Enabling In-Network Caching in Traditional IP Networks: Selective Router Upgrades and Cooperative Cache Strategies

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Abstract—Enabling in-network caching in a traditional IP network by progressively adding cache-enabled nodes into the network can provide a variety of advantages, such as efficient content distribution and improved network resource utilization. However, to maximize the performance, two crucial issues have to be addressed: 1) due to a limited budget, only selective nodes could be upgraded, and thus which nodes should be chosen is of importance and 2) how to decide the corresponding cache strategy in an upgraded hybrid network is also important. In this paper, we first formulate a problem of Selective Router Upgrade (SRU) aiming at selecting nodes to be upgraded such that both average access delay and hit ratio are optimized for the best experience. We prove that SRU is an NP-hard problem, and then propose a (1 − 1/e)-approximation algorithm for it. Based on the model of SRU, we further propose Local Replacement (LR) and Neighbor Cooperative Caching (NCC) strategies to provide caching service in an upgraded hybrid network. Specifically, LR considers the cache behavior in a local router for both low latency and high hit ratio. NCC allows routers to obtain contents from their neighbor nodes and further decides the caching replacement policy based on neighbor nodes’ caching capabilities. In a word, LR and NCC help expand the overall caching space and improve the content delivery efficiency by exploring the geometrical vicinity of nodes. Extensive simulation results show that our schemes can significantly improve the network in terms of access delay and hit ratio.

Index Terms—in-network caching, network upgrade, neighbor cooperative cache.

I. INTRODUCTION

The Internet business model is changing from end-to-end communication to content distribution and acquisition, since it is indicated in Cisco’s report [1] that network traffic will be dominated by analog data. Meanwhile, with the advances in hardware technology, the computing power and storage capacity of network nodes are continuously strengthened, which enables them to do more than simple routing. As such, a new trend in network design is to enable a network to have in-network caching [2], [3], which takes advantage of the caching capabilities of some intermediate routers to cache copies of the frequently used contents. The use of in-network-caching benefits various applications such as IoT [4], [5], [6] and video streaming [7]. There have been a lot of research efforts dedicated to investigate and develop such network architectures [8], [9], [10]. Although their implementations are different, they all use an in-network-caching-based network model. The routers in the network can cache multiple copies of those frequently accessed contents such that the consumers can access the contents from a closer place.

However, due to backward compatibility concerns and limited budget constraints, it is often impractical to completely overhaul a traditional IP network with a completely new architecture. To address this challenge and harness the performance benefits of in-network caching in traditional IP networks, various architectures have been proposed [11]. These architectures, such as CONET [12], CAIP [13], and hiCN [14], enable selective cache-enablement of specific network nodes using newly defined IP options or IPv6 extension headers, while keeping other nodes unchanged. By allowing these selected nodes to support both in-network caching-based routing and IP-based routing, they facilitate the progressive integration of in-network caching capabilities. This approach provides a viable pathway for enabling in-network caching while ensuring compatibility with existing infrastructure.

Enabling in-network caching in the traditional IP network faces some new problems and challenges. In this work, we mainly focus on solving the following two problems. First, depending on the budget, making the right decision to select a subset of routers from the set of traditional ones to be upgraded is of importance. As shown in Fig. 1, for progressively transforming a traditional network to be fully cache-enabled,
The performance evaluation shows that SRU is able to could suffer redundancy in return paths but fail to consider the impact of network nodes can be upgraded to cache-enabled ones in each upgrade. Since the budget is limited, it is necessary to provide an effective solution to ensure maximum benefit in the upgrading process. Secondly, the cache strategy and neighbor cooperation in an upgraded hybrid network also affect access delay and hit ratio significantly. When some of the routers are upgraded to enable in-network caching, the network becomes a hybrid one which includes both traditional routers and cache-enabled routers. The hybrid routing departs significantly from the one in a complete cache enabled network. This makes the cache strategy more complex and the cooperation among neighboring routers more affected, which requires more fine-grained algorithms.

For the first problem, we introduce a Selective Router Upgrade (SRU) problem, which aims to enhance the performance of a network by achieving low delay and high cache hit ratio. To address this objective, we propose two key optimizations, namely distance optimization and caching optimization of each router, which reflect to the improvement of content access delay and cache hit ratio in the network, respectively. In addition, most of previous works consider the scenarios for one-time deployment, but do not consider the hybrid network for progressively upgrading. SRU formulates a progressive upgrading process, the previously upgraded nodes will influence the future choice of nodes. SRU also considers the influence of upgraded nodes in a hybrid network and presents a complete upgrading plan. Finally, due to the NP-hard nature of the SRU problem, we present an approximate solution using a modified greedy algorithm.

For the second problem, as the network evolves into a hybrid network with increasingly dense cache-enabled routers, simple non-cooperative caching schemes [15], [16], [17] could suffer from cache redundancy and result in poor caching performance. Although some cooperative caching strategies [18], [19], [20] are introduced. However, they work mostly on eliminating cache redundancy in return paths but fail to consider the impact of hybrid networks, where traditional routers may be present between cache-enabled routers. To address this issue, we introduce neighbor cooperative caching in the upgraded hybrid network. Based on the formulation of SRU problem, we then propose Local Replacement (LR) strategy and Neighbor Cooperative Caching (NCC) strategy, which considers both the cache hit ratio and content access delay in a local router and then modifies the cache strategy according to the situation of neighbor cooperation to improve the caching performance. By incorporating these strategies into the SRU ungraded network, we aim to achieve low delay and high hit ratio, thereby enhancing the overall performance of cache-enabled networks.

The main contributions of this paper can be summarized as follows:

- We put forward an SRU algorithm for upgrading selective traditional routers to be cache-enabled ones in hybrid cache-enabled networks. Both the influence of the routers upgraded in the past and different benefit metrics are considered to formulate the optimization problem. We prove that SRU problem is NP-hard and propose a \((1 - 1/e)\)-approximation algorithm to solve it.
- For an upgraded network, we formulate the caching problem at the hybrid cache-enabled network. A simple non-cooperative LR strategy and a cooperative NCC strategy are proposed to effectively cache contents and reduce redundant caching in networks.
- The performance evaluation shows that SRU is able to select the nodes enabling the network to gain better performance to upgrade and NCC can further reduce users’ access delay and improve cache hit ratio in the upgraded hybrid network.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section II describes the background and Related Work. Sections III–V describe the SRU strategy, LR strategy, and NCC strategy, respectively. Section VI presents the evaluation results. Section VII concludes this paper.

