A Scalable Mobility-Centric Architecture for Named Data Networking

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Abstract—Information-centric networking (ICN) proposes to redesign the Internet by replacing its host-centric design with an information-centric one, by establishing communication at the naming level, with the receiver side acting as the driving force behind content delivery. Such design promises great advantages for the delivery of content to and from mobile hosts. This, however, is at the expense of increased networking overhead, specifically in the case of Named-data Networking (NDN) due to use of flooding for path recovery. In this paper, we propose a mobility centric solution to address the overhead and scalability problems in NDN by introducing a novel forwarding architecture that leverages decentralized server-assisted routing over flooding based strategies. We present an in-depth study of the proposed architecture and provide demonstrative results on its throughput and overhead performance at different levels of mobility proving its scalability and effectiveness, when compared to the current NDN based forwarding strategies.

Index Terms—Information-centric networks, named-data networking, mobile content delivery

I. INTRODUCTION

Information-centric Networking (ICN) is a new networking paradigm that addresses the shortcomings of the current Internet architecture by shifting the focus from the host-centric communication model to a content-centric one [1]. ICN uses a unique—flat or hierarchical—naming convention to name content, which represents the main driving force for information dissemination.

Multiple architectures have so far been proposed to guide the development of ICN (see [2], [3] for a detailed overview). Architectures for information-centric networks are uniquely defined by how they handle naming and name resolution. Our research focuses on one of those proposals, namely the Named-data Networking (NDN) proposal, and addresses one of its major concerns, namely the mobility.

NDN assumes hierarchically structured names (consisting of any number and size of components) to support scalable routing and utilizes request/response type message (referred to as Interest and Data) processing at every hop. In NDN, each packet carries a name that can be used to identify a content, service, host, or user. Content authenticity is provided by using digital signatures that are delivered with the content. Due to its flexibility to use broadcast medium efficiently and to support loop-free forwarding on multiple interfaces, NDN is a good match to deliver (or acquire) content to (or from) mobile hosts.

However, despite the inherent advantages NDN possesses to support ad hoc networking by resolving content requests to location using online forwarding strategies, overhead associated with re-routing Interests to mobile hosts can be overwhelming, thereby, limiting NDN’s efficiency for especially delivering mobile-originated content. Thus, mobility can be considered as a major obstacle in creating a scalable network architecture based on NDN.

Mobility concerns for information-centric networks have generally been addressed by introducing location-aware routing to content delivery. However, these solutions typically assume the presence of Global Resolution Servers to handle the host mobility or work on the flat-name space (e.g., [4], [5]), hence, they are not directly applicable to NDN, which fundamentally does not distinguish between an entity identifier and its location. In [6] the authors briefly suggest the use of forwarding hints as a guideline to enable location-driven forwarding in named-data networks, which represents our starting point to develop a comprehensive mobility solution to supplement the current NDN architecture.

We can state our contributions in this paper as follows. We propose a scalable and stable mobility solution for the NDN architecture based on location-centric forwarding, by separating content names and network addresses to enable iterative-binding. Proposed solution uses a decentralized resolution architecture, i.e., distributed name resolution servers, along with in-band mobility awareness of named entity to provide dynamic name-location mappings, which in turn enables quick-recovery of the named-data path during mobile-driven content delivery. The proposed solution achieves resource efficient forwarding by avoiding network flooding during content delivery after handovers. The proposed solution is backward compatible as it allows the proposed extensions to be applied to mobile entities, while non-mobile entity traffic can be treated in the standard manner; this allows mobility to be treated as a service. The extensions also support policy-based routing by controlling intra- and inter-domain routing within the network, in the sense that the proposed data structures can be invoked only if required compared to today’s situation where all mobile entities are treated alike.

To evaluate our solution, we developed extensions to the ndnSIM simulator [7] and analyzed the performance of the proposed solution by comparing it to the default mobility-driven NDN forwarding policies (i.e., flooding-based policies). We tested the proposed solution under various network topologies and mobility scenarios and observed significant improvements in the scalability performance while achieving comparable performance, in throughput, to the current NDN forwarding policies.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section II we briefly explain the NDN architecture and mobility solution for the NDN. We present the proposed forwarding architecture in Section III. We analyze the performance of our solution in Section IV. We discuss the practical considerations addressing...
II. MOBILITY IN NAMED-DATA NETWORKS

