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# Adaptive Playout for VoIP based on the Enhanced Low Delay AAC Audio Codec

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## ABSTRACT

The MPEG-4 Enhanced Low Delay AAC (AAC-ELD) codec extends the application area of the Advanced Audio Coding (AAC) family towards high quality conversational services. Through the support of the full audio bandwidth at low delay and low bit rate, it offers excellent support for enhanced VoIP applications. In this paper we provide a brief overview of the AAC-ELD codec and describe how its codec structure can be exploited for IP transport. The overlapping frames and excellent error concealment make it possible to use frame insertion/deletion in order to adjust the playout time to varying network delay. A playout algorithm is proposed which estimates the jitter on the network and adapts the size of the de-jitter buffer in order to minimize buffering delay and late loss. Considering typical network conditions and the same average delay, it is shown that the playout algorithm can reduce the loss rate by more than one magnitude compared to fixed playout.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Voice over IP (VoIP) has been widely adopted in the past few years and begins to play a dominant role in today's telephone infrastructure. Besides cost reduction, VoIP has the great potential to significantly improve speech quality through advances in compression technology. Current VoIP applications mainly rely on speech codecs with relatively low audio quality, limited to 3.5-7 kHz audio bandwidth. With the

upcoming standardization of low delay perceptual audio codecs, like AAC-ELD, a new quality level can be achieved through full 22 kHz audio bandwidth, multi-channel support, and low content dependency. This new class of audio codecs fulfills the delay and bit rate requirements for conversational services and builds the basis for a new application area, termed *Audio Communication*.

Considering the transmission over a best-effort IP

network, however, not only the pure source coding parameters are of importance. In addition, packet loss, delay jitter, and abrupt changes in network delay have to be combated. As a matter of fact, the requirements for error concealment and network adaptation rise with higher quality audio connections. Therefore, the integration of the AAC-ELD codec into the transmission framework is studied in this paper.

## 2. ENHANCED LOW DELAY AAC

In this section of the paper the AAC-ELD codec is introduced with its main features. The provided information is limited to the details needed for the main part of the paper. For further information on AAC-ELD the reader is referred to [3].

### 2.1. Relation to other AAC Codecs

AAC-ELD combines the strengths of its two main components, MPEG-4 Low Delay AAC (AAC-LD), and Spectral Band Replication (SBR). Whereas MPEG-4 AAC-LD features low encoding/decoding latency, SBR provides high quality audio at very low bit rates. SBR is also used in MPEG-4 High-Efficiency AAC (HE-AAC), one of today's most efficient audio codecs.

AAC-ELD is standardized in MPEG since 2008. The technical development of the codec was finalized at the 82nd MPEG meeting in October 2007. The specification document for AAC-ELD is available since January 2008 as ISO/IEC 14496-3:2008/Amd.9. It features two main advantages over AAC-LD: low algorithmic delay of 15 ms with very high audio quality at about 48-64 kbit/s, and a low bit rate with high audio quality at about 24-48 kbit/s and 32 ms algorithmic delay. One audio frame typically covers 10 or 20 ms. Furthermore, it supports super wide band audio bandwidth (14 kHz) at 28 kbit/s and above, scales up to perceptual transparency, is suitable for speech and music, and provides multi-channel support

### 2.2. Error Concealment

In low delay communication scenarios it is not possible to retransmit lost packets and reconstruct an error-free bit stream. Instead, the receiver has to be capable to mitigate the effects of packet loss as good as possible by implementing *error concealment techniques*. In general, error concealment can be seen as

independent from the coding scheme. However, the overlap of audio frames as used in all AAC codecs provides a significant advantage for effective error concealment. Furthermore, it allows to apply low-complexity payout time adjustment as described below. Because of the importance to this work, the basic principle is reviewed in this section.

AAC codecs encode audio samples using a certain frame length. AAC-ELD uses a frame length of 480 or 512 sample in the low delay mode at higher bitrates and 960 or 1024 samples in low bit rates mode. Each AAC-ELD frame is windowed, using a delay optimized window. In order to reconstruct the audio signal of the current frame, a cross fade with the preceding and following frame is applied. Fig. 1 illustrates this basic principle using a simplified sine window.

