

MPEG-4 for interactive low-delay real-time communication

by

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Abstract

Internet broadcasting techniques are wide spread and have been the focus off many research projects. Due to high transmission delays these systems often lack interactivity.

This thesis introduces a new streaming system to deliver real-time video and audio data with low-delays across the Internet. Packet loss, jitter and changing bandwidth availability describe the challenges that have to be handled by the system, since the Internet is a best effort network and does not guarantee quality of service.

To lower bit-rates audio and video data are usually compressed in formats like MPEG-4. The high compression nearly eliminates redundancy in the audio and video data. A resultant loss of transmitted data and transmission errors can have big impact on the quality of the received stream. MPEG-4 video uses inter frame prediction, so errors propagate between frames. We will argue that retransmission of lost or invalid data is not feasible for low-delay communication due to high control loop delays.

The changing conditions of the internet make adaptation to the available bandwidth necessary. The traditional approach of buffering data to smoothen bandwidth oscillations is not usable due to the real-time constraints of the interactive communication. In addition TCP like congestion control cannot be applied, because it results in extreme transmission rate oscillations.

We introduce and evaluate two techniques - adaptive key frame addition and binominal congestion control for RTP - to reduce the impact of the changing conditions and lost frames. A MPEG-4 low-delay real-time streaming system for low bit-rates is implemented to incorporate and evaluate the new techniques.

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1 Introduction

Internet broadcasting techniques are wide spread and have been the focus off many research projects. Due to high transmission and coding delays these systems often lack interactivity. In addition security, bandwidth adaptation and transmission error recovery are not fully addressed in most of today's systems.

This thesis introduces a new streaming system to deliver real-time video and audio data with low-delays across the Internet suitable for interactive conversation. Packet loss, jitter and changing bandwidth availability describe the challenges that have to be handled by the system, since the Internet is a best effort network and does not guarantee quality of service. Furthermore security, error recovery, bandwidth adaptation and high compression are needed, to deploy a full functional system.

We introduce and evaluate two techniques - adaptive key frame addition and binominal congestion control for RTP - to reduce the impact of the changing conditions. A MPEG-4 low-delay real-time streaming system for low bit-rates was implemented to incorporate and evaluate the introduced techniques.

1.1 Motivation

Many applications can benefit from high interactive streaming:

- Video Conferencing
- E-learning
- Remote control, example: robot control via an on-board camera or supervising laboratory experiments

For them interactivity is essential, but most of today's systems only allow limited interactivity due to high transmission delays. Moreover most systems incorporate no secure transmission and use low compression coding, resulting in blocky and staccato video. The consequence is a reduced acceptance by users, although a more interactive version of these applications would offer high benefits to them. To achieve a high acceptance of video conferencing and e-learning by the community, these three key issues have to be solved:

- Bandwidth:
The bandwidth today's systems require is high and so their use is limited.
- Delay:
The transmission delay is too high to allow satisfying interactivity
- Security:
Today's systems do not incorporate secure transmissions

This thesis evaluates possible approaches to accomplish more interactivity while reducing the required bandwidth and incorporating secure sessions. New coding

techniques allow higher compression of audio and video data, thereby reducing the required bandwidth. We introduce a system that - in interaction with these coding techniques - increases the interactivity and ensures privacy.

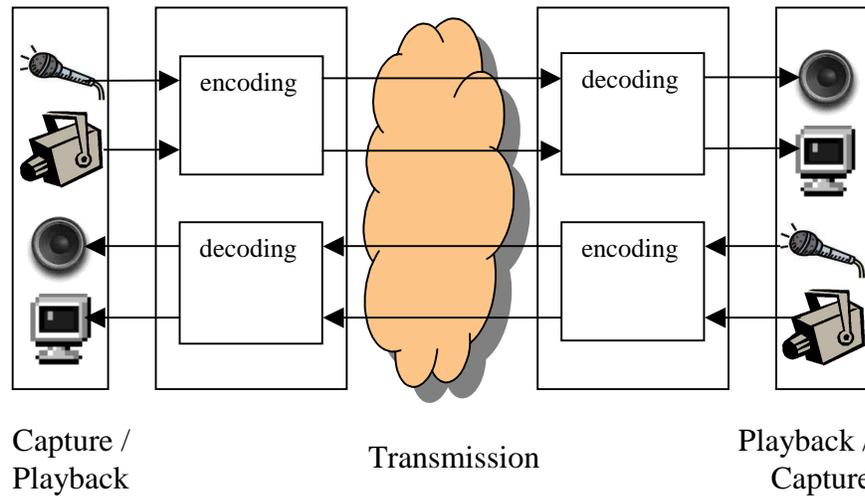


Figure 1-1 Basic block diagram of a video conference system

1.2 Challenges

User studies [1] indicate that users consider delays larger than 300ms not suitable for interactive conversation. Since the Internet is a best-effort network and does not guarantee quality of service, several problems have to be solved before low delay streaming, suitable for interactive communication, via the Internet can be widely deployed:

- Bandwidth variation:

Available bandwidth varies with time, the stream has to be adjusted to these changing conditions to prevent packet loss.

- Packet loss:

Due to the changing conditions packets can be lost. Lost packets can severely influence the quality of received streams.

- Packet errors:

Due to interference the data of packets can be changed. The receiver has to reduce the impact of invalid packets.

- Delay variation:

Transmission delays vary with time due to changing link conditions. The receiver has to handle this and try to playback the data at a constant rate.

Hereby it is important to keep multiple streams (for example audio and video) synchronized.

We address these problems and develop solutions. We present a complete system that provides high interactivity while adapting to changing network conditions, we achieve this by adjusting transmission rate and controlling the quality of the received streams.

1.3 Overview

The next chapter gives an overview over the work our project is based on. We introduce video and audio compression, focusing on MPEG-4 [9,10]. We will also discuss transport protocols, error concealment and control schemes for streaming media.

In chapter 3 we evaluate the effect of transmission errors on the video and audio quality of a MPEG-4 bit stream and present a technique to reduce the effects of lost video frames, thereby focusing on environments with real-time concerns.

Next we argue (chapter 4) that adjusting to the changing conditions of an internet link is necessary to guarantee high transmission quality while sharing the links with other applications fair. We introduce binominal congestion controls and combined one of its algorithms (SQRT) with the RTCP feedback to allow smooth bandwidth adjustment

In chapter 5 we propose an approach for secure transmission of RTP sessions. We encrypt both RTP and RTCP packets. This allows hiding the complete communication in the traffic of the internet.

The implementation is described in chapter 6, while chapter 7 evaluates our proposed models and approaches.

2 Related Work

This chapter gives an overview over the work our project is based on. We introduce video and audio compression, focusing on MPEG-4 [9,10]. We will also discuss transport protocols, error concealment and control schemes for streaming media.

2.1 Media Transport

The Real-Time Transport Protocol (RTP) [2,3] provides functionality to transport real-time data, including audio and video. The control of streams is handled by a control protocol called Real-Time Transport Control Protocol (RTCP) which is a part of RTP.

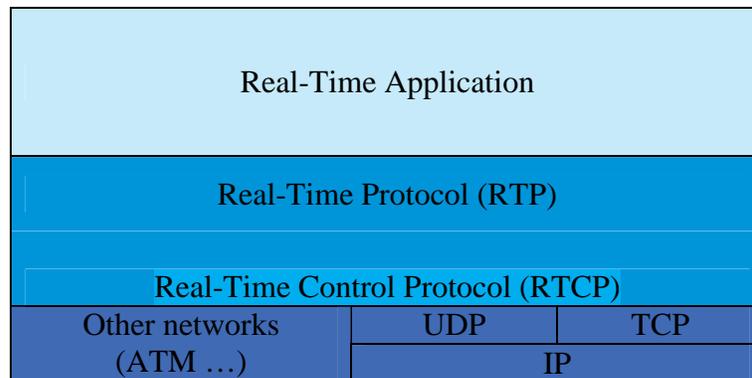


Figure 2-1: RTP architecture

RTP is a low-overhead protocol adding support for streaming applications with real-time constraints to networks. It allows the continuous delivery of media and provides mechanisms to control its timing, detect data loss, secure the transmission and

identify the content of a particular stream. This is achieved by an additional header, consisting of timestamps, sequence numbers and source identification.

The control protocol RTCP allows the management of real-time session consisting of multiple participants and streams, participants can join and leave a transmission and identify each other. Furthermore it provides quality of service feedback from receivers (indicating packet loss, jitter and round trip time) and supports for synchronization of different streams. RTCP introduces two new packets, sender and receiver feedback packets, these are sent in regular intervals by the participants to provide the above described information.

2.2 MPEG-4

The aim of the MPEG (Moving Picture Experts Group) [4] video and audio compression standards is to provide generic coding methods for moving images and voice for various applications such as digital storage and communication.

So unlike the H.261 [5] and H.263 [6] standards which are specifically designed for the compression of moving images for video conferencing systems at bit rates of up to 64Kbps, MPEG is considering a wider scope of applications. For example it aims at storage as well as transmission. So it also defines transportation, file formats and synchronization of audio and video. The MPEG-1 [7] and MPEG-2 [8] standards describe high bit rate video and audio (MPEG-2 is used to compress data for DVD and HDTV); while MPEG-4 [9,10] has the goal to produce low bit-rate streams of

audio and video data. Furthermore MPEG-4 has error resilience capabilities to reduce the impact of a lost frame or bit errors caused by transport across a lossy connection.

A MPEG-4 video frame is coded as a Video Object Plane (VOP). For easier understanding and without loss of accuracy or generality we will use the words frame and VOP interchangeably.

MPEG-4 audio is called AAC (Advanced Audio Coding) [9,11]. MPEG-4 AAC is based on MPEG-2 AAC with additions to improve error resilience and reduce coding delay.

2.3 RTP and MPEG-4

RFC 3016 [12] describes the direct mapping of video and audio streams on RTP-packets, while a RFC draft [13] introduces a new RTCP packet for immediate feedback. We use it to utilize the resynchronization feature of MPEG-4 streams.

Usually a predictive frame bases its prediction on the previous frame; in addition MPEG-4 allows basing the prediction on any frame. To signal this, a special resynchronization marker is used.

The features described above make MPEG-4 an ideal candidate for streaming.

To support even higher compression, new layers [14,15] have been recently (late 2002) added to MPEG-4; they allow even lower bit rates without reducing quality and are currently under heavy development.

2.4 Quality Control

Current research has focused on techniques for (selective) retransmission of corrupted or lost data [16,17,18,19]. We will show (chapter 3) that retransmission cannot be applied when high interactivity is needed.

Other research has been done on error concealment and resilience [20,21] of real-time audio and video transmissions. MPEG-4 has build in error concealment features [9,10,22], that limit the propagation of errors resulting from bit errors or lost frames.

2.5 Congestion Control

As congestion control is needed for TCP connections to use the bandwidth in an optimal and fair way, it is needed for real-time streaming. Early research [23,24,25,26,27] on multimedia congestion control proposed models similar to TCP. They were like the TCP congestion control, just without reliability and in-order delivery. Newer ones also focus on reducing the high oscillations of the transmission rate caused by TCP congestion control schemes [28,29,30].

