|| Volume 8 || Issue 12 || December 2024 || ISSN (Online) 2456-0774
INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF ADVANCE SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH AND ENGINEERING TRENDS

MODELING PU NETWORK INTERFERENCE IN COGNITIVE RADIO NETWORKS

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Abstract:
Introduction: Cognitive Radio Networks (CRNs) may coexist alongside Primary Users (PRs) or licenced users in the licenced frequency band, increasing the band's efficiency.
Aim of the study: the main aim of the study is Modeling Pu Network Interference In Cognitive Radio Networks
Material and method: Our proof-of-concept network uses a GSM access that is software-defined radio-based and an 802.11 wireless backhaul.
Conclusion: The discussion of potential follow-up research stemming from each chapter in this thesis will make up the future work section.

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I.INTRODUCTION:

1.1 ROUTING TECHNIQUES IN COGNITIVE RADIO NETWORKS

Cognitive Radio Networks (CRNs) may coexist alongside Primary Users (PRs) or licenced users in the licenced frequency band, increasing the band's efficiency. PRs have primary jurisdiction over their allocated frequency spectrum. Radio frequency (RF) is a valuable commodity that is put to use in several industries and daily life all over the globe. The paying customer receives the whole dedicated frequency band for their own usage. This means the designated RF spectrum may be significantly underutilised. Recent studies have shown that about 5% of the 30 MHz to 30 GHz spectrum is being utilised in the United States. The existing static spectrum allocation strategy only allows the licenced user or principal user to make use of the licenced RF band, which creates the spectrum availability issue. With this tech, secondary users, or those without a valid licence, can use the licenced band without interfering with primary users. Secondary users can detect and use unused RF channels. Dynamic spectrum access (DSA) refers to a secondary user's flexibility in operating frequencies. Thus, we can define a cognitive network as one that can monitor its state and adapt accordingly. As a result, a secondary user may adjust the settings of its transmitter in response to environmental cues, allowing it to make better use of the frequency band while minimising its impact on the prime user.

White spaces in the radio frequency (RF) spectrum are the primary means by which CR technology works in the licenced band alongside PR users.

Spectrum holes are seen in Figure 1.1.

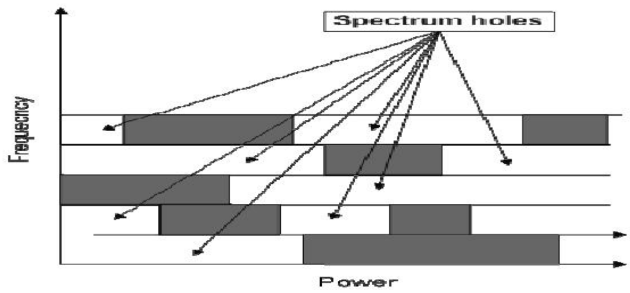

Figure 1.1 Spectrum holes concept

1.1.1 Location-Aware Probabilistic Route Discovery for Cognitive Radio Networks

The need for high bandwidth wireless communications has expanded dramatically in response to the explosion in popularity of portable and mobile devices. Given that spectrum is a finite resource, the inefficiency of the currently prevalent static spectrum allocation mechanisms is unacceptable. In the field of cognitive radio networks, multi-hop routing is one of the most actively studied topics. The optimum route in several CRN routing systems is discovered by either the source or the destination node. This strategy has a high cost since it demands frequent communication between network nodes, often in the form of a deluge of control packets.

1.1.2 Probabilistic Route Discovery for Cognitive Radio Networks

Our approach presents a distinctive method of dynamically calculating the probability of gossiping at individual nodes. This is achieved by analysing the stochastic behaviour of primary users, as well as the intended destination of the broadcast packet. The outcome of this approach is a reduction in the expenses associated with global-view routing protocols. To reduce the route-finding cost of a wide variety of CRN routing protocols without modifying the routing metric of those protocols, we propose a generic chatting strategy. Choosing the dynamic gossiping probability for each channel is first introduced in the next section. We next detail the steps necessary to implement the suggested method, whether a shared control channel is available or not.

