

ERROR DETECTION AND CORRECTION

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Digital Communications Systems

Week 11

Date: 28/4-2/5/2024



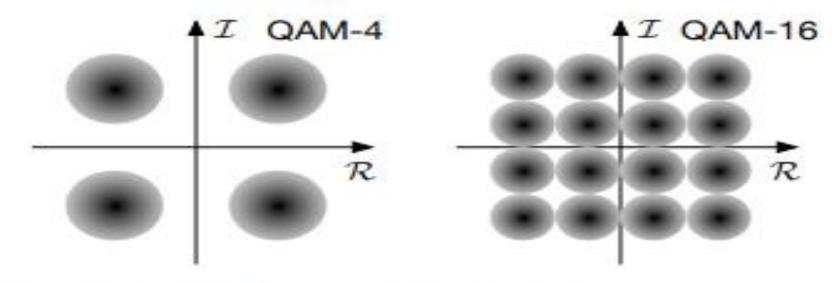
Error Protection: Detection and Correction

- Communication channels are subject to noise.
- Noise distorts analog signals.
- Noise can cause digital signals to be received as different values.
 - Bits can be flipped
 - Points in a signal constellation can be shifted.
- Changes in a digital signal are called errors.

Effects of Noise



Noise causes the constellation to blur out,

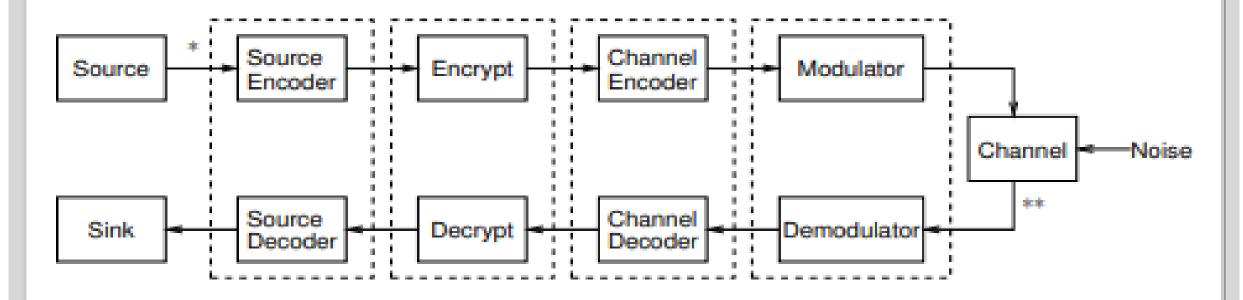


- With enough noise we will get decoding errors
- We'd like to be able to detect, and perhaps correct, these errors
- To do this, we'll add some redundant information



Communication Systems

Recall the communication system block diagram:



We have concentrated on the modulator/demodulator blocks.

Error protection involves channel encoder and decoder.

Error Control Classification



The error control problem can be classified in several ways.

- Type of errors: how much clustering random, burst, catastrophic
- Type of modulator output: digital ("hard") vs. analog ("soft")
- Type of error control coding: detection vs. correction
- Type of codes: block vs. convolutional
- Type of decoder: algebraic vs. probabilistic

The first two classifications are used to select a coding scheme according to the last three classifications.

Types of Error Potection



Error detection

Goal: avoid accepting faulty data.

Lost data may be unfortunate; wrong data may be disastrous.

Solution: checksums are included in messages (packets, frames, sectors).

If any part of the message is altered, then the checksum is not valid (with high probability).

(Forward) error correction (FEC or ECC).

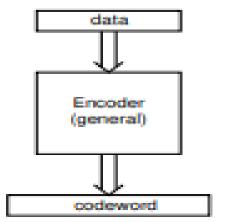
Use redundancy in encoded message to estimate from the received data (senseword) what message was actually sent.

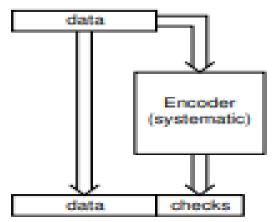
Optimal estimate is message that is most probable given what is received (MAP, maximum a posteriori). The best estimate is typically the message that is "closest" to the senseword.

Block Codes



k-digit blocks of information digits are encoded into n-digit codewords (n ≥ k) by adding p = n − k redundant check digits.

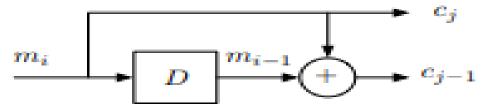




- There is no memory betwen blocks. The encoding of each data block is independent of past and future blocks.
- An encoding in which the information digits appear unchanged in the codewords is called systematic.
 - Adding parity bits is systematic
 - 8b/10b is not systematic (each 8 bit sequence is mapped onto one or two 10 bit sequences)

Convolutional Codes

- SULAHANI 2014
- For convolutional codes, a filter continuously adds additional bits to use bit stream
- Each n-bit codeword block depends on the current codeword and on the previous m codewords. m is the memory order
- Here is the simplest convolutional code.