In NDN, to support name-based routing, each node is equipped with three components: (i) Content Store (CS), (ii) Pending Interest Table (PIT), and (iii) Forwarding Information Base (FIB). CS is the local cache used to store content in an NDN router. Anytime a host receives an Interest for a locally cached content, a Data packet is created in response and forwarded through the incoming interface(s) for the Interest before the Interest is discarded. PIT stores the set of active (or pending) Interests forwarded by the host and waiting for the corresponding Data to be delivered. PIT entries track the incoming faces for the received Interests and the entries are created per content, i.e., any subsequent Interest for an active PIT entry is suppressed at the local host, and the current PIT entry is updated with the incoming face information. Also note that, PIT helps prevent the formation of routing loops. For that purpose, each Interest carries a random nonce to detect duplicate requests. Anytime a host receives a matching Data for a pending Interest, received Data packet is forwarded along the incoming face(s) indicated by the PIT entry, before the request is removed from the PIT. FIB aggregates forwarding information at each host, and consists of entries mapping content names to outgoing faces. To select the outgoing faces matching the prefix of an Interest, FIB uses the longest prefix matching.

To handle mobility, NDN typically relies on overhead-heavy flooding based strategies, which introduces major scalability concerns \[3\]. The authors in \[6\] address this problem by proposing the use of forwarding hints to direct requests to the content source. For that purpose, the authors aim to bring the hierarchical DNS structure to NDN, by proposing separate name and resolution servers to provide the necessary mappings (see \[9\] for details). However, because of the iterative/recursive lookups, the proposed approach may introduce non-negligible latency (multiple RTTs), and synchronization may be needed to support entity (i.e., user, device, content, or service) mobility.

Our solution, on the other hand, expands the core NDN architecture and creates a mobility-based solution from within, by relying on a completely decentralized architecture, where all the operation follows the NDN principles and utilize only Interest/Data exchanges to support host mobility. The principles of our solution are listed as follows:

- **Forwarding scalability**: FIB size should be independent of the number of mobile entities. We can achieve this by requiring to keep object state only at the edges (i.e., gateway points), and perform routing at the core network based on locator prefixes.
- **Control overhead**: Updates due to mobility should be local and should not affect routing/forwarding convergence. We can achieve this by using a Local Controller (within each domain/AS) that is capable of resolving any mobile entity using its home binding.

\[1\]NDN uses the term *face* to represent the interface over which a packet is received or delivered.

- **Intra- and Inter-session mobility**: The architecture should support both intra- and inter-session mobility (i.e., changing location during a session or between sessions, where the term session refers to the delivery of a whole content, file, video, etc.). While inter-session mobility is handled through an update to/from the Home Controller, intra-session mobility is enabled by introducing a Mobility-Update tag, which triggers an update at all the related consumer-attached Service Routers to re-resolve the locator for the mobile entity.
- **Mobility granularity**: As producer mobility incurs cost in terms of control infrastructure, it should be realizable as a service, hence granularity to support mobility of any entity should be supported. Further differentiation can be supported in terms of geographic span of mobility, latency, etc.

In short, our solution is complimentary to NDN to handle mobility in a scalable manner. The enhancements are optional, hence, should be compatible with existing implementations as well. Next, we present our architecture.

III. PROPOSED ARCHITECTURE

Leveraging ICN’s name-based mobility, the proposed architecture allows any meaningful space of the name hierarchy to be mobile. For instance, in Figure 1, Alice’s name space can be recorded as follows. Alice can choose all of her devices, “/Alice_id”, or one of her devices, “/Alice_id/Alice_dev_id”, to be mobile, or a subset of her device’s content space, “/Alice_id/Alice_dev_id/Alice_content_X”, to be mobile. User enables this by actively registering this name space to the network, where the mobility service enabled by the provider allows the entities under the name space to be accessible anywhere on the Internet. This motivates a scalable mobility architecture. The proposed solution achieves this objective by utilizing four essential building blocks: Local Controllers to provide name-to-locator mappings and manage control overhead, Fast Path Tables (which are used by the designated routers to control information flow in the network) to address forwarding scalability, Forwarding Labels and Mobility Tags to address inter- and intra-session mobility at different mobility granularities. We observe the resulting Interest/Data packet formats in simplified view in Figure 2 which shows the additional components integrated into each packet format.

Fig. 1: ICN mobility example.