II. BACKGROUND AND RELATED WORK

A. Challenges of Enabling In-Network Caching in Traditional IP Networks

Enabling in-network caching in traditional IP networks is a major direction of the future network, while such a hybrid network can both be compatible with traditional networks and provide better performance. In a hybrid network, just some of the routers in the network are enabled with the in-network caching function through the introduction of adding contents ID into a newly defined IP option. The existing routers do not need to be changed. Meanwhile, in the upgrading process, there are two main objectives to achieve. The first one is to select suitable routers to upgrade in a way that the network performance, in terms of content access delay and hit ratio, could be optimized. The second one is to find an effective caching strategy for cache-enabled routers in the upgraded hybrid network.

Due to budget constraints and the requirement for backward compatibility, only a subset of routers in the network will be selected to add caching functionality at each upgrade during the upgrading process. Therefore, the selection of the subset of routers is an important issue. With the upgrade of in-network caching enabled, a new problem arises. The number of cache-enabled routers is small, the distance between cache-enabled routers varies, and the cache space of cache-enabled routers in
the network is limited. A caching strategy designed for a full cache-enabled network may not be suitable for a hybrid network. In this work, we model the contents cache behavior in the hybrid network, and further put forward a novel neighbor cooperative cache strategy to address this issue.

B. Related Works

1) Cache Location Strategies: Enable in-network caching in traditional IP networks is a major direction of the future network, while it can both be compatible with traditional networks and provide better performance. Detti et al. defined an IP option to make IP packets content-aware, named CONET [12]. We have proposed a new architecture called CAIP [13], which achieves in-network caching in current IP-based network architectures through the introduction of adding contents ID into a newly defined IP option. To enable in-network caching function in traditional IP networks, deciding where to deploy the cache-enabled routers has a critical impact on network performance. Some previous works [21], [22], [23], [24], [25], [26] have worked on it. Although they are not designed for the previously mentioned architectures, the main idea is the same. Hasan et al. [21] studied the cache deployment optimization problem in content delivery networks (CDNs), which aims at minimizing the network cost while guaranteeing the delivery quality. Zhang et al. [23] proposed a cost-effective cache deployment problem for a two-tier HetNet in cellular networks. References [24], [25], [26] study the time-varying traffic demands to deploy cache space in large-scale WiFi systems. Most of the previous works consider the scenarios for one-time deployment, but do not consider the hybrid network for progressively upgrading. In this paper, we consider the overall benefits in the core network and present a complete upgrading plan for gradually upgrading the network.

2) Caching Strategies: Caching strategy determines the performance of a cache-enabled network [27], [28], [29]. Least Recently Used (LRU) [15] and Least Frequently Used (LFU) [17] policies are the most common content replacement cache strategies used in recent content routers, which evict the least recently used content and the least frequently used content, respectively, when the cache space overwhels. LRU-sample [16] further improves its performance by sampling the caching operation. AdaptSize [30] considers the huge variance among content size and adjusts the cache parameters in the router adaptively, which can be more adapted to the network environment. Compared with the above-mentioned solutions that only work on a single router, cooperative caching is a more efficient and practical solution [31], [32], [33]. In recent research works, coordinated in-network caching strategies are introduced and can fall into two categories: i) On-path cooperative caching strategies [18], [20], [34], which control the content data along the return path. Lee et al. [34] provided T-caching, which utilizes the cooperation between content providers and routers to reduce the cache redundancy and improve cache hit performance. ii) Off-path cooperative caching strategies, such as Hash-Routing, SD-NCC [35], [36], [37], which control the content over neighboring routers within the neighborhood or AS. However, they do not consider the impact of the hybrid network. In our work, we consider the distances between content routers and the impact of neighboring routers to model the cache behavior, which is more suitable for a hybrid network.

III. SELECTIVE ROUTER UPGRADES

In this section, we elaborate SRU problem and the strategy of selecting a subset of routers to upgrade. SRU considers the influence of the upgraded routers and formulates a multi-objective optimization problem to achieve a higher cache hit ratio and lower access delay.

A. System Model

In our proposed system model, depicted in Fig. 2, the network topology is represented by a graph $G$, which comprises content providers, routers, and users. Content providers offer content that aligns with the interests of the users. The routers in the network are categorized into two distinct types: traditional routers and cache-enabled routers. Traditional routers within the network are responsible for packet forwarding functions, ensuring the efficient transfer of data packets. Cache-enabled routers possess the added capability of caching content and delivering it directly to the users. These cache-enabled routers enhance the performance of content delivery by reducing latency and network congestion, resulting in an improved user experience.

To optimize the performance and efficiency of the system, we consider the process of router upgrades, where the decision on which routers to select for upgrading depends on the available budget. By carefully assessing the budget, we can determine the routers that will benefit the most from the upgrade, considering factors of network traffic and user demands.

We utilize the following notations to represent various elements within the network model. A router is denoted as $R_j$, where $j \in [1, n]$, and a content provider is denoted as $CP_r$, where $r \in [1, m]$. Users are grouped into different clusters, and each $U_k$ has $u_k$ users, where $k \in [1, q]$. The distance between router $R_j$ and content provider $CP_r$ is $d_{jr}$, where distance denotes the number-of-hop between two nodes.

To indicate whether a router $R_j$ has been upgraded to a cache-enabled router, we introduce an upgraded indicator $X_j$, where $X_j \in \{0, 1\}$. If $X_j = 1$, it signifies that router $R_j$ is a cache-enabled router, and vice versa. $D$ denotes the set of routers that have already been upgraded, $X_j = 1$ if $j \in D$. Once a router has...
been upgraded to a cache-enabled router, it should not undergo further upgrades in the future. \( P_j \) denotes the price of updating router \( R_j \). The total cost of upgrading the routers should not exceed the budget which is denoted as \( B \). We use \( p_r \) to denote the weight of content providers that relates to the proportion of contents provided by \( CP_r \), and \( \sum_r p_r = 1 \). The total amount and importance of content provided by different content providers vary, which may lead to different weights for different content providers.

