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Mobile Edge Computing



Software-Defined Multi-domain Tactical Networks: Foundations and Future Directions

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Abstract Software Defined Networking (SDN) has emerged as a programmable 7 approach for provisioning and managing network resources by defining a clear 8 separation between the control and data forwarding planes. Nowadays SDN has 9 gained significant attention in the military domain. Its use in the battlefield 10 communication facilitates the end-to-end interactions and assists the exploitation of 11 edge computing resources for processing data in the proximity. However, there are 12 still various challenges related to the security and interoperability among several 13 heterogeneous, dynamic, intermittent, and data packet technologies like multi-14 bearer network (MBN) that need to be addressed to leverage the benefits of SDN 15 in tactical environments. In this chapter, we explicitly analyse these challenges 16 and review the current research initiatives in SDN-enabled tactical networks. We 17 also present a taxonomy on SDN-based tactical network orchestration according 18 to the identified challenges and map the existing works to the taxonomy aiming at 19 determining the research gaps and suggesting future directions.

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1 Introduction 23

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Networking and communication technologies, especially for competitive and 24 resource constrained environments like battlefields, are continuously evolving [1]. 25 Similarly, the sensitivity to latency varies significantly between different military 26 applications. For example, the data packet delivery deadline for an application 27 assisting unmanned aerial vehicle (UAV) navigation is quite stringent compared to 28 that of a slow speed on-ground military vehicle. On the other hand, the lifetime and 29 the amount of data handled by a sense-process-actuate cycle-based application is 30 quite shorter than an application broadcasting wartime video stream [2]. Moreover, 31 military applications require a variety of networking support such as narrowband, 32 broadband, and mobile services to operate. For example, the applications serving 33 tactical wallet Radio Frequency Identification (RFID) and military vehicle Remote 34 Keyless Entry (RKE) harness narrowband services to meet their instantaneous 35 demands. Conversely, the application sharing satellite images need broadband 36 services for higher transmission capacity. If the underlying network is unable to 37 satisfy such diverse requirements of a military application, its QoS (e.g., throughput, 38 response time, and packet loss rate) is expected to degrade and the consequences 39 of QoS degradation for any military application can be devastating during military 40 operations [3]. Therefore, the satisfaction of QoS for military applications is crucial 41 in tactical environments. It also urges the network infrastructure to be adaptive so 42 that any change in the application's QoS requirements can be handled [4].

Existing data packet technologies, for example multi-bearer network (MBN)can 44 address these requirements to some extent [5]. MBN possesses the capability of 45 carrying data packets via alternative bearer channels as per their QoS requirements. 46 It is complemented by Differentiated Services (DiffServ) that classifies and manages 47 different types of IP traffic (e.g. voice, video, text) flowing over a given network 48 (Fig. 1). Nevertheless, communication among multiple nodes within and beyond 49 the battlefields are no longer simply point-to-point. It can be point-to-multipoint 50 and multipoint-to-multipoint as well. In such cases, the realization of MBN incurs 51 additional operational expenses. Moreover, the lack of fair distribution of network 52 resources among the bearer channels can result in severe resource underutilization 53 which is unacceptable for both network operators and military application users 54 [6]. Additionally, the sole advancement of the underlying network is not sufficient 55 to ensure robustness within the multi-domain military operations. It also requires 56 systematic and unified coordination with the computing systems such as fog, mobile 57 edge and cloud infrastructure [7]. Therefore, to address these issues and limitations, 58 it is preferable to extend the concept of SDN in tactical networks. Figure 2 depicts 59 a prospective structure of SDN in military communications.

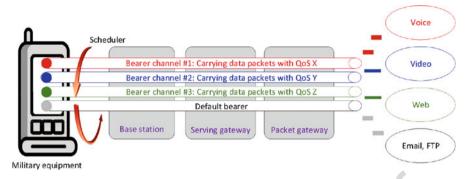


Fig. 1 Multi-bearer network with differentiated services

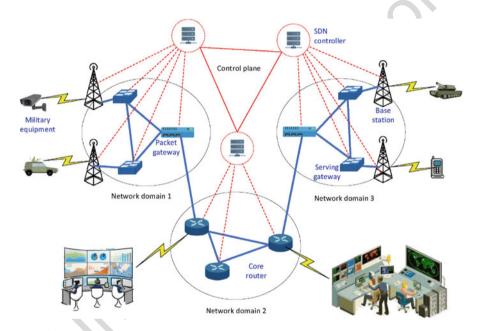


Fig. 2 A prospective SDN-enabled multi bearer network

SDN promotes dynamic provisioning and reconfiguration of network resources 61 by separating the control plane from the data plane [8]. The control plane consists 62 of a logically centralized entity called the SDN controller, which has a global 63 view of the network and makes decisions about how the data packets should flow 64 through the network. Conversely, the data plane consists of network nodes such 65 as routers/switches that actually move packets from one place to another. SDN 66 facilitates virtualization on top of the physical network so that users can implement 67 end-to-end overlays and segment the network traffic. Such logical partitioning also 68

assists the service providers and network operators to provision a separate virtual 69 network with specific policies which consequently complements the objective of 70 MBN and edge computation. 71

1.1 Research Questions and Challenges

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In the context of battlefields and tactical applications, the integration of SDN 73 and MBN is subjected to various heterogeneous, intermittent, and ad-hoc commu- 74 nications with diverse traffic patterns and security requirements. These inherent 75 constraints trigger the following research questions that should be addressed to 76 exploit the combined benefits of SDN and MBN.

1. How can SDN-based solutions be extended to MBN, including wireless networks?

Most of the existing SDN-based solutions are applicable to wired networks 80 [9]. On the other hand, SDN operations in wireless networks is complicated 81 due to the presence of a large number of unsettled access points. There is also 82 a high possibility of data packet collisions sent by the mutually out-of-range 83 access points. Moreover, the dependency on centralized network controllers 84 is not feasible for latency-sensitive military applications and can expose the 85 whole system to single point of failure problem.

2. How can SDN be employed for securely and dynamically managing traffic of 87 multiple security classifications, to handle traffic of different sensitivities and 88 access policies, in an environment that includes legacy applications? 89

There are 5 types of classified information including official, protected, secret 90 and top secret that can be transferred during any military communications 91 [10]. However, the security class of information can change dynamically 92 according to the context of the physical environment. For example, the 93 mobilization plan of a fleet can turn from protected to top secret during 94 wartimes. To handle the traffic of such classified information with compatible 95 security features and access flexibility, a consistent inspection of the data 96 packets and environmental context is required. Nevertheless, this approach 97 can expose sensitive traffic data to various untrusted SDN controllers. On the 98 other hand, there exist numerous legacy military applications that still follow the traditional monolithic architecture and provide limited scope to implement 100 SDN-based approaches and resist the secured traffic management and packet 101 inspection.

3. How can time-sensitive traffic be managed by a multi-bearer SDN, particularly 103 when the on-demand time-sensitive channels are required?

Sensitivity to latency varies between military applications. In such cases, the 105 proactive quantification of QoS requirements and their efficient allocation to 106

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the network resources without allowing over and under provisioning are very important [11]. However, due to less reaction time and variations of resource demands, such SDN-assisted support is difficult to ensure in the battlefields.

4. How might distributed applications be enhanced with network awareness and 110 control, potentially through coupling to SDN, to make warfighting functions more 111 resilient to degraded network conditions or resource limitations?

Unlike single-process applications, the components of distributed applications 113 run on multiple hosts simultaneously and process a given task in a collabora- 114 tive manner [12]. This consequently helps in attaining scalability and fault 115 tolerance. However, the physical distribution of the components makes the 116 use of networking resources essential in enabling communication and coordination between components. This communication overhead can greatly hinder 118 real-time, latency-sensitive interactions [13]. The ability to have fine-grained 119 control that facilitates the dynamic reconfiguration of network resources to 120 suit distributed applications' needs can greatly improve their resilience and 121 performance. The distributed management of applications is also complex as 122 it requires a fine-grained control over the execution of application components 123 deployed in heterogeneous computing and networking domains [14].

5. What middleware technologies are suitable for the interoperability of services 125 (distributed application software) in this environment, and why?

SDN middleware encapsulates third-party services including databases and 127 application programming interfaces (APIs) that help bridging multiple SDN- 128 enabled systems by going beyond their communication and architectural 129 heterogeneity. Middleware also assists the control plane in interacting with the 130 data plane to perceive the traffic and topology information in a compatible format [15]. However, in the battlefield context, the attainment of interoperability through middleware is complicated because of the involvement a large number 133 of entities seeking consistent protocol translation and resource discovery 134 support from the middleware. They also increase the management overhead 135 of middleware. Therefore, it is important to select appropriate interoperable 136 technology based on the application requirements and underlying protocols 137 so that the responsiveness and performance of the middleware do not degrade. 138

In literature, there exists a notable number of works that focus on addressing these challenges through efficient SDN orchestration. This paper aims at categorizing and reviewing them in a systematic manner. It also exploits the detailed scope for further research in this direction by exploiting the current research gaps. The 142 major contributions of this paper are listed below.

- Proposes a system model and a taxonomy for SDN orchestration, especially from 144 the perspective of tactical networks.
- Reviews the existing literature on SDN-enabled tactical networks and identifies 146 their pros and cons.

Investigates the current research gaps in augmenting SDN with tactical networks 148 and offers future directions for further improvement in this domain.