We consider a basic networking hierarchy, which consists of a given number of domains or Autonomous Systems (AS). Each domain/AS is assigned a Local Controller (LC) service carrying a domain designated prefix, e.g., LC for AS-(ID:11) is assigned
the prefix “/LOCALCONTROLLER:AS11”. LCs are responsible for mapping local and remote entity names to domain/router identifiers. If the entity is local (intra-Domain or intra-AS delivery), it resolves to Service Router (which can also act as a Point of Attachment), whereas, if the entity is remote (inter-Domain or inter-AS delivery), it maps to local domain’s egress router identifier. Each host is statically or dynamically assigned to a designated LC (referred as Home Controller), which stores up-to-date information regarding its users (we will explain shortly the process to acquire such information). Also note that, proposed system allows and supports for-the-endpoints to change their Home Network bindings on-the-fly, during content delivery.

Per the NDN requirements, hierarchical names are used to identify the entities. In the following, we pursue our discussion with respect to host mobility, which can be generalized to mobility of other named entities too. Each host is assigned a unique identifier representing the association of a user to its home network (e.g., “/AS:HOME/DEV:Id” with “Dev:Id” also including the “Host:Id”). Complete identifier, if available, is only needed during REGISTRATION. Network identifier, for an endpoint, is not considered a priori requirement to support successful location discovery. Using an identifier, however, is the preferred choice to minimize control overhead.

We assume an LC to have access to information directly related to communication taking place within its domain (e.g., home controller or locator information on content being published within the domain). Hence, no direct synchronization is assumed to exist among the LCs. Active domain information on visiting hosts is flushed on a regular basis, as soon as the host leaves the controller’s domain, to minimize access to outdated information. However, we allow the Remote Controller to store information on Home Controllers representing the visiting hosts for longer periods to minimize overhead associated with the Initial Discovery Phase.

We utilize Forwarding Labels to route packets in a controlled manner. Note that, routing is only needed to deliver the Interest packets, as Data packets follow the reverse path, unless tunneling is used to alter the Data path. Forwarding label is similar to content prefix in the sense that, when used, it provides sufficient information on the next physical or logical hop (i.e., gateway points). However, unlike a content prefix, forwarding label is used as a dynamic tag within the Interest that is regularly updated (at the service routers and gateway points) along the path to content source. To support the use of forwarding labels, at each service or edge router, we utilize a Fast Path Table (FPT) that carries the mappings corresponding to content prefixes and forwarding addresses.

Since handling mobility with FPT and forwarding labels incurs memory and computational cost, forwarding decisions based on FPT can be limited to traffic tagged as being part of the Mobility Service, whereas for the other services, default routing based on FIB can be used. Specifically, because of the overhead associated with the use of forwarding labels, we consider its implementation as a Service (which we call as the Forwarding Label Service, or the FL-Service) and limit its use to mobile-only scenarios. Furthermore, any mobile user that wishes to use the FL-Service indicates its intent during REGISTRATION by setting a single-bit Mobility Service tag (MS-tag) contained within the registration message. In addition, a consumer can also enable this tag along with the mobile entity’s unique name to invoke the FL-Service, which helps an NDN router differentiate between mobile and non-mobile entities. In scenarios where the FL-Service is not explicitly defined, forwarding is strictly based on the core NDN policies. FL-Service, however, is capable of taking full advantage of NDN’s strengths, i.e., in-network caching and the available FIB entries.

![Simple networking scenario with two mobile endpoints](image)

**Fig. 3:** A simple networking scenario with two mobile endpoints (one Consumer and one Producer) and four Autonomous Systems (ASs).

The proposed framework and the steps taken to initiate content delivery between the involved parties are explained using the scenario shown in Figure 3. For the given example, we use four Autonomous Systems with a single Consumer node, residing in AS1 and a single Producer node, residing in AS3. We assume that AS2 represents the Home Network for the Producer node. We also assume that Producer has already registered with its Home Network and was assigned the identifier “/AS2/PRODUCER:ID/”. Finally, we assume that Producer initiates the remote registration phase during its attachment process in the foreign domain as in AS3. Also, note that, we explain our solution, from the perspective of a mobile Producer, which is the more challenging scenario. Additional modifications needed for the mobile Consumer case are omitted as they share similar traits to the mobile Producer case, in regards to local updates, to ensure that stale information at the Service Routers and Local Controllers are promptly taken care of.