To facilitate understanding, Table I summarizes the notations used in the system model.

### TABLE I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Notations</th>
<th>Meanings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( R_j )</td>
<td>router ( j )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( CP_r )</td>
<td>content provider ( r )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( U_k )</td>
<td>number of users in ( U_k )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( l_{jr} )</td>
<td>distance between router ( R_j ) and content provider ( CP_r )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( X_j )</td>
<td>upgraded indicator of router ( R_j )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( P_j )</td>
<td>the price of updating router ( R_j )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( B )</td>
<td>budget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( D )</td>
<td>the set of routers that has already been upgraded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( p_r )</td>
<td>the weight of ( CP_r )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Problem Formulation

After upgrading, the hybrid network is supposed to provide a lower delay and a higher cache hit ratio. However, there is a trade-off between the delay and the hit ratio. A router close to CP can serve more users and provide a higher hit ratio. On the other hand, a router located closer to users may provide a lower delay.

As an example shown in Fig. 2, \( R_4 \) can serve \( U_2 \) and \( U_3 \) when the two users both require the contents from \( CP_3 \), and it has distance \( l_{14} = 2 \). \( R_3 \) can only serve \( U_2 \) but has distance \( l_{13} = 3 > l_{14} \). We formulate an SRU problem that considers both of the two objectives and makes a trade-off between them. In the subsequent analysis, we define distance benefit as the improved performance gained from reducing delay, and define caching benefit as the improved performance gained from improving cache hit ratio.

Moreover, the benefit gained by an upgraded router is also affected by other upgraded routers, because the requests served by a downstream router will not be forwarded. As an example shown in Fig. 2, if \( R_3 \) is already upgraded, it will serve some requests from \( U_3 \). Therefore, the benefit gained from upgrading \( R_8 \) will be reduced. Due to the limited cache space of each cache-enabled router, the user’s request has a probability \( \rho \) of being served, i.e., cache hit, and probability \((1 - \rho)\) of forwarding a request to the next router. Let \( u_{jr}^{sum}(X) \) denote the number of users that can be served at \( R_j \) when requesting contents from \( CP_r \). We have:

\[
u_{jr}^{sum}(X) = \sum_{k \in U_j} u_k (1 - \rho)^{\sum_{k \in U_j} X_k},
\]

where \( X = \{ X_j \in \{0,1\}, \forall j \in [1,n] \} \) is the set of upgrade indicators. In our problem formulation, we consider static routing paths between CP and users, where the routers forward interest packets and data packets along the shortest routing path between \( U_k \) and \( CP_r \). Let \( CP_r - R_j - U_k \) denote a routing path, where \( R_j \) is a router that lies on the routing path between \( CP_r \) and \( U_k \). We further use \( R_{jk} \) to denote the set of routers that lie in the first subpath (\( CP_r - R_j \)) of the routing path \( CP_r - R_j - U_k \), and \( U_{jr} \) to denote the set of user clusters that go through \( R_j \) to access \( CP_r \).

The parameter \( \rho \) denotes the service probability on a cache-enabled router, which is related to the router’s cache space and content popularity distribution. Considering that the content popularity is Zipf distribution with the shape parameter \( \alpha \). Therefore, the relative probability of a request for the \( i \)th most popular content is proportional to \( 1/i^\alpha \), where \( A \) is a constant related to \( \alpha \). There are \( N \) contents in total and each router can cache \( \beta N \) contents. Therefore, the upper bound of cache hit ratio is \( \sum_{i=1}^{2N} (\frac{1}{i^\alpha}) \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\frac{1}{i}) \), which is related to that the router caches the most popular contents to fill its cache space. Therefore, the user’s request has an upper probability bound \( \rho = \sum_{i=1}^{2N} (\frac{1}{i^\alpha}) \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\frac{1}{i}) \) of being served.

Let \( a_j^r(X) \) and \( b_j^r(X) \) denote the distance benefit and cache benefit of \( R_j \) for \( CP_r \), respectively, we have:

\[
a_j^r(X) = l_{jr} \cdot u_{jr}^{sum}(X),
b_j^r(X) = u_{jr}^{sum}(X),
\]

where \( b_j^r(X) \) means that router \( R_j \) can provide cache space for \( u_{jr}^{sum}(X) \) users, and \( a_j^r(X) = b_j^r(X) \cdot l_{jr} \) represents the extent that \( R_j \) can serve \( u_{jr}^{sum}(X) \) to keep contents away from the content provider for \( l_{jr} \).

Therefore, for all the CPs, the total distance benefit and cache benefit of \( R_j \) are:

\[
a_j(X) = \sum_{r=1}^{m} p_r \cdot a_j^r(X),
b_j(X) = \sum_{r=1}^{m} p_r \cdot b_j^r(X).
\]

To jointly optimize the delay and cache hit ratio, the SRU objective function is expressed as a multiple objectives function, which is defined as follows:

\[
J_1(X) = \gamma \sum_{j=1}^{n} X_j a_j(X) + \theta \sum_{j=1}^{n} X_j b_j(X),
\]

where \( \gamma \) and \( \theta \) are the weights to represent the importance of the terms.

A well-designed router upgrading solution should keep a balance between the cache hit and delay. Under such consideration, we make a simple normalization of the cache benefit and distance benefit by setting \( \gamma = 1/l \) and \( \theta = 1 \), where \( l \) is the mean value of all distance \( l_{jr} \). Therefore, the cache benefit and distance benefit in the optimization problem have approximately the same mean value, which can provide balanced performance.

