DTWN: Q-learning-based Transmit Power Control for Digital Twin WiFi Networks

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Abstract

Interference has always been the main threat to the performance of traditional WiFi networks and next-generation moving forward. The problem can be solved with transmit power control (TPC). However, to accomplish this, an information-gathering process is required. But this brings overhead concerns that decrease the throughput. Moreover, mitigation of interference relies on the selection of transmit powers. In other words, the control scheme should select the optimum configuration relative to other possibilities based on the total interference, and this requires an extensive search. Furthermore, bidirectional communication in real-time needs to exist to control the transmit powers based on the current situation. Based on these challenges, we propose a complete solution with Digital Twin WiFi Networks (DTWN). Contrarily to other studies, with the agent programs installed on the APs in the physical layer of this architecture, we enable information-gathering without causing overhead to the wireless medium. Additionally, we employ Q-learning-based TPC in the Brain Layer to find the best configuration given the current situation. Consequently, we accomplish real-time monitoring and management thanks to the digital twin. Then, we evaluate the performance of the proposed approach through total interference and throughput metrics over the increasing number of users. Furthermore, we show that the proposed DTWN model outperforms existing schemes.

Keywords: Digital Twin, Reinforcement Learning, Transmit Power Control, WiFi, Interference

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1. Introduction

The performance degradation in both traditional and next-generation WiFi networks becomes inevitable due to interference issues. We see the performance effect that distance between access points (APs) creates in Figure 1. As the AP deployments get closer, the chance of interference among stations (STAs), APs, and between APs and STAs increases. The growing demand and the apparent reduction in performance require a mechanism that can mitigate this interference. Moreover, since the interference among APs and STAs mainly originates from the locations of devices, in this paper, we focus on the AP to STA interference.

Transmit Power Control (TPC) mechanisms can resolve the interference issues. Such a solution must gather...
information from the overall network. Then, process it to determine the transmit powers of APs. Then, apply these decisions to the network. Despite the rigorous studies on dynamical adjustment of TPC, some problems are not fully resolved, and the solutions are not entirely applicable. This is mainly because AP-based, and controller-based schemes use the wireless medium for the information-gathering, bringing overhead that decreases the throughput.

Moreover, AP-based schemes remain insufficient due to scarce resources on APs preventing complex algorithms from running. Due to the vast number of possible configurations, an extensive search is required to find the one that will result in the least interference. Using rule-based methods for such algorithms is insufficient compared to Machine Learning (ML) techniques. Moreover, due to networks’ dynamic nature, it needs to be monitored continuously and adjustments applied to them whenever required [16]. In other words, real-time monitoring and management capabilities should be present in the solution. However, current attempts, including AP-based and controller-based approaches, either fail or partially consider real-time monitoring and bi-directional data and control flows.

Accordingly, the Digital Twin approach offers an excellent foundation for such architecture. Briefly, the Digital Twin (DT) [15] models have been used for their real-time monitoring, management, and analytical capabilities [2], [3]. Moreover, the DT refers to a virtual mirror of a physical entity with continuous bi-directional flows. Thus, it enables controlling the underlying WiFi network topology through the twin without making additional overhead caused by TPC control messages.

Based on these, we utilize DT technology for WiFi networks and propose a Digital Twin WiFi Network (DTWN) architecture. Moreover, we use Q-learning-based TPC to manage interference. The main contributions of this paper are listed as follows:

- We present a digital twin-aided WiFi network named DTWN that gives us real-time monitoring and management capabilities. Then, we evaluate twining frequency and its effects on performance and CPU consumption.
- The proposed DTWN brain layer runs Q-learning-based TPC that is able to learn continuously by interacting with the network. Consequently, we show that our approach gives promising results over baselines.
- By the agent programs deployed to the APs in the physical layer of the proposed architecture, we acquire interference-related data without causing overhead to the wireless medium. Moreover, we introduce the interference indicator $\phi$ and separate clients into requirement and performance classes based on this value. Then use all this information to define the state of the network.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 investigates the literature related to the topics of this paper. Then, the problem formulation is given in Section 3. Section 4 explains the Physical Network Layer. The Digital Twin Network Layer is presented in Section 5 with implementation details. Section 6 defines the Q-learning based TPC mechanism on Brain Layer. The performance of the proposed DTWN architecture is evaluated in Section 7. Then we conclude the paper with Section 8. Additionally, the key notations that have been used throughout this paper is given in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Notation</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\theta$</td>
<td>Transmit Power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\phi$</td>
<td>Signal-to-Interference Indicator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_{x\rightarrow y}$</td>
<td>Received signal strength of $x$ at $y$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f$</td>
<td>Twining Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>Number of APs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C$</td>
<td>Performance breakdown matrix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$I$</td>
<td>Interference matrix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$U$</td>
<td>Matrix of ones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\lambda$</td>
<td>Reward factor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**2. Related Works**