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The rest of the paper is organized as follows: Sect. 2 highlights the proposed 150 taxonomy. The literature review is presented in Sects. 3 to 7. Section 8 discusses 151 the research gaps and future directions. Finally, Sect. 9 concludes the paper. 152

System Model and Taxonomy

To simplify the synthesis of different military devices, tactical network and applications, we propose a layered SDN framework as depicted in Fig. 3. The framework 155 is composed of four planes: application, control, forwarding, and orchestration. 156 Applications with varying OoS and security requirements lie in the application 157 plane. These can be SDN-aware applications communicating directly with an SDN 158

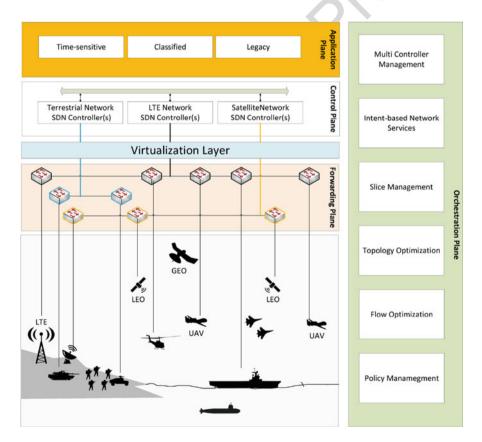


Fig. 3 SDN layers for MBN-based military applications

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controller, or legacy applications simply sending data through the network. The 159 control plane is composed of multiple, specialized SDN controllers that have the 160 ability to communicate, either in a peer-to-peer fashion or through an orchestrating 161 controller with a global, multi-network view. The forwarding plane consists of 162 networking nodes that have the ability of forwarding packets based on the routing 163 policies implemented by the SDN controllers. Finally, the orchestration plane spans 164 across all layers and is responsible for monitoring and aggregating data to be used 165 in a meaningful way to support efficient network orchestration in terms of controller 166 management, service resiliency, interoperability, and policy enforcement.

According to the proposed system model, the policy-driven management of 168 orchestration plane is very essential to enhance the competency of SDN-enabled 169 tactical networks in supporting diverse physical and logical networking components 170 and military applications. In existing literature, accrediting this necessity various 171 SDN orchestration policies has been developed. Figure 4 depicts a taxonomy on 172 different aspects of SDN orchestration, especially from the perspective of tactical 173 network. In the following Sects. 3–7, the detailed description of the taxonomy and 174 its mapping to the existing literature are provided.

Multi-controller Management

The implementation of SDN with single controller is unsuitable to deal with 177 the increasing rate of traffic transmission in the battlefields. Moreover, in the 178 tactical context, two military devices such as a submarine and a drone interacting 179 with each other may not be located at the same network domain. In such cases, 180 the implementation of SDN with multiple controllers can play a vital role. The 181 coexistence and collaboration of multi-controllers solve the problems encountered 182 by a single controller and help in cross-domain interactions. However, the operations 183 of multiple SDN controllers in military oriented MBN is subjected to consistency and load balancing-related issues. Three types of controller management approaches 185 (as shown in Fig. 5) are widely used to deal with these issues in SDN.

3.1 **Bootstrapping**

In bootstrapping, a rendezvous node deploys multiple SDN controllers between the 188 application and the data plane. The bootstrapping node notifies the network configuration information to the controllers, sets their initial topology, and determines 190 the coordination mechanism. To build the topology model for the SDN controllers, 191 the bootstrapping node transmits Link Layer Discovery Protocol (LLDP) packets 192 to various networking nodes including switches and gateways, and substrates the 193 network based on their responses. The bootstrapping node also installs default 194 flow-rules for the data plane so that the network can remain functional even after 195

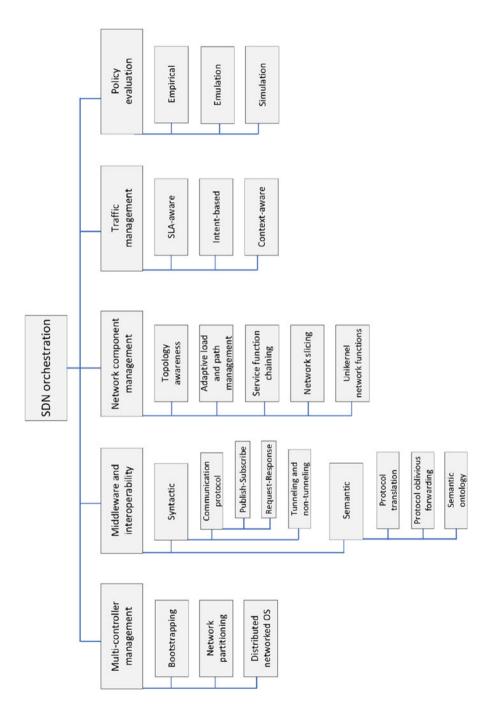


Fig. 4 A taxonomy on SDN orchestration

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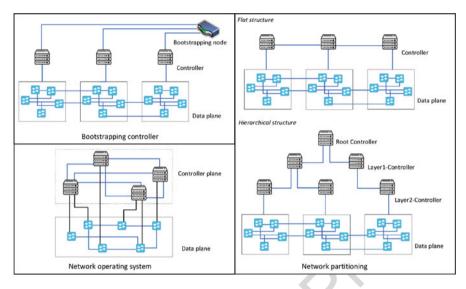


Fig. 5 Different controller management approaches

the failure of the controllers. Moreover, it is capable of increasing or decreasing the number of controllers dynamically according to the requirements of SDN operations.

To simplify the initialization phase of the SDN network, a bootstrapping 199 approach named InitSDN is proposed in [16]. InitSDN helps in modularizing the 200 network applications and facilitates controller migration by only updating their 201 topology. In [17], another bootstrapping approach is proposed that assists tactical 202 networks to transmit the control commands and the data traffic using the same 203 underlay network. It enables a data plane node to (i) identify and register with any of 204 the available SDN controllers, (ii) parse the corresponding data flow rules through 205 intermediate switches, (iii) initiate a secure control channel with the controller, and 206 (iv) interact with the topology database.

Bootstrapping is supportive for dynamic network extension and legacy routing, 208 and can effectively handle uncertain failures within the control and data plane 209 [18]. A bootstrapping networking device can also serve the purpose of a edge 210 computing node. However, for bootstrapping, the controllers and data plane nodes 211 are required to be explicitly accessible, which is not recommended for military 212 use cases. Moreover, bootstrapping a wireless SDN is a challenging task as the 213 controllers and data plane nodes only share local connectivity information and resist 214 the attainment of global bootstrapping convergence instantly.

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3.2 Network Partitioning

In network partitioning, the data plane is divided into multiple domains, and for 217 each domain a local SDN controller is assigned. The interactions between the 218 controllers are made through either a hierarchical or a flat structure. In a hierarchical 219 structure, a group of controllers residing at the upper layer explicitly manage 220 the controllers in the immediate underneath layer. The number of these logical 221 layers is set by the network operator based on the network topology size, the 222 traffic load, and the network resource availability. Moreover, in this setup, the 223 controllers in the same layer do not communicate with each other directly. Their 224 internal communication happens via the upper layer controllers. Conversely, in the 225 flat structure, the controllers of various data plane domains spontaneously interact 226 with each other using east and west bound APIs to maintain a global view of the 227 underlying network. Among the celebrated SDN controllers, ONIX, HyperFlow and 228 OpenDayLight use the flat structure whereas, Kandoo, Orion and D-SDN follow the 229 hierarchical structure [19].

Nevertheless, network partitioning becomes vigorous when the traffic load is 231 evenly distributed among the controller. By exploiting the k-means clustering 232 algorithm and the cooperative game theory, a load management policy for multi- 233 controllers is proposed in [20]. The policy enables a data plane node to form 234 coalitions with other nodes and balance the topology size for each controller in 235 partitioned SDN. Internet 2 OS3E and Internet Topology Zoo is used to evaluate the 236 performance of the policy. On the other hand, in [21], a Louvain heuristic algorithm 237 is developed to limit the number of data plane nodes managed by a controller so that 238 the controllers do not get overloaded.

Network partitioning is supportive to wireless networking because of its localized 240 characteristics and inherently complements the realization of edge computing. How- 241 ever, the interaction of two controllers in partitioned networks is time consuming as 242 it requires the assistance of multiple intermediate controllers. The impact of such 243 delays in tactical scenarios is evaluated in [22]. Moreover, in partitioned networks, a 244 significant amount of resources is consumed only to synchronize controllers, which 245 is not suitable for resource constrained environments like battlefields.

Networked Operating System (NOS)

In this approach, a physically distributed but logically centralized network operating 248 system runs across multiple controllers. The network applications within the 249 operating system support the controllers to handle the traffic flow and maintain a 250 global view of the network [23]. Additionally, these applications can enable any 251 data plane node to connect with different controllers but allow only one controller 252 to manage that node at a time. If the controller fails, another controller is set as the 253 node manager based on a consensus-based leader selection algorithm. Moreover, 254

the operating system supports the dynamic updates of the applications without 255 interrupting the traffic flow. SDN frameworks including Open Network Operating 256 System (ONOS), Switch Light, Open Network Linux (ONL), DENT and Coriant 257 predominantly follow the concepts of a networked operating system in their control 258 plane implementation [24].