2.6 Ambient Computing Environment (ACE)

“The ACE project involves the design and implementation of an environment where embedded resources are at our finger tips. Ambient Computational Environment represents a computer architecture in which computational resources, sensors, and

actuators, in their widest sense, are available in our offices, conference rooms, hallways, and other places. Users must be able to control, with authorization, these computational resources within their proximate area, and access computational services that are long-lived and extremely robust. These users must also be able to interact in multiple ways with ACEs. We are developing prototype Ambient Computational Environments with these features, and are exploring the related architectural and deployment issues.” [31]

ACE has been developed here at the Information and Telecommunication Technology Center (ITTC) [32] at the University of Kansas [33].

3 An adaptive intra-frame insertion algorithm

The loss of video packets during transmission has big impact on the bit-stream quality, since the amount of redundant information in the encoded bit stream is limited. Internet Protocols like TCP guarantee delivery. They allow recovery from packet loss by packet retransmission, were retransmission requires buffering and so increases the transmission delay. These protocols also use congestion control algorithms to reduce the possibility of packet loss. A congestion control algorithm reduces the transmission rate after the loss of a packet and probes for available bandwidth by increasing the transmission rate, when a packet has been successfully delivered.

RTP transmission is usually encapsulated in an UDP-protocol, which does not guarantee the delivery of packets. However, RTP provides features to signal the loss of a packet based on sequence numbers. Another problem is the validation of the received packets. The UDP checksum can be used to signal the flipping of bits, but is not useful for recovery.

Retransmission of lost or invalid packets is an appropriate solution [16,17,18,19] for streaming applications that use long buffers. But for real-time streaming with the goal of high interactivity (example video conferencing), the retransmission would add high delays and is not useful. To allow high interactivity, the end-to-end delay should be below 300ms. Since the communication is bidirectional, each direction should have an average delay below 150ms. Assume an average 80ms network transmission

delay, the delay after retransmission would be 240ms. In addition the other direction would add another 80ms delay, summing up to 320ms. Since also capture, encoding, encryption and their counterparts on the receiver side cause delays (on fast systems about 100ms); our average delay would be 120ms above the acceptable maximum. Buffers to compensate for network transmission jitter further increase the delay; even without retransmission the goal of high interactivity is a challenge. In this chapter we evaluate a solution for this problem.

3.1 MPEG-4 frame types

MPEG-4 video uses inter frame prediction. This means, the decoding of some frames is based on previous or succeeding ones.

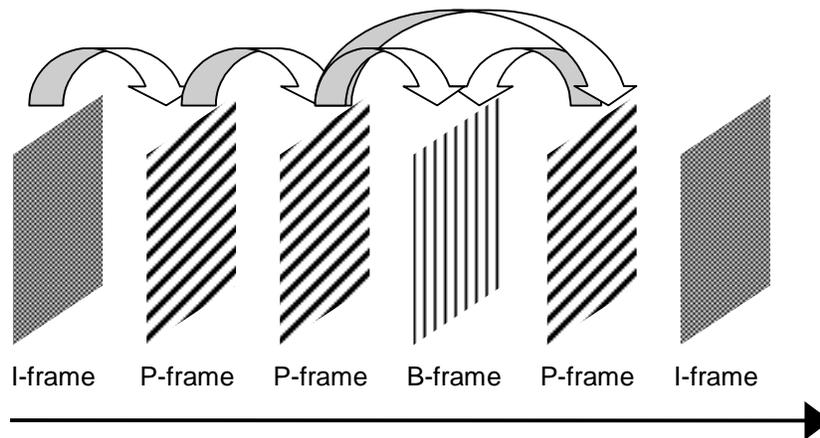


Figure 3-1 Dependencies between frames of a MPEG-4 bitstream

The forward prediction frame (P-frame) is based on the previous non B-frame. A B-frame is bidirectional predictive frame; its decoding is based on both the previous and

succeeding non B-frame. The intra-frame (I-frame) is used as reference frame and does not depend on any previous or succeeding frame. Figure 3-1 shows these dependencies. Since the encoding and decoding of B-frames depends on data of succeeding frames, this frame type is not suitable for low-delay real-time transmission.

In inter-frame prediction, as it is used in MPEG-4, errors caused by lost or corrupted frames propagate between frames. Recovery is guaranteed at reference frames (so called I- or intra-frames). In the current research the words reference-frame, key-frame and intra-frame are used interchangeably to describe such a recovering frame type.

Reference-frames contain a fully encoded image and do not depend on previous or later frame. Since reference-frames are significantly bigger than predictive frames, a frequent use of reference frames would result in a higher bit rate. The typical interval between reference-frames depends on the video to encode. When the current video scene contains much motion, a cut or fades, the encoder adds a reference-frame, whenever the size of a predictive-frame is bigger than the size of a reference-frame. This will especially be after a cut or fade. A typical upper bound for the reference-frame interval is 10 to 20 seconds.

bit-rate (kbps)	frame type	avg. frame size (bytes)	min frame size (bytes)	max frame size (bytes)
60	prediction	239	57	1705
	intra	1998	1249	7108
300	prediction	1228	319	4076
	intra	4012	2835	8350

Table 3-1 frame size for different frame types and bit-rates

Table 3-1 shows the average frame sizes of the frame types intra and predictive; the frame-rate of both tests was 30 fps. For the tests we encoded a typical video conference sequence (Figure 3-2), so this sequence does not contain much motion or any cuts or fades. As a result the prediction sequences are long; we set an upper bound between two intra-frames of 10 seconds. In the test the average time between two intra frames was 9.4 seconds. The difference is based on the fact, that sometimes the hand of the speaker in the conference came close to the camera and so forced, like a cut in a movie, an intra-frame.



Figure 3-2 typical video conference situation

3.2 Error Resilience in MPEG-4 Video

The MPEG-4 standard specifies techniques to improve robustness of the video stream [9]. It provides built-in error resilience capabilities to detect and localize errors, recover after errors and to visually conceal the effect of errors.

Flexible re-synchronization markers help the decoder to ignore invalid or identify lost data. The encoder can use data partitioning and header protection to organize the stream to make it more robust to transmission errors by providing redundancy for important fields of the bit stream.

The long predictive sequences used by MPEG-4 cause propagation and persistence of errors to increase. The addition of a reference-frame would cause resynchronization and stop the propagation effects.

MPEG uses variable length coding; this coding allows high compression rates, but is very sensitive to bit errors. To minimize the effects of bit errors in this coded data, the MPEG-4 standard supports reversible variable length coding (RVLC). Data coded in reversible length coding can be decoded in forward and reverse direction without significant impact on the coding efficiency; so a single bit error would not make the coded data unusable. This feature also ensures that bit errors do not propagate in a frame.

Based on the low redundancy observable errors may be more severe compared to MPEG-2, and since MPEG-4 uses long prediction sequences their effects may persist longer. MPEG-4 does not target the high demanding environments as MPEG-2 does, so usually the higher quality reduction caused by bit errors is acceptable.

3.3 Effects of errors on Video Quality

To decode a bit stream with inter frame dependencies successfully, the preceding I-frame and P-frames are needed. The impact of a missing I-frame is significantly bigger than the loss of a P-frame. The effects of bit errors and data loss in a MPEG-4 bit stream are widely studied [22,34,35].

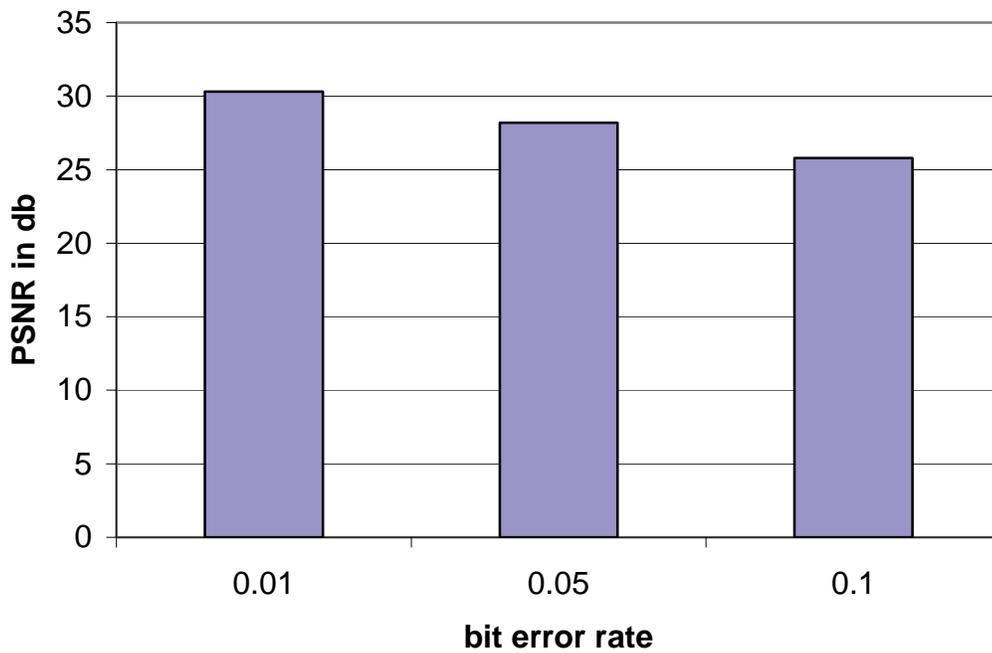


Figure 3-3: Video quality depends on frame loss rate

Figure 3-3 shows the Peak Signal to Noise Ratio (PSNR) of a decoded frame for different bit errors [22]. The test sequence is the “Tennis” sequence at 146kbps. PSNR can be used to describe the degradation of an image due to compression and transmission errors. It is based on the Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE). Let f be the

original image and f' the degraded image, both with size $N \times M$, the RMSE can then be calculated by the following formula (Formula 3-1):

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N * M} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{M-1} (f(x, y) - f'(x, y))^2}$$

Formula 3-1: Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE)

A zero RMSE would be computed for identical image. The PSNR is derived from the RMSE by denoting it to db. So for an eight bit value with values from 0 to 255, the PSNE can be calculated with the given Formula (Formula 3-2):

$$PSNR = 20 \text{Log}_{10} \frac{255}{RMSE}$$

Formula 3-2: Peak Signal Noise Ratio (PSNR)

PSNR and RMSE can be calculated for both luminance and chrominance of a given image and then averaged to compute an overall PSNR value. An image with PSNR below 20 is usually not viewable, values above 25 are acceptable. Please note that the PSNR is a mathematical way to describe image degradation, the subjective quality may differ.

The MPEG-4 error recovery ensures a minimal quality degradation due to bit errors and since internet streaming has a low bit error rate, bit errors are not a concern.

However, encryption is an issue. A bit error in an encrypted bit stream unpredictably garbles the decrypted bit stream and makes decoding impossible. As a result such a garbled frame has to be considered a lost one.

A frame can be lost due to multiple reasons, the frame could either be lost during transmission or bit errors make it unusable. N. Feamster shows in his research [16] that the loss of a P-frame has minor impact on the video quality, while a lost I-frame causes a high quality decrease and long error propagation.

