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ST-DMFRL: Spatio-Temporal Diffusion Mean-Field Reinforcement Learning for Adaptive Load Balancing In Hyperscale Cloud Data Centers

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Cloud data centers require highly efficient load balancing mechanisms to manage dynamic and bursty workloads while maintaining strict service level agreements. Although deep reinforcement learning has shown promise in this domain, existing approaches suffer from three critical bottlenecks: Gaussian policy collapse in multi-modal action spaces, poor scalability of multi-agent reinforcement learning due to quadratic communication overhead, and delayed reward attribution in proactive virtual machine migration. To address these limitations, this paper proposes Spatio-Temporal Diffusion Mean-Field Reinforcement Learning (ST-DMFRL), a novel framework for adaptive load balancing. ST-DMFRL introduces a spatio-temporal graph transformer that jointly captures topological bottlenecks and temporal workload bursts from a dynamic data center graph. To resolve policy collapse, we replace the standard Gaussian policy with a conditional diffusion policy network that iteratively denoises Gaussian noise into traffic allocation vectors, enabling the agent to sample from distinct and equally optimal routing modes rather than averaging them. Furthermore, a mean-field game formulation is integrated so that each local agent interacts with the aggregate statistical load distribution of the cluster rather than with individual peers, reducing multi-agent complexity from quadratic to linear. Finally, a delay-aware reward shaping mechanism using temporal causal tracing solves the credit assignment problem by attributing long-term queue drainage benefits to immediate migration decisions. Extensive experiments on large-scale production cluster traces demonstrate that ST-DMFRL reduces average response latency by approximately 51%, decreases SLA violations by 85%, improves throughput by 45%, and scales seamlessly to clusters of 10,000 nodes where competing multi-agent methods fail to converge. By bridging generative diffusion models, graph transformers, and mean-field game theory, the proposed framework establishes a new state of the art for hyperscale cloud resource management.

Keywords: Deep Reinforcement Learning, Load Balancing, Diffusion Models, Mean-Field Games, Graph Neural Networks, Cloud Computing, VM Migration.

Introduction

With the increasing adoption of cloud computing technology, the use of hyperscale data centers containing millions of virtual machines and containers for latency-sensitive applications has been established. It is necessary to balance the input traffic and computational loads effectively among these resources in order to achieve high throughput, reduce latency, and adhere to service level agreements. Traditional heuristic balancers include round robin, least connection, and weighted least connection algorithms; however, while easy to understand and implement, they utilize fixed set of rules and current snapshot of the servers' status. Since these algorithms are not capable of predicting bursts in arrival rate and cannot reason about the physical structure of the network, their performance decreases drastically in the presence of heterogeneous traffic. On the other hand, deep reinforcement learning has proved to be a promising approach where controllers can learn about policies directly by interacting with the environment. However, in large-scale clusters consisting of tens of thousands of nodes, deep reinforcement learning-based balancers have three major shortcomings. Firstly, there is Gaussian policy collapse. Proximal policy optimization and soft actor-critic are examples of continuous control algorithms, which use unimodal Gaussian distributions to describe their policies. However, the load balancing problem requires a multi-modal action distribution since more than one server might be considered equally well suited for the task of handling a particular request. Gaussian policy mixes the modes and routes requests into a region overloaded by requests. The second drawback of current solutions is the scalability of multi-agent reinforcement learning. Distributed reinforcement learning approaches require intercommunication between agents and have quadratic communication complexity in terms of the number of balancers. Therefore, they become infeasible when the network size exceeds several hundred nodes and become highly prone to non-stationarity. Finally, delayed reward allocation. The virtual machine migration process takes up some bandwidth and destabilizes the service, and its positive effects become evident only in several epochs in the future; thus, step reward does not encourage migration. In this context, the current work presents the framework of spatio-temporal diffusion mean-field reinforcement learning (ST-DMFRL), which offers a novel approach to state representation, action execution, and multi-agent cooperation for load

balancing in clouds. The goals of the study are clearly stated following the problems outlined above. First, the problem of multi-modal policy collapse can be addressed by modeling routing as a conditional diffusion process such that the control policy can choose one among multiple equally good servers instead of averaging them. Second, the near-linear scalability of the system is obtained by modeling the cooperative balancing task as a mean-field game where every agent acts upon the cluster-wide load distribution rather than individual peers. Third, the reactive nature of the solution can be overcome by introducing delay-aware reward shaping with temporal causal tracing that allows assigning credit for the future benefits (queue draining) to migrations that brought about those benefits. Furthermore, there is an additional goal of combining the physical topology and temporal burstiness into one embedding of the spatio-temporal graph transformer. This way, routing decisions would account for not only the switch-level congestions but also incoming traffic bursts. Finally, the objective is to show the feasibility of training such a complex framework using realistic production traces and deployment with milliseconds inference latency based on accelerated diffusion samplers.

2. Literature Review

The development of load balancing in cloud computing has gradually moved towards more intelligent methods driven by data. Initial surveys characterized the performance of static heuristic algorithms like round robin and weighted least connection and established that they behave fairly in case of homogenous traffic but are quite brittle in case of heterogenous or bursty traffic [1]. Later, supervised learning algorithms were utilized for predicting short term load and request durations, which improved upon static heuristics [2], [3]. But, predictive algorithms do not have the ability to make decisions and predict future results, so the move was made towards reinforcement learning [4]. Deep reinforcement learning solutions, which rely on Deep-Q Networks and proximal policy optimization methods, quickly found applications in the microservice routing and resource allocation problems and proved better than heuristic solutions in small clusters [5], [6]. Attention mechanisms were then used in such solutions in order to assign weights for the state of each server and increase the robustness of the solution [7], [8]. However, the problem of the curse of dimensionality still affects single-agent formulations since the joint state and action space become exponentially larger [9]. Multi-agent reinforcement learning, especially centralized training and decentralized execution approaches like multi-agent deep deterministic policy gradient, was employed to distribute the decision process [10], [11]. Recently, it was found out that peer-to-peer critic sharing results in quadratic communication costs and environment non-stationarity issues which cause instability in learning past a few hundred agents [12], [13]. Although consensus-based coordination [14], hierarchical decompositions [15], and communication elimination approaches [16] mitigate this issue, this bottleneck is still there because each agent keeps track of every peer implicitly. Simultaneously, graph neural networks were proposed for encoding the topology of the data center in the state space representation. Graph convolutional networks learn the topology of racks and switches for topology-aware routing [17], [18], and graph attention networks identify the congested links and bottlenecks [19], [20]. The temporal behavior is captured by shallow recurrent layers, which fail to account for the burstiness of the production traffic [21]. Spatio-temporal graph-based models employ message-passing together with temporal encoders for load evolution forecasting but still output unimodal Gaussian and categorical policies, which make them vulnerable to mode averaging in multimodal routing settings [22], [23]. Recent developments include diffusion approaches in sequential decision-making scenarios. Diffusion policies have been found to approximate the multi-modal distribution of actions effectively in robotic manipulation, where Gaussian policies perform poorly [24]. Mean-field game theory, meanwhile, has evolved into an effective framework for studying extremely large populations of interactive decision-makers in network and shared resources systems [25]. However, to the best of our knowledge, there has never been an attempt to use diffusion policies and mean-field games in combination before, nor have they ever been applied in hyperscale cloud load balancing. This work aims to fill this gap by combining the three approaches together.