Apart from the benchmarks, there exist several customized implementation of 260 network operating system for SDN controllers. For example, in [25], a network 261 operating system named MNOS is developed that augments the cyberspace to mimic 262 defence technique and protects the controllers from data alteration. It also creates the 263 functional equivalent variants of the controllers using dissimilar redundancy design 264 principles to overcome their device-level heterogeneity. In [26], another network 265 operating system named NOSArmor is proposed that augments security blocks to 266 the controllers. The blocks are responsible for role-based authorization, location 267 tracking, link verification, rule-based negotiation, protocol verification, system call 268 checking and resource management. Moreover, there are some extensions of net- 269 work operating system that either protect the control plane from the compromised 270 controllers by exploiting the packet trajectory information [27] or apply lightweight 271 virtualization techniques such as containers for resource constrained controllers 272 [28].

Network operating systems are modular and fault tolerant. Additionally, the 274 expansion and consolidation of network operating system-based control planes are 275 comparatively easier and less time consuming. However, such control planes are 276 required to be deployed locally for synchronization, which may not be feasible for 277 military use cases requiring cross-network domain communications. They also lack 278 support for channel-level management of MBN [5].

Middleware and Interoperability

To ensure efficient tactical interactions, SDN middleware requires to support 281 interoperability between the control and the data plane nodes. The overall inter- 282 operability of any system can be discussed from two perspectives, syntactic 283 and semantic. Table 1 illustrates the differences between syntactic and semantic 284 interoperability. In the literature, there are different techniques that help in enabling 285 syntactic and semantic interoperability in SDN. However, these interoperability 286 techniques have their own pros and cons in dealing with the dynamics of battlefield 287 communications and diverse traffic priorities.

Table 1 Differences between syntactic and semantic interoperability

Facts	Syntactic interoperability	Semantic interoperability	t3.1
Targets	Data exchange	Data interpretation	t3.2
Deals with	Format of data	Contents and attributes of data	t3.3
Enablers	Communication protocol	Information model	t3.4

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4.1 Syntactic 289

Syntactic interoperability is responsible for the synergies of the data packets and 290 their formats transmitted and packaged by the heterogeneous control and data plane 291 nodes. It is also regarded as the prerequisite for attaining semantic interoperability in 292 SDN. Syntactic interoperability explicitly depends on the communication protocols 293 offered by the middleware and the characteristics of the overlays that logically connects the nodes with the middleware. Different communication protocols and 295 overlay mechanisms associated with the syntactic interoperability are discussed 296 below.

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4.1.1 **Communication Protocols**

Most of the existing SDN middleware systems have a message-oriented architecture 299 that allows them to handle uncertain communication delays during interactions 300 with different control and data plane nodes. Additionally, the functionalities of 301 a message-oriented middleware are highly scalable compared to that of a remote 302 procedure call-based middleware [29]. Two types of communication protocols such as Publish-Subscribe (PubSub) and Request-Response (RR) are widely used in 304 message-oriented systems.

- i. Publish-Subscribe: PubSub communication protocols assist the control plane 306 node in publishing the commands to the middleware and enable data plane nodes 307 to get the respective commands from the middleware. The opposite happens 308 when data is transferred from the data plane to the control plane. PubSub 309 protocols support event-driven interactions between the communicating entities. 310 Message Queuing Telemetry Transport (MQTT), Data Distribution Service 311 (DDS) and Advanced Message Queuing Protocol (AMPO) are among the most 312 used PubSub communication protocols.
 - Message Queuing Telemetry Transport (MQTT): MQTT protocol defines a 314 MQTT broker at the middleware and a set of logical clients over the control 315 and data plane to publish and subscribe information. MQTT sorts information 316 in topics and allow nodes to subscribe multiple topics and receive all information published under each topic. For example, in [30], an MQTT enabled 318 SDN framework for UAV swarms is proposed that creates different MQTT 319 information topics for exchanging network conditions, security policies, QoS requirements, electronic state and controller commands.

Usually MQTT depends on TCP for data transmission. There is a variant 322 of MQTT for sensor networks, named MQTT-SN that uses either UDP or 323 Bluetooth for transmitting data. MQTT is also used to create multicast trees 324 between the publishers and the subscribers for minimizing data transfer delay 325 [31]. In another work, MQTT has been exploited in multi layers to offer 326 network interoperability for the controllers deployed in hierarchical structure 327 [32].

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MQTT is considered highly feasible for Internet of Things-driven interactions because of its lightweight structure and minimized data packets [33]. Nevertheless, MOTT often experiences serious traffic congestion problem at 331 the broker side and requires Transport Layer Security (TLS) support. Moreover, MQTT is less resilient to the mobility of subscribing and publishing 333 nodes, and prone to single point failure. These limitations can resist the real 334 timeliness of the system and increase overhead of the middleware [34].

Data Distribution Service (DDS): DDS allows asynchronous data exchange 336 among communicating entities without implementing any logical broker. 337 Unlike MQTT, DDS incorporates a built-in discovery mechanism that assists 338 subscribers in finding the available publishers for interactions. The default 339 transport layer protocol for DDS is UDP, although it can be easily integrated 340 with TCP. The header length of DDS is 16 bytes which is 8 times higher than 341 that of MQTT and possesses 20 more QoS levels for controlling volatility, resource utilization, availability, delivery, reliability, ownership, duplication, 343 and latency tolerance of the data. Therefore, a DDS middleware requires 344 to extract the data-centric information of the packets for their QoS-satisfied 345 distribution to the subscribers [35].

In SDN, the concept of DDS middleware has been widely used to 347 manage the distributed control plane. For example, in [36], a DDS-based 348 hierarchical controller plane structure is modelled that distributes time-critical 349 synchronization and system breakdown information among the controllers 350 by publishing their type in proactive manner to achieve better performance. Another SDN control mechanism is developed in [37] for dynamically configuring network based on the importance of shared data among the 353 digital twins. The mechanism set this data importance in terms of the latency 354 sensitivity attribute of the packets defined by the DDS QoS level. Moreover, 355 in [38], a DDS-based SDN middleware is considered that supports on-demand 356 access to UAV-aided services from authorized entities at the ground. It also 357 facilitates distributed DDS orchestration to enhance interoperation and meet 358 mobility constraints of UAVs.

DDS supports security plugin models and offers vendor level interoper- 360 ability using RTPS (Real Time Publish Subscribe) protocol. Due to built-in 361 QoS maintenance mechanism, DDS also performs better in low latency communication. However, DSS is heavyweight for resource constrained 363 battlefield networking nodes and consumes more bandwidth than MQTT.

Advanced Message Queuing Protocol (AMQP): In AMQP broker, the 365 published messages received by the exchange component are organized in multiple queues based on a set of certain rules called bindings. The published 367 messages contain various meta-data that help the broker to retrieve context 368 and priority of the packets without exploiting the payload directly. Similar to 369 MQTT, AMQP exploits TCP for data transmission and provides three QoS levels namely, i. at most once, ii. exactly once and iii. at least once. However, 371 the header length of AMQP is 8 bytes higher than that of MQTT.

AMQP-based SDN middleware systems are often used to build distributed 373 control plane. In [40], such a middleware has been considered that augments 374 RabbitMO and ActiveMO with AMOP for supporting reliable message 375 communication among the controllers. Similarly, in [41], another AMQP 376 middleware is modelled to exchange information regarding network band- 377 width, network topologies and inter-connected nodes among the distributed 378 controllers.

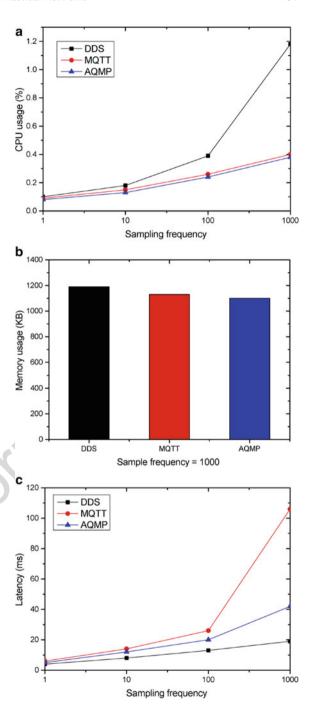
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Nevertheless, AMOP helps in enhancing communication flexibility by 380 providing a scope to dynamically integrate different network standards and 381 protocols. Additionally, the AMQP packet size is negotiable that makes it 382 suitable for transferring large number of payloads. On the contrary, AMQP 383 does not facilitate automatic resource discovery like DDS and lacks explicit 384 support to enable Last-Value-Queues update. AMQP can also create a 385 large backlog of messages when there is a poor availability of network 386 resources and resists real-time battlefield communications by increasing the 387 network delay [42]. Additionally, Fig. 6 illustrates the differences of MQTT, DDS and AMQP from the perspective of CPU, memory and latency-driven 389 performances.

- ii. Request-Response: In RR communication protocols, when a data plane node 391 needs any command from the control plane, it sends a request to the corre- 392 sponding controller through middleware. In response, the controllers transfer necessary instructions to the data plane node. The opposite happens when the 394 control plane seeks state information from the data plane. RR issues both request 395 and response packets in a synchronous manner. In Table 2, a summary comparison between PubSub and RR has been illustrated. Constrained Application 397 Protocol (CoAP) is one of the most celebrated RR protocols that deals with IoT 398 communications in resource constrained networking environments [43].
 - Constrained Application Protocol (CoAP): CoAP relies on both UDP and 400 RESTful protocol that makes it more compatible for resource constrained IoT 401 devices. Moreover, CoAP offers reduced implementation and communication 402 complexities compared to other RR protocols like HTTP. As a means of 403 reliability. CoAP also incorporates an exponential back-off feature-based 404 retransmission mechanism. CoAP supports two different levels of QoS 405 functionalities, namely (1) Confirmable, (2) Non-Confirmable. Its header 406 length is 4 bytes and can be easily augmented with cellular networks.

