Improving Information Freshness via Backbone-Assisted Cooperative Access Points

Haoyuan Pan, Member, IEEE, Yu Zhou, Member, IEEE, Tse-Tin Chan, Member, IEEE, Ming Tang, Member, IEEE, Jianqiang Li, Member, IEEE, and Zhihua Du, Member, IEEE

Abstract—Information freshness, characterized by Age of Information (AoI), is important for sensor applications involving timely status updates. In many cases, the wireless signals from one sensor can be received by multiple access points (APs). This article investigates the average AoI for cooperative APs (Co-APs), in which they can share information through a wired backbone network. We first study a basic backbone-assisted Co-AP system where APs share only decoded packets. Experimental results on software-defined radios (SDRs) indicate that Co-AP significantly improves the average AoI performance over a single-AP system. Next, we investigate an improved Co-AP system, called Soft-Co-AP. In addition to sharing decoded packets, Soft-Co-AP shares and collects soft information of packets that the APs fail to decode for further joint decoding. A critical issue in Soft-Co-AP is determining the number of quantization bits that represent the soft information (each soft bit) shared over the backbone. While more quantization bits per soft bit improves the joint decoding performance, it leads to higher backbone delay. We experimentally study the average AoI of Soft-Co-AP by evaluating the tradeoff between the backbone delay and the number of quantization bits. SDR experiments show that when the number of sensors is large, Soft-Co-AP further reduces the average AoI by 12% compared with Co-AP. Interestingly, good average AoI performance is usually achieved when the number of quantization bits per soft bit is neither too large nor too small.

Index Terms—Age of Information (AoI), backbone, information freshness, soft bits.

I. INTRODUCTION

The Internet of Things (IoT) is envisioned to be a fundamental enabler for future wireless communication networks by interconnecting the physical world into computer networks [1]. In recent years, the explosive growth of IoT devices with sensing, communication, and data analytics capabilities has brought new applications requiring timely status updates [2], [3], [4], [5]. For example, in future smart cities shown in Fig. 1(a), a large number of sensors distributed on the street sample and send measurements of physical characteristics, such as temperature, pollution index, and traffic flow, to access points (AP) installed on the lamp posts. In such a smart city scenario, the freshness of sensed data is of paramount importance. For example, in future vehicle-to-everything (V2X) networks, fresh traffic flow monitoring information is critical to enhance mutual awareness of the surroundings and to reduce the risk of road accidents [6].

Age of Information (AoI), a fundamental metric to quantify information freshness, was first proposed in [7]. It measures the time elapsed since the generation time of the latest status update received at the receiver [8]. More specifically, if at time \( t \), the latest status update received at the receiver was an update packet generated at time \( t - \tau \) at the transmitter (say, a sensor), then the instantaneous AoI of the sensor is \( \tau \).

Since its introduction in [7], AoI has attracted considerable research interest, and the average AoI is the most commonly used metric for measuring information freshness, i.e., the time average of instantaneous AoI [2], [8]. Prior works revealed that since AoI captures both the generation time of an update packet and its delay through the network, optimizing the average AoI is usually different from optimizing packet delay [8]. In addition, various techniques were investigated to improve the average AoI, such as channel coding [9], [10] and advanced multiple access schemes [11], [12], [13] (see Section II for more details).

In Fig. 1(a), due to the dense deployment of APs and sensors, multiple APs can receive packets from the same sensor. As a first step, we focus on two neighboring APs among many APs for cooperation. To be specific, let us consider a simplified scenario shown in Fig. 1(b), in which there are \( N \) sensors located in the overlapping coverage area of two APs, namely, AP1 and AP2. This means that both AP1 and AP2 can hear these \( N \) sensors. Without loss of generality, suppose that AP1 and AP2 serve as the primary AP and the secondary AP, respectively, and the update packets from sensors are
AP1 tries to decode the packet again jointly using the signals can forward the received raw complex signals to AP1. Then is, AP2 does not help if it fails to decode the update packet packet only when the packet is successfully decoded. That details).

sensors located in the overlapping coverage area of two APs, namely, AP1 and AP2. An Ethernet backbone connects the two APs, allowing APs to exchange information.

AP2. An Ethernet backbone connects the two APs, allowing APs to exchange information. We consider multiple sensors sending update packets in a time division multiple access (TDMA) manner as a simple implementation. Thanks to the backbone connection, AP1 can receive sensors’ update packets from AP2 when packets fail to be decoded at AP1 but are decoded successfully at AP2. We note that an update packet of a sensor usually has a higher chance of being received, thus potentially improving information freshness.

In Co-AP, AP2 can help AP1 by forwarding an update packet to the primary AP. Suppose AP1 fails to receive an update packet due to wireless impairments (such as shadowing and fading), but AP2 succeeds. In that case, AP2 can forward the received packet to AP1 through the backbone network infrastructure interconnecting AP1 and AP2 in smart cities. Often the backbone connection between the two APs is wired. This packet forwarding mechanism over the backbone network essentially increases the packet reception probability through spatial diversity: it only requires that at least one of the APs receive the packet. In other words, a packet that reaches more than one AP can have a higher chance of being received, thus potentially improving information freshness.

In this article, we investigate Ethernet-backbone-assisted cooperative AP (Co-AP) to reduce the average AoI of sensor networks with timely status update requirements. We first study a basic backbone-assisted Co-AP system, in which only the decoded packets are forwarded through the Ethernet backbone. We consider multiple sensors sending update packets in a time division multiple access (TDMA) manner as a simple implementation. Thanks to the backbone connection, AP1 can receive sensors’ update packets from AP2 when packets fail to be decoded at AP1 but are decoded successfully at AP2. We note that an update packet of a sensor usually reaches AP1 via the backbone before the next update opportunity of the same sensor (i.e., the next TDMA slot allocated to this sensor). Section III shows that this phenomenon effectively improves the information freshness. Our experiments on software-defined radio (SDR) show that compared to the traditional system with non-Co-APs (i.e., the single-AP system), Co-AP reduces the average AoI by around 50% when the number of sensors is 10 (see Fig. 3 in Section III-C for the details).