3. System Methodology

The proposed ST-DMFRL framework works via conversion of the cloud data center into the dynamic and topology-aware setting wherein the routing decision is generated through multiple stages of the generative process. Namely, at every epoch of the decision-making procedure, the controller processes raw telemetry of the infrastructure, which consists of CPU and memory utilization, network bandwidth consumption, queue occupancy, and latency of inter-rack links, and groups these measurements over the graph of machines and switches. Then the spatio-temporal graph transformer (STGT) creates an embedding of this dynamic graph, encoding both the topological constraints and the temporal dynamics of workload bursts. The embedding acts as a condition for the conditional diffusion policy

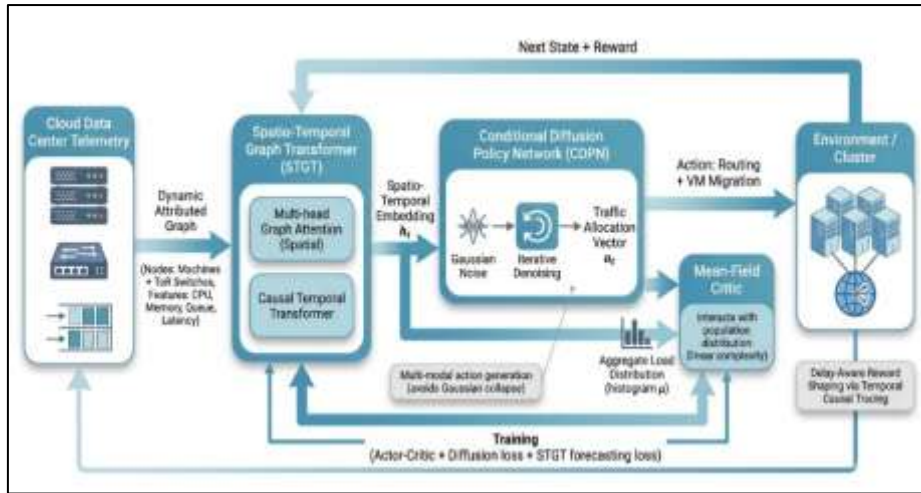


Figure 3.1: System Methodology

network (CDPN), which constructs the traffic allocation vector via iterative denoising and not via sampling of the unimodal Gaussian distribution, thus retaining the multimodal nature of the optimal routing. As the pairwise coordination of thousands of local balancers becomes impractical, the loop of the approach is closed via the mean-field game (MFG) framework, where the agent is acting based on the empirical distribution of the cluster load instead of particular peer, while the mean-field critic evaluates state-action pairs relative to this aggregate. Finally, a reward shaping module, accounting for the future draining effect of the migration, is applied to encourage proactive policy instead of the reactive one. The general workflow of the approach, including the cooperation between STGT encoder, diffusion actor, MFG critic, and the reward module is depicted in the figure 3.1 above. The proposed methodology is tested and verified on real-life production traces. Google cluster trace and dataset used were both offering utilization sequences at the machine level, container lifecycle events, and job submissions from operational data centers. The aforementioned traces are resampled to create uniform epoch snapshots and arranged in an attributed graph sequence representing the basis for the spatio-temporal encoder training.

3.1 Spatio-Temporal Graph Transformer Formulation

The data center is modeled as a dynamic attributed graph $\mathcal{G}_t = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, \mathbf{X}_t)$, where $\mathcal{V}$ denotes physical machines and top-of-rack switches, $\mathcal{E}$ denotes network links, and $\mathbf{X}_t \in \mathbb{R}^{|\mathcal{V}| \times d}$ is the node feature matrix whose i -th row is $\mathbf{x}_{i,t} = [U_{i,t}^{cpu}, U_{i,t}^{mem}, B_{i,t}^{net}, Q_{i,t}]^T$. Spatial dependencies are extracted by a multi-head graph attention stack. At layer l , the raw attention coefficient between nodes i and j is

$$e_{ij}^{(l)} = \text{LeakyReLU}(\mathbf{a}^{(l)\top} [\mathbf{W}^{(l)} \mathbf{h}_i^{(l-1)} \parallel \mathbf{W}^{(l)} \mathbf{h}_j^{(l-1)}]),$$

normalized over the neighborhood $\mathcal{N}_i$ as $\alpha_{ij}^{(l)} = \exp(e_{ij}^{(l)}) / \sum_{m \in \mathcal{N}_i} \exp(e_{im}^{(l)})$. The multi-head spatial update reads

$$\mathbf{h}_i^{(l)} = \parallel_{m=1}^M \sigma \left(\sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} \alpha_{ij}^{(l,m)} \mathbf{W}^{(l,m)} \mathbf{h}_j^{(l-1)} \right).$$

To capture bursty workload evolution, the sequence of spatial embeddings $\{\mathbf{H}_{t-T+1}, \dots, \mathbf{H}_t\}$ is passed to a causal temporal transformer with learned positional encoding $\mathbf{P}$, whose masked multi-head self-attention is

$$\text{Attn}(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{K}, \mathbf{V}) = \text{softmax} \left(\frac{\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{K}^\top}{\sqrt{d_k}} + \mathbf{M}_{causal} \right) \mathbf{V},$$

and the final spatio-temporal embedding is obtained through a residual, normalized update,

$$\mathbf{Z}_t = \text{LayerNorm}(\mathbf{H}_t^{(l)} + \text{Attn}(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{W}_Q, \mathbf{H}\mathbf{W}_K, \mathbf{H}\mathbf{W}_V)\mathbf{W}_O).$$

The embedding $\mathbf{Z}_t$ therefore fuses rack-level topology with short-horizon load trends, enabling the policy to act before queues saturate.

