

Broadcast Levels: Efficient and Lightweight Schedule Construction for Push-Based Data Broadcasting Systems

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1 **Abstract**—In wireless push-based systems traffic is asymmetric
 2 meaning that the server has much more bandwidth available,
 3 as compared to the clients. Since it is often not possible or
 4 desirable for the clients to send any requests, the server should
 5 broadcast the data periodically. The performance of this system
 6 relies heavily on the proper scheduling of the broadcast data.
 7 The well known algorithm proposed by Vaidya and Hameed
 8 battles this challenge and achieves state-of-the-art performance.
 9 However, this performance comes with a computational com-
 10 plexity linear to the number of data items that are broadcast.
 11 Furthermore, Vaidya’s and Hameed’s proposed solution for this
 12 time complexity degenerates performance. This paper proposes
 13 a scheduling algorithm for wireless push-based data broad-
 14 casting systems, which performs near optimal and has low
 15 computational complexity. Performance evaluation results are
 16 presented to demonstrate its efficient performance despite its low
 17 computational demands.

18 **Index Terms**—Broadcast, push-based system, wireless, low
 19 computational complexity, adaptive, multiple channels.

I. INTRODUCTION

20
 21 **W**IRELESS data broadcasting is a field of significant
 22 interest as technologies like mobile computing and
 23 wireless networks continuously develop. Data broadcasting has
 24 emerged as an efficient mean for information disseminating
 25 over asymmetric wireless environments. In these environ-
 26 ments, asymmetry arises from the fact that the downstream
 27 capacity to clients from servers is much greater than the
 28 upstream communication capacity. Such asymmetric com-
 29 munications environments, characterize a great variety of
 30 applications, such as satellite or cellular-based wireless net-
 31 works. Examples of data broadcasting applications include
 32 information retrieval applications, like traffic information sys-
 33 tems, public safety applications and satellite communications.
 34 In such applications, client requests for data items are usually

overlapping. As a result, data broadcasting stands to be an
 efficient solution, since the broadcast of a single information
 item is likely to satisfy a (possibly large) number of client
 requests [1]–[7].

Push-based and pull-based systems are the two main
 approaches used in wireless data broadcasting. In pull-based
 systems, clients explicitly request (“pull”) data from the server
 in order to provide them to locally running applications. In the
 case of push-based systems the system is described by a rela-
 tively larger downstream communication capacity compared to
 the upstream communication capacity. In the push-based
 architecture, data is pushed continuously and repeatedly from
 the Broadcast Server (BS) out to the clients. Depending on
 the architecture of a such system there could be minimal or
 no feedback from the clients to the server, thus the broadcast
 schedule must be carefully planned and constructed in order
 to satisfy the demands of the clients.

A critical factor of the performance of a wireless push-based
 system is the proper construction of the broadcast schedule of
 the information items (or data items). The broadcast schedule
 specifies when each data item is to be transmitted. Clients
 demand different data items with different demand proba-
 bilities, so a broadcast schedule that exploits this fact and
 broadcasts popular data items more often can achieve better
 performance. One of the most critical performance metric in
 data broadcasting systems is the average client mean access
 time, or average delay. It is defined as the amount of time the
 client has to wait from the moment it demands a data item
 until the item is received from the broadcast.

This paper investigates scheduling algorithms for push-
 based systems. We propose a new method and compare it with
 the method proposed by Vaidya and Hameed [1]. Simulation
 results reveal similar performance compared to the method
 of [1], which however is achieved with a very low computa-
 tional complexity, whereas the method of [1] has a complexity
 linear to the number of items broadcast by the Broadcast
 Server. In our study we consider a database for the Broadcast
 Server that is divided into data items. There is a different
 demand probability for each data item from the clients, which
 is known a priori to a server, as also happens in [1]. The
 server uses this knowledge to construct a structure called
levels, and uses the proposed algorithm to create its broad-
 cast schedule. The proposed algorithm is dynamic and could
 be modified to construct broadcast schedules in an adaptive

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79 system with no a priori knowledge of the data items demand
80 probabilities.

81 The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section II
82 overviews the related research on push-based data
83 broadcasting. Section III presents our proposed schedul-
84 ing algorithm and the level structure. Section IV contains an
85 evaluation of the performance of our scheme. An analytical
86 study of the time complexity of our method is described in
87 Section V. Finally, a summary is presented in Section VI.

88 II. RELATED RESEARCH

89 A. Broadcast Disks

90 One of the first and well-known concept for solv-
91 ing the problem of constructing the broadcast schedules
92 for asymmetric communication environments is Broadcast
93 Disks [2], [4], [5]. This method takes advantage of research
94 results showing that in order to minimize mean access
95 time for clients, and thus improve performance, broadcast
96 schedules must be periodic and the variance of spacing
97 between consecutive instances of the same item must be
98 reduced.

99 In order to accomplish that, the Broadcast Disks program
100 construction uses a structure called Broadcast Disk, which is
101 an abstract container of data items. Each Disk “rotates” at
102 a different speed. The broadcast schedule is constructed by
103 assigning data items to disks of varying sizes and speeds and
104 then multiplexing the disks on the broadcast channel. By stor-
105 ing items that are requested more often, to faster disks and
106 items demanded less to slower disks, performance is increased.
107 It can be seen from Fig. 1, which shows an example of produc-
108 ing a broadcast program via the Broadcast Disks approach. In
109 this example, items with a low id are demanded with a higher
110 demand probability compared to items with a higher id and
111 are thus marked as “hot”. It can be seen that such items with
112 higher probability of being demanded, appear more often in
113 the final broadcast schedule than “cold” items.

114 The reason that Broadcast Disks performs better than a sim-
115 ple broadcast schedule, which broadcasts items based on their
116 popularity, can be understood through the so called Bus Stop
117 Paradox (or else called Inspection paradox). According to this
118 paradox, if the inter-arrival rate of items at the broadcast chan-
119 nel is fixed, e.g., items are broadcast every 30 msec, then the
120 expected delay for a client demanding an item at a random
121 time will be 15 msec, which is the average time between
122 successive broadcasts of the same item. On the contrary, if
123 successive instances of the same item are broadcast according
124 to a Poisson process, on average every 30 msec, then the client
125 will have to wait for 30 msec because Poisson distribution is
126 unaware of the past arrivals and thus the time until the next
127 item broadcast is independent of how long it has been since
128 the broadcast of the same item.