In the IEEE 802.11ax standard [4], spatial reuse mechanisms are introduced, and they include Transmit Power Control (TPC) and Carrier Sensitivity Threshold (CST) adjustments to detect transmissions of other Basic
Service Sets (BSSs). [8] proposes a two-scale control in which CST is adaptively adjusted at STAs and parameters for CST are adjusted using Artificial Intelligence at APs. While such advancements on 11ax SR mechanisms might increase resource utilization, it is limited because they work without communication among neighbouring APs.

To address the issues, the IEEE802.11be standard introduced Multi-AP coordination concept which includes coordinated spatial reuse (CSR) and several others [5]. In [6], two different CSR options are compared with 11ax SR and simulation results shown that CSR achieves better throughput. However, the CSR protocols’ [7] use of the wireless medium may result in overhead which should be taken into consideration. Moreover, the transmission powers of all APs are calculated with a rule-based approach by an AP. Thus, it is challenged by scarce resources on APs such as computational and memory resources.

The proposed power control mechanism in [9], allocations are done with a rule-based approach using characteristics of users. Moreover, in [10] a coordinated power control scheme is proposed which is also a rule-based method. While such algorithms might perform well under predefined conditions, they might be unable to adapt to real word examples.

Additionally, in [12] performances of TPC, CST tuning, and TPC with CST tuning is investigated. The results show that out of these three methods, setting Transmit Power to a value just over the required value for a successful transmission gives the most performance improvement in terms of throughput. The paper concludes that performance gain is dependent on the network topology meaning adapting to the change of the network is needed. This might limit the effectiveness of rule-based TPC schemes.

The study in [11] proposes a centralized controller that adjusts the transmit power and channel of APs based on Q-Learning. They define the state of the network using two-dimensional STA locations that are presumably collected from the devices. However, this collection requires additional communication over the wireless medium, which may result in an overhead. Moreover, deducting interference from locations might be inaccurate [19]. Furthermore, while the proposed solution bares desirable results, the use of offline learning strategy might prevent achieving lower interference.

Digital twins (DTs) give promising results in data analysis with machine learning [2]. Also, DTs have been used to iteratively optimize latency [3]. Moreover, digital twin network (DTN) is an emerging concept in its drafting stage [13]. Although the applications of DTN technology are prominent in smart manufacturing and several other fields [14], to the best of our knowledge, DTN technology has not been applied to WiFi networks for the purpose of solving interference issues by adjusting transmit power.

### 3. Problem Formulation

We define the WiFi network as an undirected weighted graph $G = (V, E, w)$, where $V$ is a set of vertices consisting of clients and APs that are denoted as $V_c$ and $V_{AP}$. $E$ is a set of edges that corresponds to reached signal from an AP to a client. We separate the edges formed between $v_c$ and $v_{AP}$ into two groups as signal ($E_s$) and interference ($E_t$). The signal type edge is formed when $v_{AP}$ is serving to $v_c$, and interference type is formed when there is interference between them. Moreover, $w$ is the weight function, and the weights are the received signal strength of APs at clients.

Wireless communication quality is measured with a signal-to-interference-plus-noise ratio (SINR). Therefore, we assume SINR can represent users’ quality of service,
consequently, performance. However, we cannot do measurements on station side, we define a signal-to-interference indicator using $G$.

### 3.1. Signal-to-Interference Indicator ($\phi$)

It is calculated for client vertices $V_c$. A client vertex $\text{client} \in V_c$ was shown in Figure 3. It forms edges with $m$ different APs where $AP_i \in V_{AP}$. One of these edges must be of signal type, and in this case, it is the one with $AP_m$.