### A. Registration Phase

- **Step 1:** Registration Phase initiates with Producer sending a REGISTER message for its content, referred simply as
providing Prefix, to its host network’s LC by also including its complete identifier “/PREFIX:AS2/PRODUCER:ID”, where /AS2/PRODUCER:ID represents the home binding identifier for the entity /PREFIX. Here, PRODUCER:ID can be the device-ID, and if the device itself is mobile then /PRODUCER:ID can be considered as part of /PREFIX (hence, “/AS2” is good enough for the home binding). Furthermore, the /PREFIX itself can be globally routable or not, as it is resolved using the LC infrastructure. In short, assuming that the hosts learn the minimum control name space to interact with the PoAs during mobile attachment, Producer sends a registration message to PoA5 with the prefix “/PoA5/REG”. Using the FIB/FPT entries, registration message is forwarded towards LC3 through PoA5 and SR5. SR5 also updates the forwarding label, by including its address to inform LC3 on the identity of the Service Router associated with the Producer. After LC3 receives the registration message, if the MS-tag is set, local database (L-DB) is updated with the entry “/PREFIX:/SR5:ADDRESS::HOME:AS2” where the third component specifies the Home Network for “/PREFIX”. Note that, FPT or L-DB entries by default require at least two inputs, prefix information and locator information. We use double colon to separate the entries. Similarly, if the MS-tag is set in the registration message, FPT tables at PoA5 and SR5 are also updated, e.g., by adding the entry “/PREFIX:/PRODUCER” to FPT table at PoA5, and the entry “/PREFIX:/PoA5” to FPT table at SR5, upon receiving the acknowledgement from LC3.

- **Step II: Proactive Update Phase** initiates with LC3 sending a ROUTE-UPDATE message to the Edge Routers (ERs) (ER3, for the given scenario) to update their FPT table with the entry “/PREFIX:/SR5” so that any Interest received by the ERs targeting “/PREFIX” can be immediately forwarded to SR5. Note that, at the ERs, in addition to proactive updates, we can also use reactive updates, with the ER making a request for the forwarding information. However, it requires the initial traffic to be forwarded to the LCS to minimize latency, and additional overhead to keep track of entries to avoid sending recurring route requests for non-local Producers.

- **Step III: Foreign Home Registration Phase** initiates with LC3 sending LC2 a HOME-REGISTER (HREG) message for “/PREFIX”, once again using the complete identifier info for Producer. Prefix for the HREG message is given by “/LOCALCONTROLLER:AS2/HREG”. After LC2 receives the registration message, it updates its L-DB as follows:
  - If an active entry is found in LC2’s L-DB for Producer, corresponding to a different AS, say AS4, the entry is updated as follows: “/PREFIX:/REMOTE:AS3:/REMOTE:AS4”, where the third component indicates the previous AS the Producer was in. Additionally, LC2 sends a FLUSH-REGISTER message to LC4 (which will be explained shortly).
  - If no active entry is found in LC2’s L-DB for Producer or Producer was previously in AS2, L-DB at LC2 is updated with the following entry: “/PREFIX:/REMOTE:AS3::”.

Note that, all communication in the network utilize the core Interest-Data message exchange procedures as defined by NDN. Hence, to support a reliable control message exchange, each registration/update message is followed by an acknowledgement. By jointly utilizing (content) name and (forwarding) label fields in the Interest, we can deliver all the necessary information to LCS.

### B. Content Delivery Phase

Assume that Consumer, who is currently connected to PoA1, wants to receive “/PREFIX” published by Producer. Also assume that no SR or LC in AS1 has any FIB/FPT/L-DB entry for “/PREFIX”.

- **Step I**: Consumer starts Content Delivery Phase by sending an Interest for “/PREFIX” to PoA1, who then checks, in order, its CS and PIT to find a matching entry for “/PREFIX”. Since no entry is found, PoA1 forwards the Interest to SR1. After receiving the Interest, SR1 performs a more detailed check including searching for FPT (and, if necessary FIB) entries. Per our assumption, since no entry is found, SR1 creates a ROUTE-REQUEST (RREQ) message with the prefix “/LOCALCONTROLLER:AS1/RREQ” and send it to LC1. Furthermore, SR1 updates its local request waiting list (RWL) for the request messages it creates (similar to the PIT entries) to avoid retransmitting the same request to LC1. Any further Interests targeting “/PREFIX” are queued at SR1 until a response to the first RREQ message is received.

- **Step II**: After LC1 receives the RREQ message, it searches for a matching entry within its L-DB. If an entry is found, request can be unicast to the LC of the home domain. If no entry is found, and the received content name does not identify the home binding (i.e., domain-based association), in a format similar to “/PREFIX:AS2/PRODUCER:ID”, then the request is forwarded to all the other LCS. For the given scenario, LC1 forwards RREQ to LC2, LC3 and LC4. We can reduce the discovery overhead by using a controlled name-based multicast, i.e., by grouping multiple requests into a single Interest and forwarding the Interest AS-by-AS until a match is found. However, in practice, we can expect such home mapping to be provided at the time of request. Also, similar to how it was with SR1, LC1 also implements a local RWL for the received RREQ messages.