In the literature, there exist several researches studies where CoAP has 408 been used to model communications among distributed control plane entities. 409 For example, in [44], a control plane structure for software defined wireless 410 network is developed that exploits CoAP for exchanging topology discovery 411 and flow control information among the controllers. In another work [45], 412 CoAP has been used to allow controllers for managing flow tables, modifying 413 node routing characteristics, and obtaining data plane information with 414 respect to link quality, geographical location and energy level. Moreover, 415 in [46], a real-world SDN middleware named Ride has been developed that 416

Fig. 6 Comparison between MQTT, DSS and AMQP [39]. (a) CPU usage. (b) Memory usage. (c) Latency



Facts	PubSub	RR	t6.1
Suitable for	Competitive, unreliable network	Robust, reliable network	t6.2
Traffic load	High	Low	t6.3
Interaction driver	Report-by-exception (RBE)	Polling at regular interval	t6.4
Dynamic scaling	Adaptive	Inflexible	t6.5
Security augmentation	Complicated	Easy	t6.6

Table 2 Comparison between PubSub and RR

exchanges CoAP packets for managing a workflow consisting various tasks 417 including host registration, network configuration, on-demand network state 418 analysis, fault detection and recovery. CoAP offers faster wake up times and 419 extended sleepy states that consequently improves energy consumptions of 420 control and data plane nodes. However, CoAP has limitations in communi-421 cating devices using Network Address Translation (NAT) technique. 422

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4.1.2 Tunneling and Non-tunneling

Tunneling allows private communications to exchange data packets across a public 424 network using encapsulation. By default, it supports encryption and helps in 425 establishing secure and remote connections among the networks. These features 426 make tunneling highly feasible to use in virtual networks. There exist different 427 tunneling protocols such as Virtual Extensible LAN (VXLAN), GPRS Tunneling 428 Protocol (GTP), Network Virtualization using Generic Encapsulation (NVGRE), 429 stateless transport tunneling (STT) and Network Virtualization Overlays 3 (NVO3) 430 that simplifies the realization of virtual networks [47]. Moreover, in SDN, tunneling 431 is often used to manage connection among the data plane nodes, especially during 432 the uncertain mobility of packet destinations [48]. In such cases, tunnels are created 433 dynamically to handover data packets from the previous serving switch to the 434 current serving switch of the destination node. On the other hand, in [49], an 435 SDN-enabled dynamic multipath forwarding technique has been developed that can 436 merge traffics of multiple tunnels at any data plane node based on source-destination 437 address with a view to minimizing the number of flow entries within the system.

Moreover, there exist other initiatives that focus on improving tunneling mechanisms in SDN. For example, in [50] a Match-Action Table (MAT) programming model-based IP tunnel mechanism, named MAT tunnel is developed that allows to set flow table entries with both encapsulation and decapsulation and specifications of the corresponding tunnel. It consequently reduces the overhead formanually configuring the tunnel interface at the data plane. Similarly, in [51], another tunneling mechanism is developed that detects multiple shorter repair paths when a single link failure happens in SDN. This feature helps in faster fault recovery.

However, the packet drop rate in tunneling increases unevenly when mixed 447 traffic (voice and video) are transferred. Forward error correction in this case incurs 448

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additional bandwidth overhead and wastes network capacity. The repackaging 449 feature of tunneling reduces the effective size of data packets and affects the transfer 450 delay. It consequently increases packet fragmentation that consumes additional 451 memory and processing power at the destination node for merging. Because of these 452 limitations, tunneling is often discouraged while transferring large amounts of data 453 to resource constrained destinations. Therefore, non-tunneling communications for 454 virtual networking is gradually getting attention in both research and industry. In 455 [52], a non-tunneling protocol named FlowLAN is developed that adopts Network 456 Prefix Translation technique to augment both the physical and logical addresses 457 of packet destination nodes and tags them in the flow field of the packet header 458 with respect to the corresponding network identifier. It helps realizing the virtual 459 networks as a distributed system that can communicate without encapsulation or 460 decapsulation. To support the movement of cells in LTE network, another non- 461 tunneling approach named MocLis is developed in [53]. MocLis adopts Locator/ID 462 split approach while dealing with the mobility of cells and their nested user equipment. Nevertheless, non-tunneling approaches lack standardization that makes them 464 less compatible to apply in highly heterogeneous communication environments like 465 battlefield.

4.2 Semantic 467

In SDN, a middleware needs to support semantic interoperability to ensure the 468 unambiguous interpretation of command and status information that is exchanged 469 between the controllers and data plane nodes. It simplifies the knowledge dis- 470 covery between these two planes. Semantic interoperability acts as a function 471 of semantic interoperability and fails drastically if the data packets are distorted 472 during transmission from source to destination. There exist different techniques 473 including protocol translation, protocol oblivious forwarding and semantic ontology that enable semantic interoperability in SDN.

4.2.1 Protocol Translation

Protocol translation converts the data, commands and time synchronization information issued by the control plane into the compatible format of the data plane 478 nodes in which they are navigating. It also enables the data plane nodes to interact 479 with controllers despite of the differences in their native protocol stacks. To perform 480 this operation, a Protocol Converter software installed on the middleware removes 481 the protocol headers of the sender completely and wrap the payload with the target 482 protocol header [54]. There are different technical companies like Cisco and Valin 483 corporation that develop software solutions for protocol translation. Figure 7 depicts 484 the internal architecture of a conceptual protocol converter software.

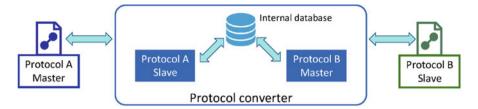


Fig. 7 Architecture of a protocol converter

In [55], the operations of a protocol translating middleware named TableVisor 486 is discussed. TableVisor uses the match-action architecture to match the intents 487 of the exchanged data packets to the existing flow table entries, action space 488 and target header fields. The expressiveness of TableVisor is translating protocols 489 is defined by the intersections of possible command attributes from both source 490 and target protocol. The protocol translation mechanism discussed in [56] shows 491 almost the similar functionalities like Table Visor. However, for [56], the translation 492 rules are defined by the controllers, not by the middleware. Conversely, in [57], 493 the middleware translates the source data and protocol commands into multiple 494 segments as per the primitive network requirements with respect to latency, packet 495 collision and packet delivery rate so that the destination nodes can easily parse the 496 segments with their default protocol stack and set the rank for each requirement.

Although protocol translation helps in alleviating protocol and data format-wise 498 heterogeneity of control and data plane nodes, it limits the scope of simultaneous 499 interactions. It requires an in-depth understanding of the packets that urge to deploy 500 trusted middleware systems across the network. However, such facilities are not 501 often possible to ensure in constrained communication environments like battlefield. 502

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4.2.2 **Protocol Oblivious Forwarding**

Protocol oblivious forwarding makes the format of a packet transparent to the data 504 plane nodes. In this case, the data plane nodes extract and assemble key features 505 from the packet header to conduct flow table lookups based on the controller 506 instructions. It enables data plane to support any new protocols and forwarding 507 requirements in a flexible manner. To perform this operation, packet meta-data 508 are augmented with generic information including flow logic and life span. The 509 difference between protocol translation and oblivious forwarding is illustrated in 510 Table 3.

A protocol-oblivious forwarding-based routing mechanism is proposed in [58] 512 that can redirect a packet to multiple destination addresses in a multi-homing sce- 513 nario. It completements the SDN ability of switching transmission path dynamically 514 and enables the destinations to adjust packet receiving rate as per the status of 515 network resources. Moreover, to assist protocol oblivious forwarding in perceiving 516 device-level context, a State Parameter Field is augmented to its generic structure 517

Protocol translation	Protocol oblivious forwarding	t9.1
Requires protocol specific knowledge	Protocol specific knowledge is oblivious	 t9.2
Parsing packet data for target protocol is difficult in real-time	Extraction of meta data from packet is easier	t9.3
Conversion or translation support for user- defined or newly introduced protocols are not always available	Data plane can adopt any protocols	t9.4

Table 3 Differences between protocol translation and oblivious forwarding

in [59]. It also incorporates a direct entry matching policy for flow table lookup 518 that enables protocol oblivious forwarding to check device status in time optimized 519 manner. Moreover, in [60], the concept of protocol oblivious forwarding has been 520 extended to offer protocol independent interactions among the controllers arranged 521 in a hierarchical structure. It enhances the flexibility in distributed controller 522 operations.

Despite having certain advantages over protocol translation, protocol oblivious 524 forwarding is considered infeasible to sensitive communications as it lacks explicit 525 security measures. Therefore, to protect the protocol oblivious forwarding opera- 526 tions from diverse attacks, a proactive security framework for SDN is proposed 527 in [61]. Moreover, protocol oblivious forwarding depends on a set of stateful information which makes it less resilient to failure or alteration of the networking 529 system.

4.2.3 **Semantic Ontology**

A significant amount of control data is exchanged between control and data plane 532 nodes while transferring network packets from a place to another. The existing 533 Network Operating System (NOS)-based control data modelling techniques such 534 as type checking and code templating perform well when the flow rules are static. 535 To parse the non-deterministic behaviors of applications and networks in the flow 536 rules and modelling the control data accordingly, semantic ontology is often used. 537 Semantic ontology incorporates various reasoning rules and integrity constraints 538 that helps in automating state inference across the SDN layers. Additionally, it 539 simplifies the remote configurations of data plane nodes and allow controllers to 540 define complex data relationships [62]. An illustration of semantic ontology-based 541 operations in SDN domain is depicted in Fig. 8.