129 However, Broadcast Disks is not an optimal technique. First,
130 it cannot be used in real time systems. In order to achieve good
131 performance an external entity should carefully select the sys-
132 tem parameters, mainly the number of disks used, their relative
133 speeds and the assignment of items to each disk, in order to
134 fine-tune the schedule. But even if one suggested an automated

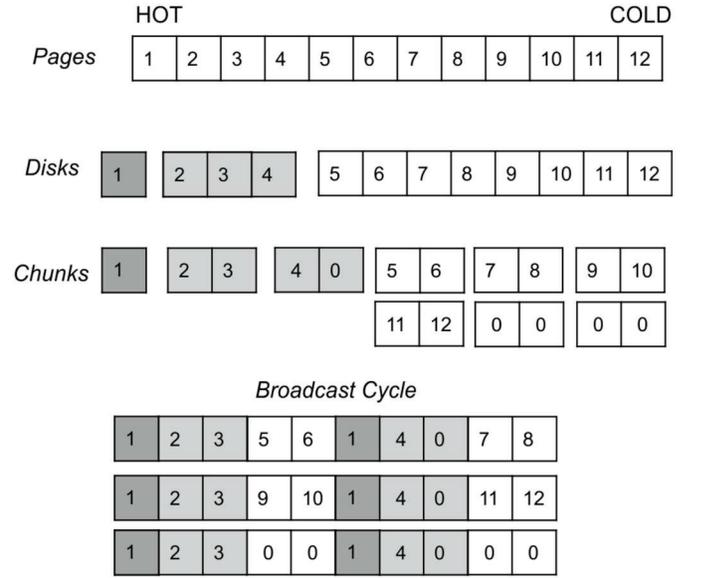


Fig. 1. Broadcast program production in Broadcast Disks. Different disks are in different colors. Null pages (marked 0) can be seen in the generated broadcast schedules.

method for parameter selection in order to create the broadcast
schedule, the Broadcast Disks method has the disadvantage of
introducing “null pages” in the broadcast (Fig. 1). Those null
pages are actually spots of inactivity in the broadcast schedule,
idle periods when there is nothing broadcast. Null pages arise
from the nature of producing the schedule in Broadcast Disks
and in some cases they can cause dramatic negative effects in
performance [2]–[4].

B. Vaidya and Hameed’s Proposed Scheduling Method

Another popular algorithm for constructing schedules in
push-based systems was proposed in [1]. This method is based
on the so-called “square root rule” which gives a bound to the
achievable lowest mean average delay for the clients. Results
from [1] imply that, for optimal performance, instances of an
item i should be equally spaced with spacing s_i , such that

$$\frac{s_i^2 p_i}{l_i} = \text{constant}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq N \quad (1)$$

where p_i is the demand probability, l_i is the length for the data
item i and N is the total number of data items that are subject
to broadcasting. The optimal overall mean access time, name
 t_{optimal} , can be calculated assuming that instances of each data
item are equally spaced and is obtained as

$$t_{\text{optimal}} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^N \sqrt{p_i l_i} \right)^2 \quad (2)$$

Keeping in mind that the assumption instances of each data
item to be equally spaced, cannot always be realized, t_{optimal}
represents a lower bound on the achievable overall mean
access time. This lower bound is in general not achievable.

The resultant equation has been used in the scheduling algo-
rithm in [1] to decide which item to broadcast at a given time.

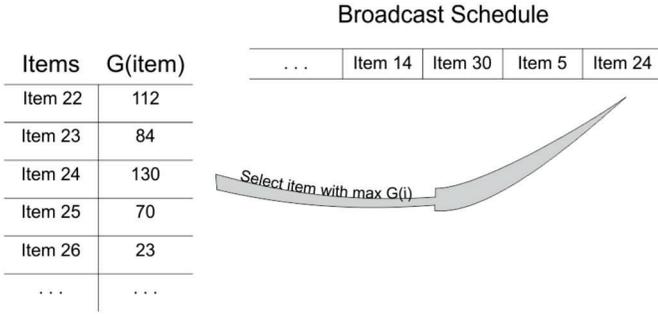


Fig. 2. Performing an item selection via the method in [1].

Vaidya and Hameed [1] calculate the following function, in order to choose which data item to broadcast

$$G(i) = \frac{(Q - r(i))^2 p_i}{l_i}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq N \quad (3)$$

where $Q - r(j)$ is the spacing between the current time and the time at which item j was previously transmitted. The scheduling algorithm works by calculating the G function for all data items and then selecting to broadcast the item with the maximum value of G . An example is shown in Fig. 2. When there is more than one item with maximum value, it chooses any one of them arbitrarily. This randomness in the algorithm will generate a small deviation in the average spacing of consecutive broadcasts of a data item; nevertheless even small deviations drives the system away from optimal performance.

Vaidya and Hameed [1] generates a schedule with average delay near to the theoretical lowest possible. It is also fully automated; it doesn't need any fine tuning or outside aid in order to generate the broadcast schedule. However this method suffers from some drawbacks too. The greatest drawback is its large computational complexity. Since the algorithm needs to calculate the maximum value of G for N data items in every step of the generation of the broadcast schedule, the average complexity to broadcast just one data item is $\mathcal{O}(N)$. This decreases its usability, though improvements have been suggested in [1] that minimize computational complexity with trade-off in accuracy of the method, with consequent a decrease in performance. Moreover, there is randomness inserted in the generation of the broadcast. Due to this fact, this method cannot create deterministic schedules completely, as the above-mentioned randomness can change the schedule at each period. This causes the increase of the lowest achievable mean access time, which is essentially a decrease in performance and can be explained via the Bus Stop Paradox mentioned earlier in this Section.

C. Research Related to Computational Complexity Problems

Pull-based systems are naturally more complex than push-based systems. Usually the real world applications that choose the push-based broadcasting architecture, do so in order to achieve minimal cost. However, the state of the art algorithm proposed in [1] has a forbidding $\mathcal{O}(N)$ time complexity. The method proposed in [5] attacks this problem of high computational cost, while achieves near optimal performance. However, the purpose of [5] is to decrease complexity in

the case of large data items populations, as in such cases the method in [1] suffers from a high time complexity. Our method is an alternative to [1] and performs similar to [1] in terms of mean access time, while having lower computational demands, also in environments with small data item populations, in which cases [5] has no complexity benefit over [1].

Polatoglou *et al.* [8] investigates that problem of the computational complexity for the estimation of the data item demand probabilities in an adaptive system [6], [7]. Their system uses the bucketing scheme from [1].

Another interesting topic of push-based systems is the minimum energy broadcasting problem in multihop networks, which is investigated in [9] and [10]. Centralized optimal and near optimal algorithms are proposed with the former having $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$ complexity and the latter $\mathcal{O}(N)$. Ataei *et al.* [9] also proposed a distributed algorithm of negligible complexity. References [11]–[17] propose and investigate algorithms that exploit locality of client demands, while simultaneously conserve user equipment energy. The main interest of [11]–[13] is the trade-offs between energy conservation and access latency performance. Nicopolitidis [18] investigates performance fairness in wireless data broadcasting, when multiple applications with different demand pattern receive content from a Broadcast Server. An adaptive wireless push system is proposed, which is able to fairly allocate performance to the multiple applications. Those methods are not comparable to our proposed scheme since they investigate problems related to the optimal transmission ranges for the wireless nodes, while we propose a new broadcast schedule generation algorithm for the Base Station.

III. PROPOSED SCHEDULING ALGORITHM

In our proposed method we combine knowledge gained from both [1] and [2], while carefully trying to avoid the drawbacks of each method. Specifically, we use the facts that a) the broadcast schedule should be kept periodically and b) the spacing between inter-arrivals of a data item should be constant. To accomplish those goals we propose a new scheduling algorithm, that uses a specific structure, called Broadcast Levels, which will be described in this Section.

A. Preliminaries

To construct Broadcast Levels we use the square root rule from [1] and the equations that derive as a consequence (Equation 1 and 2). In order to achieve a low overall mean access time, as described in Equation 2, to the extent possible, instances of each data item must be equally spaced and Equation 1 must hold true.

Considering that s_1 and s_N are the spacing of the least demanded and the most demanded data items respectively, then

$$s_1 = \max(s_i), \quad s_N = \min(s_i) \quad (4)$$

and as result of Equation 1

$$\frac{s_1^2 p_1}{l_1} = \frac{s_i^2 p_i}{l_i} \Leftrightarrow x_i = \frac{s_1}{s_i} = \sqrt{\frac{p_i l_1}{p_1 l_i}}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq M \quad (5)$$

In Equation 5, we call the relation $\frac{s_1}{s_i}$ as x_i for simplicity. The value of x_i can be physically interpreted as the number of times we have to transmit $item_i$ for every occurrence of the least demanded data item ($item_1$) in a period of the broadcast schedule.