Let \( V_j(X) = \sum_{r} p_r (\gamma l_{jr} + \theta) u_{jr}^{sum}(X) \), then the objective function \( J_1(X) \) can be expressed as:

\[
J_1(X) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} X_j V_j(X).
\]

And we model the SRU problem as follows.
SRU problem: Given a budget $B$, the objective of SRU is as follows:

$$\max_{X} J_1(X)$$

subject to

$$\sum_{j \in F} X_j \cdot P_j \leq B,$$  \hspace{1cm} (6a)

$$X_j = 1, \forall j \in D,$$  \hspace{1cm} (6b)

$$X_j \in \{0, 1\}, \forall j \in F,$$  \hspace{1cm} (6c)

where $F = \{j \mid j \in [1, n], j \notin D\}$ denotes the set of routers which are not yet upgraded. (6a) indicates that the total upgrading price cannot exceed the budget $B$. (6b) is the indicator of cache-enabled routers which have already been upgraded before this upgrading process. SRU only chooses the routers which are not in $D$ to upgrade.

C. Selective Router Upgrades Strategy

It is hard to find the optimal solution for SRU problem in polynomial time. We give an approximate solution in this section.

Theorem 1: The SRU problem is NP-Hard and the objective function of SRU problem is a non-decreasing submodular function.

Proof: See Appendix. \hfill \Box

Since SRU problem is NP-hard, it is impossible to find the optimal result in polynomial time. However, as shown in [38], [39], a greedy heuristic algorithm can provide a $(1 - 1/e)$ approximate solution in polynomial time for maximizing submodular functions. Therefore, we provide Algorithm 1 to solve the SRU problem, which utilizes a modified greedy method to provide a $(1 - 1/e)$ approximation. In the mean loop of Algorithm 1, it calculates the new gained benefit of each non-upgraded router if it is upgraded as a cache-enabled router. Then it chooses a router with max value (which means the gained benefit divided by the price) to upgrade. The complexity of Algorithm 1 is $O(n^3)$, and $n$ is the size of the network. Since the upgrade algorithm is an offline algorithm, which only needs to be run once before the upgrade, such a computational overhead is acceptable.

In line 13, SRU greedy algorithm chooses a router with max value of $V_{j}^{add}(X)/P_j$, where $V_{j}^{add}(X)$ is the gained benefit if $R_j$ is upgraded as a new cache-enabled router:

$$V_{j}^{add}(X) = J_1(X_j^i) - J_1(X),$$

where $X_j^i$ denotes changing $X_j$ to 1 in $X$. The following shows the calculation of $V_{j}^{add}(X)$.

Let $R_{j,p}$ denote the set of routers along the route between $R_j$ and $CP_r$. For a router $j' \in R_{j,p}$, if $R_j$ is upgraded, it will lose a part of benefit $V_{j'}^{l}(X)$:

$$V_{j'}^{l}(X) = (\gamma l_{j'} + \theta) u_{j'}^{sum}(X) - \rho (1 - \rho) \sum_{j'' \in R_{j',p}} X_{j''}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (8)

Therefore, we use $V_{j}^{*}(X)$ to denote the reduced benefit of all other cache-enabled routers if $R_j$ is upgraded:

$$V_{j}^{*}(X) = \sum_{r} p_r \sum_{j' \in R_{j,r}} X_{j'} V_{j'}^{l}(X).$$  \hspace{1cm} (9)

Algorithm 1: The Greedy Algorithm for SRU.

Input:

- Network graph $G$.
- Budget: $B$.
- Price of routers: $\{P_j, j \in [1, n]\}$.
- The set of routers that have already been upgraded: $D$.

Output:

- The router indicators: $\{X_j | X_j \in \{0, 1\}, j \in [1, n]\}$.

1. $S_1$ denotes the set of all feasible solutions with one or two chosen routers $*$;
2. $X_1 = \arg\max_{X \in S_1} J_1(X)$;
3. $S_2$ denote the set of all feasible solutions with three chosen routers $*$;
4. $S_3 = \emptyset$;
5. for each $X_0 \in S_2$
6.   Initialize: $X = X_0$;
7.   while $B \geq 0$
8.      for each $j = 1 \text{ to } n$
9.         $V_j(X) = \sum_r p_r (\gamma l_{jr} + \theta) u_{jr}^{sum}(X)$;
10.        if $X_j = 1$ then
11.           $V_{j}^{add}(X) = 0$;
12.        else
13.           $V_{j}^{add}(X) = V_j(X) - V_j^{*}(X)$;
14.        $j_{max} = \arg \max_{j} \frac{V_{j}^{add}(X)}{P_j}$;
15.        $X_{j_{max}} = 1$;
16.        $B = B - P_{j_{max}}$;
17.      end
18.      $S_3 = S_3 \cup X$;
19.     $X_2 = \arg\max_{X \in S_3} J_1(X)$;
20.   $X^* = \arg\max_{X \in S_3} J_1(X)$;
21. end
22. return $X^*$.

Then, the true value of benefit that adds $R_j$ as a new cache-enabled router will be:

$$V_{j}^{add}(X) = V_j(X) - V_j^{*}(X).$$  \hspace{1cm} (10)

The whole algorithm is divided into two phases. Let $S_1$ denote the set of all feasible solutions with one or two chosen routers, and $S_2$ denote the set of all feasible solutions with three chosen routers. In the first phase, the algorithm enumerates all feasible solutions in $S_1$ and finds $X_1$ with the largest value of the objective function $J_1(X)$. In the second phase, the algorithm starts with each $X$ in $S_2$ and completes each such set greedily and keeps the current solution feasible with respect to the knapsack constraint. Each time the algorithm recalculates $V_{j}^{add}(X)$ of the router that has not been upgraded and choose the router with the highest value until the budget is exhausted. Let $X_2$ be the solution obtained in the second phase that has the largest value of the objective function over all choices of the starting set for the greedy algorithm. Finally, the algorithm outputs the best value between $X_1$ and $X_2$. It has been proven in [39] that Algorithm 1 provides an $(1 - 1/e)$-approximate solution at least.