In Co-AP, AP2 can help AP1 by forwarding an update packet only when the packet is successfully decoded. That is, AP2 does not help if it fails to decode the update packet either. However, failure to decode the packet does not mean that there is no information about the packet. Intuitively, AP2 can forward the received raw complex signals to AP1. Then AP1 tries to decode the packet again jointly using the signals received at both APs, i.e., by the maximum ratio combining (MRC) technique [14]. While forwarding raw signal samples improves the joint decoding performance, it requires AP2 to forward a large amount of data. This may affect the regular traffic over the backbone network, e.g., the backbone network infrastructure among lamp posts in smart cities is shared by other networks. Moreover, forwarding a large amount of data increases the backbone delay, i.e., the time for AP1 to receive the raw samples from AP2. Thus, the average AoI may still be high, even if the update packet is eventually decoded at AP1.

Modern channel decoding methods often utilize soft information on the coded bits of a packet that give the log-likelihood ratio (LLR) of the probabilities of the bits being zero and one, referred to as soft bits [15]. Built upon Co-AP, we further investigate an improved Co-AP system, referred to as the Soft-Co-AP system. Instead of forwarding raw signals, Soft-Co-AP forwards soft bits of the coded packet from AP2 to AP1, when AP2 fails to decode the packet. With the help of soft bits, even if both packet copies fail to be decoded at the APs, the packet can still have a chance to be decoded after joint decoding at AP1. For fast decoding, the LLRs of the coded packet at AP2 generally need to be discretized and quantized from real numbers to integers before forwarding to the channel decoder in many practical systems. For example, a soft bit can be represented by eight quantization bits in our adopted SDR implementation [16], i.e., a soft bit is an integer ranging from 0 to 255, with 0 (255) being most likely to be a coded bit of 0 (1). This further reduces the amount of data forwarded over the backbone network.

Intuitively, the more quantization bits used to represent a soft bit, the better the joint decoding performance at AP1, i.e., using more quantization bits loses less information about the original real-value LLR [15]. However, more quantization bits used lead to a higher backbone delay, affecting the average AoI. In contrast, using fewer quantization bits leads to a lower backbone delay, but degrades the joint decoding performance. Hence, the impact of the number of quantization bits on the average AoI requires an in-depth investigation in a backbone-assisted network considered in this article.

Finally, we conduct experiments with real Ethernet backbone delay to compare the average AoI between Co-AP and Soft-Co-AP. Furthermore, we study the average AoI of Soft-Co-AP under different numbers of quantization bits and network configurations. Our SDR experimental results show that when the number of sensors is large (say, 30 sensors), Soft-Co-AP further reduces the average AoI of Co-AP by 12%. In addition, we observe from our experiments that four quantization bits per soft bit are usually enough to achieve the best average AoI performance of Soft-Co-AP, owing to the tradeoff between the joint decoding performance and the backbone delay. Overall, Soft-Co-AP is a viable solution for improving information freshness with massive IoT sensors.

To sum up, there are three major contributions in this article. 1) We are the first to study backbone-assisted Co-APs to improve information freshness. Our SDR experiments show that a simple Co-AP system wherein only decoded packets are forwarded through the backbone
significantly reduces the average AoI of the network by 50%, compared with a conventional single-AP system.

2) We further investigate an improved Co-AP system, called Soft-Co-AP. Soft-Co-AP can forward the soft bits of update packets that are failed to be decoded. While more quantization bits per soft bit improve the successful decoding probability of packets, a more considerable backbone delay is induced. Since both successful decoding probability and backbone delay affect the average AoI performance, we experimentally explore the impact of the number of quantization bits per soft bit on the average AoI in Soft-Co-AP.

3) We demonstrate the practical feasibility of status update systems with backbone-assisted Co-APs. SDR experimental results indicate that the average AoI performance of Soft-Co-AP outperforms Co-AP and single-AP significantly, especially when the number of sensors is large. Interestingly, the number of quantization bits per soft bit in Soft-Co-AP is usually neither too large nor too small to achieve a good average AoI performance.

The remainder of this article is organized as follows. Section II details related work on AoI and compares Co-AP/Soft-Co-AP with relevant techniques in the existing literature. Section III describes the system model of Co-AP and previews experimental results, showing that Co-AP reduces average AoI compared with the single-AP system. In Section IV, we present Soft-Co-AP and explain the joint decoding mechanism with the help of soft bits. Practical experimental evaluations of the average AoI in different systems are discussed and compared in Section V. Finally, conclusions are drawn in Section VI. Table I summarizes the key acronyms and notations of this article.

II. RELATED WORK

To characterize the freshness of the received information at the destination, AoI was introduced in vehicular networks [7]. Later, AoI was investigated in various wireless communication scenarios, such as industrial IoT [10], [17], health monitoring [18], [19], and satellite networks [20]. At the beginning of the study of AoI, the queuing theory was widely used to investigate the age performance under different abstract queuing models [8], [21], [22]. In addition, different user scheduling algorithms were proposed, aiming to minimize different age metrics, such as average AoI [8] and peak AoI [23]. These works were usually theoretical in nature and based on an ideal assumption that the status update is sent through a perfect channel without packet errors.

Recent studies on AoI focus more on the lower layer of the communication stack, i.e., PHY and MAC layers, taking unreliable wireless channels into account. To mitigate the wireless impairments that cause packet errors or loss, different PHY-layer techniques are proposed to reduce the average AoI. For example, Xie et al. [24] and Ceran et al. [25] focused on packet retransmission in which automatic repeat request (ARQ) or hybrid ARQ (HARQ) is used to improve the packet reception probability. Packet management techniques on the old packets and the newly generated packets at the transmitter were carefully designed to improve information freshness [26], [27], [28]. Besides, age-aware channel coding techniques were proposed in [9] and [10], indicating that optimizing the average AoI usually leads to different designs of coding redundancy and coding strategies.

Conventional multiple-input-multiple-output (MIMO) systems increase spatial diversity by equipping with more than one antenna at the receiver [14]. MIMO systems were investigated in [29] and [30] to improve the AoI performance. The backbone-assisted cooperative-AP system considered in this article use multiple receivers to exploit spatial diversity. Hence, it shares the same idea as MIMO systems that additional degrees of freedom increase the packet reception probability. However, traditional MIMO systems, where multiple antennas are mounted on the same receiver, are different from our cooperative-AP scenario, where APs are interconnected with a backbone network. Specifically, as presented in this work, the backbone delay therein does affect the AoI performance, which does not occur in conventional MIMO systems.