**Figure 3. Example Client Vertex**

![Example Client Vertex](image)

The $\phi$ for the vertex $\text{client}$ in the Figure 3 is calculated as

$$\phi = w_m - 10 \log_{10} \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} 10^{w_i/10}$$

(1)

where $w_i$ is the weight of the edge $e = (AP_i, \text{client})$. The weights are in decibels, so to get the ratio, total interference is subtracted from the weight of the signal type edge ($w_m$). As for the total interference, weights are summed after converting units from $dBm$ to $mW$. Then, the total value is converted back into $dBm$. Moreover, if there is no interference type edge, interference is taken equal to the thermal noise power which is $-100$ $dBm$.

### 3.1. Requirement Classes

The $\phi$ values also give an insight into the performance of the vertex. Depending on the clients’ traffic characteristics, their perceptions will change. Therefore, we need to identify how low is too low for a client. For this purpose, we define requirement classes in Table 2. Requirement Classes and assign clients to these based on their analyzed traffic patterns that were acquired through the analytics from the DTN.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Requirement Class</th>
<th>Threshold</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$A$</td>
<td>$\phi &gt; 35dB$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$B$</td>
<td>$35dB &gt; \phi &gt; 25dB$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C$</td>
<td>$\phi &lt; 25dB$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The level of performance degradation on the WiFi network caused by AP to STA interference is mainly a result of transmit powers of APs. We denote the transmit power of $AP_i$ as $\theta_{AP_i}$. We further define the configuration of the APs in a given time as

$$\Theta(t) = [\theta_{AP_0}(t), \theta_{AP_1}(t), ..., \theta_{AP_m}(t)]$$

(2)

where $m$ is the number of APs in the network.

In general, the goal is to find the optimal vector $\Theta(t)$ so that clients can have adequate levels of $\phi$.

### 4. Physical Network Layer

The physical network layer consists of a WiFi network as shown in Figure 2. Here, APs are deployed close to each other, so the interference issues threaten the performance. In such networks, interference may be in 3 types: AP to AP, AP to STA, and STA to STA. In this paper, we focus on mitigating AP to STA interference. To do so, we need to gather information continuously. Then, using this, decide on the transmit powers APs and later apply the decided actions. This process depends on APs providing an information flow to the next layer and them receiving feedback flow from it. To enable these, we deploy agent programs to APs.

**Figure 4. Sample network and example sensed packet logs**

![Sample network and example sensed packet logs](image)

STA, and STA to STA. In this paper, we focus on mitigating AP to STA interference. To do so, we need to gather information continuously. Then, using this, decide on the transmit powers APs and later apply the decided actions. This process depends on APs providing an information flow to the next layer and them receiving feedback flow from it. To enable these, we deploy agent programs to APs.

The information flow contains the configuration of the AP, details about clients and their traffic, and the sensed...
packet log that is kept by the agent program. We explain the logging procedure by a use case that was shown in Figure 4. It contains two APs ($A_P_1$ and $A_P_2$) and seven client stations. For example, at time $t_0$, $S_T A_3$ communicates with $A_P_1$, in the meantime, the sent packet is also received by $A_P_2$. Both APs log the timestamp, the source address, whether the packet was from its client, and the received signal power strength in $dBm$.

In addition, the periodicity of the information flow will affect the accuracy of the digital twin. In other words, the digital twins’ performance depends on how often it receives information from the real world. This nature brings the agent to send information periodically. Moreover, agents should send simultaneously to obtain the DTN as a whole twin of the physical network. Based on this, we introduce the twining frequency $f$ as a parameter of DTWN. $f$ should be tuned according to the topology at hand because it can affect the timeliness of our proposed approach and the resource consumption on the physical network by agent programs.

5. Digital Twin Network Layer

In this layer of the architecture, we construct the twin of the physical WiFi network using the information flow from the previous layer. Then, we use this for monitoring and management purposes in the next layer, called as Brain Layer in Section 6.