The output $X^*$ of Algorithm 1 denotes the set of all of the upgraded routers in the network, including the routers that have already been upgraded before this upgrading process. Therefore,
and cache benefit of contents. A cache-enabled router utilizes sliding window mechanism to dynamically calculate and update the \( \text{req}_i \) of contents. A cache-enabled router only records the number of cached contents of a router. When the router receives a new content and the cache space is full, it needs to decide whether to cache new content and which content in the cache memory should be replaced by the new content. To ensure fast processing speed within the router, LR strategy uses a classical greedy algorithm, as shown in Algorithm 2, to cope with the 0-1 Knapsack problem to find the approximate solution. All these input information can be easily calculated in a local router, which includes \( c = \{c_1, \ldots, c_n\} \) representing the set of the size of the cached contents and \( v = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n\} \) representing the set of the values of the cached contents. Through appropriate selection to meet the constraint condition and maximize the value of retained contents, we can obtain a set of retained contents after releasing enough space for the new entering content. The computational complexity of Algorithm 2 is \( O(N) \) with a (1/2) approximate solution, where \( N \) is the number of cached contents of a router. Especially, for a cache system whose contents have the same size, Algorithm 2 provides the optimal solution, and the time complexity of Algorithm 2 is \( O(1) \). In most in-networking systems, content is divided into chunks with the same size, each of which is individually requested and delivered with a unique name. Therefore, cache-enabled routers typically route and cache with chunk-based granularity and the proposed Algorithm 2 provides an \( O(1) \) solution with the optimal performance.

V. NEIGHBOR COOPERATIVE CACHING STRATEGY

NCC strategy is put forward to make full use of neighbor nodes’ cache resources. In an upgraded hybrid network, NCC should consider both the request number and the distance of neighboring cache-enabled routers to provide high hit ratio and reduced access delay via cooperation among neighboring routers.

A. Overview

In NCC strategy, the cache-enabled router keeps both the local cache index table and the neighbors’ cache index table. To update the neighbor cache index table, a cache-enabled router periodically broadcasts its own cache index table and also receives the cache index tables broadcasted from its neighbors.
Algorithm 2: Local Replacement Algorithm.

Input:
Two sequence \( \mathbf{v} = \{v_i, i = 1...n\} \) and \( c = \{c_i, i = 1...n\} \),
The total cache capacity \( C \),
The new content’s size \( c_{new} \) and cache value \( v_{new} \).

Output:
The cache decision of the new content: \( x \in \{0, 1\} \),
the evicted content set: \( E \).

1. for each \( i = 1 \) to \( n \) do
2. \( p_i = v_i/c_i; \)
3. \( p_{new} = v_{new}/c_{new}; \)
4. Sort by the ascending order \( p = \{p_{i1}, p_{i2}, ..., p_{in}\} \) and the corresponding size set for \( P \) is \( c = \{c_{i1}, c_{i2}, ..., c_{in}\}; \)
5. if \( p_{new} < p_{i1} \) or \( c_{new} > C \) then
6. \( x = 0, E = \emptyset; \)
7. return \( x, E; \)
8. else
9. \( c_{sum} = 0, p_{sum} = 0; \)
10. for each \( j = 1 \) to \( n \) do
11. \( p_{sum} = p_{sum} + p_j; \)
12. if \( p_{sum} > p_{new} \) then
13. \( x = 0, E = \emptyset; \)
14. return \( x, E; \)
15. \( c_{sum} = c_{sum} + c_j; \)
16. if \( c_{sum} > c_{new} \) then
17. \( x = 1, E = \{i_1, i_2, ..., i_j\}; \)
18. return \( x, E; \)

When a cache-enabled router receives an interest packet, it first searches its local cache index table. If cache hit occurs, it sends the content to the user from its local cache. If not, the router then searches its neighbor cache index table, and forwards the interest packet to the neighbor if there is a cache hit at that neighbor. If the content is not found in the router’s local cache index table nor in the neighbor cache index table, then the router will forward the interest packet to its upstream nodes. When a cache-enabled router receives a new content and replaces the old contents in its cache memory, it informs its neighbors about the evicted content. Then, a neighboring router can help cache the evicted data if it has sufficient cache memory.

There are two main considerations in NCC strategy. First of all, when responding to a user’s request, a router treats its neighboring routers as an integrated one to search for the content. Therefore, the caching decision is affected by its neighbors’ caching situation. Second, when a router is sending the evicted content to a neighbor, it also needs to find out which neighbor is the best choice. As shown in Fig. 4, the upgraded network is a hybrid one, which includes both the traditional routers and cache-enabled ones. The cache-enabled routers may not be physically connected directly, and there can be some traditional routers located in between two cache-enabled routers.

NCC takes the different caching situations and the distance of neighbors into account to develop a modified LR strategy and a cooperative neighbor selection strategy to enhance the performance.

B. Modified Local Replacement Strategy

When a router gets a content and needs to decide whether it should be cached, the cache value is different from that of Section IV, because the router can get content not only from its cache, but also from its neighbors. Therefore, we remodel the cache value in NCC strategy while taking the neighbor popularity and distance into consideration.

As discussed in Section IV, the local cache value of content \( i \) is \( v_i = req_i \cdot (\gamma L_i + \theta) \). However, a local router and its neighbor routers are considered to provide content for users at the same time in NCC strategy. In this situation, the neighbor requests should be considered in a local router. Meanwhile, neighbor distances in a hybrid network are different among different routers, which can also impact the cache value and need to be considered. Here we introduce a new concept \( d_j \), which denotes the distance between the router and its neighbor \( j \). Then, to modify the local cache value, we introduce two new concepts, repetitive cache value \( v_{ij}^r \) and collaborative cache value \( v_{ij}^c \):

\[
v_{ij}^r = req_i \cdot (\gamma d_j + \theta),
\]
\[
v_{ij}^c = req_i \cdot (\gamma (L^j_i - d_j) + \theta),
\]

where \( L^j_i \) is the saved distance of content \( i \) cached in router \( j \), a cache-enabled neighbor, and \( req_i^j \) is the number of requests for content \( i \) cached in router \( j \). \( L^j_i \) and \( req_i^j \) can be obtained when the router’s neighbor requests content from it. If content \( i \) has already cached in router \( j \), \( v_{ij}^c \) denotes the repetitive cache value of content \( i \) in the local cache-enabled router. It means that if a local router needs to obtain content \( i \) and its neighbor \( j \) has already cached content \( i \), the local router can access content \( i \) from its neighbor, router \( j \), and change saved distance from \( L_i \) to \( d_j \). If a local router helps neighbor \( j \) cache content \( i \), \( v_{ij}^c \) is the collaborative cache value of content \( i \). The local router helps its neighbor \( j \) change the saved distance form \( L_i \) to \( d_j \), that is to say the saved distance is reduced by \( (L^j_i - d_j) \).