- **Step III**: After LC2 receives the RREQ message, a Data packet is created with the mapping “/PREFIX:/AS3” that points to the current location of the Producer.

- **Step IV**: After LC1 receives LC2’s response to its RREQ message, LC1 first updates its L-DB with the entry for
C. Intra-AS Handover Phase

Now, assume that Producer moves from POA5’s service area to POA4’s service area, triggering an intra-AS handover.

- **Step I:** After the handover to POA4 completes, Producer sends a REGIST message to LC3, as explained earlier. After LC3 receives the REGIST message, it looks up for a matching entry for “/PREFIX” in its L-DB and notices that Producer is previously associated with a different SR. LC3 updates its L-DB entry with “/PREFIX:/SR4:/HOME:AS2” and sends (i) a ROUTE-UPDATE (RUDP) message to the ERS (i.e., ER3 for the given scenario) to update their FPT tables with the entry “/PREFIX:/SR4”, and (ii) a FLUSH-REGISTER (FREG) message to SR5.

- **Step II:** After ER3 receives the RUDP message, it updates its FPT table and forwards any matching Interest towards SR4.

- **Step III:** After SR5 receives the FREG message for “/PREFIX”, it updates the local FPT with the entry “/PREFIX:/SR4” and forwards any new Interest targeting Producer to SR4 (note that, SR5 can also forward any undelivered Interest to SR4). SR5 also starts a timer to flush its local entry. Additionally, SR5 forwards the FREG message to POA5, which flushes its FPT entry upon receiving.

Even though the default process for de-registration is to go through LCs, our framework also allows for de-registration through the POAs, to further improve the latency performance.

D. Inter-AS Handover Phase

For the inter-AS handover, now assume that Producer moves from POA5’s servicing area to POA6’s servicing area, hence leaving AS3 to join AS4.

- **Step I:** After Producer moves to AS4, it initiates the registration phase by sending the REGIST message upstream towards LC4, and triggering updates along the path to (and at) LC4 (at POA6 and SR6).

- **Step II:** LC4 sends a HOME-REGISTER message to LC2, while also sending a ROUTE-UPDATE message to ER4, which updates its FPT with the entry “/PREFIX:/Sr8”.

- **Step III:** After LC2 receives the HREG message, it determines a change-of-domain for the Producer, moving from AS3 to AS4, and sends LC3 a FREG message with the prefix “/LOCALCONTROLLER:AS3/FREG”. LC2 also includes information on the currently active domain (i.e., AS4) for Producer in its message to LC3.

- **Step IV:** After LC3 receives the FREG message, it creates a local FREG message that it sends to SR5. LC3 next sends a ROUTE-UPDATE-WITH-TIMEOUT message to ER3 requiring it to update its FPT entry to point to the new domain for “/PREFIX” for a forwarding-timeout period (depending on an estimate for the recovery timeframe). Anytime ER3 receives an Interest targeting “/PREFIX” with the wrong forwarding label (i.e., pointing to AS3) during the FPT-timeout interval, the timeout parameter is reset to its default value (to ensure any Consumer not aware of domain change is informed).
  - The forwarding label for the incorrectly labeled Interest is updated with the correct label, and the Interest’s MOBILITY-UPDATE tag is set to 1, before the Interest is forwarded towards the correct domain by the ER (i.e., AS4 for the given example). In the case of a failure related to previous network’s ER, hard timeouts are used at the Consumer side to force a location update through the LC.
  - When Producer receives an Interest with the MU-tag set, suggesting that the Consumer’s network is not aware of Producer’s change-of-domain, it sets the MU-tag within the Data packet as well.

- When SR1 (or any relevant consumer serving SR) receives a Data packet with the MU-tag set, SR1 initiates the Re-Discovery Phase by requesting a forced RUDP from LC1, which then contacts LC2 to acquire the up-to-date domain information. Another alternative to the above approach is for the Producer side to include domain information within Data packets, in response to an Interest with a set MU-tag.