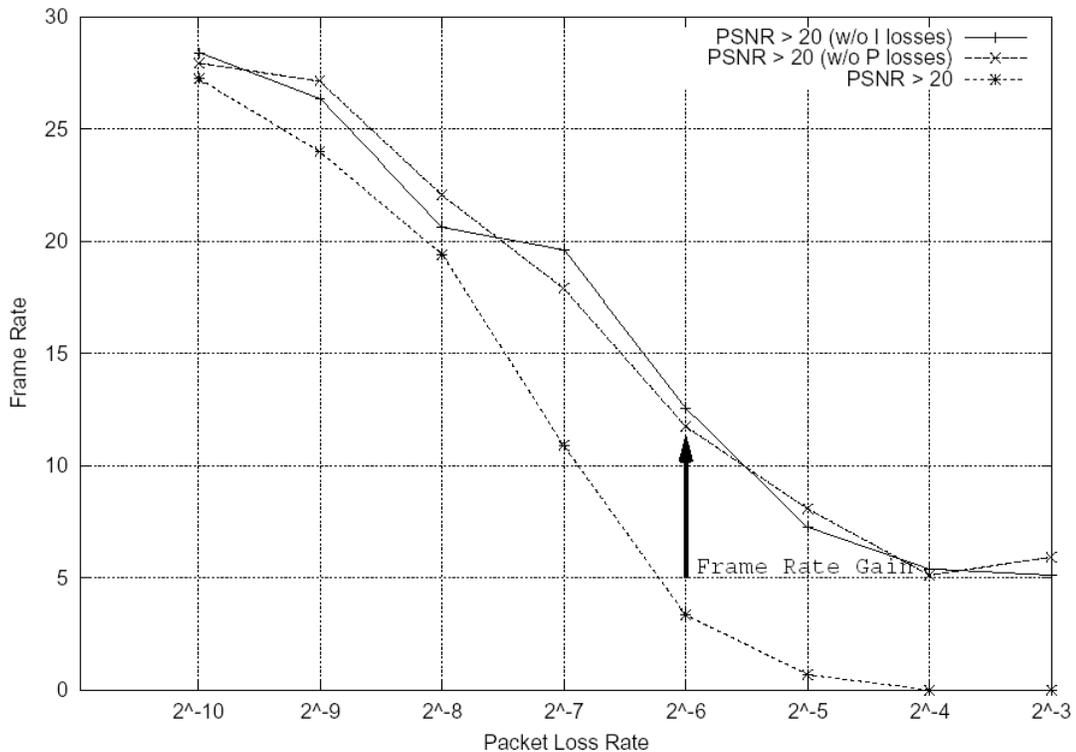


Figure 3-4 the effects of frame loss on the frame rate with a certain PSNR, figure taken from [16]

His research [16] states that recovery only from I-Frame loss is as efficient as recovery from all lost P-frames (see Figure 3-4). Since an I-frame is only emitted into the stream about every 10 seconds, the quality degradation caused by the loss of one intra-frame is high compared to the quality degradation caused by the loss of a predictive frame.

The reason is simple: A P-frame describes the differences to the previous frame; it uses the same motion vectors as the previous frame. An I-frame, nevertheless, introduces a new set of motion vectors. When an I-frame is lost, the succeeding P-frame will be decoded with motion vectors based on the wrong set.

Since the main target of low-delay real-time streaming is video conferencing, we do not have a high demanding environment. The errors caused by loss of a P-frame can be accepted, but the ones caused by the loss of an I-frame cannot be accepted due to their high quality decrease.

Based on this we introduce our model: Since retransmission of a frame is not possible due to real-time concerns, we can use the resynchronization packets introduced by the draft [13] for immediate feedback of RTP sessions. If a receiver loses a packet, it will send this resynchronization packet to the transmitter. Upon receiving such a resynchronization request, the encoder will base further encoding on the image, the request refers to. Since each frame contains the number of the image its coding is based on, the decoder can resynchronize itself upon receiving the frame containing the resynchronized image. This solution would guarantee that after a certain transmission delay the error propagation would be stopped. The approach accomplishes the goal of stopping the error propagation and guarantees a low RMSE, but the price is a high overhead. For every lost packet a response is sent by the receiver, especially in wireless environments this may be required often. In addition there is a high computational overhead when encoder and decoder have to roll back and base the prediction on another image. Much data has to be held for that, especially for

mobile devices with low performance this may be an issue. In the paragraph before we have realized that the loss a P-frame does not have big impact on the quality. So the appropriate approach would be only to send the resynchronization message when a reference frame (I-frame) has been lost.

3.3.1 Custom RTP header addition

Since RTP and MPEG-4 do not provide controls to detect the loss of a certain frame type, we add an additional header between the RTP header and the payload. The RTP standard is defined very flexible, custom headers can be added without impact on compatibility. The new header introduces sequence numbers for key frames and so allows the receiver to detect key frame loss.

This value is a 4 byte (to keep byte alignment) sequence number added between the RTP-Header and RTP-payload as described in the RTP definition (section 5.3) [2].

3.3.2 Immediate RTP feedback

To signal the loss of a key frame, we send an immediate RTCP feedback packet. This packet is built analog to the instant feedback packet introduced in [13].

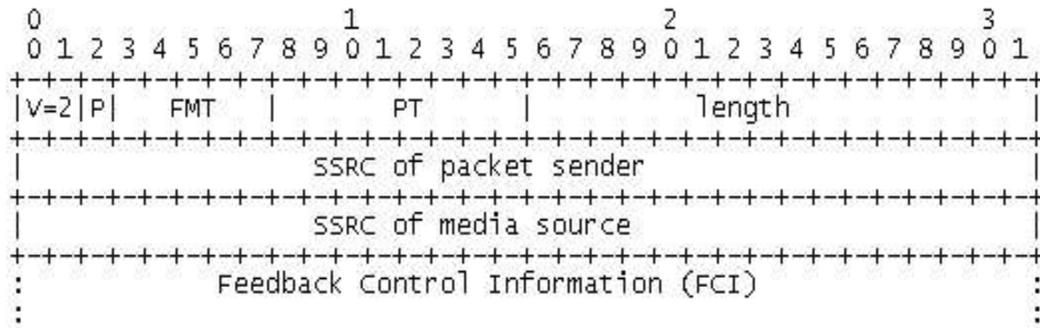


Figure 3-5 Instant RTCP feedback packet (figure taken from [13])

The values are set as defined in [13], with payload type (PT) set to 206 (payload specific feedback message) and feedback message type (FMT) set to 10 (custom value). The feedback control information (FCI) is the 4 byte sequence number of the lost key-frame, length and both SSRC fields are set accordingly to the RFC draft.

3.3.3 Sender behavior

Since encoding is done in real-time, the sender can decide what to do up on receiving a synchronization packet. It can base its encoding on the frame the receiver has requested or it can just add a reference-frame to the bit stream. When it bases its encoding on the requested frame, the resulting bit stream will contain a resynchronization marker allowing the decoder to resynchronize to the appropriate frame. Usually the encoder has added a reference-frame for a reason: It can be that the scene to be encoded has changed very much (example: cut in a movie, very high motion) or it has added the key-frame to keep the length of a prediction sequence below a certain value. So when a key-frame is lost due to transmission errors, the best

way would be to add another key-frame to the stream. This solution has a minimal overhead, since no encoder or decoder rollback is required. To match bandwidth limitations the number of key frames added to the bit stream per second has be kept below a certain value.

Since this approach does not do any changes to the MPEG bit stream, it can be used in combination with error concealment techniques and post processing tools to limit the effects of bit stream errors or the loss of prediction frames.

3.3.4 Intra-frame recovery

In the previous chapters we describe an approach to recover from the loss of intra-frames. Now we want to formerly introduce the model:

```
when a frame is received:
/* check whether the frame is an intra-frame */
if the frame is an intra-frame
    /* it is an intra-frame */
    /* log the number this intra-frame */
    lastReceivedIntraFrameNum = number of this frame
else
    /* it is not an intra-frame, so test for a lost intra-frame: */
    /* compare the log to the number of the intra-frame the */
    /* received frame is based on */
    if lastReceivedIntraFrameNum !=
    number of the intra-frame this frame is based on
        /* the last intra-frame was lost, so send feedback */
        send immediate feedback to sender to force an
        intra-frame
```

3.4 Error Resilience in MPEG-4 Audio

The AAC audio standard specifies profiles (Long Term Prediction, LTP and Low Delay, LD) [9,10] with no inter frame dependencies. The Long Term Prediction uses a backward prediction based on preceding frames to optimize compression, while the LD profile adds an encoder and decoder model with low delay (LD). The quality differences of the LTP and LD profiles to the main profile are minimal. The good encoding quality of these two profiles and the fact that transmission errors and data loss will only effect the actual frame, no error propagation will occur, make these profile ideal for streaming.

The error robustness and error protection in MPEG-4 AAC reduces the perceived degradation of the decoded audio data caused by bit corruption. The techniques of the audio error resilience features are similar to the ones of video (see chapter 3.2).

3.5 Effects of errors on Audio Quality

Without error protection and resilience features turned on, tests [36] have shown that bit error rates up to 10^{-3} are acceptable. When these tools get turned on, the quality of the erroneous (error rate: 10^{-3}) and the error-free stream are nearly equivalent. Since errors cannot propagate from frame to frame no retransmission model is introduced for audio.

3.6 Summary

In this chapter we evaluated the effect of transmission errors on the video and audio quality of a MPEG-4 bit stream. Since lost audio frames do not cause error propagation, no additional techniques are needed to handle audio frame loss.

However, lost video frames cause error propagation. We presented a technique to reduce the effects of lost video frames, thereby focusing on environments with real-time concerns. These real-time systems allow us, to take advantage of the fact that encoding is done live and so we can base encoding on the feedback from the receiver. The reader may note, that our approach adds low overhead to the bit stream and does not influence post processing and error resilience capabilities while it is conform with the RTP RFC [2,3].

4 Bandwidth adaptation

The conditions of the internet regarding available bandwidth change with time. Not adjusting to these conditions will result in random packet loss and non friendly behavior to other applications with which the bandwidth is shared.

To deliver a stream in the highest possible quality for a given bandwidth a real-time application has to adjust its bit rate to the changing conditions. To adjust properly an application should:

- Adapt to the loss of packets: For example by adding a key frame for resynchronization, as shown in chapter 3.
- Adjust the quality (bit-rate) of the stream to the available bandwidth.

For applications with no real-time constraints the solution is easy: They can afford a long buffer time, so they could just buffer up a huge amount of data during start. This buffer is used to smoothen bandwidth oscillations. Many of today's applications use this approach [37,38,39]. For applications with real-time constraints this approach is not feasible. This chapter discusses a congestion control that is usable for real-time streaming. We introduce TCP-friendly binominal congestion control, which is a superset of the TCP congestion control algorithm. In our model we only use a small buffer to accommodate transmission jitter. We will show that by using SQRT [28], a member of the binominal congestion control algorithm family, we can achieve:

- TCP-friendly bandwidth adaptation
- Reduce rate oscillations

4.1 Congestion Control

Due to variations in the available bandwidth, congestion occurs; it occurs at transmission bottlenecks. Since unlimited buffering is not possible at these bottlenecks, random packet loss will be the result. During a TCP-transmission a successful delivery of a packet is acknowledged by the receiver; based on this feedback the transmitter will reduce or increase its bit-rate. Since streaming is usually based on UDP, such an acknowledgement is not sent. So the RTCP control messages sent by the receiver have to be used to detect packet loss and to adjust to bandwidth bottlenecks.

When during a TCP-transmission a packet loss is detected the sender will reduce its bit rate by half and then slowly increase it until the next packet loss is detected. This results in a high oscillation of the bit rate. While during file transfers high oscillations of the throughput are not an issue, high oscillations during real-time streaming would result in a non smooth playback. So the traditional additive increase / multiple decrease (AIMD) [40] used by the TCP congestion control algorithm is not feasible for streaming media. We need an algorithm that also probes for bandwidth and reduces its throughput up on congestion like AIMD does, but it should not introduce high oscillations. Another requirement of our algorithm is TCP-friendliness to guarantee fair bandwidth sharing.