With NCC strategy, a router can get a content from its neighbors and also help its neighbors to get the content. Therefore, the cache value of content \( i \) is modified as:

\[
w_i = \min \left\{ v_i, \min_{j \in A} v_{ij}^c \right\} + \sum_{j \in B} v_{ij}^r,
\]
where \( w_i \) is the revised cache value of content \( i \) in the local router. \( A \) is the set of neighbors that have cached content \( i \), and \( B \) is the set of neighbors that need to get content \( i \) from the router. If a router’s neighbor has cached the content, the content value decreases. Otherwise, if a router’s neighbor needs to get the content from it, the content value increases.

The modified objective of local replacement problem is:

\[
\max \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i x_i + w_{new} x_{new}
\]

s.t. \((13a), (13b)\)

where \( w_1, \ldots, w_n \) and \( w_{new} \) are the modified cache value of cached contents and the new coming content.

To ensure linear processing speed within the router, modified LR strategy uses the same classical greedy algorithm as Algorithm 2 to cope with the 0-1 Knapsack problem by changing the set of the cached values \( v = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n\} \) to \( w = \{w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_n\} \).

C. Cooperative Caching and Neighbor Selection

When a local router has no available space to cache the content and has to evict some contents from its own cache, it can send the evicted content to its neighbor for cooperative caching. To reduce cache redundancy between neighbors and ensure maximum benefit, it only selects one neighbor to send the evicted content.

For simplicity of description, we illustrate the situation that content \( i_0 \) needs cooperative caching. For the situation with more than one content, we implement the same process for each piece of content in the descending order of cache values.

Let \( w_i^j \) denote the modified cache value of content \( i \) on neighbor \( j \) and \( x_i^j \in \{0, 1\} \) denote the indicator of neighbor \( j \). Then, the objective of cooperative cache replacement is formulated as:

\[
\max \sum_{j \in N} \left( w_{i_0}^j x_{i_0}^j + \sum_{i \in I_j} w_i^j x_i^j \right)
\]

s.t. \( c_{i_0} x_{i_0}^j + \sum_{i \in I_j} c_i x_i^j \leq C_j, \forall j \in N \),

\[
\sum_{j \in N} x_i^j \leq 1
\]

where \( N \) is the set of neighboring routers, \( I_j \) is the set of contents cached in neighbor \( j \), \( C_j \) is the cache space of neighbor \( j \). Consider that a router needs linear-speed performance, we use a greedy algorithm to solve this problem. The neighbor selection algorithm is shown in Algorithm 3, where \( j_0 = \text{none} \) means none of the neighbors is selected for cooperative caching. The computational complexity of Algorithm 3 is \( O(NM) \) with a \((1/2)\) approximate solution, where \( M \) is the number of neighbors. Especially, for a cache system whose contents have the same size, Algorithm 3 provides the best solution, and the time complexity of Algorithm 3 is \( O(M) \).

When a router sends a content to the selected neighbor, the neighbor updates the content value and executes the cache replacement strategy. In addition, data caching in the neighbor may cause a chain reaction of data movement. If a large amount of data are unused or moved frequently, the performance will be degraded significantly. To avoid the chain reaction of data movement, for an evicted content, the neighbor does not perform the cooperative caching operation.

VI. PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

In this section, we evaluate the performance of SRU, LR, and NCC. We use the BRITE topology generation tool to generate the test topology [40]. Based on Waxman’s probability model [41], the topology consists of 1,000 routers with 0-10 end hosts per router and 1,000 object items. There are 2 CPs in the network and the contents are set to be evenly provided by the CPs, which means \( p_r = 1/m = 1/2 \) in the simulation. It should be noted that if the contents are not evenly provided by the CPs, the proposed algorithms can easily adapt to the new scenario by changing the setting of weight \( p_r \). The data access pattern used in the simulation is Zipf distribution [42], and the arrival process of requests for objects at each access router follows a Poisson process.

A. Performance of SRU

We compare the performance of SRU algorithm with random algorithm and max user algorithm, which randomly chooses routers and greedily chooses the router with the max access users, respectively. The cache-enabled router uses the basic caching algorithm Last Recently Used (LRU).

We first investigate the performance of different router upgrading schemes. The cache size of each cache-enabled router is set to 1% of the size of all contents. Zipf parameter \( \alpha \) is setting to 1.0. We consider the case that a traditional network is progressively upgraded until all routers have been upgraded to cache-enabled ones. The process is divided into 8 upgrades, and each time it is allocated with the same budget, which is 1/8 of the
Fig. 5. Comparison of different router upgrading algorithms in different performance metrics at different upgrades.

Fig. 6. Comparison of different router upgrading algorithms w.r.t. different Zipf parameters.

budget to upgrade all of the routers. The average access delay and cache hit ratio, of different router upgrading mechanisms are respectively shown in Fig. 5.

The access delay of random upgrade almost goes down linearly, while the access delay of SRU and max user goes down faster at first and the rate of descent gradually slows down. The access delay of SRU and the max user is always smaller than the random method, and the gap between them is widening over time, which indicates that they provide better performance to users. The hit ratio of random upgrading also goes up linearly, while the hit ratios of SRU and max user go up faster at first, and then the rates of rising gradually slow down. Also, the hit ratio of SRU is always the highest among the three upgrading schemes.