IV. Performance Analysis

We implemented the proposed architecture in ndnSIM [7], by designing the modules and applications required for the
processing of the received packets at designated hosts. We approximated the mobile handover by enabling/disabling wireless network interfaces based on the respective signal strength for the channel between a host and the access points reachable by the host. We assumed a handover latency of 50ms. For the point-to-point (wireline) links, we assumed a bandwidth of 10Mbps and a propagation latency of 10ms. We used constant-bit-rate (CBR) traffic model with a request rate of 20 packets per second. In our simulations, we considered grid-based topologies of varying sizes (i.e., 4AS scenario with 64 nodes, 9AS scenario with 137 nodes, and 16AS scenario with 236 nodes). We show the 4AS scenario in Figure 4. The 2nd and the 3rd scenarios, not illustrated here for brevity purposes, are an extension of the 1st scenario, with 3x3 and 4x4 AS formations.

Fig. 4: “2x2 AS with 3x3 intra-AS” Grid network topology with 4AS.

We compared the performance of our forwarding solution to the Flooding and Semi-flooding (which is a modified version of Smart-flooding that uses Flooding in the access network to minimize the impact of timeouts) techniques (our approach utilizes the Best-route strategy whenever needed). In a network with unlimited resources, Flooding technique, which continuously flood the network, achieves the best performance in the end-to-end throughput, while achieving the worst overhead performance. Semi-flooding, on the other hand, uses intelligent flooding only after losses, hence represent the tradeoff between resource efficiency and end-to-end throughput.

Due to space limitation, we share our simulation results for a single Consumer-Producer pair, which is sufficient to illustrate the differences between the three approaches, and specifically focused on the Producer mobility (i.e., Consumer is assumed to move at the lowest mobility level, whereas the Producer mobility is varied from low-to-high). The selected mobility levels (for the

Note that, handover latency depends on many factors, including the wireless technology utilized by the host and the type of handover initiated by the mobile host, resulting in latencies of tens-to-hundreds of ms. The chosen close-to-optimal value for the handover latency allows us to specifically focus our attention on the impact of location change.

Grid-based topology is chosen due to its flexibility in proportionally extending the network size and measuring its impact on perceived performance.

We ran 10 simulations using different random seeds, each of which lasts for 30 minutes, and present the average of their results.

11Consumer’s mobility region is limited to the top row of ASs, whereas the remaining ASs are used to represent the Producer’s mobility region. To approximate the worst case conditions for the proposed architecture and prevent easy access to Producer’s current location, one of the top row ASs—not used by the Consumer—is chosen as the Producer’s Home Network.

Random Waypoint Model in ns3) and their impact on handover frequencies are illustrated in Figure 5 (single-number scenario refers to constant speed mobility, whereas two-number scenario refers to mobility based on (min,max) speeds). We observe from Figure 5 that the chosen mobility levels can trigger highly unstable conditions due to frequent handovers, hence, are extremely useful to demonstrate how the three approaches perform under such conditions.

Fig. 5: Interarrival times for the mobile handovers for the three considered network topologies, also including the results for the inter-AS handovers (≈ 20–34% of the handovers are inter-AS handovers).

A. Session Throughput

The CBR model used in ndnSIM assumes an always constant request rate, i.e., no traffic is rushed (including the retransmissions). Hence, throughput performance is inversely proportional to both the recovery latency after handovers (the lower the latency, the higher the throughput) and the retransmitted Interests (the higher the retransmission rate, the lower the throughput). In short, from the perspective of the delay-tolerant traffic, effective throughput represents the percentage ratio of Data packets successfully received by the Consumer at the end of a simulation run (i.e., the ratio of the number of Data packets received to the number of Interest packets transmitted by the Consumer application).

We illustrate the results for the effective throughput performance in Figure 6 (where we use the term FastForwarding to refer to our solution). We observe that the proposed framework achieves better than 80% throughput for all the considered scenarios, and performs significantly better than Semi-flooding, regardless of network size. Our analysis suggest that the performance of the proposed architecture can be further improved (to, for instance, better than 90% at the highest user speed for the 9AS scenario) by avoiding retransmissions experienced due to stale PIT entries triggering different paths (that may not reach the Producer in time). There are multiple ways to achieve that without introducing significant overhead to the system, for instance, by limiting PIT entries for the FL-based mobile traffic.

B. Recovery Overhead

One of our objectives in designing a location-centric forwarding technique is to minimize the overhead introduced during path
recovery after mobile handovers. We can clearly see the potential impact of mobile handovers, if we examine the Interest rates shown in Figure 7. We observe significantly better results with our solution that is 5–12 times better, when compared to Flooding, and 2–5 times better, when compared to Semi-flooding.