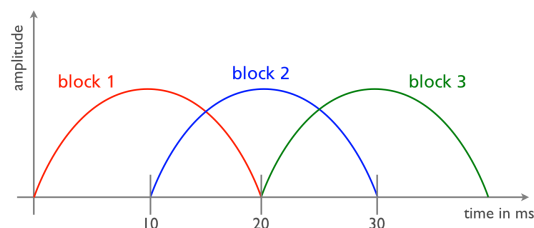


Fig. 1: Illustration of overlapping AAC frames

In the case where an audio frame is lost, one can mitigate the loss by exploiting the available information in adjacent frames.

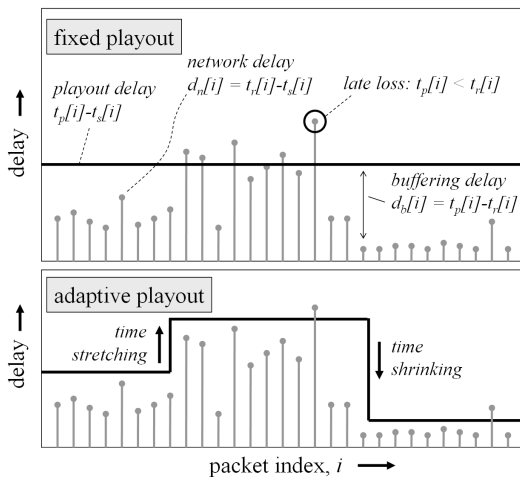
As described above, AAC-ELD consists of two components, delay optimized AAC and SBR, which require different concealment methods. In [2] and [4] several possible approaches are discussed. Even though spectrum *interpolation* can provide the best performance, it can not be used in low delay applications because it causes additional delay. Instead, one has to rely on *extrapolation*. The error concealment technique employed in this work is based on a combination of prediction, attenuation, and noise substitution in sub bands and can provide good audio quality up to a frame loss rate of 10% [4].

## 3. ADAPTIVE PLAYOUT

For transmission of real-time media over IP networks

the Realtime Transport Protocol (RTP) [1] is commonly used. RTP works on top of the User Datagram Protocol (UDP), which is a connectionless, unreliable protocol. Therefore, network effects must be detected, measured and compensated in the application layer. The two main effects that have to be considered are *frame loss*, where the IP frame is discarded by the network and not conveyed to the receiver and *network delay jitter*, describing the effect that packets undergo a variable delay while traversing the network. The former is handled by loss detection based on RTP sequence numbers and error concealment as described in the previous section. This paper focuses on adaptive playout which is an effective method to combat the latter effect, i.e. jitter.

Fig. 2 illustrates the basic principle of adaptive playout and introduces the key variables and performance criteria. It shows the network delay  $d_n[i] = t_r[i] - t_s[i]$  for a sequence of packets, where  $i$  is the packet index and  $t_s[i]$  and  $t_r[i]$  are the sending time and the reception time respectively. Typically, the sending times  $t_s[i]$  are equidistant at the frame period  $T$ . In the following we assume  $T = 10$  ms as typically used for AAC-ELD. Note that the sending time can be recovered at the receiver through the RTP time stamps except for an arbitrary offset, which however is irrelevant for adaptive playout.



**Fig. 2:** Comparison of fixed vs. adaptive playout

As illustrated in the figure, the network delay is typically not constant but changes over time. The main cause for these changes is the queuing delay in network nodes like routers or switches. The queues of these nodes are shared by a variable number of concurrent network connections with variable transmission rates. Depending on the current queue length at the time when an audio packet arrives it will undergo a variable queuing delay before it is transmitted. Because the cross traffic can change almost instantaneously the changes are very dynamic, i.e. in the order of milliseconds. For multiple hops the queuing delays can add up to several 100 ms. Another reason for delay changes are changes of the routing path. However, these routing events occur on a much longer time scale as shown in [5], i.e. once in several hours or days.