We then investigate the performance gained from the three router upgrading schemes with respect to the variation of Zipf parameter $\alpha$ changing from 0.6 to 2. The upgrading budget is set to $1/5$ of the price to upgrade all the routers and only upgrade the network for one time. The cache size of each cache-enabled router is set to $0.01$ of the size of all contents. Fig. 6 shows the average access delay and cache hit ratio with different Zipf parameters. A higher Zipf parameter $\alpha$ represents a more concentrated distribution of content requests. It means that users tend to request some special contents while ignoring others. Therefore, a small cache space could provide a high hit ratio for the network. From Fig. 6(a) and Fig. 6(b), we can see that SRU provides higher performance in terms of average delay and cache hit ratio, respectively. With the increase of the Zipf parameter, the gap between SRU and the max user algorithm is also increasing. Because the max user algorithm ignores the impact of upgraded routers. If the upgraded routers are located on the same route, the requests are more likely to be served by a downstream router with a large Zipf parameter. SRU considers the impact of the upgraded routers, users, and distances, and thus provides higher performance.

We also investigate the performance gained by the three router upgrading schemes with respect to the variation of the router’s cache size changing from 0.01 to 0.1 of the size of all the contents. Zipf parameter $\alpha$ is setting to 1.0. The upgrading budget is set to $1/5$ of the price to upgrade all the routers and only upgrade the network for one time. A larger cache space enables the router to cache more contents and thus provide a higher hit ratio. From Fig. 7(a) and Fig. 7(b), we can see that SRU provides a higher performance in terms of average delay and cache hit ratio. With the increase of cache space, the gap between SRU and the max user algorithm is also increasing, which is because of the same reason as that in the case of a large Zipf parameter, i.e. the max user algorithm ignores the impact of upgraded routers.

B. Performance of LR and NCC

In order to show the benefits of the LR and NCC strategies, we primarily focus on three key aspects:

- **High hit ratio:** By evicting the least popular content and increasing the availability of popular content in the cooperative neighbors, LR and NCC improve the hit ratio.
- **Low delay:** LR with local caching reduces the need for fetching content from distant servers. Cooperative caching, as employed by NCC, brings cached content closer to the end users, reducing network latency.
- **Reduced cache redundancy:** NCC facilitates content sharing and distribution among neighboring nodes, minimizing the duplication of cached content and promoting efficient cache utilization.

To evaluate the performance, we compare LR and NCC to the default LRU, LRU sample, T-caching schemes. In the simulation, we use “traditional” to denote a baseline of the traditional IP network, where there all the routers do not support the caching function.

---

1In reality, there is no need to repeatedly run our SRU algorithm until all of the routers in the network are upgraded to the cache-enabled ones. Depending on the budget, we could run SRU algorithm only once to upgrade only a subset of the traditional routers to gain the maximum benefit under the fixed budget.
We first investigate the performance of different caching schemes performed at different number of upgrades. The algorithms are repeated for 8 times, i.e. one time per router upgrading process, and for each time the used budget equals to 1/8 of the price needed for upgrading all the routers. All the routers are upgraded at the end of the upgrade process. Zipf parameter $\alpha$ is setting to 1.0. The cache size of each cache-enabled router is set to 0.01 of the size of all contents. Fig. 8(a) and Fig. 8(b), respectively, show the average delay and cache hit ratio of LRU, LRU sample, T-caching, LR, and NCC at different times, where the sample ratio of LRU sample is 0.1. With the increase number of upgrades, the cache hit ratios of all the schemes are improved. Because there are more cache-enabled routers to provide in-network caching with more times of upgrading and the users can access content in the network more easily. Among different caching strategies, LRU provides the lowest hit ratio and the highest delay. LRU sample improves the hit ratio and delay by probabilistic caching and reducing redundancy. T-caching further improves the performance by the collaboration between content providers and routers. Compared with them, LR provides the similar performance to T-caching, and NCC provides more improvement based on LR and thus maintains the best performance. Because NCC has an increasing effect on eliminating redundancy among neighbors and requesting data from neighbors, it thus provides higher performance gain. Moreover, with more times of upgrading, the performance gain of NCC rendered to LR also increases. As the network continues to upgrade the routers, the content routers in the network become denser and denser and the distances between neighbor content routers become shorter and shorter. Therefore, getting content from one’s neighbor will bring more benefit.

Fig. 8(c) shows the proportion of local hit and neighbor hit of NCC, where “NCC local hit” denotes the ratio of directly cache hits at cache-enabled routers, which means the cache hits are not requested by neighbor requests. “NCC neighbor hit” means the ratio of cache hits by the neighbor requests. We use $r_{local-hit}$ to denote “NCC local hit” and $r_{neighbor-hit}$ to denote “NCC neighbor hit”, and they can be calculated as follows:

$$r_{local-hit} = \frac{n_{local-hit}}{n_{all-hit}},$$

$$r_{neighbor-hit} = \frac{n_{neighbor-hit}}{n_{all-hit}},$$

(18)

where $n_{all-hit}$ denotes the number of all cache hits in the network, $n_{local-hit}$ denotes cache hits directly by original requests on local routers, and $n_{neighbor-hit}$ denotes cache hits by neighbor requests, $n_{local-hit} + n_{neighbor-hit} = n_{all-hit}$. Since NCC allows cache-enabled routers to get contents from their neighbors, it indirectly expands the capacity of routers. As shown in Fig. 8(c), more than 50% of cache hits are at neighbor routers. With the increase of cache-enabled routers in the network, the proportion of neighbor hit is also increasing, which means NCC is more likely to make cooperation in a highly upgraded network.

We then investigate the performance of different cache schemes with the variation of cache sizes. The upgrade budget is set to 1/5 of the price needed for upgrading all routers and is only for one-time upgrading. The cache size of each router is changing from 0.01 to 0.1 of the size of all contents. Zipf parameter $\alpha$ is setting to 1.0. Fig. 9(a) and Fig. 9(b) show the average delay and cache hit ratio, respectively, of LRU, LRU sample, T-caching, LR, and NCC w.r.t. the increase of cache space, where the sample ratio of LRU sample is 0.1. The cache hit ratios of all the cache schemes show a growth trend, and NCC always has the highest cache hit ratio and provides the lowest delay.