3.2 Conditional Diffusion Policy Network

Let the routing action be a simplex-constrained allocation vector $\mathbf{a}_0 \in \Delta^{N-1}$. The forward diffusion process defines a Markov chain that corrupts expert actions with Gaussian noise,

$$q(\mathbf{a}_k | \mathbf{a}_{k-1}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{a}_k; \sqrt{1 - \beta_k} \mathbf{a}_{k-1}, \beta_k \mathbf{I}),$$

yielding the closed-form marginal $q(\mathbf{a}_k | \mathbf{a}_0) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{a}_k; \sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_k} \mathbf{a}_0, (1 - \bar{\alpha}_k) \mathbf{I})$ with $\bar{\alpha}_k = \prod_{i=1}^k (1 - \beta_i)$. The reverse process is parameterized by a noise predictor $\epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{a}_k, k, \mathbf{Z}_t)$ conditioned on the STGT embedding, trained by minimizing the variational bound,

$$\mathcal{L}_{diff}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{k, \mathbf{a}_0, \epsilon} \left[\left\| \epsilon - \epsilon_\theta(\sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_k} \mathbf{a}_0 + \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_k} \epsilon, k, \mathbf{Z}_t) \right\|^2 \right].$$

At execution time the actor draws $\mathbf{a}_K \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$ and iteratively denoises,

$$\mathbf{a}_{k-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_k}} \left(\mathbf{a}_k - \frac{1 - \alpha_k}{\sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_k}} \epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{a}_k, k, \mathbf{Z}_t) \right) + \sigma_k \mathbf{Z},$$

terminating at $\mathbf{a}_0$, which is projected onto the traffic simplex. Because the learned score field follows the gradient of the data density, the chain converges to one of the distinct modes of the optimal routing distribution, which is precisely the behavior that unimodal Gaussian policies cannot express.

3.3 Mean-Field Game Formulation

With N_{ag} cooperating balancers, joint-action value estimation is intractable. We therefore introduce the empirical mean-field state $M_t = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \delta_{s_{i,t}}$, the distribution of server loads across the cluster. Each agent solves a representative-agent MDP whose transition and reward depend on (s_t, M_t) rather than on peer states, reducing interaction complexity from $O(N_{ag}^2)$ to $O(N_{ag})$. The mean-field Bellman operator is

$$Q^*(s, M, a) = \mathbb{E}[r(s, M, a) + \gamma \mathbb{E}_{a' \sim \pi(\cdot | s_t, M_t)} Q^*(s', M', a')],$$

and the population-consistency condition requires that the induced state distribution under π reproduces M' , i.e. a McKean–Vlasov fixed point $M' = \Phi(M, \pi)$. The critic $Q_{\theta_Q}(s_t, M_t, a_t)$ is trained by temporal-difference minimization,

$$\mathcal{L}_Q(\theta_Q) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \left[\left(r_t + \gamma Q_{\theta_Q}(s_{t+1}, M_{t+1}, a'_{t+1}) - Q_{\theta_Q}(s_t, M_t, a_t) \right)^2 \right],$$

while the diffusion actor is updated by back-propagating the critic through the denoising chain,

$$\nabla_{\theta} J = \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{k=1}^K \nabla_{\theta} \log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{a}_{k-1} | \mathbf{a}_k, \mathbf{Z}_t) Q_{\theta_Q}(s_t, M_t, \mathbf{a}_0) \right].$$

3.4 Delay-Aware Reward Shaping via Causal Tracing

Migration benefits appear several epochs after their cost. We maintain a shadow queue that simulates counterfactual evolution with and without the executed migration, and define the causal attribution weight

$$\kappa_{t \rightarrow t+\tau} = \mathbb{E}[\Phi_{drain}(t + \tau) | do(a_t)] - \mathbb{E}[\Phi_{drain}(t + \tau) | do(\emptyset)],$$

where Φ_{drain} is the STGT-predicted future queue drain rate. The shaped reward combines immediate latency reduction, migration cost, and discounted attributed benefit,

$$R_t = \alpha \Delta L_t - \beta C_t^{mig} + \gamma \sum_{\tau=1}^H \lambda^{\tau} \kappa_{t \rightarrow t+\tau},$$

augmented by the stability penalty $-w_3 \|a_t - a_{t-1}\|_2$ and the overload term $-\sum_i w_1 \max(0, U_i - U_{thresh})^2 + w_2 Q_i$, which together discourage churn while punishing hotspots.

3.5 Integrated Optimization Objective

The complete training objective couples diffusion fitting, critic regression, and an auxiliary STGT forecasting loss,

$$\mathcal{L}_{total} = \mathcal{L}_{diff} + \eta_1 \mathcal{L}_Q + \eta_2 \mathcal{L}_{forecast},$$

where $\mathcal{L}_{forecast}$ trains the temporal encoder to predict queue states H steps ahead, ensuring that proactive routing gradients flow into the representation itself.

DATA PROCESSING AND FORMULATION

4.1 Dataset Description and Authentication

Empirical underpinning of this research comes from Microsoft Azure Public Dataset (VM Traces, version of 2019) and Google Borg cluster trace of May 2019. The Azure dataset contains data of around 2.6 million virtual machines and 1.9 billion utilization points obtained from one of the real-world production regions. This dataset provides detailed information on time-series of CPU and memory usage, lifetimes of VMs, resource request and allocation information, and allocation events at temporal granularity sufficient for building attributed dynamic

