

network delay upon reception of the i th packet. This estimate is constructed from the timestamps as follows:

$$d_i = (1 - u) d_{i-1} + u (r_i - t_i)$$

where u is a fixed constant (for example, $u = 0.01$). Thus d_i is a smoothed average of the observed network delays $r_1 - t_1, \dots, r_i - t_i$. The estimate places more weight on the recently observed network delays than on the observed network delays of the distant past. This form of estimate should not be completely unfamiliar; a similar idea is used to estimate round-trip times in TCP, as discussed in Chapter 3. Let v_i denote an estimate of the average deviation of the delay from the estimated average delay. This estimate is also constructed from the timestamps:

$$v_i = (1 - u) v_{i-1} + u |r_i - t_i - d_i|$$

The estimates d_i and v_i are calculated for every packet received, although they are used only to determine the playout point for the first packet in any talk spurt.

Once having calculated these estimates, the receiver employs the following algorithm for the playout of packets. If packet i is the first packet of a talk spurt, its playout time, p_i , is computed as:

$$p_i = t_i + d_i + K v_i$$

where K is a positive constant (for example, $K = 4$). The purpose of the $K v_i$ term is to set the playout time far enough into the future so that only a small fraction of the arriving packets in the talk spurt will be lost due to late arrivals. The playout point for any subsequent packet in a talk spurt is computed as an offset from the point in time when the first packet in the talk spurt was played out. In particular, let

$$q_i = p_i - t_i$$

be the length of time from when the first packet in the talk spurt is generated until it is played out. If packet j also belongs to this talk spurt, it is played out at time

$$p_j = t_j + q_i$$

The algorithm just described makes perfect sense assuming that the receiver can tell whether a packet is the first packet in the talk spurt. This can be done by examining the signal energy in each received packet.

7.3.3 Recovering from Packet Loss

We have discussed in some detail how a VoIP application can deal with packet jitter. We now briefly describe several schemes that attempt to preserve acceptable audio

quality in the presence of packet loss. Such schemes are called **loss recovery schemes**. Here we define packet loss in a broad sense: A packet is lost either if it never arrives at the receiver or if it arrives after its scheduled playout time. Our VoIP example will again serve as a context for describing loss recovery schemes.

As mentioned at the beginning of this section, retransmitting lost packets may not be feasible in a real-time conversational application such as VoIP. Indeed, retransmitting a packet that has missed its playout deadline serves absolutely no purpose. And retransmitting a packet that overflowed a router queue cannot normally be accomplished quickly enough. Because of these considerations, VoIP applications often use some type of loss anticipation scheme. Two types of loss anticipation schemes are **forward error correction (FEC)** and **interleaving**.

Forward Error Correction (FEC)

The basic idea of FEC is to add redundant information to the original packet stream. For the cost of marginally increasing the transmission rate, the redundant information can be used to reconstruct approximations or exact versions of some of the lost packets. Following [Bolot 1996] and [Perkins 1998], we now outline two simple FEC mechanisms. The first mechanism sends a redundant encoded chunk after every n chunks. The redundant chunk is obtained by exclusive OR-ing the n original chunks [Shacham 1990]. In this manner if any one packet of the group of $n + 1$ packets is lost, the receiver can fully reconstruct the lost packet. But if two or more packets in a group are lost, the receiver cannot reconstruct the lost packets. By keeping $n + 1$, the group size, small, a large fraction of the lost packets can be recovered when loss is not excessive. However, the smaller the group size, the greater the relative increase of the transmission rate. In particular, the transmission rate increases by a factor of $1/n$, so that, if $n = 3$, then the transmission rate increases by 33 percent. Furthermore, this simple scheme increases the playout delay, as the receiver must wait to receive the entire group of packets before it can begin playout. For more practical details about how FEC works for multimedia transport see [RFC 5109].