II.LITERATURE REVIEW

Bhowmik & Malathi (2019) for spectral sensing methods, the proposed Krill-Herd Whale Optimization spectral sensing method to optimize the detection probability for a given false time rate is complicated. The unoccupied spectrum that assigned the free spectrum bands to the primary users was decided to mitigate the delay due to the efficient operation of the fusion centre. For efficient sensing, the Eigen-based co-operative sensing was stimulated. According to this performance metrics like FAR rate and PDR rate of the suggested method was developed. The stimulated outcome has been shown to have a maximum detection probability and a minimum probability rate of 0.9085 and 0.0009

Ogbodo, Emmanuel & Dorrell (2017) Hence, the present study highlights a number of unexplored research domains, such as the design model for implementation, the utilisation of LPWAN for deployment of CRSN-based SG, and others. The future of the CRSN in SG and its many subsystems will be discussed. To fill these knowledge gaps, we implemented an innovative unified communication system to boost SG productivity and deal with related difficulties.

Saleem, Yasir & Yau, Kok-Lim & Mohamad (2017) White spaces in licenced spectrum may be used by SUs in the CRN, a next-generation wireless communication system, with little impact on incumbent users (PUs). However, unlike conventional wireless networks, CRNs are subject to fluctuating conditions (such as the activities of PUs and the availability of channels), which can make routing more difficult. In this guide, we will look at how a clustering method may be used to address the issue of routing in CRNs.

Al-Turjman, Fadi (2017) The present study proposes a model for transmitting data in extensive networks utilised for disaster management. The model is designed to accommodate a substantial number of wireless sensors that are distributed across various locations such as urban traffic-infrastructures, shopping-mall parking lots, airport terminals, and the like. The suggested method is tested against various baseline energy-aware routing algorithms in the literature, and the findings support its efficacy.

Thakare, A. & Bhagat, Latesh & Thomas, Achamma (2017) The wireless sensor networks are currently facing several challenges, which are being identified through various unresolved issues. The foraging behaviour of ants and bees offers a potential solution for mitigating latency in wireless sensor networks by effectively utilising idle channels and enabling spectrum sensing and channel sharing across multi-hop communication. The present research endeavours to devise a self-organizing routing algorithm to address the issues associated with wireless sensor networks.

Selvaraj, Janani (2016) This system is designed to be environment-aware and self-learning, with the aim of achieving two primary objectives. The device then processes and assimilates this information, considering user preferences and demands, and subsequently adapts its system parameters in accordance with predetermined policies and regulations. A mobile terminal equipped with cognitive radio technology has the capability to make autonomous decisions regarding its communication channels.

III.METHODOLOGY

3.1 Differences with existing solutions

Our proof-of-concept network uses a GSM access that is software-defined radio-based and an 802.11 wireless backhaul. There have been some discussions in the literature about using comparable systems for different uses. The VillageLink initiative has built a system to provide GSM service to rural areas without enough cellular coverage. Those systems fared well in real-world testing. There are, however, major distinctions in terms of construction and operation. A multiradio router, which sends and receives across many radio frequencies and hence is more costly, is one such example. Site assessments and meticulous network design are useful for the long-term reliable installations required by the rural networks

IV.RESULTS

4.1 MODELING PU NETWORK INTERFERENCE

4.1.1 Interference as a stochastic process

There are 3 subsections in this section. will talk about the interference's first and second order statistics. will talk about whether the interference process is assumed to be stationary or ergodic. will establish the fundamental interference statistics relied upon throughout the remainder of the thesis. Two networks are shown in Figure 3.1. Both an SU and a PU network are shown on the left, with the SU network shown in squares and the PU network shown in triangles. The two types of networks are supposed to use the same frequency range.