Our backbone-assisted cooperative-AP systems, namely, Co-AP and Soft-Co-AP, are also similar to the distributed MIMO systems studied in [32] and [33]. Coordinated multipoint (CoMP) [35], [36] and cell-free massive MIMO [37] are examples of distributed MIMO systems where spatially separated transmitters form a virtual MIMO system for multiple access. Applying previous works on
CoMP or cell-free massive MIMO to status update systems requires Co-APs to exchange raw signals for joint decoding. However, this raw signal exchange is typically accomplished by backhaul networks connected with dedicated high-speed fibers. When connected via lower-cost Ethernet, previous research [31], [34] pointed out that exchanging raw signal samples over the Ethernet backbone could lead to unaffordable traffic. More importantly, the high backbone delay induced is detrimental to low-AoI networks. Besides, [38], [39] also exploited the soft information from multiple APs to improve decoding performance as Soft-Co-AP does. However, all the above works on cooperative receivers focused on boosting system throughput rather than reducing AoI. By contrast, this article examines the design of soft bits (i.e., the number of quantization bits representing each coded bit shared over the backbone) on the average AoI. We experimentally show that good average AoI performance is usually achieved when the number of quantization bits per soft bit is neither too large nor too small. Such results also indicate that exchanging raw samples as in CoMP or cell-free MIMO does not reduce the average AoI due to the high backbone delay induced when exchanging a large volume of raw signal samples.

III. Cooperative Access Points I: Forwarding Decoded Packets

We now detail the status update system architecture with backbone-assisted Co-APs. Specifically, this section focuses on a cooperative scheme in which the only decoded packets are shared by an Ethernet backbone connecting the Co-APs. We show that sharing the decoded packets through the Ethernet backbone improves information freshness. Section IV further studies forwarding the soft bits of coded packets when the packets are not successfully decoded at the APs. In both Sections III and IV, we focus on two Co-APs for easy illustration. Generalization from two APs to multiple APs is straightforward.

A. System Model

Considering a dense AP scenario, we focus on a status update system where two neighboring APs, namely, AP1 and AP2, serve multiple sensors located in the overlapping coverage area of the two APs, as shown in Fig. 1(b). A total of \( N \) sensors want to send update packets to AP1. Let us assume that AP1 is the primary AP and AP2 is the secondary AP. In practice, each AP could be primary or secondary to different sensors, which can be directly generalized from our current example. Both AP1 and AP2 receive the wireless signals sent by the sensors and try to decode their update packets. An Ethernet backbone connection is established between AP1 and AP2 so that information can be forwarded from the secondary AP (AP2) to the primary AP (AP1). In this section, the information forwarded over the backbone is restricted to decoded packets only. We refer to the above system architecture as the backbone-assisted COoperative-AP (Co-AP) system.

Throughout this article, we assume that the \( N \) sensors send their update packets in a TDMA manner, where time is divided into a series of TDMA rounds. A TDMA round consists of \( N \) time slots with the same duration \( T \). Different sensors send their packets in a round-robin manner, and each sensor occupies a time slot. Note that Co-AP applies to other channel access schemes such as carrier-sensing multiple access (CSMA) used in the IEEE 802.11 standards [40] as well.

We further assume a generate-at-will packet generation model in which the update packet about the observed phenomena can be generated when the sensor has the transmission opportunity [2]. Following the generate-at-will model, in each TDMA round, a sensor generates and sends a new update packet just at the beginning of its allocated time slot. This ensures that the sampled information is as fresh as possible, i.e., a sensor reading is obtained just before its transmission opportunity. More specifically, with respect to Fig. 2, sensor \( i \) generates and sends packet \( C_i^j \) at \( t_{i,j}^1 \) in TDMA round \( j \) and completes the transmission at \( t_{i,j}^{j+1} \), where \( t_{i,j}^{j+1} = t_i^j + T \). Both AP1 and AP2 try to decode \( C_i^j \) at \( t_{i,j}^{j+1} \). If AP2 decodes \( C_i^j \) successfully, it forwards \( C_i^j \) to AP1 through the Ethernet backbone in Co-AP. The evolution of AoI is then described in detail as follows.

B. Age of Information

In the status update system shown in Fig. 1(b), the primary AP, AP1, wants to receive the update packets from sensors as fresh as possible. This article adopts AoI to quantify the information freshness. At any time \( t \), the instantaneous AoI of sensor \( i, i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, N\} \), measured at the primary AP (i.e., AP1), is defined as follows:

\[
\Delta_i(t) = t - U_i(t)
\]

where \( U_i(t) \) is the generation time of the last successfully received update packet of sensor \( i \) at AP1. The smaller the instantaneous AoI \( \Delta_i(t) \), the more recent the information from sensor \( i \). With the instantaneous AoI \( \Delta_i(t) \), we can compute the average AoI, which measures the time average of the instantaneous AoI. The average AoI of sensor \( i \), \( \Delta_i \), is defined as:

\[
\Delta_i = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Delta_i(t) dt
\]
as follows:

$$\overline{\Delta}_i = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Delta_i(t) dt.$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

We now focus on an example shown in Fig. 2 to see how Co-APs help reduce the average AoI, compared with conventional systems with non-Co-APs. If APs do not cooperate, AP2 does not forward the decoded packets to AP1, i.e., the system is in fact a single-AP system. Let us first consider the instantaneous AoI of sensor $i$ in single-AP, as depicted by the black curve in Fig. 2. In Fig. 2, sensor $i$ sends update packets $C_{j-1}^i$, $C_j^i$, and $C_{j+1}^i$ at times $t_{j-1}^i$, $t_j^i$, and $t_{j+1}^i$, respectively. Only packets $C_{j-1}^i$ and $C_{j+1}^i$ are received successfully by AP1. Hence, the instantaneous AoI is reduced to $T$ at times $t_{j-1}^i$ and $t_{j+1}^i$. When AP1 fails to decode packet $C_j^i$, the instantaneous AoI continues to increase. In other words, between the two consecutive updates at times $t_{j-1}^i+1$ and $t_{j+1}^i$, the instantaneous AoI has to increase linearly, resulting in a trapezoidal area $A_j^i$ for user $i$ under the instantaneous AoI curve, as shown in Fig. 2. We refer to this area as the AoI area.