If we broadcast all the data items periodically, then each consequent iteration of data item 1 denotes the end of a major cycle of the broadcast, while each broadcast of data item N denotes the end of a minor cycle. Thus a minor cycle of the broadcast occurs every time the most important data item is broadcast and a major cycle occurs when the least important data item is broadcast, since all the other data items have already been added in the broadcast schedule at least once. With the equal-spacing assumption, the quantity $\frac{l_i}{s_i}$ is the fraction of the bandwidth allocated to item i . Therefore, $\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{l_i}{s_i} = 1$.

The lengths of the major and minor cycles of the broadcast schedule are calculated as in Equation 6 and 7 respectively.

$$\sum_{i=1}^N x_i l_i = s_1 \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{l_i}{s_i} = s_1 \quad (6)$$

$$\frac{1}{x_N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i l_i = s_N \quad (7)$$

B. Broadcast Scheduling Algorithm

Our proposed method exploits Equation 7. We group data items, depending on their x_i value, in structures called levels. These data item containers are similar to the Broadcast Disks in [2] and buckets in [1]. Then we traverse the generated structure in order to construct a minor cycle each time. This structure offers near to the optimal performance.

In order to place the data items in levels, we must first calculate the x_i value for each data item, using Equation 5. Then we group data items with similar values of x_i to create the levels. Each level needs two variables in order to be used in our proposed method. The *Index* pointer variable is an essential part of the level structure, since we need a variable to remember which was the item of the level we broadcast last. We always traverse each level from its beginning to its end, so when the pointer reaches the end of the level we should put it back to the beginning. Finally, *Remainder* is a variable that stores the remainder of the division used in the algorithm. Algorithm 1, shown below, describes in pseudocode the algorithm for scheduling levels generation.

When grouping data items to create levels, we face a trade-off between performance and computational time complexity. We could use any number of levels for specific data items population and we could choose loose or tight intervals in assignment of x_i values to levels. An implementation could even theoretically use uneven intervals in order to minimize the number of levels used. Furthermore, there is no actual degradation in the performance of the broadcast schedule in the case of a broadcast program with empty levels. On the contrary, the performance of a broadcast schedule would benefit to a point for a larger number of levels, because that way we increase the accuracy of our method. However, the

Algorithm 1 Generate Scheduling Levels Structure Algorithm

Require: data items i in ascending order

```

1: for all items  $i$  do
2:    $x_i = \sqrt{\frac{p_i l_i}{p_1 l_1}}$ 
3: end for
4: list  $items_0 \leftarrow []$            ▷ List of the items level  $j$  contains
5:  $remainder_0 \leftarrow 0$        ▷ Remainder parameter of level  $j$ 
6:  $index_0 \leftarrow 0$            ▷ Index parameter of level  $j$ 
7:  $X_0 \leftarrow \min(x_i)$        ▷  $X$  parameter of level  $j$ 
8:  $j \leftarrow 0$ 
9: for all items  $i$  do
10:  if  $x_i > X_j * (accuracy + 1)$  then
11:     $j \leftarrow j + 1$ 
12:    initialize new level  $j$  as in lines 4 to 6
13:     $X_j \leftarrow x_i$ 
14:  end if
15:  add  $i$  to  $items_j$ 
16: end for

```

Algorithm 2 Broadcast Scheduling Algorithm

Require: Broadcast levels structure

```

1:  $j \leftarrow 0$ 
2: while broadcasting do
3:    $M = \frac{X_j * \text{length}(items_j)}{X_{max}} + remainder_j$ 
4:   while  $M > 0$  do
5:     if  $\text{length}(items_j[index_j]) < M$  then
6:       broadcast  $items_j[index_j]$ 
7:        $M \leftarrow M - \text{length}(items_j[index_j])$ 
8:        $index_j \leftarrow (index_j + 1) \bmod \text{length}(items_j)$ 
9:     else
10:       $remainder_j \leftarrow M$ 
11:       $M \leftarrow 0$            ▷ Move to the next level
12:    end if
13:  end while
14:   $j \leftarrow (j + 1) \bmod \text{number\_of\_levels}$ 
15: end while

```

time complexity induced by the proposed method depends on the number of levels used. In the worst case scenario, where the broadcast scheduler has to traverse the whole level structure before selecting a data item for broadcast, the time cost of our method would be $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{N})$. On the contrary, in a more suitable situation, where all levels select data items for broadcast during each traversal, our method could perform as good as $\mathcal{O}(1)$.

In a dynamic method to create levels, we could introduce an accuracy parameter which dictates the maximum difference on x_i 's between items of the same level. In our performance evaluation we used such a method, where *accuracy* is a variable that describes the levels structure. It denotes the percentage of how much larger the x_i of all items in a specific level can be compared to the x_i of least demanded in that level. For example, if we order the data items based on their x_i value from the least to the most demanded, then the first level will contain the least demanded item x_1 and all data items with $x_1 \leq x_i \leq x_1 * (accuracy + 1)$. For the next items we create a

new level and repeat this process until all the data items are processed.

Depending on the value of the *accuracy* parameter our method will produce 1 to N levels. For bigger values of *accuracy* we assign more data items to each level since we select data items from a wider set of x_i 's. Respectively, smaller values of *accuracy* lead to more and smaller levels.

There is a value for *accuracy* when we create a level for each data item. This value must be small, so there are no items with close x_i values to populate the same level. From that point onward, even if we use smaller *accuracy* values the generated broadcast schedule will remain the same. Hence, the performance and the computational cost remain constant. Each level is characterized by the parameter X_i , which is the average of the x_i 's of all the items that level contains.

After the construction of the levels structure we generate the broadcast schedule by broadcasting data items from each level. Algorithm 2, shown in the previous page, describes in pseudocode the algorithm for generating the schedule. Our algorithm traverses the levels in a round-robin manner, starting every time from the fastest and ending to the slowest level. If one follows the steps taken above, then the levels should already be in a sorted order based on their X_i parameter. In fact, the order of level traversing doesn't affect performance, should the same route is being used in every traversal of the structure. Each traverse from top to bottom creates a minor cycle. The broadcast completes one period when we have broadcast all data items at least once.

Every time we visit a level i , we choose to broadcast M items from there based on the calculation:

$$M = \frac{X_i \cdot level_i}{X_{max}} + remainder_i \quad (8)$$

where $level_i$ is the sum of the lengths of the data items in that level and X_{max} is the X_i parameter of the most important level. The quotient of this division M is the total length of the data items we should broadcast at that specific time from level i . We cyclically traverse the level broadcasting data items until we select items with lengths summing to M or less. In the case we cannot completely satisfy M , we compensate by using the difference of M minus the sum of lengths in the next traversal of that level by storing that value in the $remainder_i$ parameter.

By using this simple setup we ensure that we broadcast data items accordingly to the square root rule while keeping the spacing between two consecutive broadcasts of a data item fixed. To this end, results very near the theoretical best are achieved.

C. Computational Complexity Benefits

The proposed algorithm is less computationally complex than algorithm in [1]. In [1] the time complexity to broadcast just one data item is $\mathcal{O}(N)$. Vaidya and Hameed [1] also describe a scheduling algorithm with bucketing, but even then complexity remains $\mathcal{O}(l)$, where l is the number of buckets used.

