserj.2023.209431.1236.
- [50]. Acharya and T. Kogure, "Application of novel distributed fibre-optic sensing for slope deformation monitoring: a comprehensive review," 2023. doi: 10.1007/s13762-022-04697-5.
- [51]. Abdelhafiz, "Thermal Cameras and their Use in Civil Engineering," International Conference on Aerospace Sciences and Aviation Technology, vol. 15, no. AEROSPACE SCIENCES, 2013, doi: 10.21608/asat.2013.22054.
- [52]. Liu, P. Zhang, and X. Xu, "Literature review of digital twin technologies for civil infrastructure," 2023. doi: 10.1016/j.iintel.2023.100050.

- [53]. R. Gadhave and N. S. Vyas, "Rail-wheel contact forces and track irregularity estimation from on-board accelerometer data," Vehicle System Dynamics, vol. 60, no. 6, 2022, doi: 10.1080/00423114.2021.1899253.
- [54]. E. J. Tomaszewska, "Barriers related to the implementation of intelligent transport systems in cities The Polish local government's perspective," Engineering Management in Production and Services, vol. 13, no. 4, 2021, doi: 10.2478/emj-2021-0036.
- [55]. K. A. Johnson, M. V. Wolski, and R. O. McCarter, "Central Subway tunnel construction instrumentation: Lessons learned, San Francisco, California," in Proceedings - Rapid Excavation and Tunneling Conference, 2015.
- [56]. J. Olivera, M. González, J. V. Fuente, R. Varga, A. Zhukov, and J. J. Anaya, "An embedded stress sensor for concrete SHM based on amorphous ferromagnetic microwires," Sensors (Switzerland), vol. 14, no. 11, 2014, doi: 10.3390/s141119963.
- [57]. J. Zhang, C. C. Chan, H. H. L. Kwok, and J. C. P. Cheng, "Multi-indicator adaptive HVAC control system for low-energy indoor air quality management of heritage building preservation," Build Environ, vol. 246, 2023, doi: 10.1016/j.buildenv.2023.110910.
- [58]. S. O. Ongbali, S. A. Afolalu, S. Oladipupo, S. Akra, and K. A. Bello, "Building structural health monitoring: a tool for building collapse mitigation," IOP Conf Ser Mater Sci Eng, vol. 1036, no. 1, 2021, doi: 10.1088/1757-899x/1036/1/012028.
- [59]. Suherman, Fahmi, U. Hasnita, and Z. Herri, "Design and characteristics assessment of wireless vibration sensor for buildings and houses," Indonesian Journal of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science, vol. 21, no. 3, 2021, doi: 10.11591/ijeecs.v21.i3.pp1381-1388.
- [60]. R. Sharifi and C. M. Ryu, "Social networking in crop plants: Wired and wireless cross-plant communications," 2021. doi: 10.1111/pce.13966.
- [61]. J. White, A. Beall, J. Maurio, D. Fichter, M. Davis, and Z. Birnbaum, "Security-Enhanced Serial Communications," Military Cyber Affairs, vol. 6, no. 1, 2023, doi: 10.5038/2378-0789.6.1.1092.
- [62]. J. B. Madavarapu, F. H. Mohammed, S. Salagrama, and V. Bibhu, "Secure Virtual Local Area Network Design and Implementation for Electronic Data Interchange," International Journal of Advanced Computer Science and Applications, vol. 14, no. 7, 2023, doi: 10.14569/IJACSA.2023.0140701.