4.2 Variable bit rate encoding

The MPEG-4 video standard allows video to be encoded at variable bit rates. Since the video is encoded in real-time, the available bit rate of the link can be fed in the encoder. This allows great advantages compared to non real-time encoding systems. Non real-time encoding systems have to store the streams in various bit rates to satisfy the changing conditions of a link. This is not an optimal solution, since streams cannot be stored in every possible transmission rate and it introduces storage and computing overhead. Scalable encoding may reduce the amount of stored data needed, but still does not allow to support all bit-rates. Variable bit-rate encoding done in real-time allows adjustment to the changing conditions in an optimal way.

4.3 TCP friendliness

The reasons for implementing a congestion control into an application are simple:

- An application with congestion control makes more efficient use of the network this usually results in higher performance.
- Applications are capable of running over a much wider range of bandwidths, if they adjust to the changing conditions. This makes them more useful in the Internet.
- Fair congestion control algorithms prevent the network from overload and so an congestive collapse

So to be safe for use in the Internet an application has to implement a protocol with congestion control. Its congestion control algorithm has to be stable and interact well with the existing widely used TCP. This type of protocol is TCP-friendly [41], ensuring that traditional TCP transmissions based in the AIMD algorithm get a fair allocation of bandwidth while sharing a link with such an application and vice versa. It now can be argued that a real-time transmission should have a higher priority than traditional TCP-transmission because the TCP-connection usually does not have real-time constraints. However, this claim cannot be judged, since today's internet does not provide quality of service nor prioritize traffic, and not all traffic that is transmitted through a link is our traffic. Based on that, all applications should be TCP-friendly, especially because streaming is meanwhile widely used and so its percentage of the internet traffic increases.

4.4 Binominal congestion controls

Binominal congestion control is a superset of TCP's AIMD congestion control algorithm; it is defined as (Formula 4-1):

$I : w_{t+rtt} \leftarrow w_t + \frac{\alpha}{w_t^k}; \alpha > 0$	Increase, when window gets acknowledged
$D : w_{t+\delta t} \leftarrow w_t - \beta w_t^l; 0 < \beta < 1$	Decrease, when packets are lost

Formula 4-1: Binominal congestion control

Let I be the increase of the window size (in packets) as a result of an acknowledged reception, with rtt being the round trip time. D describes a decrease of the window size (again in packets) as an effect of a packet loss. α and β are constants.

This generalization includes the entire linear algorithms:

- For $k = 0, l = 1$: AIMD (additive increase, multiple decrease)
used by TCP
- $k = -1, l = 1$: MIMD (multiple increase, multiple decrease),
used by the slow start algorithm in TCP
- $k = -1, l = 0$: MIAD (multiple increase, additive decrease)
- $k = 0, l = 0$: AIAD (additive increase, additive decrease)

In our model we use the values $k = 0.5, l = 0.5$. This algorithm is called SQRT, because the increase is inversely proportional and the decrease is proportional to square-root of the window size. Research [28,42] has shown that this algorithm is TCP-friendly and achieves lower bit rate oscillations than traditional TCP-algorithms. In the AIMD algorithm the window size reduction is proportional to windows size, while in SQRT it is proportional to the square-root of the window size; as a result the window size oscillations are less. This makes this algorithm a perfect candidate for media streaming.

In their research [42] D. Bansal and H. Balakrishnan suggest values for α, β which satisfy the condition $\beta / \alpha = [0.5..0.7]$. We choose the values $\alpha = 1, \beta = 0.6$ as it is done in their paper. Figure 4-1 shows the lower oscillations

and still fair bandwidth share of SQRD compared to TCP's AIMD congestion control algorithm.

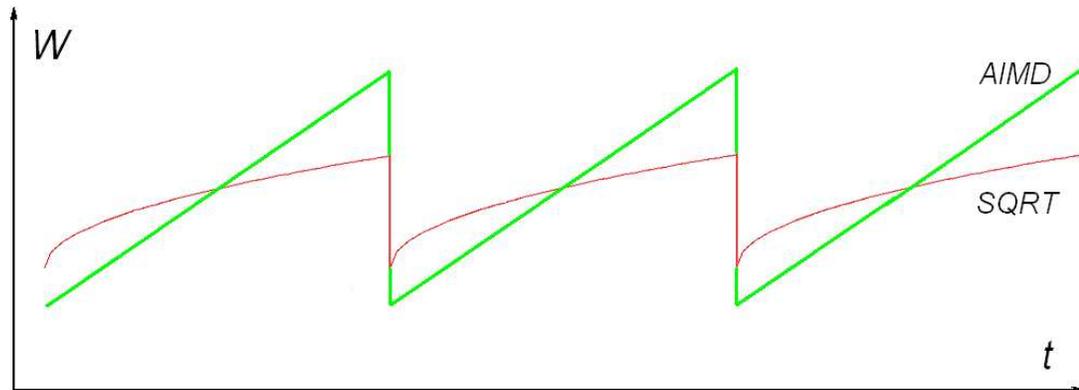


Figure 4-1: Window size of SQRD and AIMD (TCP) congestion control

4.5 Congestion control in RTP

Since UDP and RTP protocols do not send acknowledgements for received packets, a different approach has to be taken to detect packet loss and allow congestion control. The RTP connection would send control packets in different intervals. The control packets allow the detection of lost packets. A linear congestion control model, which uses these control messages for congestion detection, has been introduced [26]. In our model we combine this model and the binominal congestion control algorithm SQRD for smooth data throughput.

In a RTP-session the receiver frequently sends report packets for each incoming stream. The report packet includes the total amount of lost data, the fraction of data lost since the last report was send, the RTP-timestamp of the last received sender

report, and a timestamp indicating the time elapsed between receiving the last sender report and sending this receiver report. When the sender knows the time of arrival of such a receiver report it can compute the round trip time.

Let t be the arrival time of the receiver report, t_{DLSR} the time elapsed between receiving the last sender report and sending the receive report and t_{LSR} the RTP-timestamp of the sending of the last sender report. The round trip time t_{rtt} can be calculated the following way (Formula 4-2):

$$t_{rtt} = t - t_{DLSR} - t_{LSR}$$

Formula 4-2: Round trip time (RTT)

The reader may note that is calculation does not require clock synchronization of the participants and so can be considered accurate.

Based on the amount of lost packets and the round trip time the transmission rate can be increased or decreased using the SQRT algorithm.

Let r be the transmission rate of a link, w the transmission windows size in packets, MTU the maximal packet size and rtt the round trip time. The maximum packet size MTU is a constant protocol depending value, the round trip time can be computed with the above equation using RTP control packets. The following equation (Formula 4-3) shows how transmission rate and window size correlate:

$$w = \frac{r * rtt}{MTU}$$

Formula 4-3: Window size

The combination of this equation with the introduced SQRT algorithm allows calculating a new transmission rate up on successful delivery or packet loss (Formula 4-4):

$$I : r_{t+rtt} = r_t + \left(\frac{MTU}{rtt} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \sqrt{\frac{1}{r_t}} \quad \text{Increase, when window gets acknowledged}$$

$$D : r_{t+\delta t} = r_t - 0.6 \sqrt{\frac{r_t * MTU}{rtt}} \quad \text{Decrease, when packets are lost}$$

Formula 4-4: Binominal rate control

4.6 Summary

In this chapter we argued that adjusting to the changing conditions of an internet link is necessary to guarantee high transmission quality while sharing the links with other applications fair. We also stated that traditional congestion controls as provided by TCP are not appropriate for real-time streaming, since these react with high bit-rate oscillation to packet loss. We introduced binominal congestion controls and combined one of its algorithms (SQRT) with the RTCP feedback to allow smooth bandwidth adjustment.

5 Security

In this chapter we focus on the problems of security [43]. For streaming the security issues are the same ones as for traditional communications, such as fraud, eavesdropping and prevention of communication. We add security to our model to ensure that the requirements everyone has for communication cannot be subverted by other people.

5.1 Security Requirements

To ensure the privacy we have to guarantee:

- Data Integrity:
Mechanisms prohibiting and detecting substituted, appended or removed data have to be in place
- Authentication:
The sender of the stream has to be authenticated; often also the receivers must have authorization to receive it.
- Confidentiality:
It should be not possible that someone not authorized is able to see the content of a transmission

- Key Distribution:

To ensure confidentiality usually encryption is used, a mechanism has to be in place to allow the safe distribution of keys to decrypt the received data.

ACE (Ambient Computing Environment, see chapter 2.6) implements safe mechanisms for authentication and key distribution. We will use these for our project.

To allow interoperability with ACE and to guarantee a high security-level our model has to allow a key-change at any time, even during a transmission

Streaming of media for interactive sessions has real-time constraints, the algorithms used to ensure integrity and confidentiality have to be fast.

5.2 Suitable Algorithms

Since our system requires strong real-time encryption done without additional hardware, a “software friendly” encryption algorithm is needed. Here “software-friendly” refers to an algorithm that can be implemented in software efficiently. DES (Data Encryption Standard) [44] and Triple DES are outdated, not secure enough for today’s applications and not “software friendly”. In addition public / private key cryptography is not suitable, since it is too slow. So the preferred algorithm is AES (Advanced Encryption Standard) [48] for cryptography; AES is “software-friendly” and supports key length of 128, 192 and 256 bits. 128 bit keys are considered safe for today’s applications.

MD-5 (Message Digest) [45] is a fast hashing algorithms, but based on its design and hash length [46], we do not consider it safe enough. Although SHA-1 (Secure Hash Algorithm) [47] is a slower than MD5, its design and hash length [46] offers the security needed.

5.3 Encryption and RTP

To ensure the privacy of the transmission all data send (including the RTCP control messages) between the participants has to be encrypted. We do this by introducing another layer to our data delivery model, as shown in Figure 5-1.

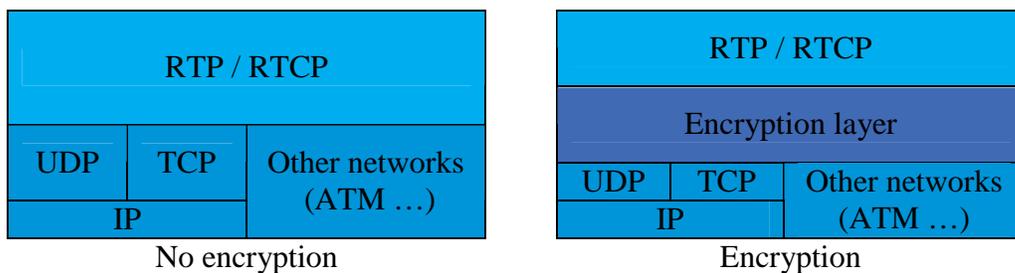


Figure 5-1: Additional encryption layer

First the hash of a RTP or RTCP packet is computed and attached to its end, we use the SHA-1 digest [47]. The implementation is kept flexible enough to use any type of hash and encryption. Next the packet and the attached hash is encrypted by using the fast Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) [48] algorithm. Since RTP and RTCP packets start with known plaintext a padding of random data and length has be added to the beginning of each packet during encryption.