In the proposed scheme we have to create the scheduling levels structure first, an $\mathcal{O}(N)$ task only run the first time. Then, we need to traverse the levels. Going from one level to

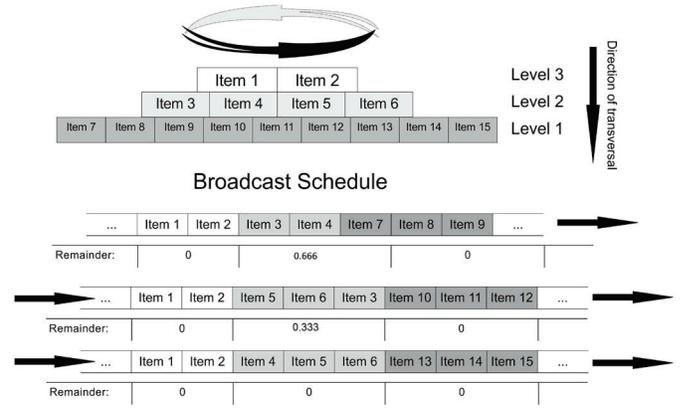


Fig. 3. Example of the construction of the broadcast using the proposed method. Levels structure and a period of the broadcast schedule can be seen.

another is a task that has a constant computational cost. Each time we traverse a specific level we can broadcast multiple or no data items. The only operations needed to be done are to calculate once Equation (3) and to assign values to two variables, the *Remainder* and *Index* of that level. All of those operations are of constant time. Thus if we broadcast a data item from each level every time we traverse it, then time complexity is $\mathcal{O}(1)$. In an extremely unfavorable environment, our method could reach time complexity of $\mathcal{O}(N)$. However, in a realistic environment, our method behaves exceptionally well.

An extreme example where the difference in time complexity of the two methods can be understood is the case of a uniform distribution for the data items demand probabilities. The time complexity to broadcast one data item in [1] is $\mathcal{O}(N)$, as in any other scenario. However, in our proposed method only one level will be generated and all data items will be broadcasted in each traversal, thus our method has a constant ($\mathcal{O}(1)$) time complexity cost. In Section V, we further investigate our method's time complexity behavior.

D. Construction of the Broadcast Schedule Example

In order to give more insights to the proposed method Fig. 3 presents an example of constructing a period of the broadcast schedule when the number of items are 15. In this simplistic example the values of x_i for items 1 and 2 are 3, for items 3-6 x_i is 2 and 1 for items 7-15. All data items have length of one unit.

By using Equation 8 we plan the broadcasting schedule. In every traversal of level 3 we broadcast it whole. In the case of level 1 we cyclically transmit one third of the items, and use the *Index* parameter to keep track of the last item sent. However, in level 2 we must use the *remainder* parameter in order to have a just broadcast. That way, by traversing the levels we generate the broadcast schedule.

E. Effect of Transmission Errors

The algorithms presented in Section III do not take into account transmission errors. In the discussion so far, we assumed that each data item broadcast by the server is received

without errors by each client. However, wireless communications are characterized by the presence of errors. In this Section, we modify our proposed method to create broadcast schedules in the presence of transmission errors.

In an environment subject to failures, errors may be introduced during the transmission from the server to the client. In order to detect and correct those errors, data is transmitted using an error detection and correction encoding (ECC). Such ECC techniques are able to detect errors and reconstruct the original data in many cases. However, ECC cannot correct large number of errors in the data. In an asymmetric environment, the message received with such uncorrectable errors will be discarded and the client will have to wait for the next broadcast of the data item.

Assuming that $E(l)$ is the probability an item with length l will be discarded due to uncorrectable errors and l_i is the length of data item i after encoding with an error control code, Equation 5 should be written as [1]:

$$\frac{s_1^2 p_1}{l_1} \cdot \left(\frac{1 + E(l_1)}{1 - E(l_1)} \right)^2 = \frac{s_i^2 p_i}{l_i} \cdot \left(\frac{1 + E(l_i)}{1 - E(l_i)} \right)^2 \quad (9)$$

and thus the x_i for each data item should be calculated as follows:

$$x_i = \frac{s_1}{s_i} = \sqrt{\frac{p_i l_1}{p_1 l_i}} \cdot \frac{1 + E(l_i)}{1 - E(l_i)}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq M \quad (10)$$

Our proposed method can be modified in order to generate a broadcast schedule in an erroneous environment by only adjusting the calculation of the x_i values in line 2 of Algorithm 1 accordingly to Equation 10.

F. Dynamic Data Item Demand Probabilities

In the discussion so far we assumed that the data items' demand probabilities are static and known a priori. However, the most realistic scenario for a broadcasting server is that there is no such knowledge a priori and furthermore the demand probabilities are not static in nature.

By using Learning Automata [20] methods we modify our proposed method in order to generate a broadcast schedule in a dynamic environment. Polatoglou *et al.* [8] propose such a system, with low complexity for the estimation process for the items demand probabilities. However, the overall mean access time in the proposed method in [8] depends on the bucketing scheme of [1]. The performance of the bucketing scheme in [1] is worse than that of the proposed algorithm in [1] and while our proposed method's performance is comparable to the latter, Polatoglou *et al.* [8] cannot be directly compared to our method.

In the dynamic version of our algorithm the broadcast server is equipped with a Learning Automaton like the one in [8] that contains the server's estimate of the actual demand probabilities for each data item i among the set of the items the server broadcasts.

In the beginning, we assume that all data items have equal demand probability estimates. Thus, before the execution of Algorithm 1, we initialize all the data items demand probabilities to $p_i = 1/N$, where N is the number of data items.

Then we use Algorithm 1 to generate an initial broadcast levels structure. However, instead of using the x_i as in the proposed scheme, we use their normalized values by dividing all x_i with the $\max(x_i)$. Thus, those normalized x_i values are in the interval $(0, 1]$. Those initial values are also stored in the list $known_x$, which will be used in the Learning Automaton.

In order to choose which data items to broadcast, Algorithm 2 is used as in the proposed scheme. After the transmission of item i , the broadcast server awaits for an acknowledging pulse from every client that was waiting item i . The aggregate received pulse power is used at the server to update the values of $known_x_i$ [18]. As $b(k)$ we represent the environment response and is calculated by the sum of the received feedback pulses after the server's k th transmission. After normalization the value of $b(k)$ lies in the interval $[0, 1]$. After each transmission k the server updates the value of transmitted item i , $known_x_i$ as:

$$known_x_i = known_x_i + L \cdot b(k) \quad (11)$$

where L is a parameter in interval $(0, 1)$ that describes the characteristics of the Automaton. Values for L near 0 make the Automaton more stable, but slow in its convergence, while values near 1 make the Automaton less stable and fast.

After a number of server transmission (for example 2000 transmissions), we update the Broadcast Levels structure. First, we normalize the $known_x_i$ values by dividing all x_i with the $\max(x_i)$. Then, we modify the Broadcast Level structure by moving data item between levels, and creating new levels if needed as is described in Algorithm 3.

This adaptive mechanism is evaluated in the results section and its performance is shown to be close to [1] using an SL_{r-i} Learning Automaton [20]. An SL_{r-i} Learning Automaton has the drawback that it needs to update the demand probability estimate for all data items for every transmission, so it has $\mathcal{O}(N)$ time complexity. The proposed method's performance is almost identical. Furthermore, we need to pay the high time complexity of Algorithm 3 only once every few thousand transmissions.