The average AoI is calculated by accumulating a series of AoI areas, divided by the total time [8], i.e.,

$$\overline{\Delta}_i = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \Delta_i(t) dt = \lim_{W \to \infty} \frac{1}{W} \sum_{w=1}^W A_j^i(w) \int_0^T Z_i(w)$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

where $A_j^i(w)$ is the $w$th AoI area and $Z_i(w)$ is the time required for the $w$th update since the $(w-1)$th update. It is obvious that during the same period time, a smaller AoI area results in a smaller average AoI.

Now we consider a Co-AP system. The instantaneous AoI of sensor $i$ is depicted by the red curve in Fig. 2. Suppose that AP1 fails to decode packet $C_j^i$ at $t_{j-1}^i+1 = t_j^i + T$, but AP2 decodes $C_j^i$ successfully. Then, AP2 forwards the decoded $C_j^i$ to AP1 through the Ethernet backbone. In Fig. 2, we assume that AP1 receives $C_j^i$ forwarded by AP2 after a backbone delay $t_{\text{delay}}$, i.e., AP1 receives $C_j^i$ at $t_j^i = t_j^i + T + t_{\text{delay}}$. Hence, the instantaneous AoI of sensor $i$ can be reduced to $T + t_{\text{delay}}$ at $t_j^i$. Compared with single-AP, thanks to the update packet forwarded by AP2, the instantaneous AoI in Co-AP can be reduced before the next update opportunity at $t_{j+1}^i$. This leads to a much smaller AoI area under the instantaneous AoI curve. Based on (3), a smaller AoI area leads to a smaller average AoI given the same time duration.

From the above example, we observe that in Co-AP, the decoded packets forwarded by AP2 can reduce the average AoI as long as the backbone delay $t_{\text{delay}}$ is small enough. For example, in Fig. 2, AP1 should receive $C_j^i$ from AP2 before $t_{j+1}^i$ (this is the time of the next update packet decoded by AP1 itself) so as to reduce the time interval between two consecutive updates. In practical Ethernet backbone environments, the backbone delay is random and depends on the backbone traffic. The merits of backbone-assisted Co-AP systems should be validated in real wireless systems, as will be shown later in this article.

C. Co-AP Reduces Average AoI

Let us preview some experimental results on SDR [41] and compare the average AoI between single-AP and Co-AP. In this experiment, we assume that the number of sensors is 10, and they have the same received SNR at the APs. The detailed experimental setup and results can be found in Section V. We deploy the Universal Software Radio Peripheral (USRP) devices [42] in an indoor environment and conduct experiments on our prototype.

We conduct trace-driven simulations. Specifically, as will be detailed in Section V-A, we first obtain the physical (PHY)-layer decoding outcomes using SDR, i.e., collecting the decoding results at the two APs, and then use the traces to create events in AoI simulations. In this experiment, we vary the SNR of all sensors at AP1 (SNR$_{AP1}$) from 5 to 10 dB and fix the SNR at AP2 (SNR$_{AP2}$) to 10 dB. As such, sensors have better channel conditions at AP2 than at AP1. Also, note that the backbone delay statistics are collected from the real Ethernet backbone (see Section V-A for the backbone delay measurement setup).

Fig. 3 plots the average AoI of one sensor (say, sensor $i$) versus SNR$_{AP1}$. We see in Fig. 3 that Co-AP has a significantly lower average AoI than single-AP does, especially when the received SNR difference between the two APs is large. For example, when SNR$_{AP1}=6$ dB and SNR$_{AP2}=10$ dB, Co-AP reduces the average AoI of sensor $i$ by around 50% compared with single-AP. Thanks to the decoded packets forwarded by AP2, the instantaneous AoI of sensor $i$ can be dropped before the update opportunity in the next TDMA round, thus achieving higher information freshness.

Notice that in Co-AP, AP2 forwards an update packet to AP1 only when the packet is decoded successfully. When AP2 cannot decode the packet, intuitively, it can forward the raw complex signal samples to AP1 so that AP1 can try to decode the packet again by jointly using the signals received at both APs. However, forwarding raw signal samples leads
to a large amount of backbone traffic and a high backbone delay [31], [34], thus affecting the AoI performance. To avoid high backbone delay and further improve the average AoI performance, a promising solution is to forward the soft bits through the Ethernet backbone. In other words, when AP2 fails to decode an update packet, AP2 forwards the soft bits to AP1. AP1 tries to recover the update packet it previously failed to decode using its own received samples and the soft bits forwarded by AP2. Section IV-A describes the overall system architecture and explains the soft bits forwarded by AP2. After that, Section IV-B presents the joint decoding mechanism with the help of soft bits. In particular, we explain the impact of soft bits on the average AoI.

A. Overall Soft-Co-AP System Architecture

As illustrated in Fig. 4, to send an update packet, sensor \( i \) first encodes a source update packet \( C_l \) (for simplicity, we drop the TDMA round index) to the binary codeword \( V^i = (v_1[i], \ldots, v_q[i], \ldots) \), where \( v_q[i] \in \{0, 1\} \) is the \( k \)th coded bit of \( C_l \). In this article, we assume the use of convolution codes defined in the IEEE 802.11 standards [40] as the PHY-layer channel code to improve transmission reliability. The codeword \( V^i \) is then BPSK-modulated into the BPSK symbols \( X = (x[1], \ldots, x[k], \ldots) \), where \( x[k] = 1 - 2v[k] \). Extensions to higher-order modulations beyond BPSK are straightforward. As in 802.11, our system uses orthogonal frequency division multiplexing (OFDM) at the PHY layer. Specifically, the inverse fast Fourier transform (IFFT) is used so that BPSK symbols \( X \) are modulated into \( \hat{X} = (\hat{g}[1], \ldots, \hat{g}[k], \ldots) \) at the transmitter, which are sent to both APs. In addition, a cyclic prefix (CP) is inserted for each OFDM symbol to deal with multipath fading [14].