5.1. Microsoft Azure

As for the implementation, we utilize Microsoft Azure IoT Hub as a gateway to the Physical Network Layer. We have installed agent programs to the APs, and these agents send information to their IoT Hub instances. Next, we used Azure Digital Twins (ADT) to form the DTN. Then, we use Event Hubs to capture a stream of data and Azure Functions to link all services together.

In detail, ADT is used to represent the physical objects using models coded with Digital Twins Definition Language (DTDL) [17]. Moreover, we defined two interfaces, AP and STA, that was shown in the Figure 2. They contain the following fields:

- **Property** fields represent physical object’s status. The SSID and Channel information is stored for AP interfaces. In STAs, received and transmitted packet count is stored.
- **Telemetry** represents measurements that are not stored in the digital twin. Furthermore, telemetries compose the output stream of data from the DTN layer. For AP, CPU utilization and for STA, all the received power and AP Mac is streamed.
- **Relationship** is formed between AP and client models. It is directly mapped to the sensed packet log. The relationship contains the last timestamp of the signal sensed by the AP.
- **Component** is a part of the model that does not require separate identification. Since APs and clients are both equipped with network interface controller (NIC) cards for receiving and transmitting signals, we model a NIC interface and include it in the models as a component. The component contains transmit power and MAC address as a property.

6. Brain Layer
In this layer, we utilize the DTN to form transmission power adjustments of APs for managing interference. This layer consists of Admission Control, Topology Extraction, and Q-learning-based Transmit Power Control as it was shown in Figure 5.

6.1. Admission Control

Whenever, a new client enters to the network, it is detected at the brain layer with a delay based on the twining frequency. After detection, an optimal adjustment-seeking process begins. In this process, the $G_t$ is converted to $s_t$ and is given to the reinforcement learning agent. Then, the agent decides on an action which is then applied. This process is repeated until the decided action is do nothing.

6.2. Topology Extraction

As mentioned earlier, we represented the network using graph $G$. We retrieve transmission power configurations and the most recent sensed packet log telemetries from the DTN. We use this information to construct the graph $G$.

The transmission power configurations of the devices within the network are not all known. In other words, APs are sending their configuration through the information flow, but configurations of the clients are not accessible in this setting. Therefore, we assume that all clients are transmitting at the same level. We denote the transmission power as $\theta$. In detail, for the $AP_t$ it is $\theta_{AP_t}$ and for the clients, it is $\theta_c$.

The sensed log telemetries are used alongside $\theta$ values to form the edges. For example, a log was taken by the $AP_t$ regarding the client $c_j \in V_c$. We represent the "P" column of the log as $P_{c_j \rightarrow AP_t}$. We map this information either to a signal type edge or an interference type edge, depending on the "Is Client?" column. As previously mentioned, the weights of the edges will be the received signal strength at the client, meaning it is denoted as $P_{AP_t \rightarrow c_j}$. Therefore, we calculate $P_{AP_t \rightarrow c_j}$ using the Equation 3.

$$P_{AP_t \rightarrow c_j} = \theta_{AP_t} - \theta_{c_j} + P_{c_j \rightarrow AP_t}$$

As a result, an edge $e = (AP_t, c_j)$ with the weight $P_{AP_t \rightarrow c_j}$ is put to the graph with the following condition: In case the edge is type interference, the $P_{AP_t \rightarrow c_j}$ needs to be higher than a significance level.

6.3. Q-learning based Transmit Power Control

RL problems are described as Markov Decision Process (MDP) and expressed in $(S, A, p, r)$ tuple where $S$ is the state space, $A$ is the action space, $p$ is the probability of transition from a state to the another after an action is applied, and $r$ is the immediate reward. The goal of the RL agent is to find the optimal policy that maximizes the reward. The policy is a map of state to action, $\pi: A \times S \rightarrow [0,1]$.

In our solution, we use $Q$-learning algorithm. $Q$ refers to the quality function that calculates the expected reward for action in a given state, also referred to as $Q$-Table. The algorithm updates $Q$-Table based on interactions with the environment.

State Space

The $S \in R^{M \times (M+3)}$, where $M$ is the number of APs, represents the state space, and the value 3 equals to number of performance classes. The $s_t$, the observed state at time $t$, constitutes of 2 parts, $C_t$ and $I_t$. $C_t$ is the performance breakdown matrix and $I_t$ is the interference matrix.