Based on the concept of semantic ontology, an autonomous fault management 543 agent for SDN is developed in [63]. It compares network status with semantic 544 models using Bayesian reasoning as inference method for determining the category 545 of a fault. In another work [64], sematic ontology has been applied to automate the 546 creation of virtual network functions (VNFs). It also fosters the synthesis of VNFs 547 with user requirements and enabled controllers to recommend similar services based 548 on network service description (NSD). Moreover, in [65], another semantic-based 549

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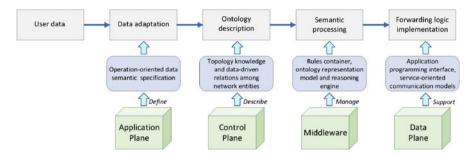


Fig. 8 Semantic ontology-based operations in SDN layers [66]

framework for distributed control plane is proposed that incorporates local ontology from each controller and forwards them to the master controller for ensuring overall semantic interoperability within the network.

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However, the scope of applying semantic ontology is constrained as it depends 553 on specific format of data and all entities within the network should have in-depth 554 understanding of that format. Moreover, semantic ontology can expose data to security threats for the sake of reasoning which is not acceptable during battlefield 556 communications.

5 **Network Component Management**

Conceptually, network components are classified into two categories, network 559 infrastructure and network services. Network infrastructure incorporates the topology and the data forwarding paths. From the perspective of SDN, network slices can 561 also be considered as a virtualized infrastructure for the network. Conversely, net- 562 work services provide support for caching, network address translation, encryption, and intrusion detection. Recently network services are set to be decoupled from 564 proprietary hardware to virtualized software platforms using Network Function 565 Virtualization (NFV) techniques. Although it is not a must to implement SDN and 566 NFV together, both technologies can complement each other in enhancing network 567 automation. For example, the implementation of SDN without virtualizing network 568 functions results in hardware dependency which is conflicting with the instinct of 569 SDN that focuses on performing network control through software. In this part of 570 the report, existing approaches to manage network components are discussed in an 571 integrated manner. Sections 5.1–5.3 discuss the approaches from the perspective 572 of network infrastructure whereas Sects. 5.4–5.5 focus on the approaches based on 573 network service.

5.1 Topology Awareness

As noted, tactical operations often take place in inaccessible locations where the arrangement of infrastructure network is difficult. In such cases, on-demand network services can be offered by creating MANET. MANET enables the participating nodes to interact with each other with the goal of completing their assigned tasks. Moreover, MANET provides a scope to integrate the concept of SDN for efficiently coordinating the communicating nodes in pursuing their collective goal. An SDN-enabled MANET structure for battlefield communication is depicted in Fig. 9. However, the network topology in MANET embraces complex configurations and can change very frequently. Therefore, from the perspective of tactical operations relying on Mobile Ad-hoc Network (MANET), topology awareness is very important. Topology awareness refers to the complete understanding of various dynamics related to the communicating entities and their underlying network while making any network management decision. It consequently helps in optimizing the packet routing path, consolidating the number of redundant networking nodes, scaling-up the network, and deploying edge computing nodes.

In literature, there exists a notable number of works that address the topology sylvareness in SDN-enabled MANET. For example, a distributed SDN controller placement problem for MANET is formulated in [68]. This work explicitly considers the topology of the network in terms of controller's accessibility from the data plane nodes and minimizes the cost of circulating synchronization messages among the controllers within the topology. In another work [69], the communication structured) and topology-driven incompatibility between SDN (inherently centralized and structured) and MANET (inherently distributed and dynamic) is discussed. It also develops a protocol for localized data plane nodes that dynamically adapts the packet routing path according to the changes in network topology without solely relying on the centralized SDN controllers. The performance of the developed

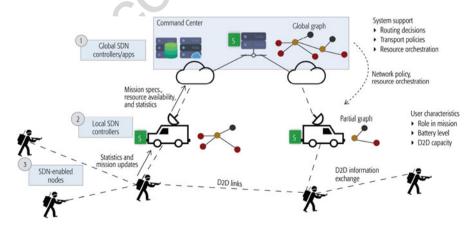


Fig. 9 SDN-enabled MANET for battlefield communication [67]

protocol is validated using a real-world dataset mentioned in [70]. Furthermore, 602 a multi-path transmission control protocol for decreasing network handover delay 603 and improving transmission throughput in SDN-enabled naval battlefield network is 604 proposed in [71]. The ad-hoc network model also incorporates a connectable relay 605 point to maintain the communications during uncertain topology changes. On the 606 other hand, to ensure security in SDN-enabled MANET during topology alteration, 607 a distributed firewall system is developed in [72]. It relies on ONOS control platform 608 and control the access of unreliable ad-hoc nodes by distributing filter rules across 609 the network. Similarly, in [73], a flow-based framework for tactical mobile ad-hoc 610 network is proposed that exploits both machine learning-based classification and 611 SDN concepts for anomaly detection within the network topology. However, these 612 topology-aware solutions are very less-adaptive and scalable to deal unpredictable 613 growth of packets in different bearer channels of tactical ad-hoc network.

Adaptive Load and Path Management

Battlefield communication network requires consistent adjustment of loads and 616 routing paths while transferring video streams or performing surveillance operations 617 using limited bandwidth of uneven availability. For example, in [74], the dynamic 618 optimization of end-to-end paths between the source and the destination is exploited 619 for adaptive video streaming in the battlefield network. The path selection algorithm 620 applied adopted in [74] is depicted in Fig. 10. Additionally, in [75], an adaptive link 621 sensing approach for an aerial battlefield network is proposed that exploits back-up 622 routing path in case of sudden network congestion. The implications of adaptive 623 routing for mobile military devices are also discussed in [76]. It aims at virtualizing 624 the network functions at the granular level to enhance network survivability.

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Apart from them, in [77], an adaptive tactical data collection system is developed 626 that selects the data sourcing node according to the link availability and traffic 627 characteristics in terms of packet rate and flow distribution. When the network 628 resources are limited, the system autonomously reduces the rate of data transmis- 629 sion. It also helps to reduce the amount of duplicate data and improves the accuracy 630 of data analysis. Moreover, to balance the load among distributed controllers, a selfadaptive technique is proposed in [78]. It dynamically migrates switches from one 632 controller to another considering the geographical boundary and variation of loads. 633 The scheme triggers based on a threshold of packet arrival rate to the controllers 634 which can also be adjusted as per the context of the network resources. However, 635 these existing adaptive solutions are highly suitable for the applications which have 636 already been customized to run in SDN. For legacy applications, they provide a very 637 narrow scope for further service enhancement.

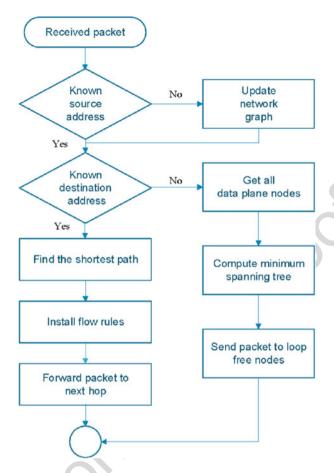


Fig. 10 Path selection algorithm [74]

5.3 Network Slicing

Through network slicing, operators can create unique but logical partitions of 640 a physical network infrastructure and simplify their multiplexing for end-to- 641 end communications. Network slices can be expanded across different network 642 domains such as access, core, and transport, and can be exploited to meet diverse 643 requirements of a particular application [79]. It harnesses both SDN and NFV 644 concepts to increase service flexibility within the network. Since network slices are 645 isolated, they inherently avoid the control plane congestion of one slice to affect 646 the other slices. Moreover, every network slice maintains a set of resource and 647 network function management policies to address speed, capacity, connectivity, and 648 coverage-driven issues. Unlike virtual private network (VPN), network slicing does 649 not solely rely on tunneling. It also differs from Differentiated Services (DiffServ) 650 as noted in Table 4.

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Table 4 Differences between network slicing and differentiated service

Network slicing	Differentiated service	t12.1
Allows multiple logical networks to run on top of a shared physical network	Controls and classifies network traffic to set their flow precedence	 t12.2
Simultaneously deals with the networking, computation, and storage aspects of the underlying resources	Only deals with the networking aspect of the underlying resources	t12.3
Can isolate traffic of one tenant from others and supports optimum grouping of the traffic	Cannot discriminate the same type of traffic coming from different tenants	t12.4

Different SDN-enabled frameworks harness the concept of network slicing for 652 offering better services. For example, in [80], an end-to-end network slicing framework incorporating a virtual resource manager is proposed that places network slices 654 over physical resources based on the data traffic pattern, user connectivity demands 655 and channel bandwidth. The resource manager can also deal with the sudden surges 656 in resource demand and offers scope for integrating real-time decision-making 657 policies. In another work [81], a data-driven resource management framework 658 for network slices is proposed. The resource cognitive engine of the framework 659 collects the resource usage data and incorporate a machine learning technique for 660 their uniform scheduling. Conversely, the service cognitive engine analyses the 661 user's requirements and interact with the global cognitive engine for improving the 662 resource utilization and user's quality of experience. Similarly, in [82], a machine 663 learning-based network slicing framework is proposed that divides each logical slice 664 into a set of virtualized sub-slices and orchestrate them with different prioritized 665 resources as per the application requirements. The framework also engages separate 666 sub-slices to handle spectral efficiency, low latency service delivery, and power 667 consumption, and uses the Support Vector Machine (SVM) algorithm to extract 668 the features of assigned applications. Nevertheless, in literature, very few research 669 initiatives have been found that focus on augmenting network slicing with military 670 applications. To address this gap, a set of military services including push-to- 671 talk, cellular convergence, prioritized on-demand access, satellite backhaul for 672 redundancy and signal jamming are identified in [6] where network slicing can 673 be easily adopted for improved performance, security and availability. However, 674 the explicit isolation of network slices makes the coordination of security policies 675 difficult and can lead to a breach of confidentiality in battlefield communication 676 [83].