Upon delivery the receiver can now decrypt the message using the key delivered by the ACE security framework [49]. Then it can compute the hash of the received data, and compare it to the hash delivered with the data. While the encryption guarantees confidentiality the combination of encryption and hash ensure integrity. When due to transmission errors the computed hash does not be equal to the hash that was attached to a received packet, the received packet is not useful anymore. There are no ways to restore it, this is based on a characteristic of encryption: Does one bit of a packet get changed, the rest of the decoded packet will be randomly garbled.



Figure 5-2: Encrypted RTP / RTCP packet

5.4 Summary

In this chapter we proposed an approach for secure transmission of RTP sessions. We encrypt both RTP and RTCP packets. This allows hiding the complete communication in the traffic of the internet. Since also the RTP and RTCP headers are encrypted it is even very hard to detect that this communication consists of real-

time audio and video data. The only way to detect this is an analysis of the timely fashion of the traffic flow, since RTCP sends characteristic feedback packets.

6 Implementation

This chapter describes our experience with implementing these models into a video and audio streaming system. It describes the interaction with existing capture and playback tools, codecs and the ACE system.

6.1 Platform

We use Java [50] and the Java Media Framework (JMF) [51] for our implementation. This gives certain platform independence, since Java interpreters are available for a huge number of systems. The Java Media Framework also exists as pure Java version allowing its execution on all Java interpreters. In addition high performance system-dependent versions are available, they allow capturing and fast playback of video and audio and support more codecs. These additional codecs are written in C to guarantee high performance for encoding and decoding.

Currently high performance versions are available for Linux, Windows and Solaris.

6.1.1 Java Media Framework

The Java Media Framework (JMF) provides a flexible framework to integrate time based media into Java applications. The JMF API is build from several layers. Data sources, players and processors are the essential parts of the high level API; they manage capture, presentation and processing of media. The lower API supports the

flexible integration of custom extensions and components. This offers a simple and powerful API to build media support into java applications, while keeping the framework flexible enough for future extensions to support new media types and formats.

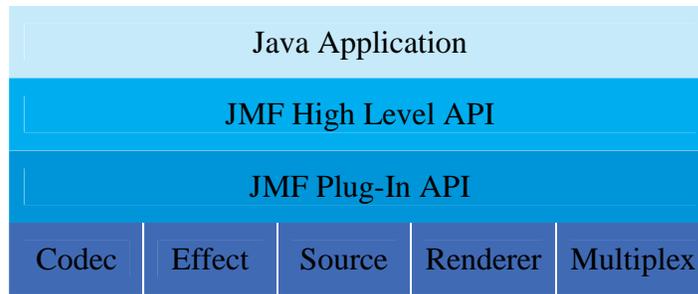


Figure 6-1: JMF API architecture

In addition to capture, presentation and processing of audio and video data, the framework supports different file types and the streaming of data. It supports RTP and RTSP, and allows the synchronization of streamed and non-streamed media.

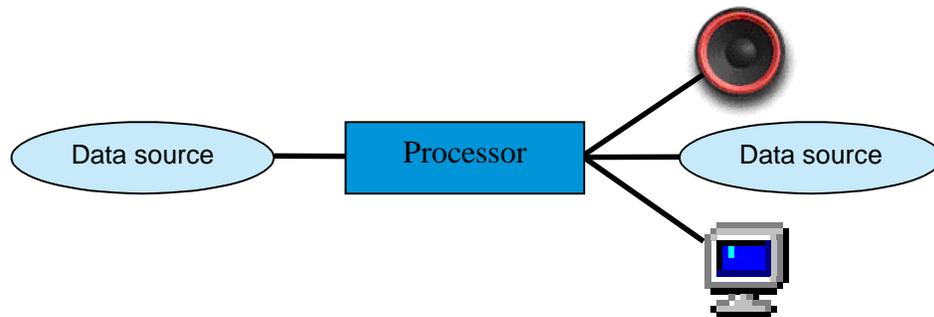


Figure 6-2: Processing media with the JMF

In the Java Media Framework processors (Figure 6-2) allow to manipulate media. This allows encoding, packetizing for streaming, multiplexing, pre- and post-processing. Examples for pre- and post processing are gain control or resizing.

Multiple Processors can be connected to manipulation chains, or can process audio and video data parallel.

6.1.2 Sound in Java and JMF

JMF supports sound capture and playback via the Java Sound API [52]. The Java Sound API is not made for real-time capture and playback since it delays the data due to huge buffer sizes. The typical delay of the Java Sound API is about 200ms, this might not be a problem for normal playback and capture, but for real-time applications this is inappropriate.

To solve this problem we implemented a new JMF low-delay audio data-source and renderer based on Java Native Interface JNI [53] calls to the Advanced Linux Sound Architecture ALSA [54].

Now the delay is only limited by the system hardware, load and scheduling. On systems with a good soundcard (we used Sound Blaster Live) we were able to achieve delays below 30ms for capture and playback; these systems were equipped with average hardware (dual Pentium III, 700 Mhz, 1GB RAM) and driven under high load (>90% CPU load). For full-duplex (simultaneous capture and playback) we achieve delays below 60ms on these systems. Based on the implementation, an audio frame has a size of a third of the delay. So the 60ms delay results in delivering every 20ms an audio frame of 20ms length. A MPEG-4 AAC audio frame has a size of 1046 samples, which equals about 23 ms when sampling at 44.100 kHz, this matches well with the capture and playback frame sizes we achieved.

6.2 System block diagram

In the previous chapter we described how the Java Media Framework supports the manipulation and transmission of audio and video data. Based on JMF we implemented our sender and receiver, a block diagram is shown in Figure 6-3.

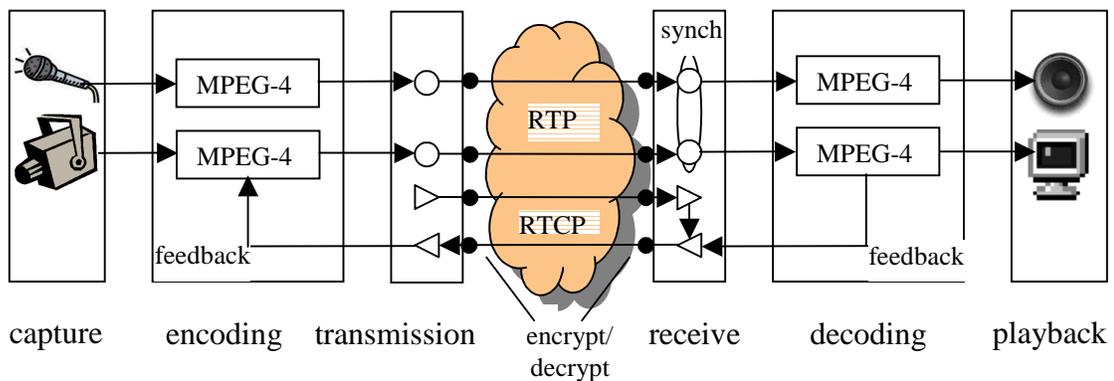


Figure 6-3 System block diagram

As described in the earlier chapters, the real-time control protocol (RTCP) frequently sends sender and receiver reports, these allow to compute the round trip time, detect packet loss and to synchronize the audio and video stream. When packet loss is detected, the encoder will reduce its bit-rate; when packets are transmitted successfully, the encoder will probe for bandwidth by increasing the bit-rate. The loss of an intra-frame will trigger the receiver to send an immediate feedback to the sender, thereby requesting a new intra-frame to be added to the bit-stream.

6.3 MPEG-4 Codecs

Since the MPEG-4 reference implementation does not offer the performance and quality needed for real-time encoding and decoding of audio and video data, we use newer implementations. The described codecs are written in C, C++ or assembler code, we access their APIs by using the Java Native Interface JNI [53].

The following codec versions are used:

- MPEG-4 video codec XVID [55], version 0.9.0
- MPEG-4 and H.263 video codecs of FFmpeg [56], stable cvs snapshot from the 9th of August 2003
- MPEG-4 audio encoder FAAC [58], version 1.17b
- MPEG-4 audio decoder FAAD2 [58], version 1.1

The versions of the codecs we have tested compile on standard systems like Linux and Windows. Many also compile and work on Macintosh and PDAs.

Most of these codecs are still under continuous development, the current versions [55,56,58] support the basic and some advanced features of the huge MPEG-4 standard. The profiles and modes supported are sufficient for real-time streaming, since advanced modes are more complex and so increase the time needed to encode and decode a frame. This implementation has to meet real-time constraints, so the use of basic and some advanced features is enough due to the limited processing power. Please note, that since we are using open source codecs, their quality might be less than the quality of commercial MPEG-4 video and audio codecs. Due to the flexible

architecture of the Java Media Framework and our additions to it, other codec versions or even new codec types can be added when required.

In our model we did not implement any pre- or post-processing in addition to the error concealment features of MPEG-4 to keep the amount of processing low. Since the JMF architecture supports processor chains, this can be added very easily if needed.

6.3.1 MPEG-4 Video Codec

For MPEG-4 video we use the XVID codec [55], in addition we implemented an interface to FFmpeg [56]. FFmpeg provides a codec suite; we use their h.263 [6] and MPEG-4 video codecs. H.263 allows the support of systems with lower performance. JMF also offers a H.263 codec, but we prefer the FFmpeg version, since it offers more control.

The MPEG-4 codecs support bit rates from well below 60 kbps up to more than 900 kbps. The quality of a bit stream encoded with a certain bit rate mainly depends on the resolution and the motion of the input. For video conferencing applications this is a great advantage, since a video conference usually does neither contain much motion (compared to a movie) nor cuts or fades. Each cut or fade has to be encoded in a reference frame, since the data to base prediction on has changed completely.

To match a requested bit rate the encoder uses different types of quantizers, quantization values and motion compensation methods. While the type of the quantizer and motion compensation model used usually does not change during

encoding, the quantization value gets recomputed for each frame to encode; the quantization value has the most influence on the resulting bit rate. Since we encode each frame only once and the quantization value has to be determined before encoding, an appropriate value has to be estimated based on preceding frames, bit-rate to match, size and motion of the input image and the type of frame to code. Not only the average bit-rate is important for streaming media, it also important to keep the deviation from this value small, since a link has a maximum throughput. As intra-frames are significantly bigger than forward or bidirectional predictive-frames, they usually get encoded with a higher quantization values to keep their size and the deviation from the streaming rate small, and so do carry a less detailed image than other frame types.

MPEG-4 AVC (also called H.264 or MPEG-4 Part 10) [14] has been recently (late 2002) defined and added as a new layer to MPEG-4; it allows even more compression and is currently being developed. Tests [57] have shown that MPEG-4 AVC offers about a 60% bit rate improvement to the older MPEG-4 layer. Since this new standard requires even more computational power than the older MPEG-4 layers, simultaneous real-time encoding and decoding as it would be required for video conferencing is not possible without special hardware. In Table 6-1 the hardware requirements for real-time coding for an implementation [57] of MPEG-4 AVC are listed. Please note that for the older layer of MPEG-4 (the one used in this project) simultaneous real-time video encoding and decoding is possible with CPU speeds below 1GHz.

Codec	CPU	Speed	Memory
Encoder	Pentium IV	3.0 GHz	512 MB
Decoder	Pentium IV	2.0 GHz	256 MB

Table 6-1: Hardware requirements for MPEG-4 AVC real-time coding; the AVC layer is inappropriate for simultaneous real-time encoding and decoding with today's hardware.