The receiver can compensate this delay jitter by buffering packets in a *de-jitter buffer* before decoding and playout. I.e., after a packet is received it is not decoded and played out immediately but buffered until the playout time  $t_p[i] = t_r[i] + d_b[i]$ , where  $d_b[i]$  describes the buffering delay of the packet. For *fixed playout*, the playout times are spaced equidistant at the frame period  $T$ , which results in a constant end-to-end delay as illustrated by the solid line in Fig. 2. Any packet arriving before the playout time can be decoded and played out correctly. Packets arriving after the playout time have to be considered as lost and need to be concealed. For clarity, we use the term *network loss* to describe the packets which are actually lost on the network while the term *late loss* is used to describe the packets which do arrive but are too late to be played out. The corresponding loss rates are denoted  $e_n$  and  $e_l$  respectively and the total loss rate is  $e = e_n + e_l$ . Finally we define  $d_b$  to be the *average buffering delay* of those packets that are actually played out, i.e. neither lost on the network nor late.

Note that the receiver can reduce the late loss by increasing the average buffering delay, i.e. by increasing the playout time. Selecting the right trade-off is up to the receiver implementation and depends on the given delay constraints. Many implementations use a fixed and conservative buffer size, maybe adjustable by the user. This method is simple to implement and works for many applications, especially for broadcasting scenarios. For communication pur-

poses, however, it is common practice to improve the trade-off through adaptive playout. The basic idea is to change the playout time adaptively based on estimations of the network jitter as illustrated in the bottom graph of Fig. 2. For example, if the delay and/or jitter increases on the network then the playout time should be increased to reduce late loss. On the other hand, if the delay and/or jitter decreases at a certain point then it does not make sense to maintain a big de-jitter buffer resulting in a long buffering delay. Instead, the buffer should be reduced.

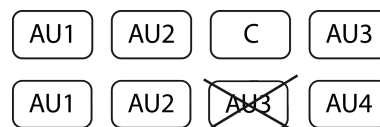
In order to implement adaptive playout two main issues have to be addressed. The first issue is the modification of the time scale. Note that the adaptation of the playout time requires to shrink or stretch the audio signal during adaptation. This has to be done with the least possible subjective distortion. Second, the receiver needs to decide when and how fast to increase/decrease the jitter buffer size. This task uses network measurements as input and should consider the effect of time scaling on subjective quality. Both issues, *Time Modification* and *Playout Control* are addressed in the following two subsections in more detail.

### 3.1. Time Modification

To adapt the playout to the current buffering requirements, the application needs to time stretch or time shrink the audio samples. For stationary time stretching, e.g. to compensate clock drifts between sender and receiver, audio re-sampling can be a good choice. However, the adaptation to changing network conditions is not stationary at all and fast changes in pitch would annoy the listener. Therefore, a different approach is used here, exploiting the principles of AAC and its excellent concealment performance.

Reconsidering section 2.2, it is noted that concealment can already be interpreted as stretching the time of the previously received AAC frame. Therefore, it can be used for increasing the playout time with a very minor modification to the normal operation. Fig. 3 shows the access unit sequence for time stretching in the top line, where an additional “virtual” access unit ‘C’ is concealed in between AU2 and AU3. In normal concealment operation where the playout time is kept constant, the next access

unit (AU3) would be discarded if it arrives after the concealment operation. In our case, however, it is decoded and played out. As a result, the whole sequence is four frames long instead of three and the playout time is increased by one frame period  $T$ . The resulting effect of this decoding strategy is that the playout time is increased by one frame period for each late loss.



**Fig. 3:** Time Stretching (top) and Shrinking (bottom) using AAC Concealment

On the other hand, if the size of the jitter buffer shall be reduced, single AAC frames are dropped, i.e. not forwarded to the decoder. In the bottom line of Fig. 3, one access unit is skipped before decoding. Thus, the actual sequence of access units is no longer 1,2,3,4 but 1,2,4, shortening the actual sequence of access units by one frame period  $T$ . Although the audio quality of this time stretching and time shrinking algorithm may be inferior to more sophisticated approaches such as WSOLA [6], we found that it preserves very decent audio quality. Also note that it is not needed continuously but only at changing network conditions and it does not require any additional processing power because it is built right into the decoder.