5.4 Service Function Chaining (SFC)

Service function chaining refers to a complete suite of connected virtual network 679 services such as firewalls, VoIP, directory service, deep packet inspection, load 680 balancer and time service that allows traffic to use any combination of them as per 681 the requirements in terms of security, lower latency and enhanced service quality. It 682

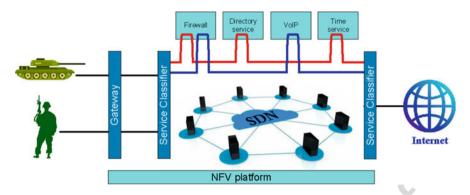


Fig. 11 Service function chaining in battlefield communication

also enables SDN controllers to customize a chain and apply them to different traffic 683 flows depending on the source, destination, or type of traffic. Figure 11 provides an 684 abstract representation of service function chaining for battlefield communication. 685

In the literature, there has been notable initiatives that focus on improving 686 virtual network function placement in SFC. For example, a Mixed Integer Linear 687 Programming (MILP) model to minimize the intra-communication delay between 688 different network function instances is proposed in [84]. It meets diverse carrier- 689 grade requirements such as latency and resource availability for an application 690 requesting to access the service chain. In [85], another MILP model for optimizing 691 energy consumption across multiple network domains is proposed. It considers the 692 order of accessing the chain as a constraint and sets a domain-level function graph to 693 orchestrate the incoming network service requests. The SDN-based resource management architecture developed in [86] also aims at optimizing energy usage while 695 placing different network functions over the computing instances and defining their 696 routing path. As supplements, some other works are developing SFC-constrained 697 shortest path service access mechanisms for SDN. In [87], such a mechanism is 698 proposed that transforms the basic network graph to an SFC-constrained network 699 graph. Moreover, it applies a pruning algorithm based on service dependency for 700 reducing the size of newly generated network graph so that the shortest path can 701 be calculated in timely manner. In another work [88], simple breadth-first search 702 algorithm has been adopted to determine the shortest path. There also exists a 703 performance evaluation framework named SFCPerf [89] to check the compatibility 704 of these approaches in real-world test bed. However, the existing solutions have 705 significant configuration complexity that make them infeasible to deal with the 706 instant demands of battlefield communications. 707

5.5 Unikernel Network Functions

Besides virtual machines and containers, unikernels are also increasing in popularity as a virtualized software platform for implementing NFV. Unikernels refer to single-

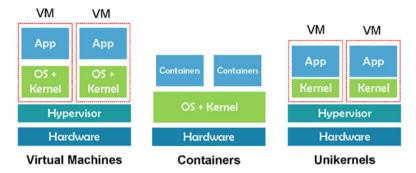


Fig. 12 Architecture of virtual machines, containers and unikernels

address-space machine images that can run on standard hypervisors by exploiting 711 only kernel space libraries. The structure of unikernels is considerably lightweight 712 compared to that of VMs, and containers, thus they can boot faster. Moreover, a 713 unikernel can execute a single process at a time, which consequently results in 714 less management and processing overhead. Figure 12 illustrates the architectural 715 differences between VMs, containers and unikernels. Because of the low memory 716 footprint and initiation time, unikernels are considered more well-suited for network 717 function virtualization than VMs and containers, especially when they are used to 718 complement any SDN-enabled system.

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The concept of unikernel is relatively new and its standards are still evolving. In 720 [90], an SDN-enabled framework is developed that can create unikernels dynamically. It enhances system reliability with respect to anomaly or security attacks 722 and helps in recovering the system functionalities within minimal time. Similarly, 723 in [91], the Topology and Orchestration Specification for Cloud Applications 724 (TOSCA)-language has been extended to support the creation and orchestration 725 of unikernels with security constraints. It also enables the unikernels to offer on- 726 demand network services to the users. In another work [92], the initiation time of 727 different unikernel-based network services is optimized by consistently modifying 728 their schedulers according to the service requirements. Although unikernels outper-729 form VMs and containers in various aspects, the packet loss rate with unikernels 730 is higher than others. This limitation of unikernels can affect any battlefield 731 communication requiring high throughput.

Traffic Management

Quality-of-Service (QoS) and Quality-of-Experience (QoE) related traffic man- 734 agement has been studied for many years, and a significant amount of research 735 has been devoted to understanding, measuring, and modelling OoS/OoE for a 736 variety of network services [93]. Considering different network segments, disparate 737

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application needs, and multiple transmission bearers involved in the end-to-end 738 service delivery chain, it is challenging to identify the root causes of service quality 739 impairments. It also increases the complexities in finding effective solutions for 740 meeting the end users' requirements and expectations in terms of service quality. 741 We briefly survey state-of-the-art findings and present emerging concepts and 742 challenges related to managing service quality for networked services, especially 743 in the context of the move towards softwarised networks, the exploitation of big 744 data analytics and machine learning, and the steady rise of new application services 745 (e.g. multimedia, augmented and virtual reality). We address the implications of 746 such paradigm shifts in terms of new approaches in QoS modelling and the need for 747 novel monitoring and management infrastructures.

Traditionally, QoS-driven application management has primarily addressed con-749 trol and adaptation on the end-user and application host/cloud level, often studied 750 from an application provider perspective in the context of optimizing the quality of 751 Over-The-Top (OTT) applications and services. As an example, applications such as 752 HTTP-based adaptive video streaming dynamically adapt to varying network conditions to maintain a high level of QoS. Such a mechanism represents an application 754 control loop that is often independent of network management mechanisms. On 755 the other hand, network providers generally rely on performance and traffic monitoring solutions deployed within their access/core network to obtain insight into 757 impairments perceived by end users. QoS-driven network management mechanisms 758 have thus focused on the network provider point of view and considered control 759 mechanisms, such as optimized network resource allocation, admission control, 760 QoS-driven routing, and so on. Such control thus aims to facilitate efficient network 761 operations and maintain high QoS, without directly managing the applications.

SDN serves as a technology for decoupling hardware resources from software 763 and functionality, enabling programmability of the networking infrastructure. The 764 programmable and flexible resource allocation, coupled with softwarisation, enable 765 the network and application to engage in a "conversation" using software APIs. 766 While this explicit negotiation approach offers clear opportunities, there are many 767 challenges that need to be addressed (as shown in Fig. 13), including encryp- 768 tion of traffic, virtualization of resources, contextualization of application data, 769 measurement of service quality, fairness, business arrangements, and federation 770 across networks. In what follows we briefly review the evolution of QoS traffic 771 management and recent directions enabled by SDN.

6.1 Service Level Agreement (SLA)-Aware Traffic Management

The notion of using service level agreements (SLAs) for QoS dates back to the 775 IETF IntServ and DiffServ frameworks [95], whereby the application specifies its 776 requirements in the form of a FlowSpec, which includes both its traffic profile 777

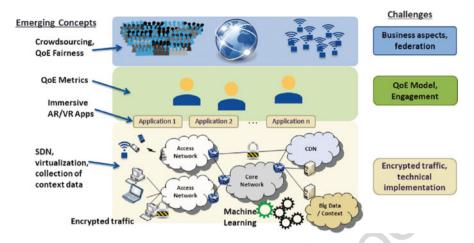


Fig. 13 Emerging concepts and challenges in QoS management [94]

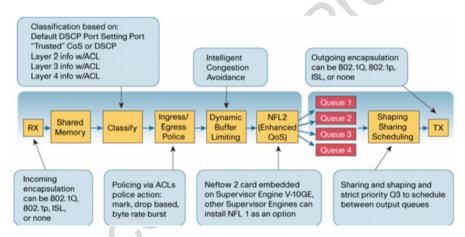


Fig. 14 Mechanisms for implementing SLA-based QoS [95]

(rate and burstiness) and requirements profile (in terms of guaranteed bandwidth 778 and latency)—once accepted by the network (via some form of admission control), 779 this forms an agreement (SLA) that then needs to be respected by both parties. The 780 realization of this framework (as shown in Fig. 14) requires admission control (often 781 via a bandwidth broker), traffic classification (using packet header fields), packet 782 marking (typically as a DiffServ Code Point or DSCP), traffic policing (via a token 783 bucket), and priority or weighted fair scheduling to ensure network resources are 784 shared in order to meet the pre-negotiated SLAs.

While conceptually elegant, the major challenges with this approach relate to 786 the large amount of state information along with the complex policing/scheduling 787 mechanisms needed for managing the per-flow SLA, as well as limitations in being 788

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able to map application-level QoE to network-level QoS parameters—these aspects 789 are explored in depth in [96], which also develops a new method called SFQP (SLA-790 aware Fine-grained OoS Provisioning) to perform the mapping and bandwidth 791 enforcement using SDN principles. Other works including [3] have also explored 792 the application of QoS methods enabled by SDN protocols (OpenFlow in particular) 793 to support the classification, prioritization, and shaping of application flows with a 794 view towards enabling dynamic QoS control.