State Generation

We construct the $s_t$, using $G_t$ and $\phi$. Initially, we find $\phi$ values for client vertices and categorize clients into performance classes that were shown in Table 3. We use the number of clients in these classes while denoting it as $C_t^{\phi j}$ where $k$ is the performance class. Then, we determine how many of the clients that are connected to a given $AP_t$ experience interference from $AP_t$; we denote this value as $I_t^{\phi j}$.

**Table 3. Performance Classes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Performance Class</th>
<th>Limits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$\phi &gt; 40dB$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>$40dB &gt; \phi &gt; \Phi_{\text{thresh}}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>$\phi &lt; \Phi_{\text{thresh}}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Consequently, we define the state $s_t$ as

$$s_t = \begin{bmatrix} C_1^{\phi 1} & C_1^{\phi 2} & C_1^{\phi 3} & I_t^{\phi 1} & I_t^{\phi 2} & ... & I_t^{\phi M} \\ C_2^{\phi 1} & C_2^{\phi 2} & C_2^{\phi 3} & I_t^{\phi 1} & I_t^{\phi 2} & ... & I_t^{\phi M} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

Action Space

The action space is denoted as $A$ and for a given $s_t$ the RL agent decides on the action $a_t \in A$. We define the action vector $a_t$ as in Equation 5 where $\theta \in [0dBm, 30dBm]$ is the transmit power.

$$a_t = [AP_t, \theta]$$

Reward Function

After each action applied, we calculate the reward for the state and action pair $(s_t, a_t)$. In this calculation, we use the change between states. We subtract $s_{t+1}$ from $s_t$. 
\[ S_d = S_{t+1} - S_t = [C_{t+1}I_{t+1}] - [C_tI_t] = [C_dI_d] \] (6)

Reward calculation is made using \( C_d \) and \( I_d \) matrices alongside of the reward factor \( \lambda \). The reward factor is the mapping of desirability of change in performance classes. Consequently, we define the reward \( r(s_t, a_t) \) as

\[ r(s_t, a_t) = C_d\lambda U_c - U^T I_d U_t \] (7)

where \( U \) is all-ones matrices, \( U_c \) is the size \( 3 \times 1 \) and \( U_t \) is the size \( M \times 1 \).

**Reward Factor Calculation**

We assume that while the actions are applied, the network topology remains unchanged so the number of clients in the performance classes corresponds to transitioning between clients. Therefore, the sum of the \( C_d \) entries will always be equal to 0.

Since the goal is to have adequate levels of \( \phi \) over the network, a trade-off dynamic appears; therefore, minimizing the performance class 3 is more desirable than increasing the performance class 1. Based on these, the reward factor \( \lambda = [\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3]^T \) should be selected with the constraints: \( \lambda_3 < 0 < \lambda_1, |\lambda_1| > |\lambda_3| \). Moreover, we take the \( \lambda_2 \) as 0 to avoid repeating the calculation for the same transition between classes.

**Update Formula**

The Q-learning algorithm has a function \( Q \) that map state-action pairs to respective rewards.

\[ Q: S \times A \rightarrow R \] (8)

Whenever the agent selects an action \( a_t \) for a given state \( s_t \), it receives the next state \( s_{t+1} \) and a reward \( r_t \). Then, \( Q \) is updated based on these values with the following iterative update formula.

\[ Q(s_t, a_t) = Q(s_t, a_t) + \alpha \left[ r_t + \gamma \max_a Q(s_{t+1}, a) - Q(s_t, a_t) \right] \] (9)

where \( \alpha \) is the learning rate and \( \gamma \) is the discount factor.

**Exploration vs. Exploitation**

Exploration enables the agent to learn more about the environment and creates accurate estimates. On the other hand, exploitation selects the action that yields to most reward and may get more reward than the exploration. In order to leverage the benefits of the two methods, we use the \( \epsilon \)-greedy action selection mechanism that balances those two by randomly choosing between them.

In a given time, the agent takes a random action with the probability of \( \epsilon \). Or it takes the \( \max_a Q(s_t, a) \) action with the probability of \( 1 - \epsilon \).