Both AP1 and AP2 receive the signals sent by sensor \( i \), i.e., \( Y_1 = (y_1[1], \ldots, y_1[k], \ldots) \) and \( Y_2 = (y_2[1], \ldots, y_2[k], \ldots) \) are frequency-domain signals after FFT at the receiver, respectively, where \( y_q[k] \) is the \( k \)th symbol received at AP \( r \in \{1, 2\} \). Assuming that the multipath effect can be dealt with by the CPs of OFDM symbols, \( y_q[k] \) is given by

\[
y_r[k] = h_r[k]x[k] + n[k]
\]

where \( x[k] \) is the \( k \)th transmitted BPSK symbol, \( n[k] \) is the additive white Gaussian noise (AWGN) with variance \( \sigma_n^2 \), and \( h_r[k] \) is the channel gain of symbol \( x[k] \) at AP \( r \).

Both APs adopt the soft-input Viterbi decoding algorithm (VA) to decode the source packet \( C_l \). Specifically, soft bits are computed from the received symbols \( Y_r \) at AP \( r \), which are then fed to the Viterbi decoder to decode \( C_l \). The idea of the soft-input VA is to provide a confidence metric \( \tilde{x}_r[k] \) of AP \( r \) for each coded bit \( v_q[k] \) to the Viterbi shortest-path algorithm. The confidence metric \( \tilde{x}_r[k] \) is referred to as the soft bit of \( v_q[k] \) and is computed by the LLR, i.e.,

\[
\tilde{x}_r[k] = \log \frac{P_0[k]}{P_1[k]}
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{2\sigma_n^2} \left( -|y_r[k] - h_r[k]|^2 + |y_r[k] + h_r[k]|^2 \right)
\]

\[
\propto y_r[k] \times h_r[k]
\]

(5)

where

\[
P_0[k] = \Pr(x[k] = 1|y_r[k]) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_n^2}} e^{-\frac{|y_r[k]|^2}{2\sigma_n^2}}
\]

\[
P_1[k] = \Pr(x[k] = -1|y_r[k]) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_n^2}} e^{-\frac{|y_r[k] + h_r[k]|^2}{2\sigma_n^2}}
\]

(7)

The dot "\( \cdot \)" in (5) represents the dot product. We denote the two complex numbers \( y_r[k] \) and \( h_r[k] \) as vectors with two elements, one of which is the real part of the corresponding complex number and one of which is the imaginary part. From (5) to (6), we remove the constant term \( (2/\sigma_n^2) \) since the constant term does not affect the shortest path found by VA.

For easy implementation and fast decoding, the soft-input Viterbi decoder adopted in the many practical systems (including the SDR platform used in this article) accepts confidence metrics represented by integers from 0 to 255. Since \( \tilde{x}_r[k] \) is a real value, it needs to be quantized before feeding to the Viterbi decoder, i.e., \( \tilde{x}_r[k] \) needs to be quantized into \( \tilde{x}_{r,q}[k] \). For simplicity, let us consider a noiseless case to explain the quantization procedure. According to (6), we have

\[
\tilde{x}_r[k] \propto y_r[k] \times h_r[k] = x[k] \times |h_r[k]|^2
\]

where \( x[k] \in \{1, -1\} \). That is, \( \tilde{x}_r[k] \propto |h_r[k]|^2 \). Over all \( k \), we focus on the constellation points with the largest magnitude, which is given by

\[
|h_{r,max}|^2 = \max_k |h_r[k]|^2.
\]
As in [43], we quantize $\tilde{x}_r[k]$ to $\tilde{x}_{r.q}[k]$ by
\[
\tilde{x}_{r.q}[k] = \left(\frac{x_r[k]}{|h_{r,max}|^2} + \beta\right) \times 255. \tag{11}
\]
That is, we first map $\pm|h_r[k]|^2$ to two points falling in the interval $(-1, 1)$. The parameters $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are used to map the interval $(-1, 1)$ to a new interval roughly from 0 to 1 so that $\tilde{x}_{r.q}[k]$ can fall between 0 and 255 after multiplying 255. In practice, $\alpha \in [0.2, 0.5]$ and $\beta = 0.5$. As a result, if $\tilde{x}_{r.q}[k]$ is closer to 255 (or 0), $v_j[k]$ is more likely to be a coded bit of 1 (or a coded bit of 0) [43].

The quantized soft bits $\tilde{X}_{1,q} = (\tilde{x}_{1,q}[1], \ldots, \tilde{x}_{1,q}[k], \ldots)$ and $\tilde{X}_{2,q} = (\tilde{x}_{2,q}[1], \ldots, \tilde{x}_{2,q}[k], \ldots)$ are fed into the Viterbi decoder at AP1 and AP2, respectively, to decode $C^i$. If AP2 fails to decode $C^i$, soft bits are forwarded to AP1 and study how to combine the information from AP1 and AP2 as co-APs. We first describe the PHY-layer implementation and experimental setup of our experiments, including the measurement of Ethernet backbone delay. After that, we present the experimental results of the average AoI performance in single-AP, Co-AP, and Soft-Co-AP.

\section{Experimental Evaluation}

In this section, we present the experimental evaluation of the average AoI of status update systems with backbone-assisted Co-APs. We first describe the PHY-layer implementation and the setup of our experiments, including the measurement of Ethernet backbone delay. After that, we present the experimental results of the average AoI performance in single-AP, Co-AP, and Soft-Co-AP.

\subsection{Implementation and Experimental Setup}

1) PHY-Layer Implementation and Experimental Setup: Our system prototypes are built on the USRP hardware [42] and the GNU Radio software [41] with the UHD driver. We conduct experiments on our prototypes in an indoor laboratory with USRP devices acting as APs and sensors, as shown in Fig. 5.
At the PHY layer, all the systems adopt OFDM transmission. BPSK modulations and the [133, 171]8 rate-1/2 convolutional codes defined in the IEEE 802.11 standards are used [40]. Each update packet is preceded by a preamble before the payload. The preamble assists the receivers with packet synchronization and channel estimation. In our experiments, the duration of an update packet, $t_{pk}$, is around 1 microsecond (ms), which is calculated by

$$T_{pk} = \left( \frac{320 + \frac{768 \times 8 \times 2}{48} \times 80}{2 \times 10^7} \right) s \approx 1 \text{ ms} \quad (18)$$

where 320 is the number of samples in the preamble. Eighty is the total number of samples in one OFDM symbol, consisting of a 64-FFT OFDM symbol and a 16-sample CP. Although an OFDM symbol has 64 subcarriers, only 48 subcarriers are used for data transmission. $768 \times 8 \times 2/48$ gives the number of OFDM symbols in an update packet with 768 bytes and a channel coding rate of 1/2. $2 \times 10^7$ means the bandwidth is 20 MHz. To facilitate packet decoding, we add a guard interval in each time slot so that the total duration of a time slot is 1.2 ms.