6.3.2 MPEG-4 Audio Codec

For audio MPEG-4 / MPEG-2 AAC audio is used, this is provided by the FAAC codec [58]. In addition we support GSM [61] and G.723 [60] for systems with lower performance and very low bandwidth links. The GSM and G.723 codecs are provided by the Java Media Framework.'

MPEG-4 AAC offers high quality audio encoding at low bit rates. Tests [59] indicate that AAC offers a 1/3 greater compression than the widely used MPEG-1 layer III (so called: "mp3") compression. So has a stereo signal encoded in AAC with a bit rate of 96 kb/s a better quality than "mp3" at 128 kb/s.

AAC is a block oriented variable bit rate algorithm. The sender reads 1024 (LD profile: 996) samples from the input and writes a number of output bits in relation to the desired bit rate. Each of the encoded blocks of 1024 input samples can be decoded independently from each other and so the loss or corruption of a bit in the stream has minimal influence, since error propagation is only possible in the current frame.

Like in the video part a new layer has been added to MPEG-4: MPEG-4 HE AAC (also called: AAC Plus) [15] has been recently (late 2002) defined; it allows even more compression and is currently under heavy development. As with the new video layer, the hardware requirements do not allow simultaneous real-time encoding and decoding with today's systems.

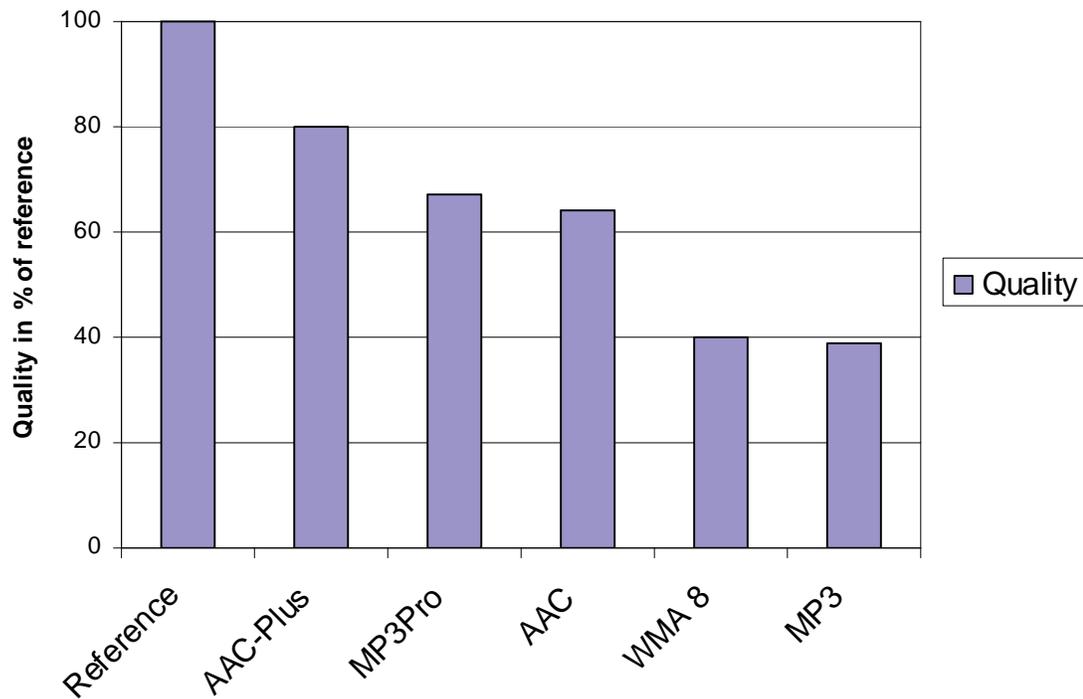


Figure 6-4: Codec test [59] at 48 kbps stereo

Figure 6-4 shows a quality comparison of different audio coding standards, these graphs are based on a subjective listening test [59], carried out by the European Broadcasting Union in 2002.

6.4 *Low performance codecs*

To support systems with low performance, we added support for codecs that do not require so much computation.

As mentioned H.263 video coding is supported, we also added the low bit-rate speech codecs G.723 (6.3 kbps) [60] and GSM (13.2 kbps) [61], these focus on the coding of speech only and so result in lower bit rates. The MPEG-4 standards suite also defines speech codecs, these are still under heavy development and will not be used in this project.

6.5 *RTP*

The Java Media Framework provides an implementation of RTP and RTCP. Media Streams can be transmitted and received; Quality of Service can be controlled via RTCP control packets. JMF also takes care of the synchronization of multiple streams transmitted from the same source. We use the flexible RTP implementation JMF provides to add quality and congestion control features as described in chapters 3 and 4. Later we added the security features described in chapter 5. All these additions to the Java Media Framework could be made, because the framework is kept very flexible.

6.5.1 RTP and MPEG-4

For each source the RTP standard defines that a separate stream is needed, thereby reducing multiplexing overhead. Streams of the same source can be synchronized by the receiver using the time stamps from the control packets (RTCP).

RFC 3016 [12] describes the direct mapping of video and audio streams on RTP-packets without using the MPEG-4 systems standard. This allows using for example a MPEG-4 video stream and non MPEG-4 audio stream for a session. It also keeps multiplexing overhead low. In addition a RFC draft [13] introduces a new RTCP packet for the resynchronization feature of MPEG-4 streams. We use this packet type to signal the loss of a key frame as described in chapter 3.

The RFC introduces a quite simple mapping of frames on RTP packets. One MPEG-4 frame (either video or audio) gets mapped in one RTP packet. If the resulting RTP packets are too small for efficient transmission, multiple frames can be mapped on one packet. One frame should not be mapped on two or more packets, except its size exceeds the maximal packet size (MTU) of the underlying protocol. Figure 6-5 and Figure 6-6 describe the effects of inadequate mapping of video packets when a packet gets lost during transmission.

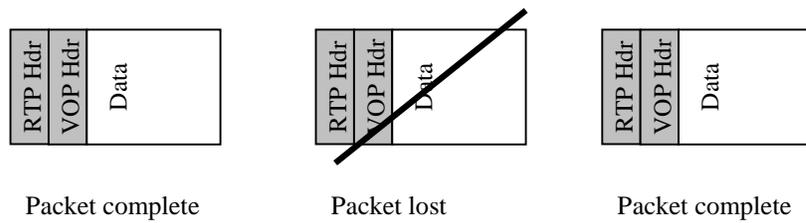


Figure 6-5: Low impact of packet loss due to good mapping

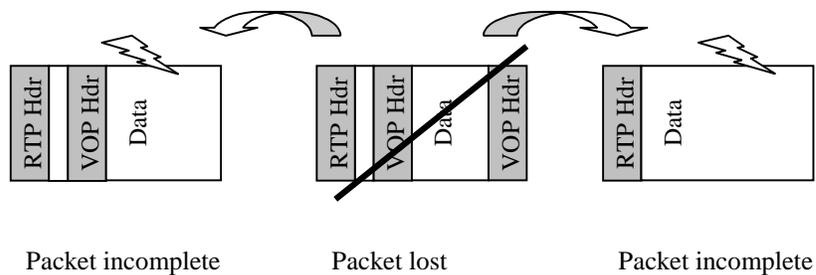


Figure 6-6: High impact of packet loss due to inappropriate mapping

Since UDP is mostly used for real time transmission over the internet and UDP supports packets up to a size of about 64kbyte, a MPEG-4 frame usually does not exceed the maximal packet size of UDP. Depending on the network type the UDP packets are transmitted on, some lower network layer may perform fragmentation. But since the fragmentation depends on the link and the used lower layer network protocol, the fragmentation has to be performed by these layers to achieve optimal link utilization.

Since MPEG-4 audio and video has build in error resilience capabilities, no additional RTP-Header as in H.261 and MPEG-2 / MPEG-1 is needed for error recovery. To

detect lost key-frames, we added a new RTP-Header as described in chapter 3 to the stream.

Since the bandwidth used for audio is only a fraction of the video bandwidth, we support bandwidth adjustment based on congestion control only for MPEG-4 video.

6.6 Files

Our model supports writing of MPEG-4 video and audio files. Users can write a copy of received and send streams to a file system. The system writes separate audio and video files to avoid multiplexing overhead during run-time. The files then can be multiplexed to a MPEG-4 systems file (“mp4”) or an “avi-container” by many tools [62,63]. Playback is possible with most players such as Windows Media Player [38], Quicktime [39] and MPlayer [64]. For all these players the appropriate codecs for MPEG-4 files, audio and video have to be installed.

6.6.1 Synchronization

When a frame gets lost or is delayed too long during transmission the Java Media Framework skips it to keep the video and audio data synchronized. When now both streams get written on a file system, the audio stream for example may have less duration than the video stream, due to the skipped frames. The result is, that after multiplexing, both streams would not be synchronized since the multiplexer does not

know which frames got lost. This means during file write, a frame has to be added where a frame was skipped to keep both streams synchronized during playback.

7 Evaluation

In this chapter we describe the evaluation of our models and their implementation into a video and audio streaming system. We will show that our models enable low-delay real-time communication, while being able to recover from frame loss, adapt to bandwidth variations and secure the transmission.

7.1 *Selective intra-frame addition*

A streaming system has to recover from key frame loss to prevent degradation of the received image. The amount of degradation increases with each received frame and depends on the amount of movement in the image. This means, recovery has to be performed as soon as possible. The fact that the amount of degradation depends on the movement in the image, is an advantage for the applications we target, since for example a video conference usually has less motion than a movie.

When our system detects the loss of an intra-frame a feedback packet is sent to the transmitter, which then adds another intra-frame to the stream. This new intra-frame will stop the image degradation. The user will only see a degraded image for the round trip time of the connection (plus some additional processing time). Since this is a short time, not much degradation will occur and picture will stay viewable.

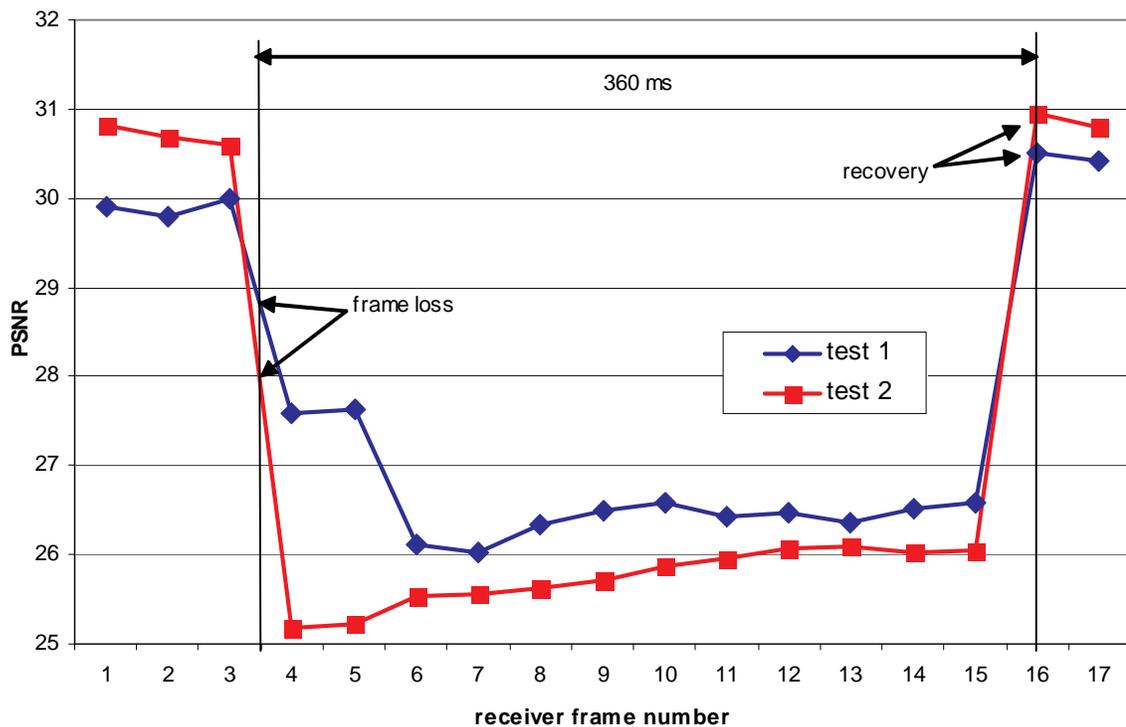


Figure 7-1 Image degradation after a lost key frame

Test setup: The round trip time is 200ms, 30 frames per second, recovery takes about 360 ms.