G. Multiple Broadcast Channels

Our proposed method and the algorithms presented so far assume that the server is broadcasting data items over a single channel and all the clients are tuned to this channel. However, it is not uncommon to use multiple channels in wireless communication systems. Many different setups of multiple channel broadcasting systems can be conceived depending on the desired system demands and characteristics. One possible scenario though is that some clients listen to only one channel. In the case that channel does not broadcast the whole data items' population a situation could arise called "starvation", effectively meaning infinite access time for some requests.

In order to avoid a starvation our broadcast schedule algorithm has to ensure that all data items are broadcast at least once from every channel. In this Section we propose an algorithm that will generate that multichannel broadcast schedule for n channels.

Our proposed algorithms 1 and 2 produce a deterministic broadcast schedule with a major cycle calculated in Equation 6

Algorithm 3 Learning Automaton Update Function

Require: Broadcast Levels structure, normalized $known_x_i$

```

1: for all items  $i$  in Broadcast Levels structure do
2:   if item  $i$  stays in its initial level then
3:     do nothing
4:     continue with the next item
5:   end if
6:    $j \leftarrow$  the  $X$  value of the level item  $i$  resides
7:   while choosing level do
8:     if  $known\_x_i > X_j * (accuracy + 1)$  then
9:        $j \leftarrow j + 1$  ▷ Move up a level
10:      if level  $j$  doesn't exist create it with  $X_j = X_j * (accuracy + 1)$ 
11:    else if  $known\_x_i < X_j$  then
12:       $j \leftarrow j - 1$  ▷ Move down a level
13:      if level  $j$  doesn't exist create it with  $X_j = X_j / (accuracy + 1)$ 
14:    else ▷ Place item  $i$  here
15:      remove item from its initial level
16:      add item to level  $j$  just before the Index pointer of level  $j$ 
17:    end if
18:  end while
19: end for

```

Algorithm 4 Multichannel Broadcast Scheduling Algorithm

Require: Broadcast Levels structure, n number of channels, M major cycle length

```

1:  $M \leftarrow 0$  ▷ Major cycle variable
2: for all levels  $level$  in Broadcast Levels structure do
3:    $M \leftarrow M + length(level) \cdot X_{level}$ 
4: end for
5:  $channel\_distance \leftarrow M/n$ 
6: while  $n > 0$  do
7:   Simulate Broadcasting from the Levels structure until items with  $channel\_distance$  total length are transmitted
8:   Copy the Broadcast Levels structure for channel  $n$ 
9:    $n \leftarrow n - 1$ 
10: end while
11: In each channel start generation from its saved level structure

```

529 and a minor cycle calculated in Equation 7. Our goal is to
530 satisfy the demand for constant spacing between inter-arrivals
531 of a data item. To achieve this goal we n equally spaced points
532 in the major cycle, where n is the number of channels to use,
533 and each channel starts to generate the broadcast schedule
534 from that point. Algorithm 4 describes this process.

535 In lines 2-4 of Algorithm 4, we present an alternative
536 method of calculating the major cycle length of the broad-
537 cast schedule. The Learning Automaton scheme we proposed
538 in Section III-F can be modified for multiple channel broad-
539 casting. In that scheme, Algorithm 4 should be used when we
540 update the demand probabilities estimates and consequently
541 change the broadcast level structure.

IV. PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

542

In order to assess the performance of our approach a sim-
543 ulation environment was implemented to test our proposed
544 algorithm versus the method in [1]. We didn't run any tests
545 versus the method in [2] since [1] is known to be the most
546 efficient approach, as it produces near-optimal mean access
547 time.
548

In our simulation, clients are not equipped with any cache
549 memory (as in [1]). For the first three experiments we consider
550 that the data access pattern of the clients is static, meaning
551 that it always remains the same. In the last experiment, the
552 server has no a priori knowledge of the data item demand
553 probabilities and estimates those probabilities using a Learning
554 Automaton. All experiments have been conducted considering
555 that data items have lengths that follow a uniform distribution,
556 with minimum length of 1 and maximum of 10. The data item
557 access probabilities are known to the Broadcast Server and
558 they do not change. Comparison of the proposed approach
559 towards that of [1] is made in terms of overall client mean
560 access time, which, as explained earlier, is the average time
561 a client waits for a requested data item to arrive from the
562 broadcast channel. In all cases, multiple experiments were con-
563 ducted and the confidence interval of the results is 95% for
564 standard deviation of less than 0.1%.
565

The simulation environment investigates a network where
566 the Broadcast Server decides which data item to schedule
567 based on its broadcasting algorithm. In all experiments we
568 conducted the simulation ended when the server satisfied
569 5.000.000 data item requests. There was always one server
570 and 100 clients. Clients demand data items with access pat-
571 terns defined by the Zipf distribution, used in other relevant
572 papers as well [1]–[10], [14]–[16], [18].
573

The Zipf distribution is governed by a parameter θ : $\theta > 0$,
574 known as the access skew coefficient, and defines the demand
575 probability for item i as follows [19]:
576

$$p_i = \frac{1}{H_{(N,\theta)} \cdot i^\theta}, \quad i \geq 1 \quad (12) \quad 577$$

Where: 578

$$H_{(N,\theta)} = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{i^\theta} \quad (13) \quad 579$$

is the N th generated harmonic number of rank θ . 580

For $\theta \rightarrow 0$ (the *theta* parameter of the distribution), the
581 produced distribution verges on the uniform distribution, thus
582 clients tend to demand a larger portion of the data items subject
583 to broadcasting. While $\theta \rightarrow \infty$ the distribution is increasingly
584 skewed, thus the clients tend to demand only a small subset
585 of the data items.
586

We compared our proposed method against that of [1] in
587 terms of average delay experienced by the clients. Comparison
588 is made for various values of θ , N and *accuracy* parameters.
589

For varying θ , conducted experiments examine cases where
590 the number N of items the Broadcast Server has to broadcast
591 is 100, 500 and 1.000, in Figs. 4–6 respectively. In Fig. 8,
592 comparison is made for varying *accuracy* with $\theta = 1$ and
593

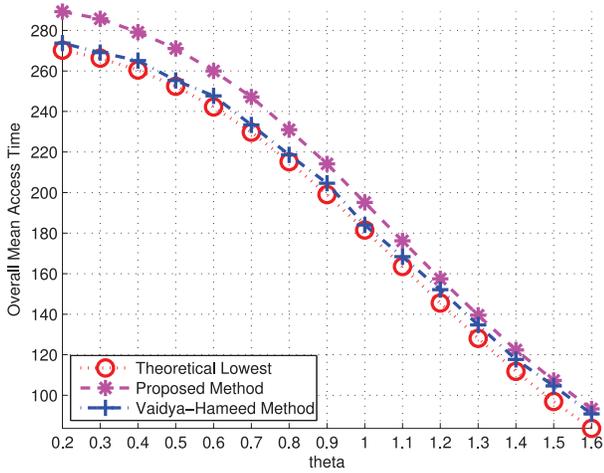


Fig. 4. Performance for varying theta parameter, for a database size of 100 data items in the Broadcast Server. The value of *accuracy* is set to 0.05.