In our experiments, we perform controlled experiments for different received SNRs from 5 to 10 dB. Specifically, we place USRPs (sensors) at different locations (see Fig. 5) and control the transmit power of USRPs to simulate different received SNR pairs $(\text{SNR}_{\text{AP}1}, \text{SNR}_{\text{AP}2})$ at the two APs. We use AP1 to schedule the transmission of 50,000 packets of a sensor for each SNR pair $(\text{SNR}_{\text{AP}1}, \text{SNR}_{\text{AP}2})$. To compute the average AoI, we first collect the decoding outcomes (i.e., with and without joint decoding) of the sensors at the APs under different SNR pairs $(\text{SNR}_{\text{AP}1}, \text{SNR}_{\text{AP}2})$. Since sensors are independent in TDMA, after collecting the decoding outcomes at different positions, we can generate traces to drive the AoI simulations for different systems. In particular, the instantaneous AoI can be collected in each time slot, from which we compute the average AoI.

2) Backbone Delay Measurement: We use the Linux PING command to measure backbone delay. PING is a network software that measures the round-trip time of messages (called PING packets) sent from the originating host to the destination host, which are echoed back to the source. Specifically, we adopt the experimental setup with hierarchical switches and wireless devices presented in [31] for measuring the packet forwarding delay between APs, where we purposely generate high traffic to simulate a challenging WLAN-Ethernet environment. Moreover, we note that PING measures the round-trip delay. As in [31], symmetric and bidirectional traffic flows are established so that we can further assume that the one-way backbone delay is half of the round-trip delay of PING. We refer interested readers to Appendix and [31] for the detailed setup.

We next discuss the payload of PING packets used to measure backbone delay. Recall that in Co-AP, AP2 needs to forward a decoded packet to AP1. To do so, the wireless packets destined for AP1, but received at AP2, are encapsulated in Ethernet frames for forwarding to AP1 (i.e., this procedure is referred to as Ethernet Tunneling in [31]). Hence, metadata such as the MAC header of a wireless packet should be included in the encapsulated Ethernet frame, e.g., AP2 can examine the MAC address in the MAC header to find out that the received packets are destined for AP1. In our implementation, we assume that each wireless uplink packet has a 30-bytes MAC header and 768-bytes data so that the payload of a PING packet is 798 bytes when a decoded packet needs to be forwarded to AP1 (i.e., the PING size is 798 bytes when executing the PING command).

For Soft-Co-AP, AP2 needs to forward the quantized soft bits of a coded packet to AP1, where each soft bit is represented by $m$ quantization bits. Since we use the rate-1/2 convolutional codes, the size of the quantized soft bits for each coded packet is $1536m$ ($= 2 \times m \times 768$) bytes. Thus, to measure the backbone delay when AP2 forwards the quantized soft bits to AP1, we set the payload of PING size to $(1536m + 30)$ bytes for different $m$. Furthermore, notice that the maximum transmission unit (MTU) of an Ethernet frame is usually 1500 bytes. When the PING size exceeds 1500 bytes, the whole payload will be separated and encapsulated into multiple PING packets. For example, a PING size of 798 bytes requires only one PING packet; when the PING size is 12318 bytes (i.e., $m = 8$), nine PING packets are required. The more PING packets, the more backbone delay is required, as will be presented in the following section.

B. Experimental Results

In Section III, we have previewed the average AoI of single-AP and Co-AP systems when the difference in SNR between

We note that the Co-APs in the Ethernet backbone typically work like switches that forward traffic based on MAC addresses. PING adds additional delays because it uses the ICMP protocol. ICMP is part of Internet Protocol related to the network layer [44]. If delays are directly measured between switches, we need to get into APs and change the lower-layer code (related to Ethernet). This is not feasible with many commercial APs which do not open up their codes (i.e., they are not open source). However, compared with the queuing and processing delays, the additional delays introduced by PING at the network layer are relatively small [31].
Fig. 6. PHY-layer packet decoding probability. We vary the SNR at AP1 from 5 to 10 dB, and the SNR at AP2 is larger than that at AP1 by 1 dB. The blue bars represent the packet decoding probability of single-AP, the green bars represent the improvement of the packet decoding probability by Co-AP, and the red bars represent the improvement of the packet decoding probability by Soft-Co-AP when $m = 4$.

AP1 and AP2 varies (see Fig. 3). Now, this section further presents the PHY-layer packet decoding probability obtained in our SDR prototype and the backbone delay statistics. After that, the average AoI performances of single-AP, Co-AP, and Soft-Co-AP are presented and compared. Unless specified otherwise, we consider an SNR-balanced scenario, in which all sensors have the same received SNR at AP1 or AP2. We vary the SNR of sensors at AP1 from 5 to 10 dB. The SNR at AP1 is smaller than that at AP2 by 1 dB to simulate different signal paths.

1) PHY-Layer Packet Decoding Probability: Let us look at the PHY-layer decoding probability plotted in Fig. 6. We examine the packet decoding probabilities at the primary AP (AP1) for different systems. The blue bars represent the packet decoding probability of single-AP, and the green bars represent the improvement of Co-AP in packet decoding probability over single-AP. We see that the improvement in packet decoding probability is significant when Co-AP is used. For example, when $\text{SNR}^{\text{AP1}} = 5 \text{ dB}$ and $\text{SNR}^{\text{AP2}} = 6 \text{ dB}$, Co-AP increases the packet decoding probability by around 30% over single-AP.