### 3.2. Playout Control

As mentioned above, the playout control is responsible for adjusting the playout time based on network measurements and other information. It is the central intelligence in the receiver application and has a major impact on the overall performance. We first describe the main receiver structure and then focus on the control algorithm.

#### 3.2.1. Receiver Structure

The receiver application includes four main components as illustrated in Fig. 4. The network interface, the packet buffer, the AAC-ELD decoder and the sound card. Network and sound card functionality is generally provided by the underlying operating system and is therefore not further explained.

The packet buffer stores the received RTP packets, compensates disordering and detects frame loss. In case of frame loss or buffer underrun it tells the decoder to conceal the current access unit. Otherwise, if a valid access unit is available, it forwards the AU to the AAC-ELD decoder, which decodes the frame and provides its audio samples.

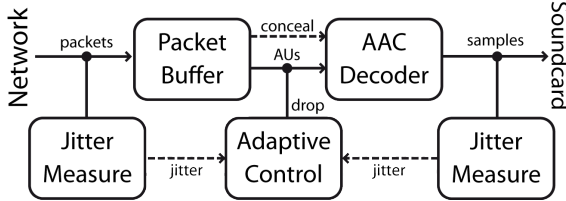


Fig. 4: Receiver Structure

The lower components in Fig. 4 are part of the playout control algorithm and do jitter calculation and playout adaptation. Note that an additional jitter calculation from the sound card is indicated in Fig. 4. Sound card jitter has to be considered if the operating system cannot guarantee a sufficient real-time performance for the receiver application. In this case the processing delay for audio decoding and other tasks is not deterministic but varies and can be delayed by several milliseconds. In order to avoid buffer underrun in the sound card, this variable processing delay has to be compensated with bigger buffers in the sound card which are filled in bursts during times when sufficient processing power is available. This behavior is very similar to the network jitter and treated in an analog way. For specific platforms, operating systems, and network conditions we observed that the jitter of the sound card can actually be bigger than the jitter on the network and therefore be the limiting factor. The consideration of the sound card jitter is important for software implementations that should run on many platforms at minimum delay. For hardware implementations or in a strict real-time environment there is no need for measuring the sound card jitter and adapt to it dynamically. For simplicity we will ignore the treatment of the sound card jitter in the following.

### 3.2.2. Playout Control Algorithm

The jitter measure module estimates the buffer size, which is needed to absorb the current jitter. This is

accomplish by storing the network delay values  $d_n[i]$  in a delay line (FIFO) containing  $N=100$  values, i.e. 1 second at  $T=10$  ms. The size of the delay line controls an important trade-off between fast adaptation and accuracy and was chosen empirically. At the reception of packet  $i$  the variance  $\sigma^2[i]$  of the network delay is calculated as an estimate over the previous  $N$  samples as

$$\sigma^2[i] = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{j=i-N+1}^i (d_n[j] - \mu)^2 \quad (1)$$

where  $\mu$  is the estimated mean calculated as

$$\mu = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=i-N+1}^i d_n[j]. \quad (2)$$

Based on the estimated variance  $\sigma^2[i]$  the minimum buffering time that should be maintained by the receiver is calculated as  $B_{min}[i] = K\sigma[i]$ , where  $K$  is a constant which can be used to control the trade-off between buffering time and late loss. Increasing  $K$  increases the buffer size proportional to the estimated variance and therefore reduces the probability of late loss. Under the assumption that the network delay is normally distributed, a value of  $K = 3$  would correspond to the 99% confidence interval, i.e. 99% of the packets should arrive in time. Due to the fact, that network jitter is not normally distributed, an empirical factor of  $K = 5$  is chosen instead.