Between frame 3 and 4 an intra-frame was lost, the frame 16 is the recovery intra-frame

We tested the proposed model; the results are in Figure 7-1, Table 7-3 and Table 7-3.

A more detailed test-setup description can be found in Table 7-1. For the test, intra-frames were randomly dropped by the sender, to accomplish that, we implemented a packet dropping module into the implementation. For a round trip time of 200ms the system recovers in 360ms. The additional 160ms are needed by the implementation to react and handle to request.

	test 1	test 2
bit-rate	60 kbps	300 kbps
motion	low	high
description	normal talking, hand movement	fast movement of head from right to left and back
round trip time	200 ms	200 ms
time to recover	360 ms	360 ms

Table 7-1 Adaptive intra-frame addition test setup

In the top row of Table 7-2 and Table 7-3 we show the compressed image. The first two images in these rows are the degraded ones; the third image is the recovery intra-frame. For comparison the uncompressed original image can be found in the row below. The third row notes the corresponding frame number in graph shown above (Figure 7-1).

The tests show that our system allows fast recovery from intra-frame loss. Our approach enables delivering of low-delay real-time media, since it does not use additional buffers. It takes advantage from the fact, that real-time media always is live encoded. This allows us, to base the encoding on the receiver's feedback.

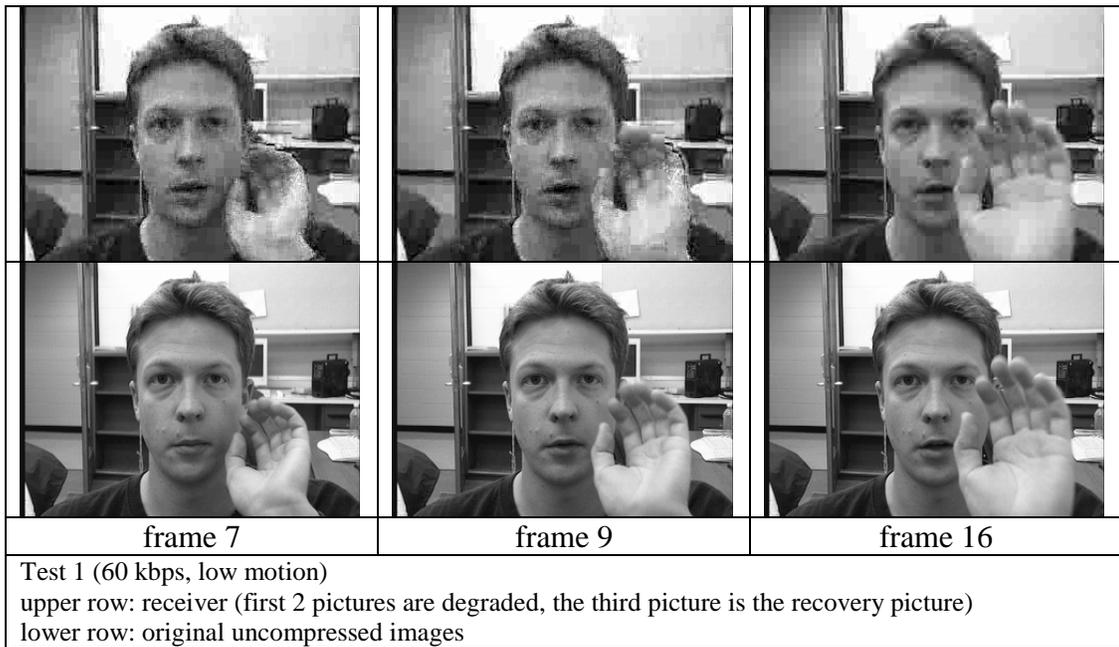


Table 7-2 Test 1: Sample pictures of the adaptive intra-frame addition test (low motion, 60kbps)

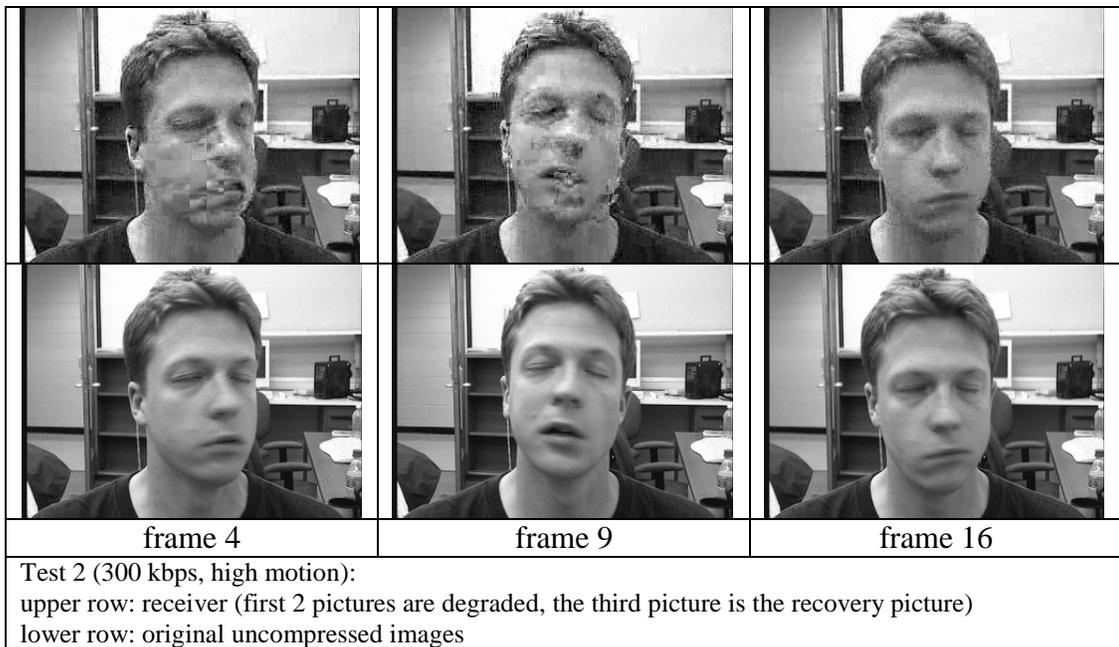


Table 7-3 Test 2: Sample pictures of the adaptive intra-frame addition test (high motion, 300 kbps)

7.2 Bandwidth Adaptation

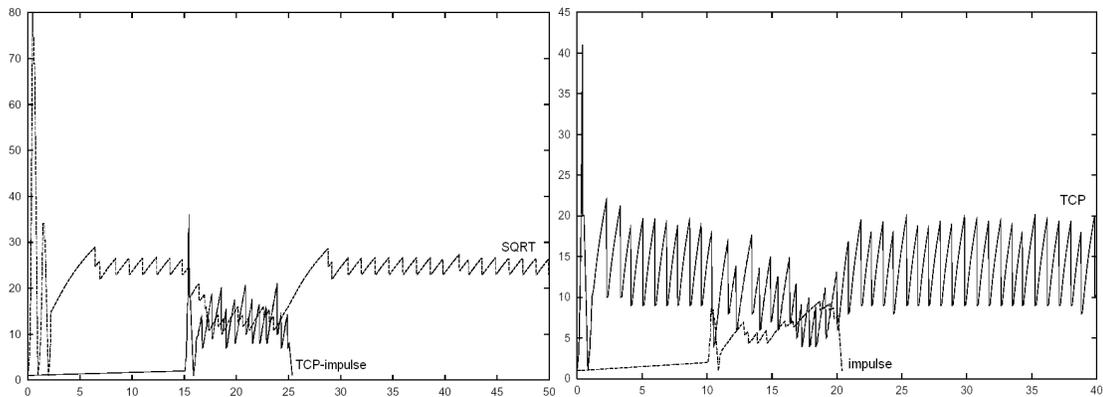


Figure 7-2 Left: Window size of the reaction of a SQR flow to an impulse; Right: Reaction of a TCP flow to an impulse (both figures are taken from [42])

We argued that traditional TCP congestion control adds too extreme rate oscillations to the transmission; this is not suitable for streaming applications, since streaming requires a smooth playback. We introduced binominal SQR based congestion control for RTP.

The evaluation (Figure 7-2) shows that binominal SQR congestion control reacts with less oscillation to data loss than traditional TCP congestion control. Furthermore it is TCP-friendly; it guarantees a fair bandwidth sharing with other applications.

7.3 Security Overhead

For each frame a hash has to be computed and the frame and hash have to be encrypted. This adds overhead, since this coding takes time and since the hash is added to each frame, more data has to be transmitted. To guarantee privacy overhead gets introduced to the transmission. We propose the use of fast algorithms; the delay

added by encryption and hashing is only noticeable for very high transmission rates, since more data has to be processed. The absolute delay depends on the average packet size, number of packets sent per time interval, used algorithms and the hardware. To ensure that the messages are save against digest attacks, random padding is added, the average padding length is 8 bytes.

Due to the attachment of the hash and the padding to each frame the average packet size grows.

Video Bit rate (kbit/second)	60	300	900
Frame rate (frames/second)	20	30	30
Avg. packet size (bit)	3000	10000	30000
SHA-1 hash size (bit)	160	160	160
Avg. padding (bit)	256	256	256
Overhead	13.9%	4.16%	1.39%

Table 7-4: Overhead of encryption and hashing

Table 7-4 shows that due to the larger packet size at higher transmission rates, the overhead added by security to the size of the bit stream can be neglected at high transmission rates. For lower bit rates the user might consider the use of a message digest algorithm with a smaller hash size or transmit only parts of the hash.

In this table we do not include the RCTP messages since they are sent not often, so additional data transmitted because of their encryption can be neglected, too.

Our evaluation shows the overhead in size can be neglected as long as the transmission rate is high enough. We also introduce a solution for low bit-rates, but this approach is less secure. No additional delays or significant increase of the processor load could be measured for the encryption, decryption and hashing. So it

can be stated, that overhead in time (eq. computation) can be neglected compared to the computation required for MPEG-4 real-time coding.

8 Future Work

High compression video and audio coding is currently under heavy development. New codecs and standards get developed on a rapid base; a good example would be the new layer added recently to MPEG-4 audio and video. The computing power needed for simultaneous real-time encoding and decoding with this layer will become feasible in the next years. Since these codecs offer better quality they should be added to the system as soon it becomes feasible.