The second FEC mechanism is to send a lower-resolution audio stream as the redundant information. For example, the sender might create a nominal audio stream and a corresponding low-resolution, low-bit rate audio stream. (The nominal stream could be a PCM encoding at 64 kbps, and the lower-quality stream could be a GSM encoding at 13 kbps.) The low-bit rate stream is referred to as the redundant stream. As shown in Figure 7.8, the sender constructs the n th packet by taking the n th chunk from the nominal stream and appending to it the $(n - 1)$ st chunk from the redundant stream. In this manner, whenever there is nonconsecutive packet loss, the receiver can conceal the loss by playing out the low-bit rate encoded chunk that arrives with the subsequent packet. Of course, low-bit rate chunks give lower quality than the nominal chunks. However, a stream of mostly high-quality chunks, occasional low-quality chunks, and no missing chunks gives good overall audio quality. Note that in this scheme, the receiver only has to receive two packets before playback, so that the increased playout delay is small. Furthermore, if the low-bit

rate encoding is much less than the nominal encoding, then the marginal increase in the transmission rate will be small.

In order to cope with consecutive loss, we can use a simple variation. Instead of appending just the $(n - 1)$ st low-bit rate chunk to the n th nominal chunk, the sender can append the $(n - 1)$ st and $(n - 2)$ nd low-bit rate chunk, or append the $(n - 1)$ st and $(n - 3)$ rd low-bit rate chunk, and so on. By appending more low-bit rate chunks to each nominal chunk, the audio quality at the receiver becomes acceptable for a wider variety of harsh best-effort environments. On the other hand, the additional chunks increase the transmission bandwidth and the playout delay.

Interleaving

As an alternative to redundant transmission, a VoIP application can send interleaved audio. As shown in Figure 7.9, the sender resequences units of audio data before transmission, so that originally adjacent units are separated by a certain distance in the transmitted stream. Interleaving can mitigate the effect of packet losses. If, for example, units are 5 msec in length and chunks are 20 msec (that is, four units per chunk), then the first chunk could contain units 1, 5, 9, and 13; the second chunk could contain units 2, 6, 10, and 14; and so on. Figure 7.9 shows that the loss of a single packet from an interleaved stream results in multiple small gaps in the reconstructed stream, as opposed to the single large gap that would occur in a noninterleaved stream.

Interleaving can significantly improve the perceived quality of an audio stream [Perkins 1998]. It also has low overhead. The obvious disadvantage of interleaving is that it increases latency. This limits its use for conversational applications such as VoIP, although it can perform well for streaming stored audio. A major advantage of interleaving is that it does not increase the bandwidth requirements of a stream.

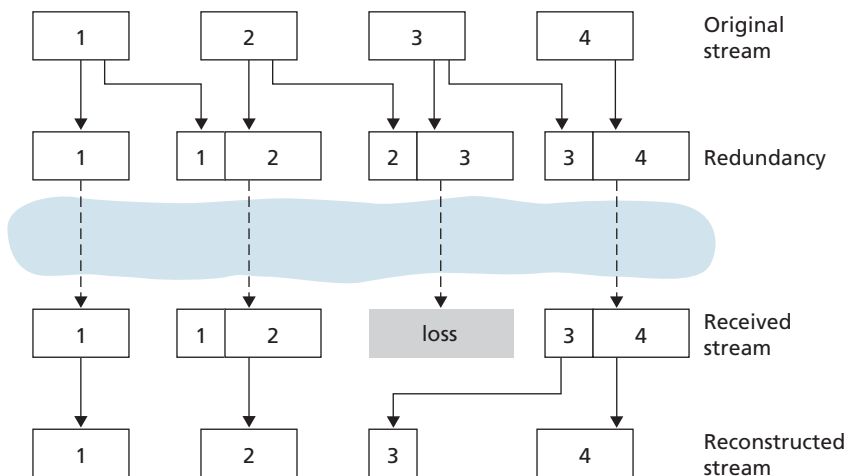


Figure 7.8 ♦ Piggybacking lower-quality redundant information