In networks where the applications are not enabled with capabilities to explicitly 796 negotiate SLAs, the application behavior as well as requirements may need to be 797 inferred. The work in [97] develops an application-aware traffic engineering system 798 that cooperates with deep packet inspection (DPI) services to apply SDN based 799 prioritization and route selection to application flows. A specific application of this 800 concept to VoIP and M2M communication in developed and demonstrated in [98], 801 whereby it is shown that SDN can be used to proactively manage UDP/RTP media 802 streams to enhance their service quality.

6.2 Intent-Based Traffic Management

Intent-based networking (IBN) is a relatively new concept in SDN for managing 805 a network, end-to-end, through the use of DevOps and high-level "intents". The 806 term IBN was first coined by Gartner in 2017, though components of intentbased networking began well before and continue to be developed by networking 808 enterprises. Traditional networking relied on command line interface (CLI) to 809 manually set up policies for all vendors' networking devices individually. The 810 intent-based networking approach changes this to operate it as a Network-as-a- 811 Service (NaaS), meaning it is end-to-end networking that seamlessly manages all 812 devices on one interface. While similar to the principles of SDN, IBN differs 813 by integrating DevOps into the process. This makes networking management a 814 lifecycle process that, according to Cisco, "bridges the gap between business and 815 IT."

As a simple example of IBN, consider an Intent whereby the network operator 817 wants to ensure that the command and control (C&C) communications in the 818 region receive uninterrupted service levels during combat (as shown in Fig. 15). 819 The Translation of this would build a policy which guarantees that C&C users 820 and applications are placed on a secure segment that receives the highest priority 821 service. The Activation of this intent may apply priority-service levels between all 822 users and applications on the C&C bearer segment across all network elements. The 823 Assurance module will use telemetry to monitor and analyze the network against 824 this desired outcome, to remediate, optimize, and correct as appropriate. In order 825 for intent-based networking to achieve its full potential, these functions are applied 826 across all networking domains and build on a programmable network infrastructure. 827

Intent-based networking is being incorporated into many of the emerging SDN 828 platforms. Both the Open Networking Operating System (ONOS) and the Open- 829

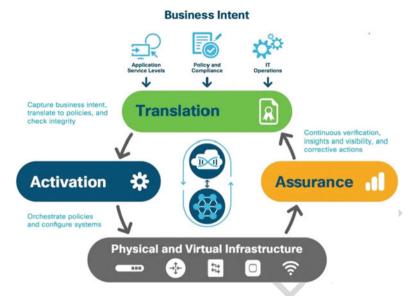
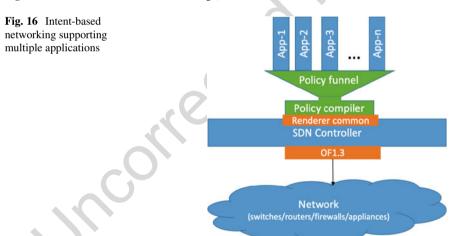


Fig. 15 Elements of intent-based networking (source: Cisco)



DayLight (ODL) SDN controllers incorporate "intents". An example framework for sintents is specified by Group Based policy (GBP), which has the concept of end-point groups (EPGs) so that policies can be applied to groups of entities based on their labels, and the policies themselves are contracts with "qualities" and "clauses".

One of the significant benefits of using high-level intents rather than low-level network configuration is that human errors are reduced. The high-level intents are automatically "compiled" by a policy compiler that translates the intents into network device configuration, which is pushed down to each network element. 837 Further, multiple applications can co-exist without conflict; as shown in Fig. 16, 838

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application policies are taken through a policy funnel into a compiler that flags, and 839 potentially automatically resolves, any conflicts in their policies. Apstra reports in 840 [99] that IBN can be applied in a vendor- and technology-independent way, yielding 841 a saving of seven cents per dollar revenue.

6.3 Context-Aware Traffic Management

Context-aware traffic management is emerging as an approach to address some 844 of the gaps in SLA and intent-based methods. The SLA-aware method requires 845 applications to specify their requirements, which can be very challenging especially when they are adaptive themselves. The intent-based methods also need to be 847 aware of context, such as whether the network is operating in a friendly or 848 hostile environment. The context-aware approach considers the "experience" of the 849 application, couples that with the context, and takes reactive actions to rectify the 850 problem.

This thinking is leading to the concept of a "self-driving network" [100] as 852 depicted in Fig. 17, whereby the network is continually monitored using fine-grained 853 telemetry, the collected data is analyzed in real-time, and appropriate intervention is 854 done via programmable network interfaces to take an appropriate control action. 855 Research work in [101] develops a framework for adjusting network behavior 856 dynamically to adapt to application behavior and validates it via implementation 857 on multiple SDN switches in [102]. Conceptually, both Self-driving networking and 858 Intent-based networking aims at autonomic management of the network. However, 859 intent-based networking consistently tunes the networking environment as per 860 the user's feedback whereas, self-driving networking monitors the differences of 861 the current and the desired network state and tunes the networking environment 862 accordingly. 863

Google has demonstrated that it is able to adapt its traffic management across 864 data centres [103], within a data centre [104, 105], and throughout its peering 865

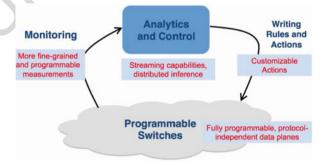


Fig. 17 Self-driving network with monitor-analyse-control loop [100]

locations [106] using dynamic application level measurements and fine-grained 866 SDN control. Network operators are stymied in this effort due to lack of visibility 867 into application performance, compounded by the increasing encryption of packets 868 by application – however, new methods are being developed by a research team 869 that use machine learning-based methods to identify applications [107] and infer 870 experience [108], and further take corrective action reactively when application 871 experience shows symptoms of degradation [109]. Moreover, QoS-aware traffic 872 management is progressing towards this virtuous cycle of a self-aware network that 873 constantly monitors application experience, makes inferences based on operatorsupplied intents combines with contextual information, and then enforces control 875 into the programmable network substrate in an automated manner.

7 **Policy Evaluation**

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There are different ways to evaluate the efficiency of SDN-based policies such as 878 empirical, emulation and simulation. Empirical analysis refers to an evidence-based 879 approach that relies on real-world implementation and results. From the perspective 880 of SDN, empirical analysis is an essential. However, since an SDN environment 881 incorporates numerous entities interacting with each other across control, data and 882 application plane, the real-world implementation of SDN for research is costly. 883 Moreover, modification of any entity in real-world implementation is tedious. In this 884 case, emulation or simulation can be adopted for approximate imitation of SDN- 885 based operations. Emulation duplicates the behavior of the real system whereas 886 simulation mimics the behavior but does not offer the exact matching. In the 887 following subsections, the recent practices on empirical, emulation and simulationbased analysis of SDN operations are discussed.

Empirical 7.1

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There has been a notable initiative in SDN that focuses on empirical evaluation 891 of policies. For example, in [110], a small-scale software defined cloud datacenter 892 named CLOUDS-Pi is developed. To enable Raspberry Pi devices as network 893 switches, CLOUDS-Pi augments Open vSwitch (OVS) with each of them and 894 uses OpenDaylight (ODL) as the SDN controllers. Through use case study, it has 895 also been illustrated that CLOUDS-Pi is capable of evaluating the performances 896 of any SDN-based virtual machine management and flow scheduling policies. 897 In another work [111], the performance of seven SDN switches (as noted in 898 Table 5) are benchmarked in terms of throughput, priority queuing, flow tables 899 and packet buffers. It has also been observed that the processing time of the 900 switches is predictable and is aligned with the line rate. Moreover, in [112], 901 a publicly available bug repository for OpenDaylight SDN controller is mined 902

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Switch	ASIC	CPU	Firmware (release date)	t15.1
HP E3800	HPE ProVision	Freescale P2020	KA.16.04.0016 (2018-06-22)	t15.2
HP 2920	HPE ProVision	Tri Core ARM1176	WB.16.08.0001 (2018-11-28)	t15.3
Dell S3048-ON	Broadcom StrataXGS	undisclosed	DellOS 9.14 (2018-07-13)	t15.4
Dell S4048-ON	undisclosed	undisclosed	DellOS 9.14 (2018-07-13)	t15.5
Pica8 P3290	Broadcom Firebolt 3	Freescale MPC8541CDS	PicOS 2.10.2 (2018-01-19)	t15.6
Pica8 P3297	Broadcom Triumph 2	Freescale P2020	PicOS 2.11.19 (2019-02-27)	t15.7
NEC PF5240	Undisclosed	Undisclosed	OS-F3PA6.0.0.0 (2014-06)	t15.8

Table 5 Specifications of the investigated switches [111]

to localize the most problematic software components and model the stochastic 903 behavior of bug manifestation. Later, the information is applied to improve the 904 dependability of different components such as core controller functions, embedded 905 applications, plug-ins, and drivers in the control plane. Furthermore, the effect of 906 strong and eventual consistency constraints on scalability and correctness of control 907 plane is investigated in [113]. It has also evaluated an adaptive consistency model 908 that improves the request handling throughput and response time of controllers. 909 However, because of large-scale and sophisticated deployment of SDN components, 910 the arrangement of empirical analysis in battlefield communication is often regarded 911 as infeasible.

Emulation 913

As noted, military tactical networks require to support mission-critical opera- 914 tions in the austere environment by going beyond the mobility, intermittent link 915 state, and variable bandwidth-related issues. In real-world SDN environments, the 916 manifestation of such dynamic configurations for research purpose is extremely 917 challenging. Therefore, it is widely adopted to imitate military tactical networks 918 using different emulation tools such as Emane [114], Mininet [115] and Core [116]. 919 An emulator simultaneously captures the characteristics of tactical communications 920 and integrates SDN methodologies to assess different control and management 921 policies over an imitated military tactical network [117]. Figure 18 depicts how 922 emulators can be augmented in node-to-node communications.