- This generates two output bits for every input bit, the current data bit, and the XOR with the previous data bit.
- For this rate 1/2 convolutional code, m = 1 and n = 2. This is used in GSM.
- Convolutional codes are widely used in digital communications. They don't need a fixed block size. Examples are Viterbi codes and trellis codes. These are covered in EE279.

Block Codes: Simple Parity-Check Codes



Append one check bit to data bits so that all codewords have the same overall parity — either even or odd.

Even-parity codewords are defined by a single parity-check equation:

$$c_1 \oplus c_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus c_n = (c_1 + c_2 + \cdots + c_n) \bmod 2 = 0,$$

where

denotes the exclusive-or operation.

If we XOR c_n to both sides of the above equation, we obtain an *encoding* equation:

$$c_n = c_1 \oplus c_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus c_{n-1}$$
.

This shows how to compute the *check bit* c_n from the *data bits* c_1, \ldots, c_{n-1} .

Any single bit error (or any odd number of errors) can be detected.

Any bit c_i can be considered to be the check bit because it can be computed from the other n-1 bits: $c_i = \sum_{j \neq i} c_j$.

Polynomial Division

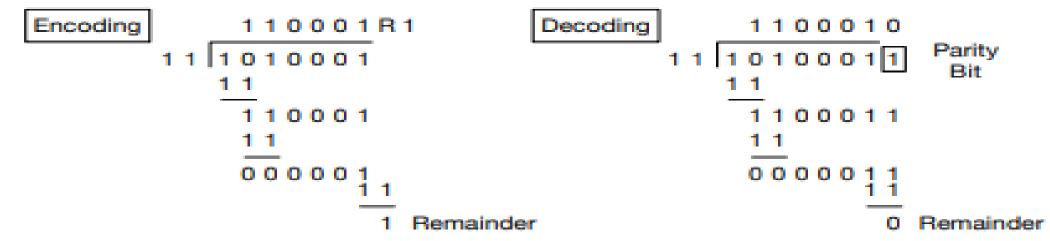


- We can consider parity as the remainder after polynomial division.
- For data bits c_1, \dots, c_7 the parity bit is the remainder after dividing

$$c_1x^6 + c_2x^5 + c_3x^4 + c_4x^3 + c_5x^2 + c_6^x + c_7$$

by x+1.

► Example: $c_1, \dots, c_7 = 1010001$ divided by 11



Addition and subtraction are without carry (XOR)

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

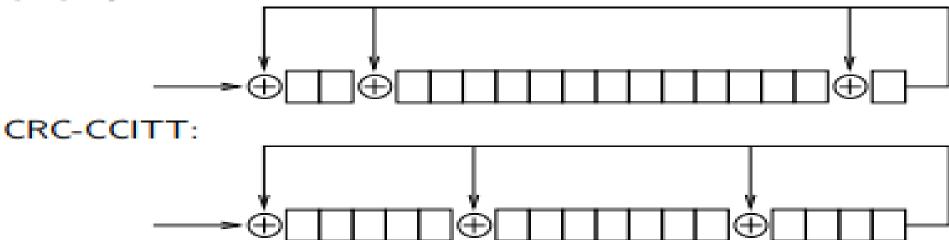


- If we use a longer divisor polynomial we can detect which bit is in error for a much longer bit stream
- For an optimal polynomial of order n we can
 - ▶ Detect any single or double bit error in 2ⁿ − 1 bits
 - With a factor 1 + x, detect any error in an odd number of bits
- Lots of different polynomials are possible. Two very common ones are
 - ightharpoonup CRC-16-IBM : $x^{16} + x^{15} + x^2 + 1$
 - ightharpoonup CRC-CCITT : $x^{16} + x^{12} + x^5 + 1$
- Other CRC codes from CRC-3 to CRC-64
- ightharpoonup Can be applied to any length block less than 2^n-1
- Used in Bluetooth, USB, GSM, X.25, ACARS (ACARS-16-ARINC)

CRC Implementation

Polynomial division can be implemented using linear feedback shift registers. This does what we do with long division, clocking in one new bit each cycle.

CRC-16:



- Remainder is left in the shift register at the end of the calculation, appended to the transmitted bits
- On reception, the division of the data with the appended CRC remainder will produce 0 if there are no errors
- If there is a single error, the CRC remainder identifies which bit is in error

Error Correction: Simple Product Codes



Arrange data bits in a two-dimensional array. Append parity check bits at the end of each row and column.

	k_1 info bits	row	checks		
k_2 info bits			$n = (k_1 + k_2 + k_3 + k_4 + k_5)$ $n - k = k_1 + k_5$		
column checks					

Single error causes failure of one row equation and one column equation. Incorrect bit is located at the intersection of the bad row and bad column.

Double errors can be detected — two rows or two columns (or both) have the wrong parity — but cannot be corrected.

Some triple errors cause miscorrection. Which?