Based on the resulting  $B_{min}[i]$ , which is updated at the reception of each packet, the control of the buffer size is as follows. First, the amount of time which is currently buffered is calculated. If this current buffer time  $B[i]$  is greater than the minimum buffer time  $B_{min}[i]$  then one audio frame is dropped. Otherwise no dropping is initiated. Furthermore, in order to avoid too fast and therefore annoying playout, the dropping is limited to a certain rate. More specifically, dropping is only allowed if more than  $D_{min}$  packets have been played out continuously without a drop. In our implementation we use a drop rate of 5% i.e.  $D_{min} = 20$  based on subjective tests.

While the previous paragraph describes when and how the buffer size is reduced, we now describe how the buffer size is increased. Basically, building up

the buffer is accomplished implicitly when reading from the packet buffer. For this purpose, the playout algorithm follows two simple rules and maintains a so-called expected sequence number, which is incremented every time a packet was read out of the packet buffer queue successfully. The first rule is to *conceal*, if the buffer is empty in which case the expected sequence number is not incremented. As a result, the buffer size is increased by one frame period  $T$  for each late loss. The second rule is to *conceal*, if the expected sequence number is smaller, than the sequence number of the oldest packet in the queue, which results in loss detection. These two basic rules are sufficient to cover a wide range of network conditions, including delay spikes and long drop outs.

One basic design goal that is implemented by the described playout control algorithm is to build up the buffer almost instantaneously but reduce the buffer size more slowly. This conservative behavior provides more time to adapt to changing network conditions and avoids oscillations of continuous buffer increases/decreases. Furthermore, in contrast to other playout algorithms, the buffer size is not increased actively without any need but only when late loss actually happens. This avoids unnecessary adaptation events that may result from estimation errors in the jitter calculation.

#### 4. NETWORK MEASUREMENTS

Fig. 5 shows the delay graph of a real network measurement, recorded on an intercontinental Internet link between Nuremberg and Berkley over the duration of two minutes.

The lines show the network delay  $d_n[i]$  and playout delay  $d_p[i]$  as introduced in Fig. 2. In this measurement, jitter varies heavily especially at around sequence number 12000, where the delay increases by more than 200 ms for a duration of about 20 seconds. As can be seen, the playout delay follows the network delay very closely and is only slightly above the network delay. Every leap in the playout time stands for either concealment or dropping of one access unit. According to the frame size of AAC-ELD, every concealment increments the delay by 10 ms, while every drop reduces the delay by 10 ms.

To show some more details of the adaption process, Fig. 6 depicts another measurement for a reduced

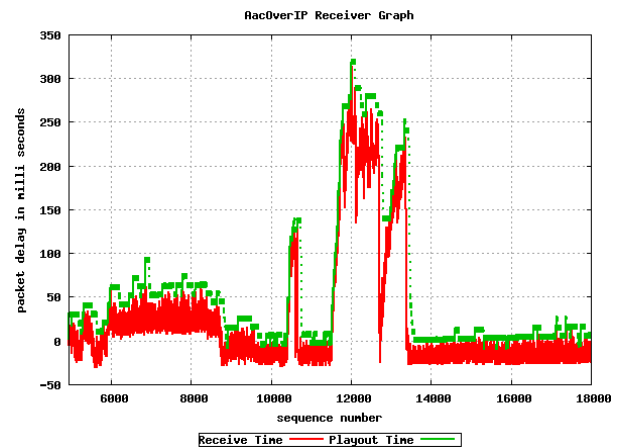


Fig. 5: Network Trace and Timing Graph

number of packets covering about 10 seconds. At about sequence number 6400 and 6600, two packets are received too late and are concealed by the decoder. The concealment results in a buffer increment of 10 ms, which is indicated by the discontinuity in the playout time and the triangle. Since the jitter is reduced again after sequence number 6800, the buffer is reduced by one access unit by the algorithm. Another buffer reduction can also be observed at the very end of the figure.