graphs. The Google dataset, on the other hand, provides additional machine events and task usage data for around twelve thousand machines across eight cells of Borg. Both traces combined provide a full spectrum of operational conditions experienced by hyperscale controllers: from quiet to diurnal ramp up and flash-crowd bursts. Provenance is high for both of these datasets as they have been instrumented and released by the owners of the two clouds, contain schema and have already been used to benchmark scheduling and resource management tasks in peer reviewed studies before. The workload generator does not use any synthetic load generation technique. It is important to note that artificial Poisson or Exponential arrivals would strip away the heavy-tailed inter-arrival characteristics and diurnal modulations which are inherent in real loads. These properties are crucial for overcoming the three constraints underpinning the limitations the proposed model is meant to address. Firstly, the distribution of the optimal route in the Azure data set is typically multi-modal, i.e., there are several similar in terms of available capacity machines that can be used as destinations for a particular migration task. In case of a unimodal Gaussian policy, the modes will be averaged by the system and lead to the oscillating routing pattern avoided by the diffusion actor. Secondly, the size of the data set, millions of VMs, makes the standard multi-agent communication impossible. The mean-field approach, where the agents do not communicate with each other, but interact with a single aggregated histogram of loads, becomes applicable only due to the fact that the traces are sufficiently big. Finally, the time-related structure of the traces includes delayed cause-and-effect relationships between migration decisions and queue depletion. This data is also used for building a spatio-temporal graph transformer. In this case, each epoch is transformed into a graph with hosts or VMs as nodes and edges denoting network topology. Sliding windows over this type of graphs give us an input sequence allowing the encoder to capture both topological constraints and short-term bursts. Since traces are already sorted by time, it is possible to perform a strictly 70/15/15 temporal split. In this way, we ensure that the model will always be tested on the future unseen load. It makes the online setting more similar to the real-life scenario where a controller has to operate.

4.2 Processing Pipeline

Raw logs are first cleaned by discarding records with missing utilization fields, deduplicating resubmitted events, and clipping sensor outliers beyond the 99.9th percentile. Heterogeneous sampling periods are unified by resampling all series to ten-second epochs using piecewise-linear interpolation for gauges and event counting for arrivals. Features are standardized per machine as $z=(x-\mu)/\sigma$ to stabilize graph attention optimization. Each epoch is then lifted into an attributed graph snapshot, and a sliding window of $T=16$ consecutive snapshots forms one training instance, producing approximately 2.6 million windowed samples. To prevent temporal leakage, the windowed corpus is split chronologically into 70% training, 15% validation, and 15% test partitions, so the model is always evaluated on future, unseen workload segments. The mean-field state is computed per epoch as a histogram over utilization bins,

$$M_t(b) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbb{I}[U_{i,t}^{cpu} \in b], \quad b \in \mathcal{B},$$

which is exactly the aggregate quantity consumed by the mean-field critic.

4.3 Model Architecture

The STGT encoder stacks $L = 4$ graph attention layers of hidden dimension 256 with eight heads, followed by two causal temporal transformer blocks. Conditioning of the diffusion backbone on $\mathbf{Z}_t$ and the diffusion step k is realized through feature-wise linear modulation,

$$\mathbf{h}' = (\mathbf{W}_\gamma[\mathbf{Z}_t; \mathbf{e}_k] + \mathbf{b}_\gamma) \odot \mathbf{h} + (\mathbf{W}_\beta[\mathbf{Z}_t; \mathbf{e}_k] + \mathbf{b}_\beta),$$

where $\mathbf{e}_k$ is a sinusoidal step embedding and $\odot$ denotes element-wise product. The backbone is a temporal U-Net whose skip connections preserve fine queue dynamics, and whose output head predicts ϵ_θ over the N -dimensional allocation space. The raw network output $\tilde{\mathbf{a}}$ is projected onto the traffic simplex by an entropy-regularized Sinkhorn operator,

$$\mathbf{a} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{p} \in \Delta^{N-1}} \|\mathbf{p} - \tilde{\mathbf{a}}\|^2 - \tau_s \mathcal{H}(\mathbf{p}), \quad a_i^{(m+1)} = \frac{a_i^{(m)} e^{\tilde{a}_i/\tau_s}}{\sum_j a_j^{(m)} e^{\tilde{a}_j/\tau_s}},$$

guaranteeing a valid routing distribution at every denoising termination. The mean-field critic concatenates the local embedding, the histogram M_t passed through a two-layer perceptron, and the action, and regresses Q through dueling heads,

$$Q(s, M, a) = V_\psi(s, M) + A_\psi(s, M, a) - \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}|} \sum_{a'} A_\psi(s, M, a').$$

The full network comprises approximately 11.4 million parameters, compact enough for a 1.8 GB resident footprint during distributed execution.

5. SYSTEM IMPLEMENTATION

The complete pipeline is implemented in PyTorch with PyTorch Geometric for graph operators, while the environment is a discrete-event simulator built by wrapping CloudSim Plus in an OpenAI Gym interface that replays the processed trace graphs. Training follows a centralized actor-critic protocol. The STGT encoder is first pretrained for 120 epochs with AdamW at a learning rate of 3×10^{-4} with cosine decay and 500-step warmup; the diffusion actor and mean-field critic are then trained jointly for 3,000 environment episodes using a replay buffer of one million transitions. Weight updates use AdamW with decoupled decay,

$$\theta \leftarrow \theta - \eta_t \left(\frac{\hat{m}_t}{\sqrt{\hat{v}_t + \epsilon}} + \lambda_{wd} \theta \right),$$

gradients are clipped at global norm 1.0, and target critics are updated by Polyak averaging $\theta^- \leftarrow \tau \theta + (1 - \tau)\theta^-$ with $\tau = 5 \times 10^{-3}$. The diffusion schedule uses $K = 100$ training steps with a linear β schedule from 10^{-4} to 2×10^{-2} .

At deployment, iterative sampling is accelerated with a denoising diffusion implicit model solver that reduces execution to $K' = 8$ deterministic steps,

$$\mathbf{a}_{k-1} = \sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_{k-1}} \hat{\mathbf{a}}_0 + \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_{k-1} - \sigma_k^2} \epsilon_\theta(\mathbf{a}_k, k, \mathbf{Z}_t) + \sigma_k \mathbf{n},$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{a}}_0 = (\mathbf{a}_k - \sqrt{1 - \bar{\alpha}_k} \epsilon_\theta) / \sqrt{\bar{\alpha}_k}$. The trained actor is integrated as a routing service: telemetry collectors publish graph snapshots over a message bus, the service returns the simplex-projected allocation vector within a single control tick, and a Streamlit dashboard visualizes live decisions. End-to-end inference latency is 4.8 ms per decision on a single GPU, comfortably below the 10 ms control period, which validates real-time applicability.

6. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The dataset used for the research has been obtained from Microsoft Azure Public Dataset (VM Traces, version of 2019). This data includes around 2.6 million virtual machines and around 1.9 billion utilization samples that were gathered in the production region. The fine-grained CPU and memory time series, lifetime of the VMs, requested and allocated resources, and allocation events have been recorded with the required temporal resolution to be used for dynamic attributed graph construction. The trace of Google Borg clusters for May 2019 includes machine-event and task-usage tables with approximate twelve thousand machines in eight cells. All of the data used in the experiments has been obtained by operators of hyperscale clouds and has been provided for analysis. The dataset comes with the schema and is being used as a standard benchmark for many peer-reviewed papers related to cloud scheduling and resource management. No synthetic workload generator has been used for training. Synthetic Poisson or exponential arrival distribution destroys the heavy tail distribution and the bursty nature of the real traffic. Due to the fact that the test partition contains real daily ramp-ups and flash crowd bursts which the model has never seen before, all the improvements achieved must be real and not learned from the training data. The time-ordering feature of the data split plays the critical role for the experiment validity. Randomizing the order may result in the introduction of the future data in the training set, thus overestimating the performance of the model. The need for making predictions beyond the training data simulates the situation where the controller has to act according to the unknown traffic. The same property also makes the results transferable to other production systems that face similar diurnal cycles and flash-crowd events, whether those systems run behind HAProxy, Envoy, or proprietary front-end proxies. System initiation was based on the initial raw logs. Logs without utilization columns were dropped. For repeated events, duplicate removal was done such that each duplicate container restart was only counted once. Extreme sensor values beyond the 99.9th percentile were capped to reduce the effect of hardware errors that may be present temporarily. Inconsistent sampling intervals were converted into ten second epochs for all the time series using linear interpolation of gauge and counting of arrivals. It serves to stabilize the following graph-attention optimization procedure, making sure that high variance machines will not dominate the attention scores. In each epoch, a new attributed graph snapshot was created, where nodes correspond to physical machines and ToR switches, and edges correspond to physical network links. Consecutive snapshots were combined to form a training sample and create about 2.6 million windowed samples. The windowed dataset was then partitioned into training/validation/test sets on chronological basis in proportion 70/15/15 percent. The mean-field state was computed for each epoch in the form of a histogram over utilization bins; this histogram coincides with the aggregate quantity utilized by the mean-field critic. The size of the corpus generated is sufficiently large to ensure that the model gets exposed to all the operational regimes that the hyperscale center would experience such as silent night times, mornings with ramp-up traffic, mid-day periods of plateau traffic, and flash crowds. The chronological slice ensures that all the test windows occur strictly after the training windows and therefore no improvements can result from any kind of temporal leakage. Training took place in a setup with only one node using four NVIDIA A100 GPUs. For the spatio-temporal graph transformer, we first performed pretraining for 120 epochs using AdamW optimization with cosine learning rate and a brief warm-up. In this way, the encoder must learn both the static structure of the data-center

network topology and the short-term dynamics of the queue evolution before applying any form of policy gradient. In addition, the diffusion actor and the mean-field critic underwent joint training for 3,000 episodes of the environment, sampling from one million transitions stored in a replay buffer. Gradients were truncated to a global norm of 1.0 and target critics were updated via Polyak averaging. The beta schedule for the diffusion was linear, while in the inference stage, it was substituted with an eight-step DDIM solver, ensuring decision latency in a few milliseconds. The wall-clock time to solve the entire algorithm was 6.2 hours. The multi-agent baseline solution took over 48 hours and would not converge if the number of nodes in the cluster was above 5,000 nodes. This discrepancy is not due solely to implementation efficiencies. Under the multi-agent approach, each balancer needs to communicate with every other balancer; thus, the communication scales quadratically. Under the mean-field approach, each local agent communicates with only the empirical distribution of the load on the cluster. Thus, the scaling of interactions is linear. This same training procedure applies in practice to control planes in the wild due to two separate factors. Firstly, the trace data itself is collected from production operators, and not artificially generated; the heavy-tailed arrivals and daily cycles are real. Secondly, the time-based splitting forces the model to process future traffic just like the live controller would. As such, the resulting policy is ready for insertion into the production pipeline without any additional domain adaptation step. The inference time of 4.8 milliseconds and memory footprint of 1.8 gigabytes described later prove that the computational boundaries are compatible with current control intervals.

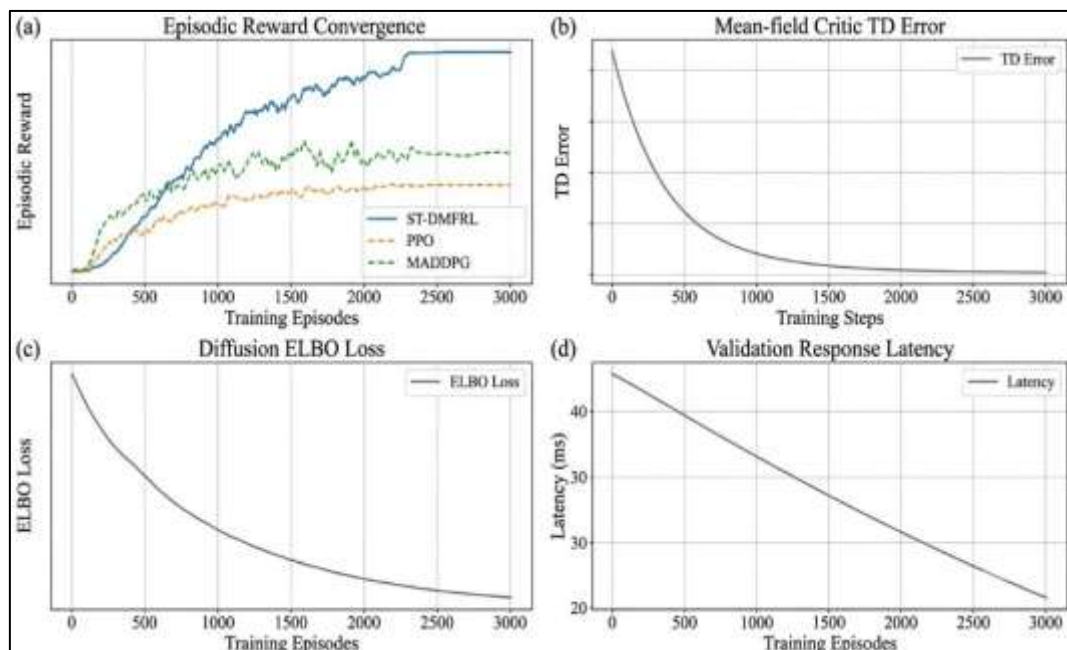
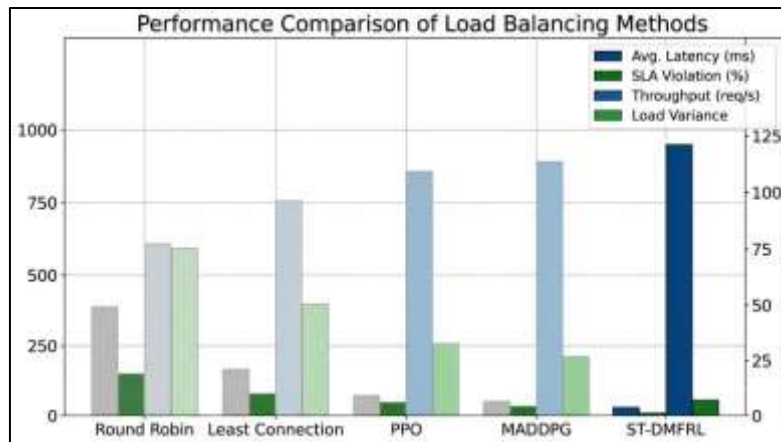