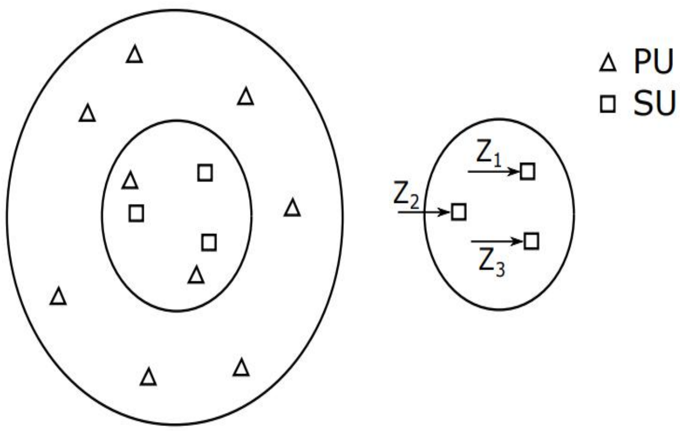

Figure 4.19 Real vs. synthesized interference

First and second order statistics

A SU node may experience interference from either a PU node or another SU node, or both, at any one moment. We shall treat these signals as though they were realisations of a larger stochastic process. This chapter will focus on a continuous signal that is defined as the mean power received over a period T.

$$Y_i(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{N_{CR}+N_{PR}} \alpha_{ij} S_j(t) + N_i(t), \quad i = 1,2,\ldots,N_{CR}$$

$$Z_i(t) = \frac{1}{T}\int_{t-T}^{t} |Y_i(v)|^2 dv, \quad i = 1,2,\ldots,N_{CR}$$

A SU's reception of a signal from another SU might be either the intended signal or unwanted interference from a different PU or SU. For both PU and SU networks, a network realisation will be described as a set of nodes at a certain physical place. In order to write the interference as Zi(t), the usage of ensemble averages is required to get rid of the dependency on.

The average interference power value, z, has a probability associated with it, given by the first order density function fi(z,t) for the process Zi(t).

$$\mu_i(t) = E[Z_i(t)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} z f_i(z,t) dz$$

The first two orders of a density function are generally sufficient to characterise a stochastic process, although higher orders are possible. The correlation, covariance, and correlation coefficient are all second-order statistics that may be derived from the second-order density function. Similarity between two samples of a stochastic process Zi1 (t1) and Zi2 (t2) at distinct locations (i1 and i2) and times (t1 and t2) is quantified by the correlation function, described in Equation 3.4.

$$R_{i_1,i_2}(t_1,t_2) = E[Z_{i_1}(t_1) Z_{i_2}(t_2)]$$
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} z_{i_1} z_{i_2} f_{i_1,i_2}(z_{i_1}, z_{i_2}; t_1, t_2) dz_{i_1} dz_{i_2}$$

In most cases, this is more informative than the correlation when trying to determine the likely pace of change. For signals with zero mean, there is no difference between the correlation and the covariance. Auto-covariance refers to Ci(t1,t2) when the calculation is done at the same node position, whereas cross-covariance refers to Ci(t1,t2) when the calculation is made at various node locations.

$$C_{i_1,i_2}(t_1,t_2) = E[(Z_{i_1}(t_1) - \mu_{i_1}(t_1))(Z_{i_2}(t_2) - \mu_{i_2}(t_2))]$$
$$= R_{i_1,i_2}(t_1,t_2) - \mu_{i_1}(t_1)\mu_{i_2}(t_2)$$

Again, if the calculation is done at the same node location, we call it the auto-correlation coefficient i(t1,t2), and if it's done at different node locations, we call it the cross-correlation coefficient.

$$\rho_{i_1,i_2}(t_1,t_2) = \frac{C_{i_1,i_2}(t_1,t_2)}{\sigma_{i_1}(t_1)\sigma_{i_2}(t_2)}$$

$$\sigma_i^2(t) = E[Z_i^2(t)] - \mu_i^2(t)$$

Stationarity and Ergodicity

Stationarity and ergodicity will be examined in two dimensions because the statistics were all functions of time t and location i. Which statistics are time and space invariant determine how stationarity is defined.

First order statistics under the stationarity assumption may be computed at any time and from any place, whereas second order statistics under the stationarity assumption need to account for time differences and relative node distances. Time and spatial ergodicity are also definable for the interference process. A process may be said to be ergodic in the mean, ergodic in the correlation, etc., depending on which statistic is being considered. A process must be stationary for a given statistic, but this is not a required condition for it to be deemed ergodic for that statistic.