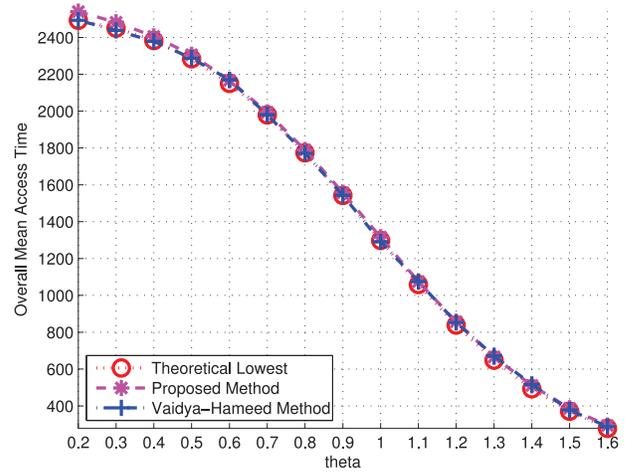


Fig. 6. Performance for varying theta parameter, for a database size of 1000 data items in the Broadcast Server. The value of *accuracy* is set to 0.05.

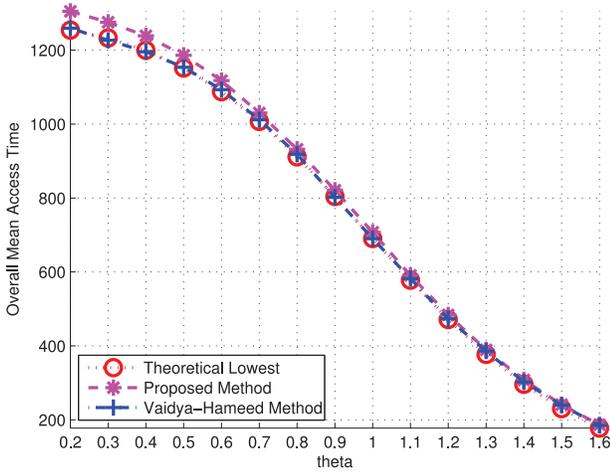


Fig. 5. Performance for varying theta parameter, for a database size of 500 data items in the Broadcast Server. The value of *accuracy* is set to 0.05.

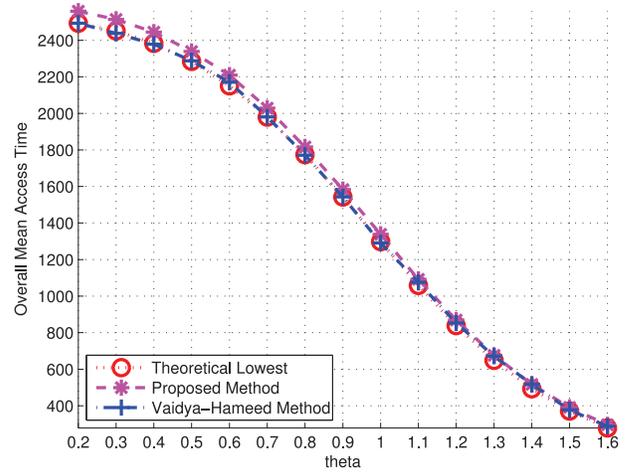


Fig. 7. Performance for varying theta parameter, for a database size of 1000 data items in the Broadcast Server. The value of *accuracy* is set to 0.5.

594 $N = 500$. The main conclusions that can be drawn from these
 595 Figures are discussed below.

596 A. Comparison for Varying Demand Skewness (θ Parameter)

597 In this experiment group, for values of θ parameter ranging
 598 from 0.2 to 1.6, we evaluate the network under examination
 599 for a population of 100, 500 and 1.000 data items and the
 600 results are shown in Figs. 4–6 respectively. Values for θ near 0
 601 mean a practically uniformly distributed probability distribu-
 602 tion function (pdf) for the demand of clients for data items,
 603 whereas values of θ near 1.6 mean a greatly skewed pdf for
 604 the item demands. For each plot we used the same data items
 605 lengths, in order to keep consistency in our results. The value
 606 of the *accuracy* for all experiments is set to 0.05.

607 All three experiments produce similar plots which demon-
 608 strate the performance of the proposed method compared
 609 to [1], irrespective of the number of data items that are subject
 610 to broadcasting. The average delay for the broadcast schedule
 611 generated from our method is less than 2% worse than the
 612 average delay that Vaidya-Hameed’s method produces in the

same scenarios. The results in Fig. 4 may seem like an excep- 613
 tion, however the performance difference falsely shows bigger 614
 only because of the scale of the axes, which is different across 615
 Figs. 4–6. 616

B. Comparison for Varying Accuracy Parameter 617

618 In order to investigate the impact of *accuracy* parameter
 619 on performance, we rerun the experiment presented in Fig. 6,
 620 only this time the value of the parameter *accuracy* is increased
 621 to 0.5. The results are shown in Fig. 7. The performance this
 622 time is only slightly worse than before; with an *accuracy* of 0.5
 623 the proposed method is less than 2% worse than when using
 624 an *accuracy* of 0.05. However, there is a great benefit in the
 625 average number of level hops needed for a broadcast with this
 626 decreased accuracy. At $\theta = 1.6$ and with *accuracy* = 0.05
 627 our results showed that our algorithm traversed 3.5 levels at
 628 average before a data item is selected for broadcast, while
 629 with *accuracy* = 0.5 our algorithm selected almost 1 item per
 630 level hop. 630

631 The average number of level hops is described as the average
 632 level traversals for a level to successfully broadcast any 632

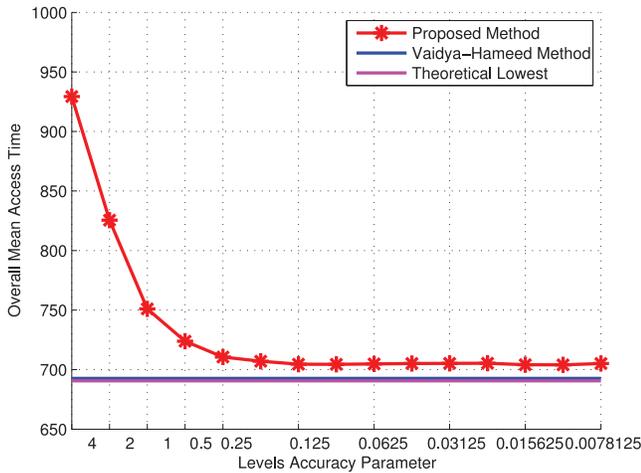


Fig. 8. Performance for varying levels accuracy parameter, for a database size of 500 and theta parameter equal to 1.

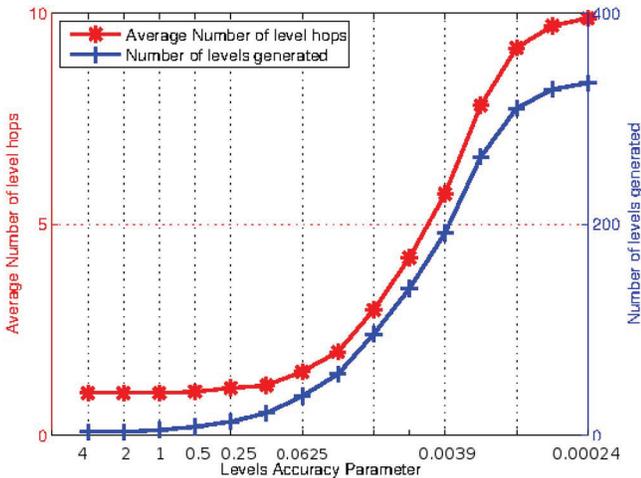


Fig. 9. Number of generated levels and average number of level hops before broadcast, for a database size of 500 and theta parameter equal to 1.

number of data items. This metric is similar to the average complexity of the proposed algorithm. Thus, an average number of level hops equal to 3.5 can be described as $\Theta(3.5)$ time complexity for our method.