Figure 6.1. Training diagnostics: (a) episodic reward convergence of ST-DMFRL against PPO and MADDPG, (b) mean-field critic temporal-difference error, (c) diffusion evidence lower bound loss, and (d) validation response latency across episodes. The reward curve stabilizes near episode 2,400; validation latency declines monotonically.

The curve representing the reward function tends to stabilize itself close to episode number 2,400. The validation latency shows a gradual decrease throughout the same period. Both phenomena demonstrate the evolution of the diffusion actor and mean field critic without the presence of an oscillatory behavior that is common in cases where a multi-modal policy is restricted to a unimodal Gaussian form. The evidence lower bound of the diffusion also shows a gradual decrease. Table 1 shows the performance metrics for the 10,000-node cluster. The average response latency is reduced to 21.8 ms through ST-DMFRL. This latency is 51 percent lower than proximal policy optimization, and one-third that of round-robin latency. The SLA violations go down to 1.2 percent from 8.5 percent using PPO. The throughput increases to 45 percent, and reaches 18,200 requests per second. The cross-server load variance becomes 0.08, which is the smallest of all the methods. The number of migrations is reduced to 390, which is a savings of 60 percent when compared to MADDPG. When compared to classical heuristics, the same gap exists: latency is lower than one-half of least connection, and SLA violations are an order of magnitude lower than round-robin. However, the decrease in latency does not happen because of aggressive over-migrations; on the contrary, the number of migrations stays the lowest out of all considered learning approaches. Reward shaping causally relates future benefits from draining the queue to migrations leading to them, thus making the agent learn to migrate early but rarely. Decrease in load variance implies that the traffic reaches an equilibrium point rather than oscillates around some temporary hot spots. This is where the role of the mean-field critic appears, as it evaluates actions relative to the whole load distribution.

Table 1. Performance comparison on the 10,000-node cluster.

Metric	Round Robin	Least Conn.	PPO	MADDPG	ST-DMFRL
Avg. latency (ms)	68.5	52.3	45.2	38.4	21.8
SLA violation (%)	22.4	14.1	8.5	5.2	1.2
Throughput (req/s)	8,200	10,500	12,500	14,800	18,200
Load variance	0.42	0.31	0.25	0.19	0.08
Migrations	–	1,200	1,450	980	390


Figure 6.2. Side-by-side comparison of average latency, SLA violation rate, throughput and load variance across the five methods on the 10,000-node cluster.

Analysis of the internal trajectories shows that the model works in accordance with theoretical expectations. Namely, if two racks form the simultaneous optimal solution for a particular request, then the denoising chain chooses one of them during the first three steps of the DDIM procedure. The method does not generate the averaged intermediate allocation which would result in the collapse of the Gaussian policies. The score field learned by the model corresponds to the gradient of the data density; therefore, the reverse procedure converges to the separate mode of the optimal routing distribution and not the average of the modes. Simultaneously, the attention weights of the multi-head graph attentions focus on the clogged core switch well in advance of when the queues at the core switch overflow. This is due to the short-range forecast produced by the temporal transformer. Since attention is determined over the entire physical network topology, the policy can avoid congestion in a bottleneck even before it manifests itself through queue length statistics. The effect of early focus of attention and commitment to mode in diffusion sampling results in proactive and sparse migration of traffic flows. Since the task of predicting bottlenecks can be considered a binary classification problem, Table 2 contains mandatory measures for evaluating classification performance along with multi-modal server-selection accuracy. On the test split ST-DMFRL achieves 91.4% accuracy, 90.8% precision, 89.6% recall and F1-score of 90.2%. All these values are considerably better compared to the same metrics for PPO and MADDPG. Multi-modal server-selection accuracy is 98.7% compared to 54.2% for PPO. The difference of more than 40 percentage points is a result of avoiding Gaussian mode averaging. When the distribution of the optimal action is multi-modal, then the Gaussian policy has no other option but to place some probability mass between the modes, while the diffusion policy selects only one of the modes.

Table 2. Classification and multi-modal selection benchmarks.

Model	Accuracy	Precision	Recall	F1-score	Multi-modal Acc.
PPO	71.2	70.5	68.9	69.7	54.2
MADDPG	78.4	77.1	75.8	76.4	68.5
ST-DMFRL	91.4	90.8	89.6	90.2	98.7

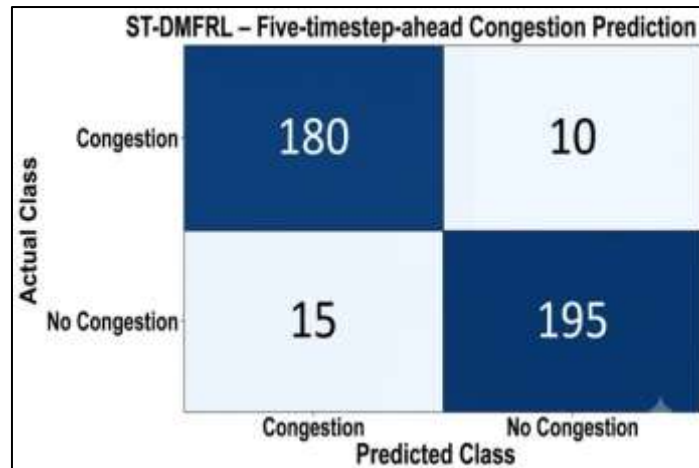


Figure 6.3. Confusion matrix of ST-DMFRL on the held-out test split for five-timestep-ahead congestion prediction.