Among the SDN emulators, Mininet is the most popular. In the literature, Mininet 924 has been adopted to evaluate policies for deploying SDN controllers [68], enhancing 925 controller's adaptivity [69], automating distributed firewalls [72], managing data 926 flow [73], augmenting Named Data Networking (NDN) [118] and creating inte- 927

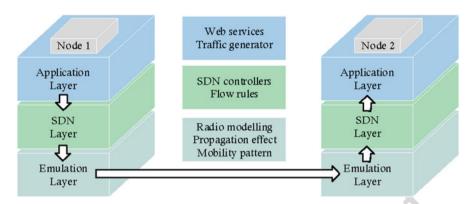


Fig. 18 Node to node communication within an emulated tactical SDN [117]

grated SDN environments [119] in tactical networks. Mininet is lightweight, boots 928 faster and offers higher scalability. However, it is difficult to employ Mininet for 929 dealing with non-Linux-compatible OpenFlow switches or applications.

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Extendable Mobile Ad-hoc Network Emulator (Emane) is another celebrated 931 emulator for tactical networks which has been used in [120-122] and [123] to 932 evaluate various policies for group-based communications, latency-aware queuing 933 control, situation-aware publish subscribe model and mission-centric content shar- 934 ing respectively. Emane incorporates more detailed radio models that simplify the 935 emulation of MANET, although it lacks an accurate interference model based on 936 Signal-to-Interference-and-Noise-Ratio (SINR) and extensive libraries for imitating 937 complex scenarios in SDN environments.

There exists another emulator named Common Open Research Emulator 939 (CORE) that has been used in evaluating policies for delay tolerant routing 940 [124], data and control plane security management [125], and disruption-tolerant 941 networking [126]. CORE offers highly customizable programming interfaces that 942 simplifies its augmentation with other emulators including Emane. However, it 943 lacks facilities for distributed emulation. Apart from Emane, Mininet and Core, 944 there exists another emulator named Containernet which has been used in [127] for 945 hybrid service function chaining.

7.3 Simulation 947

The existing emulators for SDN mainly focus on network resources management 948 and provide a very limited scope to apply application and computing resource-level 949 management techniques such as service placement and resource consolidation. To 950 address this issue, different simulators such as OPNET, NetSim and CloudSim-SDN 951 are used in SDN-based policy evaluation. Among them, OPNET is used in [128] for 952 simulating data distribution in a tactical network. In [129] and [130], OPNET is also 953

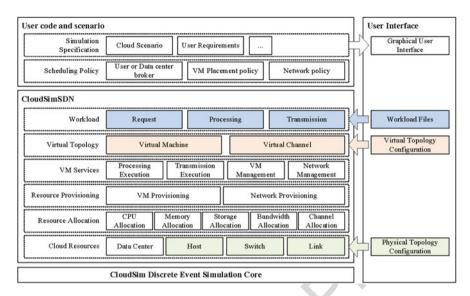


Fig. 19 Overview of CloudSim-SDN

adopted to evaluate a cooperative trust scheme and QoS-aware routing policy for 954 military communications respectively. Although OPNET provides a set of extensive 955 libraries for detailed networking models, it lacks support for customization.

Like OPNET, NetSim is used in simulating different network and application 957 management scenarios. For example, in [131], a hybrid routing policy for MANET 958 and in [132], an intrusion detection framework for military communication is 959 evaluated through NetSim. One of the main advantages of NetSim is that it can 960 simulate the functions of a wide range of networking devices. On the other hand, 961 the operations of NetSim are handled by a single event queue that often resists 962 the modeling of complex scenarios. Similar to NetSim, CloudSim-SDN is another 963 discrete event simulator [8]. It has been developed by the Cloud Computing 964 and Distributed Systems (CLOUDS) Laboratory, University of Melbourne. As 965 noted in Fig. 19, CloudSim-SDN runs on top the basic CloudSim simulator [133] 966 that allows users to model both physical and virtual topology, and application 967 scenarios [134]. Using this feature of CloudSim, different simulators for other 968 computing paradigms for example iFogSim [135] and MR-CloudSim [136] have 969 also been developed. However, using CloudSim-SDN, a user can either utilize 970 built-in resource management and scheduling policies or can develop their own by 971 extending the abstract interfaces. As a means of policy evaluator, CloudSim-SDN 972 has been used in [137] that focuses on latency-aware network function provisioning. 973 It has also been adopted for simulating elastic service function chaining [138] and 974 energy-efficient network optimization [139] policies. However, the current version 975 of CloudSim-SDN lacks supports for handling the dynamics of tactical network but 976 there is always a potential scope to augment them in CloudSim-SDN.

Gap Analysis and Future Directions

The lessons learned and the gaps identified from the literature study can be 979 summarized as follows: 980

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1. In battlefield communication or tactical networks, MANET is highly adopted 981 because of its flexibility, ease of mobility and lower capital or operational 982 expenses. However, the convergence of multi-bearer networking, MANET and 983 SDN, specially for military operations, has been barely explored in the literature. 984

- 2. The device-level interactions and connectivity at the data plane of SDN-enabled 985 tactical networks is unpredictable and unreliable. Military devices also have lim- 986 ited energy supply to operate [140]. In such cases, dynamic network partitioning 987 and fault tolerance techniques can be useful in supporting the vulnerable military 988 devices losing connections with the controllers. However, these aspects have 989 been addressed by very few research initiatives in the literature. Additionally, 990 there is a significant lack for emulation and simulation tools to imitate such 991 scenarios specifically for military use cases.
- 3. Inherently, the controller is a single point of failure for the entire SDN archi- 993 tecture. To deal with this issue, the concept of multi controllers in SDN has 994 been developed. However, the existing East-West communication mechanisms 995 between the controllers still follow the traditional centralized architecture and 996 cannot ensure robust spanning of network through flat controller orientation. 997 Moreover, the Northbound and Southbound interfaces for multi-controller SDN 998 architectures are currently poorly defined and hinder the real-time integration 999 of the management systems and the peer-level networks. These constraints 1000 affect the multi-domain communications, slice management and intent-based 1001 networking in tactical environments, especially when one ground military device 1002 sends information to an aerial or submerged military device. To address such 1003 scenarios, efficient multi-controller orchestration policies must be developed 1004 according to the requirements of battlefield communications.
- 4. The subordinates of a tactical network are hierarchically arranged. At lower 1006 levels, line-of-sight connectivity is operated by distributed wireless mesh 1007 (MANETs). Multiple MANETs can also coexist at this level with thin Inter- 1008 MANET connectivity. At the mid hierarchical levels, satellite communication 1009 techniques are harnessed, whereas a mix of terrestrial wireless, SATCOM and 1010 wireline connectivity is exploited at the higher levels of the tactical network. 1011 Most of the mechanisms are well suited for legacy network and provide a narrow 1012 scope to integrate SDN functionalities. In the literature, there is also a significant 1013 lack in building interoperability among MANET, terrestrial wireless, and satellite 1014 communication techniques, especially through SDN middleware.
- 5. A wide range of traffic from real-time (e.g. situation and location-aware dissemination) to elastic (e.g. audio or video files) is generated during battlefield 1017 communication. This traffic can be both unidirectional and bidirectional between 1018 mobile (e.g. tanks and submarine) and fixed entities (e.g. ground stations). To 1019 meet QoS requirements under such diverse circumstances, different sophisticated 1020

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and adaptive traffic management schemes are required for tactical networks. 1021 These schemes should also support the analysis of ingress/egress packets and the 1022 appropriate selection of differentiated services and network slices. On the other 1023 hand, the efficiency of these schemes is highly subjected to the QoS requirements 1024 of the SDN-enabled applications and the security concerns of the battlefield 1025 communications. However, in the literature, the quantification of QoS parameters 1026 and security classifications with respect to tactical networks and the management 1027 of traffic in accordance are narrowly explored.

6. As noted, intent-based networking allows users and operators to define their 1029 service expectations from the network and simultaneously creates the desired 1030 networking state for meeting those expectations. The ultimate goal of intent- 1031 based networking is to reduce the complexities of enforcing various network 1032 management policies. However, the augmentation of intent-based networking 1033 with traditional SDN architecture requires a comprehensive synthesis of artificial 1034 intelligence (AI), network automation and machine learning (ML). On the 1035 other hand, autonomic network management depends on four different aspects: 1036 (i) Self-configuration: configures the network components (e.g. nodes and 1037 bandwidth), (ii) Self-healing: treats the faults and adapts with the dynamics, 1038 (iii) Self-optimization: enhances performance of the networking components, 1039 (iv) Self-protection: protects from the security attack. Nevertheless, in the 1040 literature, these essential aspects of intent-based networking have not been fully 1041 investigated with respect to tactical networks.

9 Summary 1043

The concept of SDN is gradually attracting attention in military use cases. However, 1044 the adoption of SDN in tactical network is subjected to diverse challenges with 1045 respect to interoperability, distributed application, unpredictable service demand, 1046 security constraints and edge computation. Although there exist a notable number 1047 of works on the literature aiming at addressing these challenges, they have certain 1048 limitations and compatibility issues with existing tactical communication standards 1049 such as MBN and MANET. In this work, we reviewed such research initiatives 1050 that primarily focus on the SDN-based network orchestration problem in the 1051 tactical environments. We proposed a taxonomy to categorize the existing solutions 1052 systematically and determined the research gaps for further improvement in this 1053 domain.

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