In the next experiment we evaluate the network performance for a fixed value of $\theta = 1$ and $N = 500$. We selected 15 values for *accuracy* parameter starting from 4 and ending to 0.000244 by reducing by half in each step.

To assess the impact of *accuracy* on time complexity, in Fig. 8 we demonstrate performance results for choosing small values for *accuracy* and in Fig. 9 the number of levels generated and the average number of level hops between broadcasts. As can be seen in Fig. 8, for values of *accuracy* parameter lower than or equal to 0.125, the benefit in performance is non-existent for our approach. At the same time, Fig. 9 shows that the number of generated levels and the average number of level hops increases rapidly from that point onward. Nevertheless, even for the extreme case of a very small value of *accuracy* = 0.0078125, the average number of levels hops is equal to approximately 10. Thus, our method has an $\Theta(10)$ time complexity in that extreme case. Of course, it can be seen

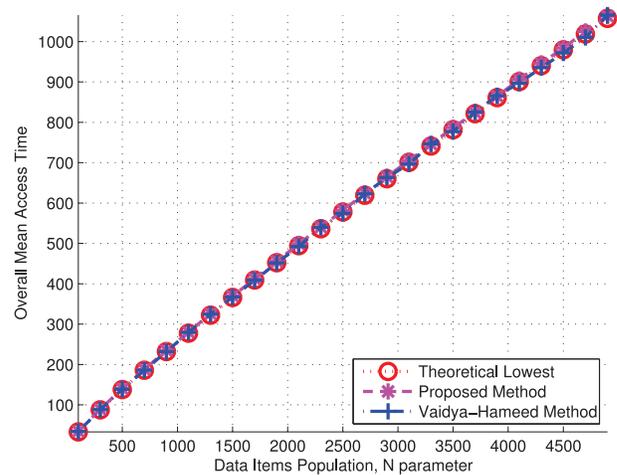


Fig. 10. Performance for varying number of data items (N) parameter, for theta parameter equal to 1.

from Fig. 7, that for useful larger values of *accuracy* that produce meaningful benefits in terms of mean access time (e.g., larger than 0.25 as can be seen from Fig. 8), the time complexity of our approach is even smaller and approaches $\Theta(1)$. This constitutes a significant benefit towards [1], which is required to calculate N times Equation 3 in order to select an item for broadcast.

C. Comparison for Varying the Number of Data Items Broadcast by the Broadcast Server

In this experiment we assess the system performance for a fixed value of $\theta = 1$ and for a varying number of data items in the Broadcast Server. The *accuracy* parameter is set to 0.05. The results are shown in Fig. 10. The linear relationship between average delay and number of data items is obvious in Fig. 10, which again demonstrates the almost identical performance in terms of mean access time of the proposed approach compared to that of [1].

Overall, from Figs. 4–8, it can be observed that the performance of [1] and our method are both very close to the lowest possible achievable average delay. In general the average delay produced by [1] is within 2% of the theoretical lowest, while that of our method is good within 4%. The great benefit of our proposed method is the low complexity versus the $\mathcal{O}(N)$ for method [1]. That compromise between the degradation of performance and the low complexity of our method could be justified in many real world applications.

Finally, a comparison of our approach in terms of that of Vaidya and Hameed [1] when the latter utilizes the bucketing scheme should be made. By using l buckets the computational complexity in [1] reduces from $\mathcal{O}(N)$ to $\mathcal{O}(l)$. Vaidya and Hameed [1] demonstrate performance results of their method versus its bucketing version, where the latter under-performs greatly while parameter θ increases. This is not the case for our method, which demonstrates similar performance for different values of the θ parameter, even with high values for *accuracy* parameter. Simultaneously, our method achieves low computational complexity; even for very low values for the *accuracy* parameter worst time complexity was $\Theta(10)$ and for better selected values of *accuracy* our

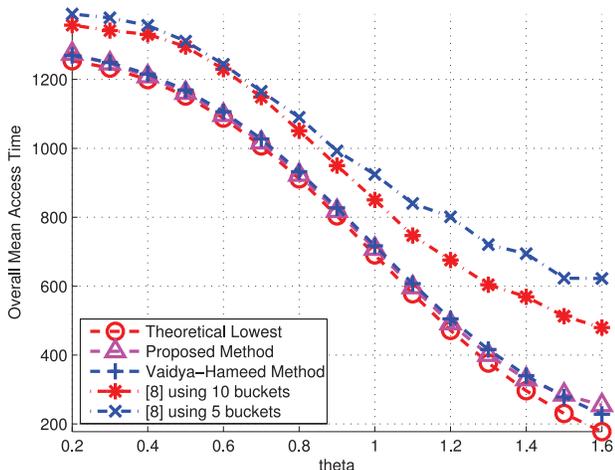


Fig. 11. Performance for varying theta parameter, for a database size of 500. The data item demand probabilities are unknown to the server. The value of *accuracy* is set to 0.05.

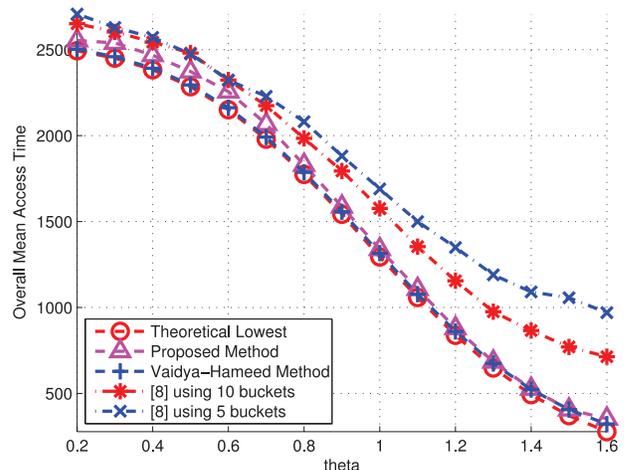


Fig. 12. Performance for varying theta parameter, for a database size of 1000. The data item demand probabilities are unknown to the server. The value of *accuracy* is set to 0.5.

693 method has time complexity of $\Theta(1)$, much better than the
694 time complexity linear to the number of buckets the bucketing
695 version in [1] achieves.

696 D. Comparison for Varying Demand Skewness 697 Using Learning Automaton

698 In this group of experiments we assess the system perfor-
699 mance for varying values of θ parameter ranging from 0.2
700 to 1.6. The data items demand probabilities are not known
701 to the server a priori. Instead, a Learning Automaton is used
702 in all algorithms under investigation. Specifically, we com-
703 pare the proposed method to both the method in [1] and [8].
704 In the case of the former a SL_{r-i} Automaton was used. This
705 Automaton is described by high computational cost since it
706 needs to update the estimation of the demand probabilities for
707 each data item, every time the server selects a data item for
708 broadcast. In [8] an algorithm is described with low compu-
709 tational which exploits the bucketing scheme proposed in [1].
710 However, the performance of that method is bound by the
711 limitations of using the bucketing scheme.