- [63]. Y. Huang, Y. Shen, and J. Wang, "From Terahertz Imaging to Terahertz Wireless Communications," 2023. doi: 10.1016/j.eng.2022.06.023.
- [64]. P. Oppermann, L. Dorendorf, M. Rutner, and C. Renner, "Nonlinear modulation with low-power sensor networks using undersampling," Struct Health Monit, vol. 20, no. 6, 2021, doi: 10.1177/1475921720982885.
- [65]. A. Lavric, A. I. Petrariu, and V. Popa, "Long Range SigFox Communication Protocol Scalability Analysis under Large-Scale, High-Density Conditions," IEEE Access, vol. 7, 2019, doi: 10.1109/ACCESS.2019.2903157.
- [66]. P. Matz, J. A. Fernandez-Prieto, J. Cañada-Bago, and U. Birkel, "A systematic analysis of narrowband iot quality of service," Sensors (Switzerland), vol. 20, no. 6, 2020, doi: 10.3390/s20061636.
- [67]. Kaewta, C. Savithi, and E. Naenudorn, "An optimization of multiple gateway location selection in long range wide area network networks," Indonesian Journal of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science, vol. 30, no. 2, 2023, doi: 10.11591/ijeecs.v30.i2.pp1011-1020.
- [68]. Y. Chai and X. J. Zeng, "Regional condition-aware hybrid routing protocol for hybrid wireless mesh network," Computer Networks, vol. 148, 2019, doi: 10.1016/j.comnet.2018.11.008.
- [69]. M. Apte, S. Kelkar, A. Dorge, S. Deshpande, P. Bomble, and A. Dhamankar, "Gateway based Trust Management System for Internet of Things," Revista Gestão Inovação e Tecnologias, vol. 11, no. 4, 2021, doi: 10.47059/revistageintec.v11i4.2501.
- [70]. E. B. Sanjuan, I. A. Cardiel, J. A. Cerrada, and C. Cerrada, "Message Queuing Telemetry Transport (MQTT) Security: A Cryptographic Smart Card Approach," IEEE Access, vol. 8, 2020, doi: 10.1109/ACCESS.2020.3003998.
- [71]. Z. Shelby, K. Hartke, and C. Bormann, "The Constrained Application Protocol (CoAP)," Rfc 7252, 2014.
- [72]. R. Amin, S. Kunal, A. Saha, D. Das, and A. Alamri, "CFSec: Password based secure communication protocol in cloud-fog environment," J Parallel Distrib Comput, vol. 140, 2020, doi: 10.1016/j.jpdc.2020.02.005.

- [73]. S. Q. Chen and J. Bai, "Data-driven decision-making model for determining the number of volunteers required in typhoon disasters," Journal of Safety Science and Resilience, vol. 4, no. 3, 2023, doi: 10.1016/j.jnlssr.2023.03.001.
- [74]. O. Pournik, T. Mukherjee, L. Ghalichi, and T. N. Arvanitis, "How Interoperability Challenges Are Addressed in Healthcare IoT Projects," Stud Health Technol Inform, vol. 309, 2023, doi: 10.3233/SHTI230754.
- [75]. S. Elmaghraby and M. M. Losavio, "Cyber security challenges in smart cities: Safety, security and privacy," J Adv Res, vol. 5, no. 4, 2014, doi: 10.1016/j.jare.2014.02.006.
- [76]. Puliafito, G. Tricomi, A. Zafeiropoulos, and S. Papavassiliou, "Smart cities of the future as cyber physical systems: Challenges and enabling technologies," Sensors, vol. 21, no. 10, 2021, doi: 10.3390/s21103349.
- [77]. Kim, H. Choi, H. Kang, J. An, S. Yeom, and T. Hong, "A systematic review of the smart energy conservation system: From smart homes to sustainable smart cities," 2021. doi: 10.1016/j.rser.2021.110755.
- [78]. O. Z. Salah, S. K. Selvaperumal, and R. Abdulla, "Accelerometer-based elderly fall detection system using edge artificial intelligence architecture," International Journal of Electrical and Computer Engineering, vol. 12, no. 4, 2022, doi: 10.11591/ijece.v12i4.pp4430-4438.
- [79]. T. Wan, B. Shao, S. Ma, Y. Zhou, Q. Li, and Y. Chai, "In-Sensor Computing: Materials, Devices, and Integration Technologies," Advanced Materials, vol. 35, no. 37, 2023, doi: 10.1002/adma.202203830.
- [80]. Vasiley, Advanced Deep Learning with Python. 2019.
- [81]. Y. Jeong et al., "Digital Twin: Technology Evolution Stages and Implementation Layers with Technology Elements," IEEE Access, vol. 10, 2022, doi: 10.1109/ACCESS.2022.3174220.
- [82]. Z. Wu, T. Cheng, and Z. L. Wang, "Self-powered sensors and systems based on nanogenerators," Sensors (Switzerland), vol. 20, no. 10, 2020, doi: 10.3390/s20102925.
- [83]. N. S. Akash, S. Rouf, S. Jahan, A. Chowdhury, A. Chakrabarty, and J. Uddin, "Botnet Detection in IoT Devices Using Random Forest Classifier with Independent Component Analysis," Journal of Information and Communication Technology, vol. 21, no. 2, 2022, doi: 10.32890/jict2022.21.2.3.