Soft-Co-AP further forwards the quantized soft bits of coded packets to AP1, when AP2 cannot decode update packets. The red bars in Fig. 6 represent the further improvement of packet decoding probability by Soft-Co-AP. Since soft bits can be represented by different $m$, Fig. 6 plots the case when $m = 4$. Fig. 7 plots the packet decoding probability versus $m$, when $\text{SNR}^{\text{AP1}} = 5 \text{ dB}$ and $\text{SNR}^{\text{AP2}} = 6 \text{ dB}$ (other SNR pairs $(\text{SNR}^{\text{AP1}}, \text{SNR}^{\text{AP2}})$ lead to similar observations). From Fig. 7, we see that a larger $m$ leads to a better joint packet decoding performance. However, as mentioned earlier, a larger $m$ also leads to a larger backbone delay. We next present the backbone delay statistics measured in the experiments.

2) Backbone Delay Statistics: We now look at the backbone delay statistics. Fig. 8 plots the backbone delay samples when AP2 forwards different types of data in our experiments, namely, the decoded packets in the Co-AP system and the quantized soft bits ($m \in \{1, 4, 8\}$) in the Soft-Co-AP system. From Fig. 8, we see that the backbone delays are dynamically changing, e.g., in Soft-Co-AP, the instantaneous backbone delay fluctuates between 15 and 30 ms when $m = 8$. Furthermore, the more PING packets required (i.e., a larger $m$), the more time for AP1 to receive the information from AP2. For example, the average backbone delay is around 10 and 20 ms, when $m = 4$ and $m = 8$, respectively. Hence, although a larger $m$ results in a higher decoding probability, it also leads to a larger average backbone delay. Since both the decoding probability and the backbone delay affect the information freshness, the average AoI performance should be carefully studied, as presented next.
Fig. 9. Average AoI performance of the system for Single-AP, Co-AP, and Soft-Co-AP when all sensors have the same received SNR at the APs. The number $N$ of sensors is set to 10, and the SNR of sensors at AP2 is larger than that at AP1 by 1 dB.

3) **Average AoI Comparison:** First, let us look at the average AoI performance of different systems in the SNR-balanced scenario. We set the number of sensors to 10. The average AoI of a sensor (say sensor $i$) under different systems versus the SNR at AP1 is shown in Fig. 9 (the SNR at AP2 is larger than that at AP1 by 1 dB). We can see that Co-AP has a much lower average AoI than single-AP, thanks to the decoded packets forwarded by AP2 through the backbone. For example, when $\text{SNR}_{\text{AP1}} = 5$ dB, Co-AP reduces the average AoI of single-AP by around 40%. This is consistent with the preliminary experimental results shown in Fig. 3.

As for the average AoI of Soft-Co-AP, Fig. 9 shows that when the SNR is low (i.e., $5–7$ dB), Soft-Co-AP further reduces the average AoI compared with Co-AP. When the SNRs at AP1 are larger than 7 dB, the improvement by Soft-Co-AP is small because Co-AP can already perform well, i.e., AP2 can decode update packets so there is no need to forward soft bits.

Interestingly, as indicated by Fig. 9, the average AoI performance of $m = 4$ is slightly better than that of $m = 8$, even though $m = 8$ leads to a higher packet decoding probability. When the number of sensors is 10, the total duration of a round is 12 ms. However, the average backbone delay when $m = 8$ is around 20 ms, as shown in Fig. 8. This means that even if AP1 can receive the soft bits from AP2 after 20 ms and the “old” update packet can be recovered successfully at AP1, a “new” update packet has been sent in a new TDMA round. Therefore, the new update packet may be successfully received by AP1 before the old update packet, i.e., the recovery of the old update packet does not help reduce the AoI. On the other hand, even if no new packets can be received, the instantaneous AoI is still large when the old packet is decoded due to the considerable backbone delay. By contrast, the average backbone delay when $m = 4$ is around 10 ms, which is smaller than a TDMA round. In other words, AP1 can try to decode the old packet again before a new update packet is sent in a new TDMA round. If the old packet can be recovered, the average AoI can be reduced, as indicated in Fig. 2 of Section III.

Now, we further study the scenarios with more sensors and the average AoI of the whole network in Fig. 10(a). We consider the SNR-balanced scenario with $\text{SNR}_{\text{AP1}} = 5$ dB and $\text{SNR}_{\text{AP2}} = 6$ dB and vary the number of sensors. We find that the larger the number of sensors, the more significant the improvement of Soft-Co-AP over Co-AP. For example, when $N = 30$, Soft-Co-AP reduces the average AoI by 12% over Co-AP. With the increase in the number of sensors, the time of one TDMA round increases accordingly. In this case, if a sensor fails to update in a TDMA round, it needs to wait a longer time for the next update opportunity, i.e., the time interval between two consecutive updates becomes larger. With a longer TDMA round, in most scenarios, AP1 can try to decode the old packet again before a new TDMA round starts, even when $m = 8$. Hence, the higher packet decoding probability in Soft-Co-AP can effectively reduce the average AoI. In addition, since the duration of a TDMA round is large, $m = 4$ and $m = 8$ lead to almost the same average AoI performance, indicating that $m = 4$ is a more viable option since it reduces the backbone traffic.

**SNR-Imbalanced Scenario:** In addition, we look at the average AoI performance of Soft-Co-AP in an SNR-imbalanced scenario, as shown in Fig. 10(b). Specifically, sensors have different received SNRs at AP1 or AP2. We assume that half of the sensors have an SNR of 5 dB at AP1 and 6 dB at AP2, and the other half have an SNR of 10 dB at AP1 and 11 dB at AP2. In Fig. 10(b), we can observe the same phenomenon in Fig. 10(a), i.e., the larger the number of sensors, the more significant the improvement of Soft-Co-AP over Co-AP. It is enough to adopt the number of quantization bits per soft bit that is neither too large nor too small (i.e., $m = 4$) to achieve a good average AoI performance. Therefore, Soft-Co-AP is a practical solution to improve information freshness with a large number of sensors.

**More Than Two Cooperative APs:** In practice, it is likely that more than two APs can receive wireless signals from the same sensor. Here, we further consider an experiment with more than two Co-APs. The average AoI of the network under different numbers of Co-APs is shown in Fig. 11. When there are more than two Co-APs, the experimental setup is the same as the two-AP scenarios, except that one AP serves as the primary AP and all the other APs serve as the secondary APs. In Fig. 11, the number of sensors $N$ is set to 30, and the SNR of each sensor is 5 dB at the primary AP and 6 dB at the secondary APs. As shown in Fig. 11, the average AoI is reduced for both Co-AP and Soft-Co-AP when there are three Co-APs, compared with the case with two Co-APs only. This indicates that more APs increase spatial diversity such that an update packet can have a higher chance of being received, thus improving information freshness.