Testing for Stationarity in Time

Figure 4.20 displays the value of the estimated mean as a function of discrete time intervals. Two primary points of observation stand out. The first is that the mean, µ1[n], is believed to be stationary with time since it does not fluctuate by more than 0.5 dB during a given time interval. Therefore, the median can be expressed as $\hat{\mu}_1 = \frac{1}{MN}\sum_{m=1}^{M}\sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{I}_1(m,n)$ and may be computed by taking the mean across all available time periods and simulation runs. The second is a brief pause at the start of the simulation, brought on by the fact that the first time-slot is treated differently from the others and is always regarded to be idle for all nodes. For this reason, we shall wait 20 time-slots before considering any of the derived statistics from the simulations in this chapter, just to be safe.

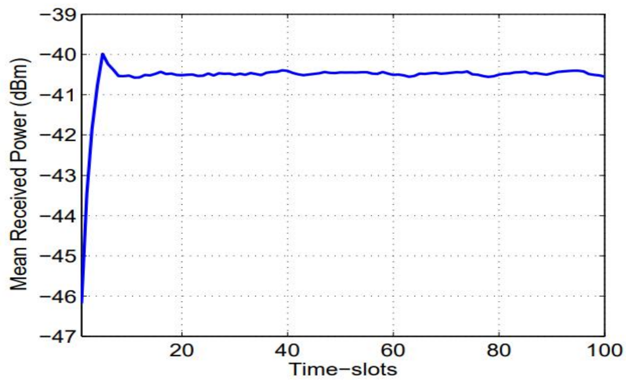

Figure 4.1 Stationarity of mean with time

This is equivalent to assuming that all n1−n2 = τ slices of the plot are identical, which is a sensible assumption to make. Therefore, for a given node, we can calculate its auto-correlation coefficient i = 1 as

$$\hat{\rho}_1[\tau] = \frac{1}{M(N-\tau_m)} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \sum_{n=1}^{N-\tau+1} (\mathbf{I}_1(m,n)\mathbf{I}_1(m,n+\tau) - \hat{\mu}_1^2)/\hat{\sigma}_1^2$$

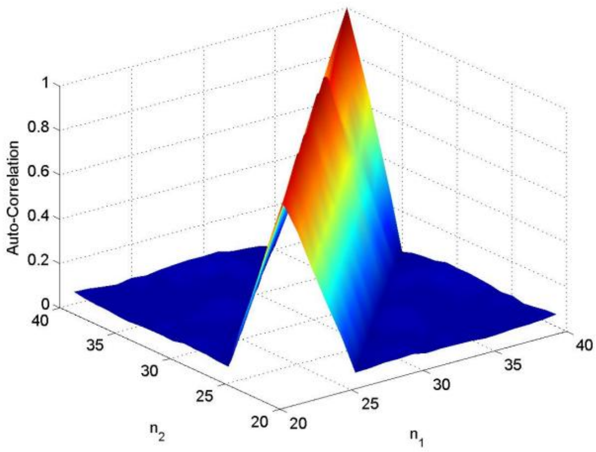

Figure 4.2 Stationarity of auto-correlation coefficient with time

V.CONCLUSION

The discussion of potential follow-up research stemming from each chapter in this thesis will make up the future work section.

1. Determine the best possible value of p for simultaneous flooding and RLNC operation in a closed form.
2. Enhance the WSN broadcasting performance by enhancing the RLNC algorithm
3. Fourth, develop a multi-band CR simulation platform to estimate spectrum sensing performance using an interference model.
4. Employ collaborative spectrum sensing to investigate the trade-off between enhanced performance and the additional delay and energy expended by broadcasting.

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Traffic congestion is a major urban challenge, leading to delays, fuel wastage, economic losses, and environmental pollution. Traditional traffic management systems often struggle to adapt to real-time traffic conditions, making them inefficient in handling growing urban mobility demands.

With advancements in Artificial Intelligence (AI), modern traffic management systems can overcome these limitations by:

- **Real-Time Traffic Analysis:** AI-driven systems process live traffic data from cameras, sensors, and GPS to optimize traffic flow.
- **Predictive Congestion Control:** Machine learning models forecast congestion patterns, enabling proactive traffic management.
- **Smart Traffic Signal Optimization:** AI-powered adaptive signals adjust timing dynamically based on real-time traffic conditions.
- **Computer Vision for Traffic Monitoring:** AI analyzes video feeds to detect vehicle density, violations, and road incidents.
- **IoT and AI Integration:** Smart sensors and connected

vehicles provide real-time data for intelligent traffic decision-making.