Another way to look at the overhead performance is to measure the additional number of Interest packet transmissions used to achieve the perceived throughput performance. We show the results in Figure 8. From such perspective, we observe up to 50–200 times better performances when compared to the Flooding technique, and 5–20 times better performances when compared to the Semi-flooding technique, thereby, further illustrating the efficiency of our solution. Also note that, the increase in overhead for our solution is mostly caused by the wasted retransmission attempts leading to lower throughput, as explained earlier. By minimizing the number of such attempts lowers the percentile overhead by 60%, with much slower-less than half-increase rate between lowest-to-highest mobility levels.

In short, our approach proves to be a much more scalable solution in both the network size and the host mobility.

During an inter-AS handover, the following events take place with our approach: (i) Producer P registers its prefix to the new remote-domain DC, (ii) DC’s LC updates P’s HOME-LC (HLC), and (iii) P’s HLC updates the previous remote-domain P was registered to, DP, then which updates its local ERs and SRs. The overhead for the first event is given by \( O(\delta_{nL}) \), for the second event is given by \( O(\delta_{nC}) \), and for the third event is given by \( O(\delta_{nL} + \delta_{nC}) \), where \( \delta_{nL} \) represents the average distance between two nodes within a local domain, and \( \delta_{nC} \) represents the average distance between two nodes within two separate domains. We can approximate the average distance between any two nodes in a network of size \( N \) using \( \log N \), allowing us to approximate the overhead during a handover using \( O(\log N) \).

On the other hand, for the default NDN forwarding policies (specifically Smart-flooding based policies), the overhead during a handover is approximated as \( O(N) \), since the handovers trigger flooding in the network.

For instance, for the synthetic topologies we considered, going from 4AS to 9AS (or 16AS), \( \delta_{nC} \) increases by 1.11 (or 1.22). Similarly, going from 9AS to 16AS, \( \delta_{nC} \) increases by 1.1. To represent the change in \( N \), we can simply use the ratio of the number of ASs (resulting in 2.25, 4, and 1.78). Our results suggest that, change in overhead for the given scenarios are given by: for Flooding (2.3, 4.1, 1.8); for Semi-flooding (1.4–1.8, 2.2–2.8, 1.3–1.6); and, for our solution, (1.2–1.4, 1.5–1.7, 1.2–1.3). In short, flooding-based techniques observe an increase in overhead closer to change in \( N \), whereas our solution observes an increase in overhead closer to \( \delta_{nC} \), further proving its scalability.

V. DISCUSSIONS

A. Storage Considerations

FIB represents both the strengths (i.e., flexible operation and on-the-fly routing decisions) and the weaknesses (i.e., overhead) of NDN, with greater perceived impact as the network size and content availability increase. Specifically, ad hoc operation allows for greater flexibility during routing, whereas, increased database size (with variable prefix names and multiple entries per prefix) degrades the operational efficiency at each NDN capable router by increasing the perceived processing latency (see [10] for a detailed discussion on challenges in content-centric forwarding).

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**Fig. 6:** Throughput performance of the proposed architecture with respect to Flooding and Semi-flooding.

**Fig. 7:** Comparative results for the overall network-wide Interest rate.

**Fig. 8:** Comparative results for the overhead performance (i.e., percentile ratio for the additional Interest packets transmitted to support the perceived Data delivery rates).
FPT addresses these drawbacks by partitioning the information required for end-to-end routing at different sections in the network. The major portion of the mostly local FIB entries, i.e., prefix-to-address mappings, are stored at the L-DBs. However, due to domain-based partitioning, the number of entries stored at a given L-DB is expected to be much smaller than what is expected to be stored in the FIB of an NDN router. SRs are only responsible for keeping entries of the active hosts they serve, rather than keeping entries for the hosts being serviced by the other routers. ERs provide the backbone dependent mappings and their perceived overhead is limited in the maximum of the number of domains/ASs and the number of locally hosted Producers. The intermediate routers, between SRs and ERs, are only responsible for carrying the next hop-to-ER mappings, hence not anymore observing overhead proportional to the number of hosts being serviced along the downstream channel. As a result, we expect noticeable improvement in the processing latency within the network to route packets between endpoints. Specifically, by forwarding Interests on the LC-managed address-space, rather than the highly variable prefix-space, lookup latency on a typical NDN router does not anymore depend on the prefix length.