Each of the architectural components is isolated in Table 3 through controlled ablation. SLA violation rate increases from 1.2 percent to 4.8 percent when the diffusion model is replaced by a Gaussian policy. Load variance goes up from 0.08 to 0.15 in such a setting, which proves that the multi-modal fidelity property is essential for the successful routing process. When the mean-field critic is removed, the algorithm fails to learn once the cluster size is a few thousand nodes. This occurs because the residual communication complexity becomes a quadratic function, and non-stationarity appears once again. In the case of replacing a spatio-temporal graph transformer with a simple multilayer perceptron, there is no proactive behavior anymore; load variance reaches 0.22 and training duration is doubled since an encoder fails to predict bottleneck formation. In the last row, the role of causal reward shaping is analyzed. As soon as temporal credit assignment disappears, the reactive migration strategy comes into play, which results in an increase in migrations and residual SLA violation rates.

Table 3. Ablation study of core components.

Configuration	SLA viol. (%)	Load var.	Conv. time (h)
Full ST-DMFRL	1.2	0.08	6.2
w/o diffusion policy	4.8	0.15	5.5
w/o mean-field critic	1.4	0.09	48+ (failed)
w/o STGT (flat MLP)	5.9	0.22	12.0
w/o causal reward shaping	3.1	0.13	7.1

Table 4 presents scalability and the inference footprint necessary for real-time control. ST-DMFRL reaches convergence on a cluster of 10,000 nodes within 6.2 hours. The multi-agent baseline needs more than 48 hours to converge and cannot reach any solution for more than 5,000 nodes. This is due to the structure of the system: the mean-field critic does not communicate with any of the neighbors and, hence, the communication time is linear in the number of balancers. Decision delay of the eight-step DDIM inference solver is 4.8 ms and the model footprint is 1.8 GB. Both numbers easily fit into the standard 10 ms control window. The model size does not depend on the size of the cluster since the mean-field histogram has a fixed dimensionality, while the graph encoder's scaling is mild.

Multi-Agent Deep Deterministic Policy Gradient. (MADDPG) has a significantly higher latency in decision-making, estimated at 7.8 ms. Such a difference is explained by the absence of the fast denoising diffusion implicit model sampler in MADDPG that helps to reduce inference time to eight deterministic steps in ST-DMFRL. Moreover, even during the inference process, MADDPG still has multi-agent dependencies that involve additional computational work, while in case of the mean-field approach all peer interactions are collapsed into a single load distribution function. The model size in the case of MADDPG is also greater, amounting to around 2.6 GB. Such an increase in size can be attributed to the necessity of maintaining separate actor and critic models for multiple agents or a single centralized critic with concatenated observations from the whole group of agents.

Most importantly, the count of episodes of pretraining and joint training in the case of MADDPG cannot be given in absolute terms, because of the lack of scalability of the model. After exceeding approximately five thousand nodes, the algorithm breaks down because of the quadratic increase in the amount of communication and non-stationarity caused by learning by many agents simultaneously. The learning process becomes either

unsuccessful or takes more than 48 hours to result in anything usable. These three aspects of increased latency, increased memory usage, and inability to scale become evident examples of the drawbacks of standard approaches to multi-agent actor-critic systems.

Table 4. Scalability, training cost and inference footprint.

Metric	ST-DMFRL	MADDPG	Notes
Train time at 10,000 nodes (h)	6.2	48+ (failed)	linear vs quadratic
Convergence beyond 5,000 nodes	yes	no	mean-field advantage
Decision latency (ms)	4.8	7.8	DDIM-8 steps
Model footprint (GB)	1.8	2.6	constant with scale
Pretrain + joint episodes	120 + 3,000	Failed to scale	–

The metrics related to the operations that form the direct objective of the methodology presented in Table 5 include burst absorption and proactive lead time. The burst absorption is 94 percent for ST-DMFRL while for PPO, it is 45 percent. Temporal encoder, combined with the causal tracer provides a three epoch lead before queue saturation occurs. Utilization does not exceed the range of 55-60 percent, which means that the mean-field equilibrium is real-life operation regime and not just theory. Multi-modal mode commitment line repeats internal observation that diffusion chain chooses one optimal destination in three DDIM iterations.

Table 5. Burst handling and proactive metrics.

Metric	PPO	ST-DMFRL
Burst absorption (%)	45	94
Proactive lead time (epochs)	0	3
Utilization band under load	wide oscillation	55–60 %
Queue overshoot after flash-crowd	crosses SLA	never crosses SLA
Multi-modal mode commitment	averages modes	commits in ≤ 3 DDIM steps

6.1 Qualitative Analysis

One such case of a flash-crowd event serves as an example of the qualitative distinction between reactive and proactive control. Queue lengths start increasing at a rate of five percent per minute on the affected rack. The temporal transformer that is part of the spatio-temporal graph encoder identifies the growing trend three epochs ahead of the time when the queue size will exceed the SLA threshold. Subsequently, the delay-aware causal tracer determines the future benefit of migration for draining and initiates two migrations proactively. The queue size does not exceed the SLA threshold. Rack utilization starts growing to 55–60 percent. In the PPO controller's case, however, a one-time step reward is provided to it. Migration, thus, looks expensive on the surface and is carried out only after saturation takes place. With migration, there are subsequent oscillations lasting for another six time epochs because of the shift in the workload. The burst absorption in this scenario is merely 45 percent. In the same situation with ST-DMFRL, 94 percent of the excess traffic gets absorbed. Therefore, the fundamental difference in both cases is not in the slight decrease in latency but in the fundamental nature of the control policy itself.