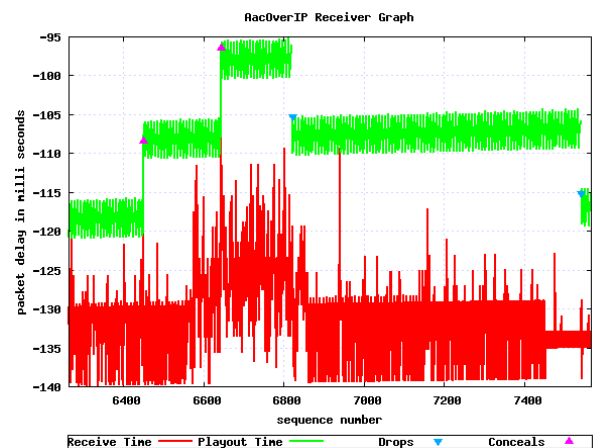
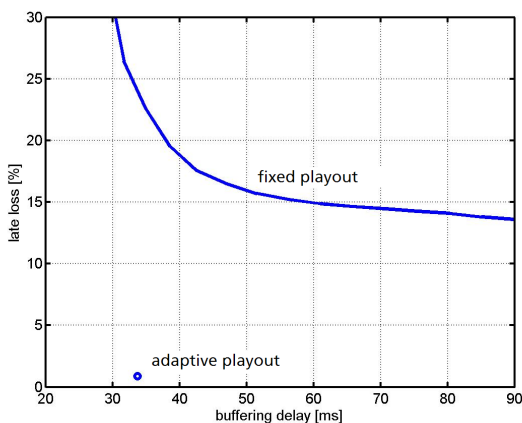


Fig. 6: Detailed Adaptation Process

Considering the delay changes illustrated in Fig. 5

it is obvious that fixed playout results in an unsatisfactory solution. If the playout time is set below 150 ms then all packet in the high delay region around sequence number 12000 are lost. However if the playout time is increased above 300 ms in order to completely absorb the jitter then a high buffering delay has to be accepted even for regions that do not require it. Fig. 7 describes this trade-off quantitatively. The solid line depicts the resulting late loss and buffering delay for fixed playout when continuously increasing the playout time. The circle depicts the result for the described adaptive playout algorithm at  $d_b=33$  ms and  $e_l=1\%$ . As can be seen, fixed playout would result in a late loss of about 23% for the same average buffering delay. Hence, the effective loss rate is reduced by more than a factor of 20 in this example.



**Fig. 7:** Comparison of Fixed Playout and Adaptive Playout for the network measurement in Fig. 6.

This result of course heavily depends on the particular network measurement. For other international measurements that we conducted the loss rate can be reduced by a factor in the range of 1.5 - 25. Even though not all network situations benefit equally from adaptive playout, it is important to note that adaptive playout provides robustness against the more critical situations. Furthermore, the longer a conversation lasts the higher the chance that also a more critical situation will be observed on the network. Therefore, adaptive playout significantly increases the reliability of the service and

is therefore an essential component for high quality audio communication over IP networks.

## 5. CONCLUSION

In this paper we describe an adaptive playout algorithm to be used with the AAC-ELD audio codec. Adaptive playout is an effective technique to combat network delay variations, also known as jitter. Jitter compensation plays an important role for low delay audio communication over IP networks. Due to the fact, that network jitter is time variant and can heavily be impacted by cross traffic, a playout control algorithm is proposed, providing an excellent trade-off between late loss and buffering delay. In order to realize time stretching and shrinking as needed to adapt the playout time we use built in AAC-ELD coding techniques. More specifically, audio frames are dropped/concealed to reduce/increase the buffer size. Though the normal decoding order of access units is changed by these operations, the audio codec is able to handle these discontinuities through the overlap of audio frames and error concealment techniques. Finally, the algorithm is tested under realistic network conditions on intercontinental Internet links. Considering typical network conditions and the same average delay, it is shown that the playout algorithm can reduce late loss by more than one magnitude compared to fixed playout. Therefore, adaptive playout can significantly increase the reliability of the service under difficult network conditions and is therefore an essential component for high quality audio communication over IP networks. The proposed algorithm achieves this with particular low complexity.

## 6. REFERENCES

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