Error Correction: Hamming Codes



Simple product codes are simple but inefficient:

- a failed parity-check equation locates row or column of error
- however, a satisfied equation gives little information

An "efficient" equation gives one bit of information about the error location. It "looks" at half the codeword bits and is "independent" of othe equations.

Basic idea:

- ▶ We will send a block of size $n = 2^m 1$
- We'll use m bits for parity, and the rest for data
- Each parity bit corresponds to half of the block
- A single error and its location can be identified by which parity equations fail. This pattern is called the error syndrome

Hamming Codes



To determine the parity equations,

- ▶ Index each output bit from one to 2ⁿ 1, and represent it in binary
- Any index that has a single bit is used for parity (i.e. 00100)
- All other indexed outputs are sequentially filled with input bits
- The parity bit is computed for all indexes that have the same index bit set (i.e all the odd samples for the first parity bit)

Example: $2^{n} - 1 = 7$

- Parity bits are 001, 010, and 100
- Data bits are the rest, 011, 101, 110, and 111
- We'll have 3 parity bits, 4 data bits, and seven bits total
- This is called a (7,4) code

Hamming Codes



The following table defines a (7,4) Hamming parity-check code.

	$\begin{vmatrix} c_1 \\ p_1 \end{vmatrix}$	p_2	d_1	p_4	d_2	d_3	d_4	
p_1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	
p_2	0	1	1	O	0	1	1	3 parity-check equations
p_4	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	J

- Each column is the binary representation of that index
- Each row defines one parity bit equation
- The 1's indicate which codeword bits affect which parity-check equations.
- We can double the block size and only need one more parity bit, for a (15,11) code. This gets very efficient as n gets large.

Hamming Codes: Parity-Check Equations and Matrix



The following three equations are satisfied by all (and only) valid codewords:

$$c_1 \oplus c_3 \oplus c_5 \oplus c_7 = 0$$

 $c_2 \oplus c_3 \oplus c_6 \oplus c_7 = 0$
 $c_4 \oplus c_5 \oplus c_6 \oplus c_7 = 0$

The check equations can be described by a parity-check matrix:

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Valid codewords are characterized the equation:

$$H \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_7 \end{bmatrix} = 0_{3 \times 1}$$

In other words, a 7-tuple c is a codeword if and only if $Hc^T = 0$.

Hamming Codes: Encoding Equations



Each of the parity codeword bits c_1, c_2, c_4 appears in only one equation.

The parity bits c_1, c_2, c_4 are computed from the data bits, c_3, c_5, c_6, c_7 .

$$c_1 = c_3 \oplus c_5 \oplus c_7$$

 $c_2 = c_3 \oplus c_6 \oplus c_7$
 $c_4 = c_5 \oplus c_6 \oplus c_7$

These *linear* encoder equations can be written as a vector-matrix product.

$$[c_1 c_2 c_4] = [c_3 c_5 c_6 c_7] P = [c_3 c_5 c_6 c_7] \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Hamming Code Error Detection and Correction



The parity equations are

$$c_1 \oplus c_3 \oplus c_5 \oplus c_7 = 0$$

 $c_2 \oplus c_3 \oplus c_6 \oplus c_7 = 0$
 $c_4 \oplus c_5 \oplus c_6 \oplus c_7 = 0$

where $c_1 = p_1$, $c_2 = p_2$, and $c_4 = p_4$ are parity bits.

Parity bit error

- Each parity bit occurs in just one equation, so only that equation will have a parity error
- A single parity equation error is an error in that parity bit

Data bit error

- Each data bit occurs in multiple equations, each of which will have a parity error
- The data bit error is the bit shared by those multiple equations

Either way, a single bit error can be detected and corrected.

Hamming Code Error Detection and Correction



For larger blocks, we just add more parity bits.

For example, the parity-check matrix for (15,11) is

- There are now four parity equations, with parity bits p1, p2, p4, and p8
- The data bits appear in 2, 3, or 4 equations.
- A single parity equation error is an error in the parity bit
- Multiple parity equation errors is an error in the bit shared by these equations

All single bit errors can be detected and corrected.



Error Detection Conclusion

- A single overall parity-check equation detects single errors.
- ▶ Hamming codes use m equations to correct one error in 2^m − 1 bits.
 - Most useful when the error rate is low. ECC RAM uses Hamming codes
 - More sophisticated algorithms needed when multiple errors likely in a block
- Extensions
 - We can use nonbinary equations if we create symbols from sequences of bits. E.g., four bits can represent 0, 1, . . . , 15.
 - Nonbinary check equations can use more advanced arithmetic, such as mod 16.
 - We can add other types of equations, c₁ + 2c₂ + 3c₃ + · · · and c₁ + αc₂ + α²c₃ + · · · to be able to detect and correct multiple bit errors.



Next Classes

Wednesday: Spread Spectrum, Radar, GPS, CDMA

Friday: Questions on projects

Following Friday: Projects due