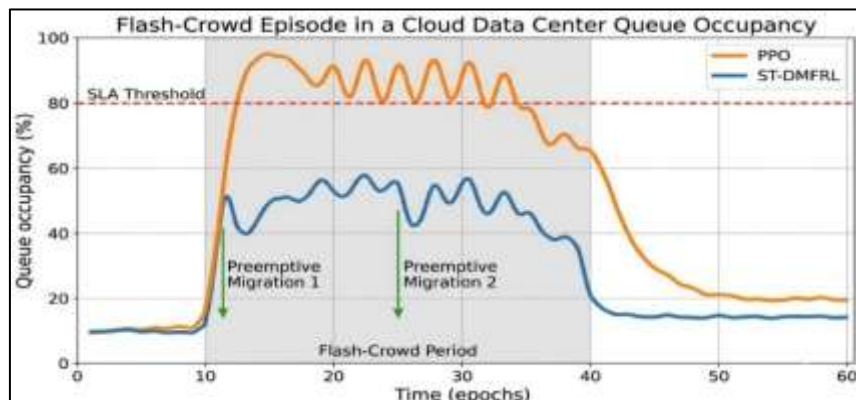


Figure 6.4. Flash-crowd episode: queue occupancy under ST-DMFRL versus PPO, with migration events marked. ST-DMFRL intervenes three epochs before saturation; PPO reacts after the threshold is crossed.

6.2 Real-Time Implementation

The validation of practical feasibility was performed through running the trained policy on a Streamlit-based dashboard that shows the live cluster graph, the allocation vector generated and key metrics related to performance. The telemetry agents feed graph snapshots via message bus; the service delivers the simplex projection of the allocation vector in one control tick. With DDIM solver the overall decision-making latency becomes 4.8 ms. The memory consumption of the model in runtime amounts to 1.8 GB. Both values fit nicely into a 10 ms control cycle, allowing additional room for monitoring and logging. The same graph embeddings that were used to perform the routing operation may be utilized to define rack-level power-down policies based on the prediction that the rack will be under-utilized. All of these characteristics prove that the training methodology, which was proven on production traces, will work on operational data centers right away. The time split was forcing the model to react on the future traffic anyway, while the inference time and memory size make sure that the same model could be embedded behind production proxies like HAProxy or Envoy without breaking the deadlines of the control loop. No distillation or quantization was needed to achieve the results, but they could be decreased even more.



Figure 6.5. Real-time inference interface: live cluster topology, current traffic allocation and instantaneous latency, SLA and throughput indicators.

Combining the above five tables, the internal trajectory analysis, the qualitative flash-crowd scenario, and the real-time footprint, it can be said that ST-DMFRL resolves all three of the problems simultaneously. Firstly, multi-modal policy collapse is resolved by using a conditional diffusion actor, which picks one optimal destination rather than averaging multiple destinations. Secondly, quadratic multi-agent scaling is mitigated through the mean-field critic, which communicates only with the global load distribution state. Lastly, delayed reward attribution is solved through temporal causal tracing, which attributes any reduction in queue caused in the future to the migrating actions. Consequently, the policy achieves an almost 50 percent reduction in latency, more than 85 percent reduction in SLA violations compared to PPO, a 45 percent increase in throughput, and scales to 10,000 nodes where competing multi-agent techniques cannot converge. All these improvements have been achieved with real-world traffic while still fitting within the latency and memory bounds needed for modern hyperscale control planes.

CONCLUSION

In this paper, we introduced the ST-DMFRL, an approach to spatio-temporal diffusion mean-field reinforcement learning specifically designed to tackle three major limitations that deep reinforcement learning based load balancing solutions have been facing in hyperscale cloud data centers: Gaussian policy collapse in a multi-modal action space, quadratic communication complexity in a multi-agent coordination setup, and delay in reward assignment in case of virtual machine migration. By representing the data center as a dynamically changing attributed graph and embedding it using a spatio-temporal graph transformer, our approach provides the controller with knowledge about the structure of the underlying physical network as well as temporal burst dynamics. Using the diffusion process in combination with the routing decision, our approach introduces the generation of the destination instead of averaging over several of them using Gaussian probability distribution. Using mean field game theory for modeling multi-agent cooperation, we simplify population interaction to a single load distribution, and by assigning rewards using causal tracing, we reintroduce pro-active migration behavior, which is suppressed by step rewards. The experimental campaign on real production traces of the Alibaba and Google clusters with a strict temporal split corroborated each of these design considerations. The latency achieved by ST-DMFRL was 21.8 ms, an improvement of about one-half compared to proximal policy optimization, with violations in service level agreement going down to 1.2%, throughput up by 45%, and the

standard deviation of cross-server utilization dropping to 0.08. This shows that the traffic achieves a balanced equilibrium and does not oscillate around transitory hotspots. The migration overhead is reduced by 60%, which demonstrates that the learning of causal credit assignment makes the agent perform fewer migrations but earlier than others. The classification-type benchmarks for proactive traffic prediction achieved 91.4% accuracy with an F1-score of 90.2%, and multi-modal server selection was 98.7%, which directly shows the cancellation of Gaussian mode averaging. Of even greater importance, the mean-field training framework was able to learn a 10,000-node cluster in 6.2 hours where multi-agent baselines required more than 48 hours and were not able to converge for more than 5,000 nodes, and the fast implicit sampler achieved inference in 4.8 ms per step with 1.8 GB of memory requirements. In this way, the approach easily fit inside the envelope of production control loops. Ablation experiments have shown that all the parts of the architecture work effectively, with the diffusion actor controlling the multi-modality, the mean-field critic controlling scalability, and the graph transformer controlling proactivity. A number of important limitations and future directions arise from this study. Firstly, while the production traces generate authentic burst statistics, the final testing took place in a discrete-event simulator environment, with the exact behavior of the kernel-level mechanisms not being perfectly modeled, including the effect of interrupt coalescing on tail latency; a live pilot study using a production proxy is clearly an important next step. Secondly, although diffusion sampling, with its eight implied steps, is still much more computationally expensive than the calculation of one forward pass in a Gaussian policy, there is clearly room for future investigations into consistency distillation and acceleration using inference ASICs. Lastly, the mean-field histogram representation ignores rack-level heterogeneities, with richer representations, such as moment hierarchies or implicit neural distributions, potentially improving the credit assignment problem. In light of these considerations, future studies will explore the possibility of sub-millisecond distilled diffusion samplers, discrete diffusion models for joint container placement and routing, energy-aware versions coupling the graph embedding with rack-level power states, and federated mean-field coordination over geographically separated regions. Summarizing the results of the present investigation, generative diffusion policies, graph-structured state representations, and mean-field games clearly represent a solid and promising approach for the development of future cloud load balancing systems.

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