This paper explores how AI enhances traffic efficiency, reduces congestion, and improves overall urban mobility. It discusses various AI techniques, real-world implementations, existing challenges, and future prospects in intelligent traffic management. By leveraging AI, cities can create smarter, more sustainable, and efficient transportation systems.

II. Methodology

1. How AI-Driven Traffic Systems Work

Data Collection: Sensors, cameras, GPS data, and vehicle tracking provide real-time traffic updates.

Data Processing: AI models analyze traffic flow, predict congestion, and adjust signals accordingly.

Decision Implementation: AI recommends adaptive signal timing, lane prioritization, and rerouting strategies to optimize movement.

2.Machine Learning Algorithms Used

Supervised Learning: AI learns from past traffic data to predict future congestion patterns.

Reinforcement Learning (RL): AI continuously improves traffic signal adjustments through trial and error.

Computer Vision Models: AI processes live video feeds to detect vehicle density and pedestrian activity.

Proposed AI-Based Traffic Management System: A Comprehensive Approach

An AI-based Traffic Management System (AITMS) is designed to optimize traffic flow, reduce congestion, enhance road safety, and improve urban mobility using Artificial Intelligence (AI), the Internet of Things (IoT), and real-time data analytics. The proposed system consists of multiple intelligent components that work together for efficient traffic control.

III. System Architecture

The architecture of the AI-based traffic system integrates multiple technologies, including machine learning, computer vision, edge computing, and IoT sensors. The system operates in three primary layers:

1.1. Data Collection Layer (Input)

This layer is responsible for gathering real-time traffic data from various sources:

- IoT Sensors & Cameras → Installed at intersections to detect vehicle count, speed, and movement patterns.
- GPS & Navigation Systems → AI analyzes Google Maps, Waze, and GPS-based traffic data.
- Drones & Aerial Surveillance → AI-powered drones monitor highway congestion and accident hotspots.
- Weather & Environmental Sensors → AI considers rainfall, fog, and pollution levels for safer routing.
- Public Transport & Emergency Vehicle Tracking → AI ensures priority signals for buses, ambulances, and fire trucks.

1.2. AI Processing & Decision-Making Layer

The AI core processes real-time traffic data using:

- Computer Vision (CV) → Recognizes vehicle types, pedestrian movement, and traffic violations.
- Machine Learning (ML) & Predictive Analytics → Predicts traffic congestion trends and alternative routes.
- Reinforcement Learning (RL) Algorithms → AI adjusts traffic signal timings dynamically based on live road conditions.
- Edge Computing & Cloud AI → Faster real-time decision-making without delays.

1.3. Traffic Management & Control Layer (Output)

AI processes data and executes optimized traffic control strategies:

Smart Traffic Lights: AI adjusts green, red, and yellow signal durations based on real-time congestion.

AI-Driven Dynamic Lane Control: AI assigns dedicated lanes for high-priority vehicles.

Automated Traffic Rerouting: AI suggests alternative routes via navigation apps (Google Maps, Waze, etc.).

Emergency Vehicle Prioritization: AI turns signals green for ambulances, police, and fire trucks.

Violation Detection & E-Challan System: AI automatically detects rule violations and issues e-challans.

2. AI-Based Traffic Optimization Techniques

The proposed system employs multiple AI-driven traffic optimization techniques:

2.1. Dynamic Signal Timing Using AI

- AI adjusts traffic lights dynamically based on real-time congestion.
- Uses historical traffic data to predict congestion patterns.
- Implements Adaptive Signal Control Technology (ASCT) for real-time optimization.
- Example: If AI detects 100+ vehicles at one junction and 20 vehicles at another, it extends the green light duration for the busier road.

2.2. AI-Powered Vehicle & Pedestrian Detection

- AI-driven CCTV cameras track vehicles, pedestrians, and cyclists.
- Uses computer vision to detect jaywalking, overspeeding, and red-light violations.
- Identifies congested roads and reroutes traffic accordingly.