Moreover, we see in Fig. 11 that when the number of Co-APs increases from three to four, the average AoI does not reduce further. This is because, in the three-AP scenario, the average AoI almost reaches the optimal average AoI in a TDMA single-AP system. It is easy to figure out that the optimal average AoI of a TDMA system with 30 sensors is
Fig. 10. Average AoI performance for Co-AP and Soft-Co-AP systems, versus the number $N$ of sensors. We consider the SNR-balanced scenario with $\text{SNR}^{\text{AP1}} = 5$ dB and $\text{SNR}^{\text{AP2}} = 6$ dB. (a) SNR of all sensors is 5 dB at AP1 and 6 dB at AP2. (b) Sensors have different SNRs at AP.

19.2 ms, where each time slot is of 1.2-ms duration and each update packet is received successfully by the AP. The average AoI of the three-AP and four-AP systems is slightly higher than the optimal average AoI of 19.2 ms because an additional backbone delay is induced when Co-APs forward information over the backbone network.

VI. CONCLUSION

We have demonstrated a viable solution for timely status update systems using backbone-assisted Co-APs. This article is the first attempt to study backbone-assisted Co-APs to improve information freshness. We first investigate Co-AP, a system where the secondary AP forwards only the decoded packets to the primary AP through the backbone. Thanks to the forwarded decoded packets, the update packets that fail to be decoded by the primary AP can be successfully recovered, thus reducing the average AoI significantly compared with the traditional single-AP system.

We further investigate an improved Co-AP system, referred to as the Soft-Co-AP system. Soft-Co-AP can forward the soft bits of a coded packet to the primary AP through the backbone when the secondary AP fails to decode the packet. Then, the primary AP tries to decode the packet again with the help of soft bits. An interesting question here is the tradeoff between joint decoding probability and backbone delay under different quantization bits per soft bit, both of which affect the average AoI. We experimentally explore the impact of the number of quantization bits per soft bit on the average AoI in Soft-Co-AP.

Experimental results on our SDR prototype indicate that Soft-Co-AP further improves the average AoI performance over Co-AP, especially when the number of sensors in the TDMA network is large. Due to the tradeoff between joint decoding performance and backbone delay, the number of quantization bits per soft bit is usually neither too large nor too small to achieve a good average AoI performance.

Overall, Soft-Co-AP is a practical solution to improve the information freshness of a large number of IoT devices. Moving forward, we plan to extend the current TDMA scheme to advanced nonorthogonal multiple access schemes to further improve the AoI performance [12]. Another possible direction is to incorporate Co-AP/Soft-Co-AP in random access scenarios, such as a real Wi-Fi system with carrier sensing and collision avoidance capabilities [40]. We believe that the backbone-assisted solution applies to these scenarios, and their performance improvements are worthy of future investigation.

APPENDIX

EXPERIMENTAL SETUP FOR THE BACKBONE DELAY MEASUREMENT

The experimental setup for our backbone delay measurements follows [31]. As shown in Fig. 12, two switches are
interconnected via Ethernet, and a personal computer (PC) is connected to each switch. Each PC is equipped with a wireless network interface card to serve as an AP. The two PCs (also connected to each switch. Each PC is equipped with a wireless interface card to serve as an AP. The two PCs (also connected to each switch. Each PC is equipped with a wireless packet “compete” with the traffic from the file storage to user A2 at switch 1, and also “compete” with the traffic from the Internet to user B2 at switch 2 in the backbone network. This traffic setup simulates the queuing delay of each switch. In addition, with such symmetric and bidirectional traffic flows, we can assume that the one-way backbone delay is half of the round-trip delay of PING.

Fig. 12. Experimental setup for the backbone delay measurement [31].

We measure the backbone delay by PC1 PING PC2. We deliberately generate high traffic in the current experimental setup to simulate a challenging WLAN-Ethernet environment. Specifically, users A1 and A2 download a large number of files from the local file store. Meanwhile, users B1 and B2 receive video streams from the Internet. By doing so, PC1’s PING packets “compete” with the traffic from the file store to user A2 at switch 1, and also “compete” with the traffic from the Internet to user B2 at switch 2 in the backbone network. This traffic setup simulates the queuing delay of each switch. In addition, with such symmetric and bidirectional traffic flows, we can assume that the one-way backbone delay is half of the round-trip delay of PING.

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Haoyuan Pan (Member, IEEE) received the B.E. and Ph.D. degrees in information engineering from The Chinese University of Hong Kong (CUHK), Hong Kong, in 2014 and 2018, respectively. He was a Postdoctoral Fellow with the Department of Information Engineering, CUHK from 2018 to 2020. He is currently an Assistant Professor with the Department of Computer Science and Software Engineering, Shenzhen University, Shenzhen, China. His research interests include wireless communications and networks, Internet of Things, semantic communications, and age of information.

Yu Zhou received the B.E. degree from Xiangnan University, Chenzhou, China, in 2020. He is currently pursuing the M.E. degree with Shenzhen University, Shenzhen, China. His research interests include age of information, Internet of Things, and software-defined radios.

Jianqiang Li (Member, IEEE) received the B.S. and Ph.D. degrees from South China University of Technology, Guangzhou, China, in 2003 and 2008, respectively. He is a Professor with the Department of Computer and Software Engineering, Shenzhen University, Shenzhen, China. He led three projects of the National Natural Science Foundation, and three projects of the Natural Science Foundation of Guangdong Province, China. His major research interests include robotic, hybrid systems, Internet of Things, and embedded systems.

Zhihua Du received the Ph.D. degree from Nanyang Technological University, Singapore, in 2007. She is currently an Associate Professor with the College of Computer and Software Engineering, Shenzhen University, Shenzhen, China. She led projects of the National Natural Science Foundation and the Nature Science Foundation of Shenzhen, China. Her major research interests include intelligent computing and hybrid systems.