Fig. 9(c) shows the proportion of local hit and neighbor hit of NCC. With the increase of cache size of cache-enabled routers, the proportion of neighbor hit is decreasing. Because a larger cache space means that a router can cache more contents and respond to users’ requests by itself. If a router could cache all the contents in its cache space, it will not need cooperation from its neighbors. Even so, NCC still provides higher performance when the cache space is less than 0.1 of the size of all contents.

We also show the performance of different cache schemes with the variation of the number of requests. In this scenario, all the routers in the network are upgraded. The cache size of each cache-enabled router is set to 0.01 of the size of all contents. Zipf parameter $\alpha$ is setting to 1.0. Fig. 10 shows the average delay and cache hit ratio of LRU, LRU sample, T-caching, LR, and NCC, respectively. Among them, LRU only uses the information of the last request of contents, it soon gets the stationary value and only provides the lowest performance. On the contrary, others need more time to get the stationary value, because they consider more about the previous information of content.
Fig. 9. Comparison of different caching schemes with different cache sizes.

Fig. 10. Comparison of different caching schemes with different request numbers.

Fig. 11. Distribution of copies and hit ratio of contents.

VII. Conclusions

In this paper, we presented a systematic solution for upgrading and caching in traditional IP networks, paving the way for improved content delivery and user experience in modern network architectures. In the process of router upgrading, depending on the budget and by an effective means, SRU carefully selects and upgrades a subset of routers while considering budget constraints and the impact on subsequent upgrades. We proved the NP-hardness of SRU and then gave a \((1 - 1/e)\)-approximation upgrading algorithm. Based on SRU, LR and NCC are proposed for local caching and cooperative neighbor caching. LR optimizes cache hit ratio and content access delay locally, while NCC reduces cache redundancy and improves caching performance through neighbor cooperation. These strategies enhance overall network performance, offering higher hit ratios, lower latency, and reduced cache redundancy.

Appendix A. Proof of Theorem 1

Proof: For SRU problem, the objective can be written as

\[
\max_{S \subseteq F} f(S) : \sum_{j \in S} P_j \leq B,
\]

where \(f(S) = \sum_{j \in (S \cup D)} V_j(X)\), \(f(S)\) can be divided into

\[
f(S) = \sum_{j \in (S \cup D)} p_j \left( \gamma f_1(S) + \theta f_2(S) \right), \quad p_j > 0, \gamma > 0, \theta > 0,
\]

and

\[
f_1(S) = \sum_{j \in (S \cup D)} l_j u_j^{sum}(X), \quad f_2(S) = \sum_{j \in (S \cup D)} u_j^{sum}(X).
\]
Let $m_{\text{sum}}^y(X) = u_k(1 - \rho) \sum_{j \in R,kr} X_{ij}$, we have $u_{\text{sum}}^y(X) = \sum_{k \in U, r} m_{\text{sum}}^y(X)$.

When $y \in F \setminus S$, let $X^y = \{X^y\}$ denote the upgrade indicators of $(S \cup y)$. Let $\Theta = \mathbb{R}_{\geq} \setminus (S \cup D)$ denote the set of upgraded routers along the route between $R_y$ and $C_P$. We first show the proof of the submodular property of $f_1^y(S)$. The $j \in (S \cup D \cup y)$ can be divided into three cases:

1) For $j \in (S \cup D \setminus \Theta$, adding the new cache-enabled router $j$ does not change the value of $R_j$. Then, we have $u_{\text{sum}}^y(X^y) = u_{\text{sum}}^y(X^y)$ and $Y_j(X^y) = Y_j(X^y)$.

2) For $j \in \Theta$, adding the new cache-enabled router $j$ makes the value of $R_j$ decrease. We have $m_{\text{sum}}^y(X^y) = u_k(1 - \rho) \sum_{j \in R,kr} X_{ij}$.

3) For $y$, we have $X^y_j = X^y_j$, $\forall j' \neq y$, therefore $a^y_{y^i}(X^y) = a^y_{y^i}(X^y)$.

Then, we can calculate the increase value of adding $y$ as a newly chosen router above $S$:

$f_1^y(S \cup y) - f_1^y(S) = a^y_{y^i}(X^y) - \sum_{j \in \Theta} (a^y_{y^i}(X^y) - a^y_{y^i}(X^y))$

$= u_{\text{sum}}^y(X^y) \left( l_y - \sum_{j \in \Theta} l_{y^i} \cdot \rho (1 - \rho)^{j \in R,kr \setminus R_kr, X_{ij}} \right)$,

where $0 \leq \rho \leq 1$, and $l_{y^i} < l_y$ if $j \in \Theta$. Therefore, $f(S \cup y) - f(S) \geq u_{\text{sum}}^y(X^y)l_y(1 - \rho)^{\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (1 - \rho)^i}$. Then we have $f(S \cup y) - f(S) \geq 0$.

Let $z \in F \setminus (S \cup y)$. When adding $y$ to $S \cup z$, we have

$f_1^y(S \cup z \cup y) - f_1^y(S \cup z) = u_{\text{sum}}^y(X^y) \left( l_y - \sum_{j \in \Theta} l_y \cdot \rho (1 - \rho)^{j \in R,kr \setminus R_kr, X_{ij}} \right)$,

where $u_{\text{sum}}^y(X^y) \leq u_{\text{sum}}^y(X^y)$, and $\sum_{j \in R,kr \setminus R_kr, X_{ij}} X_{ij} \geq \sum_{j \in R,kr \setminus R_kr, X_{ij}} X_{ij}$. Therefore, we have $f_1^y(S \cup z \cup y) - f_1^y(S \cup z) \geq f_1^y(S \cup z \cup y) - f_1^y(S \cup z)$. Then $f_1^y(S)$ is a nondecreasing submodular function.

And once again, we can prove that $f_2^y(S)$ is a nondecreasing submodular function. Since $f(S) = \sum_{x \in X} p_x (\gamma f_1^y(S) + \theta f_2^y(S)), f(S)$ is a nondecreasing submodular function.

As proof in [38], maximizing the submodular set functions is NP-hard. Therefore, SRU problem is NP-hard.


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