- Example: AI in Singapore's Smart Traffic System monitors pedestrian crossings and adjusts signals in real-time.

2.3. Reinforcement Learning-Based Traffic Flow Optimization

- AI learns optimal signal patterns from past data.
- Self-learning AI models dynamically improve traffic flow efficiency.
- Uses Q-learning and Deep Reinforcement Learning (DRL) algorithms.
- Example: Los Angeles ATSAC AI System reduced congestion by 13% using self-learning AI traffic lights.

2.4. IoT & AI-Based Smart Traffic Monitoring

- IoT-enabled sensors track vehicle movement, lane occupancy, and speed.
- AI analyzes real-time data and controls traffic based on congestion levels.
- Detects accidents, roadblocks, and construction sites, providing alternate routes.
- Example: Dubai's AI-Based Smart Traffic System uses IoT sensors to detect accidents and automatically inform authorities.

2.5. AI-Based Traffic Congestion Prediction

- AI analyzes historical traffic data to forecast congestion trends.
- Uses time-series machine learning models to predict peak hours and high-traffic zones.
- Helps city planners optimize traffic infrastructure and prevent bottlenecks.
- Example: Google AI Traffic Prediction uses machine learning to predict future congestion 30 minutes in advance.

3. Implementation Strategy

To deploy the AI-based traffic management system, a step-by-step implementation plan is required:

Step 1: Infrastructure Development

- Install AI-powered traffic cameras and IoT sensors at major intersections.

Integrate AI with existing traffic control centers.

Step 2: AI Model Training & Testing

- Train machine learning models using real-time and historical traffic data.
- Conduct pilot testing in a small city zone before large-scale deployment.

Step 3: Integration with Smart City Ecosystem

- AI should be linked with navigation apps, public transport systems, and emergency services.

Step 4: Deployment & Real-Time Monitoring

- Fully deploy AI-based traffic control across the city.
- Continuously monitor and optimize AI models for better performance.

4. Case Studies & Real-World Implementations

4.1. Singapore Smart Traffic System

Uses AI-powered adaptive signals to reduce wait times by 22%.

AI synchronizes with public transport and pedestrian crossings.

4.2. Barcelona Smart Traffic Grid

AI-based lane-switching and congestion prediction improved traffic efficiency by 19%.

Implemented automated bus prioritization to enhance public transport flow.

4.3. Los Angeles ATSAC AI System

- Uses self-learning AI signals to reduce congestion by 13%.
- AI optimizes peak-hour traffic flow.

5. Challenges & Limitations

Despite its advantages, AI-based traffic management systems face challenges:

5.1. High Implementation Costs

- Requires AI-powered cameras, IoT devices, and cloud computing infrastructure.
- Cities need significant investment for full deployment.

5.2. Privacy & Data Security Concerns

- AI collects real-time vehicle tracking data, raising privacy concerns.
- Requires strict data protection laws to prevent misuse.

5.3. Ethical Issues

- AI may prioritize efficiency over pedestrian safety.
- Bias in AI models could lead to unfair traffic signal adjustments.

5.4. Algorithmic Bias & Accuracy

- If AI models are trained on biased data, they may favor specific areas or routes.
- Requires continuous monitoring and unbiased data training.

6. Future Scope & Enhancements

To further improve AI-based traffic management, future innovations include:

6.1. Integration with 5G & Edge AI

Enables faster AI processing for real-time decision-making.

6.2. AI & Autonomous Vehicles

- AI will coordinate traffic signals with self-driving cars for optimized flow.

6.3. Blockchain for Secure Traffic Data

- Blockchain technology can secure AI-driven traffic data from manipulation.

6.4. AI-Driven Public Transport Optimization

- AI can predict commuter demand and dynamically adjust bus/train schedules.

IV. Conclusion

AI-based traffic management offers real-time, intelligent, and automated solutions to optimize traffic flow, reduce congestion, and enhance safety. By integrating machine learning, IoT, computer vision, and predictive analytics, cities can build sustainable smart traffic systems. While challenges exist, advancements in 5G, blockchain, and autonomous vehicles will further revolutionize AI-powered urban mobility.

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