712 Those methods are compared to our proposed scheme when
713 using the Learning Automaton described in Algorithm 3
714 with the updating function running every 5000 broadcasts. In
715 Fig. 11 the number of data items is 500 and in Fig. 12 the
716 number of data items is 1000. In the former experiment the
717 *accuracy* parameter for the proposed method is set to 0.05 and
718 in the latter to 0.5. Those values of the *accuracy* parameter
719 lead to a Broadcast Levels structure with an computational
720 complexity less than $\mathcal{O}(5)$, in correspondence to the method
721 in [8] which is described by $\mathcal{O}(5)$ in the case of using 5
722 buckets and $\mathcal{O}(10)$ when using 10 buckets.

723 Both the proposed method and the methods in [1] and [8]
724 were allowed to “warm-up” for 1,500,000 data item broad-
725 casts.

726 As can be seen in Figs. 11 and 12, the proposed scheme and
727 the method in [1] performed almost identically and managed
728 to converge to the true data item demand probabilities. The
729 performance of the method in [8] depends on the number of
730 buckets used.

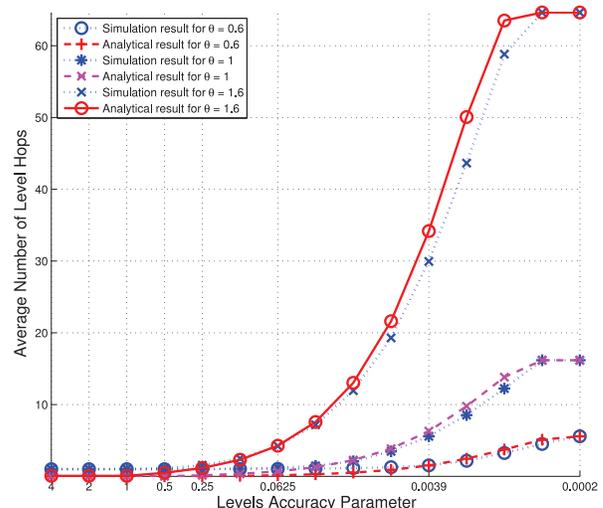


Fig. 13. Broadcast Levels Complexity Calculation through Analysis and Simulation for a population of 1,000 data items.

AQ4

731 V. STUDY ON BROADCAST LEVELS SCHEDULE 732 CONSTRUCTION TIME COMPLEXITY

733 The main advantage of the proposed method versus the
734 state of the art algorithm proposed in [1] is the low compu-
735 tational complexity. In this section we present a study
736 on Broadcast Levels average time complexity for data item
737 population following the Zipf distribution as described in
738 Equation 12.

739 A. Preliminaries

740 In zipf distribution p_1 is the $\max(p_i)$, $\forall i \in [1, N]$ and p_N is
741 the $\min(p_i)$, $\forall i \in [1, N]$. Each of the x_i used in the broadcast
742 schedule construction algorithm is given by Equation 5. Since
743 we are interested in the average computational complexity of
744 our method, we calculate the expected values for x_i using the
745 expected data items lengths (l_i parameter).

$$E(x_i) = \frac{s_N}{s_i} = \sqrt{\frac{p_i \cdot E(l_N)}{p_N \cdot E(l_i)}}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq M \quad (14) \quad 746$$

747 Since $E(l_N)$ equals to $E(l_i)$:

$$748 \quad x_i = \sqrt{\frac{p_i}{p_N}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\frac{H_{N,\theta} \cdot i^\theta}{H_{N,\theta} \cdot N^\theta}}} = \sqrt{\frac{N^\theta}{i^\theta}} \quad (15)$$

749 Hence from Equation 12 and 15 we calculate minimum and
750 maximum x_i :

$$751 \quad x_{max} = x_1 = \sqrt{N^\theta}, x_{min} = x_N = 1 \quad (16)$$

752 The lengths of the major and minor cycles of the broadcast
753 schedule are calculated as in Equation 17 and Equation 18
754 respectively.

$$755 \quad s_N = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i = s_1 \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{s_i} \quad (17)$$

$$756 \quad s_1 = \frac{1}{x_1} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i = \frac{\sqrt{\frac{N^\theta}{1^\theta}} + \sqrt{\frac{N^\theta}{2^\theta}} + \dots + \sqrt{\frac{N^\theta}{N^\theta}}}{\sqrt{N^\theta}} = \quad (18)$$

$$757 \quad = \sum \sqrt{\frac{1}{i^\theta}} = H_{N, \frac{\theta}{2}} \quad (19)$$

758 B. Number of Levels Constructed

759 The number of levels generated depends on the *accuracy*
760 parameter and the characteristics of the data items demand
761 probabilities distribution.

762 System parameter *accuracy* $\in [1, \infty)$, notated here as l ,
763 dictates for all levels that

$$764 \quad l = \frac{x_k}{x_{k+m_k}} = \sqrt{\frac{(k+m_k)^\theta}{k^\theta}} \quad (20)$$

$$765 \quad m_k = \left(l^{2/\theta} - 1 \right) \cdot k \quad (21)$$

766 where x_k is the most, x_{k+m} is the least popular data item and
767 m_k is the number of data items in the level that starts from
768 item k . If we set $(l^{2/\theta} - 1)$ as a , then Equation 21 can be
769 rewritten as $m_k = a \cdot k$.

770 The first data item of level i function, notated as $lev(i)$, is
771 a recursive one with $lev(1) = N$ and:

$$772 \quad lev(i+1) = lev(i) - m_{lev(i)} = lev(i) \cdot (1-a) \quad (22)$$

773 and the last data item in level i is calculated as

$$774 \quad lev_last(i) = N \cdot (1-a)^i \quad (23)$$

775 Equation 23 can calculate levels only while $lev_last(i-1) -$
776 $lev_last(i) \geq 1$. Solving for the equality and i variable yields:

$$777 \quad i = \log_{1-a} \frac{1}{Na} + 1 \quad (24)$$

778 As a result the total number of levels is i as calculated in
779 Equation 23 plus the remaining data items that create a level
780 each and is always less than N , the population of data items.

$$781 \quad Number_of_Levels = i + N \cdot (1-a)^i \quad (25)$$

C. Average Time Complexity

782 Every time a minor cycle of the broadcast schedule is com-
783 pleted, all levels have been traversed exactly once. The average
784 number of level traversals per broadcast can describe the time
785 complexity of the proposed algorithm. 786

787 The average complexity of Broadcast Levels is a function
788 of the total number of levels divided by the number of items
789 broadcast in a minor cycle: 789

$$T(N) = \frac{Number_of_Levels}{H_{N, \frac{\theta}{2}}} \quad (26) \quad 790$$

791 This analytical function for time complexity is a good
792 estimate that agrees with the results from the experiments con-
793 ducted in Section IV. This can be seen in Fig. 11 where we
794 compare the average number of level hops per broadcast as
795 calculated from both the Equation 26 and the simulation for
796 different θ and *accuracy* values. 796

VI. CONCLUSION

798 The main interest in push-based systems is that they can
799 provide a cheap telecommunication alternative to pull-based
800 architectures. However, the state of the art algorithm for the
801 construction of the broadcast schedule is characterised by its
802 high computational complexity of $\mathcal{O}(N)$. Such complexity is
803 prohibitively high since push-based systems commonly contain
804 a large population of data items. The bucketing scheme
805 in [1] battles this constrain, though degrades the system's
806 performance. 806

807 This paper proposes a new scheduling algorithm for wireless
808 push systems, which performs near optimal and has a low
809 computational complexity. The trade-off between performance
810 and time complexity can be controlled through *accuracy*, the
811 single parameter of the system. 811

812 Extensive simulation results are presented that reveal our
813 methods excellent performance despite its low computational
814 demands. 814

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