B. Scalability Considerations

For the proposed architecture, another important concern is the performance of the LC, which is expected to service the requests of the hosts associated with the LC’s domain. An LC carries prefix-to-domain mappings for the hosted Consumers and remote Producers and prefix-to-router mappings for the hosted Producers. Note that prefix-to-domain mappings are updated at a much lower rate (inter-AS handover rate) than the rate associated with prefix-to-router mappings, which change at the intra-AS handover rate. We can therefore approximate the request rate $\rho$ as follows:

$$\rho = h_{\text{AS}} \times (|mC| + \kappa |RmP|) + h_{\text{AP}} \times |mP|$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

where $\{h_{\text{AS}}, h_{\text{AP}}\}$ represent the mean inter-AS and intra-AS handover rate (with $h = h_{\text{AS}} + h_{\text{AP}}$), $\kappa$ represents the average number of unique Consumer domains requesting content from the same Producer, $\{mC, mP\}$ represents the sets of mobile Consumers/Producers hosted by the current domain, $\{RmP\}$ represents the set of remotely located mobile Producers using the current domain as a Home network, and $|\cdot|$ represents the size operator. As the network size increases, we expect $\kappa$ to converge to a small constant and we can assume $|mC| = |mP| = |RmP| = n_m$. Therefore, we can approximate $\rho$ as $h \times (1 + \gamma \kappa) \times n_m$, where $\gamma = h_{\text{AS}}/h$. If we assume frequent handovers with mean inter-handover latency of $10s$, and with $\kappa \approx 1/\gamma$ and $n_M = 1M$, we expect a value of $\rho = 200K$ requests per second, which is easily manageable with the current server architectures.

Also note that, because of the overall latency incurred during handovers (caused by handover and end-to-end propagation delays), we consider the requirements on processing latency to be less strict than that of NDN forwarding, thereby allowing the LC to be more flexible in its lookup operations. Furthermore, if necessary, multiple LCs can be assigned to a single domain to support load balancing within that domain. In that case, a simple hash function that assigns prefixes to an LC can be installed on each designated router to support such features. Our framework is flexible enough to manage such scenarios with little increase in complexity.

C. Security Considerations

There are various ways an attacker can exploit the possible vulnerabilities in our architecture by targeting the LCs. For instance, by registering non-existing prefixes to the LC as fake Producers, and by requesting non-existing prefixes from the LC as fake Consumers, attackers can overload the controllers and limit access to the legitimate requests. We next explain possible approaches we can use in such scenarios to minimize the impact of flooding attacks on the overall performance.

1) Producer Flooding: Our architecture assumes a Producer to include certain information within the registration message to identify the Producer’s home network and authenticate the registered content. Hence, we can limit the scope of fake-Producer attacks through authentication failure messages received from the home networks. After an authentication failure message is received by the host network’s LC, information on the fake-Producer can be shared with the host network’s SRs, to prevent or reduce access to the matching user’s registration requests.

2) Consumer Flooding: To prevent an attacker from hijacking the network by sending requests for non-existent prefixes, multiple approaches are possible. First, we can employ a threshold-based admission policy at the first point of entry for the incoming requests and limit the number of outstanding requests that await for the path update from the LC. Our architecture already does this to some extent, by suppressing requests targeting the same entity (i.e., Producer) at the SRs. Second, we can use an adaptive decision policy to enforce stricter threshold values at certain SRs depending on the experienced overhead at the LCs. Since the forwarding label in a request message includes information on the entry points, LCs can aggregate the necessary statistics to quickly determine the problematic areas, and restrict access whenever needed. Third, by sending feedbacks to SRs on problematic requests, attackers can be identified in a timely manner and the information on them can be shared with other SRs within the same domain to limit the effectiveness of future attacks.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we proposed a decentralized mobility-centric solution for Named-data Networking (NDN) to address the scalability problems that arise during the delivery of mobile content to requesting Consumers. The proposed solution relies on four essential building blocks to support location-driven forwarding: Local Controller (resolution server to provide name-to-locator mappings), Forwarding Label (dynamic path information inserted within the Interest to support iterative-binding by intelligently guiding the request towards the content source), Mobility Tags (single-bit flags inserted within Interest or Data packets to indicate entity mobility or mobility service) and Fast Path Table (database utilized at the designated routers to store name-to-locator mappings). We presented an in-depth analysis of the proposed architecture and explained in detail all the necessary steps required to initiate and maintain connectivity between
mobile end points. We implemented our solution in ndnSIM and demonstrated significant performance improvements in network scalability while achieving comparable results to flooding in effective throughput. We also addressed the practical considerations in regards to storage requirements, controller scalability, and security concerns, and discussed the efficiency and effectiveness of the proposed architecture.

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