Another issue is bit-rate control, we introduced in chapter 6.3.1 that the quantization value for video has to be estimated based on previous frames, motion and targeted bit-rate. In the last years interesting algorithms for rate control have been deployed. Their integration in today's codecs would increase quality and reduces derivation from the target bit-rate; especially since most of today's codecs only use simple bit-rate control algorithms.

Appendix A H.263 vs. MPEG-4 video

This thesis does not compare and evaluate video and audio compression schemes. For this the reader may refer to the variety of papers and books available. In this appendix chapter we provide a comparison of the MPEG-4 video and H.263.

During the development of MPEG-4, H.263 became a part of the huge MPEG-4 standard; H.263 can be considered minimal MPEG-4. The major difference between the full MPEG-4 standard and H.263 is, that resynchronization, byte alignment, reversible variable length coding, adaptive intra frames, error detection and error concealment are introduced by MPEG-4. Furthermore MPEG-4 introduces a scene description and has motion isolation with finer granularity than H.263; both features allow a better motion detection and so reduce the bitrate.

Please note that the MPEG-4 standard as most MPEG standards only defines the bitstream syntax. This means that many implementation details are left open in a flexible fashion while guaranteeing compatibility of different encoders and decoders. For example each encoder implementation may use their own motion estimation or DCT algorithm, based on this fact, the quality and speeds of encoders may vary. Even a really bad implementation of a MPEG-4 codec can be outperformed in quality and speed by a good H.263 codec implementation.

Concluding, it can be stated that, assuming a good implementation, a MPEG-4 codec outperforms a H.263 codec in quality at all bit-rates. The trade off is, that MPEG-4 compression requires more computing power.

Appendix B This work vs. Microsoft NetMeeting

This appendix chapter provides a feature comparison of our work to one of today's widely used video conferencing systems, Microsoft NetMeeting [65,66].

Feature	NetMeeting	Our work
Video		
Supported codecs	H.263	MPEG-4, H.263
Target bitrates	All	All
Variable bit-rate coding	No, two qualities offered for manual bandwidth adaptation	Yes, variable bitrates for automatic bandwidth adaptation
Recovery from frame loss	No	Yes, automatic key frame addition
Key frame interval	15 seconds	Variable, currently 10 seconds
Audio, fixed bit-rate		
Supported codecs	G.723	MPEG-4 AAC (16 and more kbits/s), G.723, GSM
Security		
Authentication	Certificates	Based on the ACE framework (including fingerprints sensors, certificates...)
Encryption	None for audio and video	AES and SHA-1
Session setup	H.323	ACE service directory

Table B-1 Feature comparison

For a description of the individual features of our work see the corresponding chapters in this thesis.

Appendix C Binominal congestion control analysis

In this appendix chapter we want to give a deeper insight into the reaction of the congestion control scheme we use. For the work presented in thesis, we combined the binominal SQRT algorithm with RTCP feedback to compute appropriate transmission rates (see chapter 4).

The two graphs below show how the algorithm reacts to congestion and probes for bandwidth availability. The graph (Figure C-1, left) nicely shows that upon congestion the bandwidth decrease is not by half as traditional TCP, so resulting in less oscillation. Probing for available bandwidth (Figure C-1, right) results in SQRT function shaped graph, the steps are smaller than they would be for TCP.

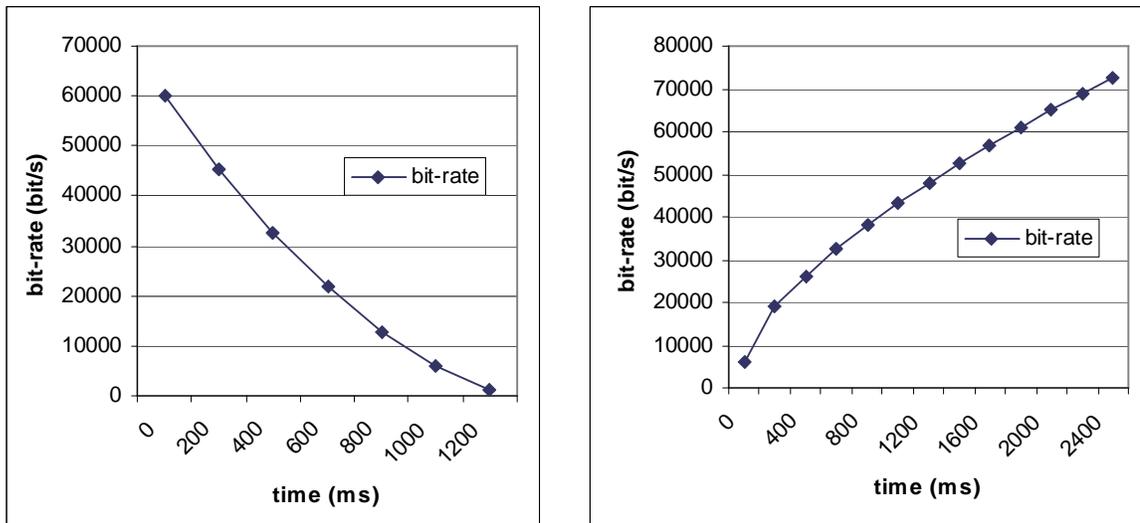


Figure C-1 Left: bit-rate decrease, right: bit-rate increase

For these two tests, we used a round trip time (rtt) of 200ms and a frame rate of 30 frames per second. The decrease figure shows, how the stream reacts if per received report one frame is reported lost. In this test, the reports are sent every 200ms. The

increase figure shows the sender probing for bandwidth every 200ms; this test assumes that no packets are reported lost.

The next diagram (Figure C-2) shows how a 60000 bit/s stream reacts when congestion reduces the available bandwidth to 30000 bit/s. In this test we are again using a round trip time of 200ms, 30 frames per second and assume receiver reports every 200ms.

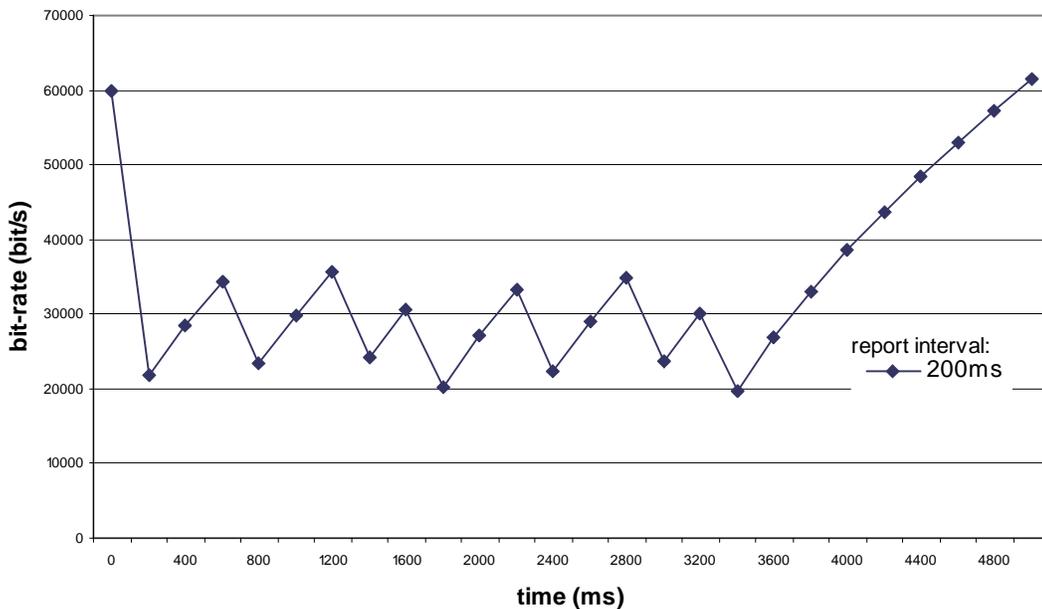


Figure C-2 Bit-rate adaptation for a 200ms report interval

For this test all packets exciding 30000 bit/s were lost and than reported lost by the next receiver report. For each lost packet the bit-rate is reduced once according to the SQRT formula (Formula 4-4) introduced in chapter 4.

Since the intervals between reports can differ, we conducted the same test for different intervals (200ms, 600ms, and 800ms). Our tests suggest that values up to

600ms offer a quite good congestion adaptation, while 800ms results in a too extreme bit-rate oscillation, although it offers a certain degree of adaptation.

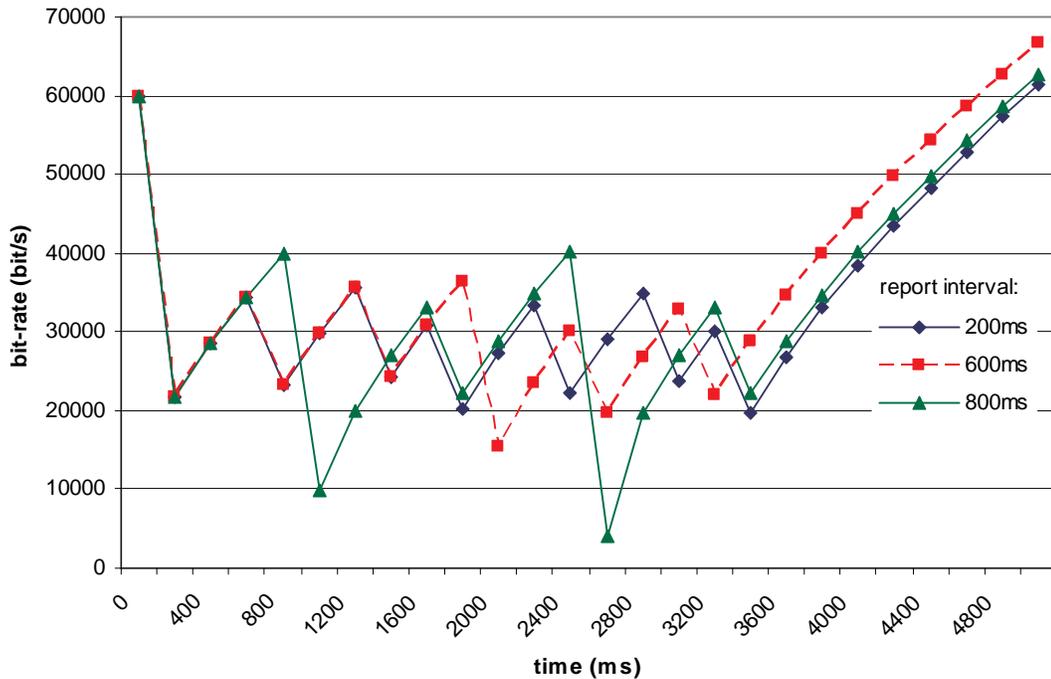


Figure C-3 Bit-rate adaptation for 200ms, 600ms and 800ms report intervals

For a round trip time of 100ms the result would be the same kind of graph, just with a different time axis. All time values would need to be divided by two, also the report intervals need to be divided by two. This means that for a round trip time of 100ms the graph would represent to report intervals of 100ms, 300ms and 400ms. So it can be stated that for example a reporting interval of 400ms would result in a better bit-rate adaptation for a connection with a round trip time of 200ms than with a round trip time of 100ms. A connection with a higher round trip time usually consists of more hops and so has a higher change of congestion and data loss. Based on this fact, we can consider the better adaptation at higher round trip times as appropriate, since

the higher change of packet loss of such a connection requires a more accurate adaptation to reduce the probability of packet loss.

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