**7. Performance Evaluation**

For simulations we used ns-3 network simulator [18]. Moreover, we simulated on 20Mhz channels while the APs channel assignments done beforehand. Other simulation parameters are shown in the Table 4. We first tune twining frequency and greedy rate parameters for the proposed DTWN architecture. Then we compare our results to Power Control [9], Coordinated Power Control [10], Joint Power Control Reinforcement Learning [11] mechanism to validate the performance of our proposed Q-learning-based TPC for DTWN.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of APs, ( M )</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transmit Power of AP, ( \theta_{AP_i} )</td>
<td>[0dBm, 30dBm]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transmit power of clients, ( \theta_{Ci} )</td>
<td>12dBm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carrier Frequency</td>
<td>5Ghz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bandwidth of the channel</td>
<td>20Mhz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Rate, ( \alpha )</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discount Factor, ( \gamma )</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reward Factor</td>
<td>([1.0, -2]^T)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**7.1. Tuning of Twining Frequency and Greedy Rate**

We first conduct the set of experiments to optimally find twining frequency and greedy rate parameters for the given WiFi topology. These two parameters are then utilized in the proposed DTWN model.

Figure 6 shows detection delays of new clients entering the topology in different twinning frequencies, \( f \). The detection delay of new clients entering originate from the admission control in Section 6.1. If the digital twin is updated less frequently, changes in the physical network may be mirrored with a delay, consequently affecting the response of our mechanism. However, higher \( f \) settings cause greater consumption of APs CPU resources as seen in Figure 7. Therefore, we set twining frequency \( f \) as 0.2 through the remaining simulations for the proposed DTWN approach.
Moreover, in Figure 8, it is seen that higher greedy rates converge quicker but lower average rewards. In other words, learning speed increases with greedy rate while quality of strategies decreases. This is because when greedy rate is higher, the algorithm is able to explore more under the same number of iterations leading to faster learning. However, a random action’s return might be negative meanwhile in exploitation always the action with the highest reward is selected. Due to this, average rewards converge to lower values when the exploration is higher. As a result, we set $\epsilon$ as 0.4 for Q-learning-based TPC for DTWN brain layer.

7.2 Performance Comparison

We perform comparisons based on average throughput of users and total interference metrics. We compare our proposed DTWN approach to PC, Coordinated PC and JPCRL mechanisms.

As seen in Figure 9, our proposed scheme performs substantially better than PC and Coordinated PC. This is mainly due to the enabled learning and adaptation capabilities of Q-learning approach. However, the JPCRL method also leverages Q-learning, but the proposed approach outperforms it by achieving better state to action pairing which is a result of the interference focused state representation in Equation (4). Additionally, the other methods throughput decreases might be a result of the introduced overhead by the information-gathering.

Figure 9. Average throughput versus number of users

We observe the average throughput considerably decreases as the number of users rises. This is clearly due to the fact that interference may not be mitigated fully even the transmit powers adjusted optimally. Moreover, the AP to AP and STA to STA interference is still in existence which are included in the total interference. The measurement of total interference over growing number of
users in also prove the previous observation. In other words, Figure 10 shows that the least raise is obtained in the proposed approach. Main reasons of this are that the proposed approach is able to monitor and manage the network in real-time and the Q-learning TPC can continue to learn thanks to digital twin. To put it another way, the proposed interference indicator $\phi$, requirement classes and performance classes used in the state representation of Q-learning-based TPC to represent the interference in the WiFi topology.

8. Conclusion

In this paper, we proposed a Q-learning-based TPC to mitigate AP to STA interference in WiFi networks. With the reinforcement learning-based approach, we adjusted the transmit powers based on the current state while continued the learning of the TPC. We avoided overhead to the wireless medium preventing performance decrease. We achieved live analysis and management of the WiFi network, thanks to Digital Twin technology. Finally, we showed the performance of our proposed approach under different conditions, and it resulted in substantial advancements in total interference and throughput. As a future direction, deep learning can be leveraged in the TPC mechanism to handle the complicated state spaces formed in larger networks. For this purpose, a Deep Q-learning-based TPC mechanism can be developed and compared to the Q-learning-based TPC.

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