

INTRODUCTION TO EECS II

DIGITAL COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS

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Lecture #7: Channel Coding (cont.)

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- Linear (n,k) block codes & Hamming codes
- Combating burst errors: interleaving
- Error detection: cyclic redundancy codes

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How Many Parity Bits Do We Need?

- We have n-k parity bits, which collectively can represent 2^{n-k} possibilities
- For single-bit error correction, parity bits need to represent two sets of cases:
 - Case 1: No error has occurred (1 possibility)
 - Case 2: Exactly one of the code word bits has an error (n possibilities, not k)
- So we need $n+1 \leq 2^{n-k}$

$$n \leq 2^{n-k} - 1$$
- Hamming codes correct single errors with this minimum number of parity bits (7,4,3), (15,11,3), ...

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Example: (7,4,3) Hamming Code

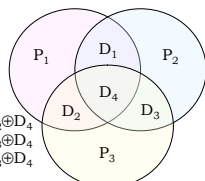
- Use multiple parity bits, each covering a subset of the data bits.
- No two message bits belong to exactly the same subsets, so a single-bit error will generate a unique set of parity check errors.

Modulo-2 addition, aka XOR

$$P_1 = D_1 \oplus D_2 \oplus D_4$$

$$P_2 = D_1 \oplus D_3 \oplus D_4$$

$$P_3 = D_2 \oplus D_3 \oplus D_4$$



Suppose we check the parity and discover that P2 and P3 indicate an error?
bit D3 must have flipped

What if only P3 indicates an error?
P3 itself had the error!

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Syndrome Decoding

- After receiving the (possibly corrupted) message, compute a **syndrome** bit (E_i) for each parity bit

$$E_1 = D_1 \oplus D_2 \oplus D_4 \oplus P_1$$

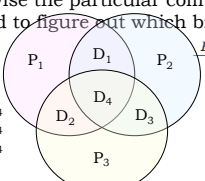
$$E_2 = D_1 \oplus D_3 \oplus D_4 \oplus P_2$$

$$E_3 = D_2 \oplus D_3 \oplus D_4 \oplus P_3$$
- If all the E_i are zero: no errors
- Otherwise the particular combination of the E_i can be used to figure out which bit to correct

$$P_1 = D_1 \oplus D_2 \oplus D_4$$

$$P_2 = D_1 \oplus D_3 \oplus D_4$$

$$P_3 = D_2 \oplus D_3 \oplus D_4$$



$E_3 E_2 E_1$	Corrective Action
000	no errors
001	p_1 has an error, flip to correct
010	p_2 has an error, flip to correct
011	d_1 has an error, flip to correct
100	p_3 has an error, flip to correct
101	d_2 has an error, flip to correct
110	d_3 has an error, flip to correct
111	d_4 has an error, flip to correct

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Rectangular Codes

Idea: start with rectangular array of data bits, add parity checks for each row and column. Single-bit error in data will show up as parity errors in a particular row and column, pinpointing the bit that has the error.

0	1	1
1	1	0
1	0	

0	1	1
1	0	0
1	0	

0	1	1
1	1	1
1	0	

Parity for each row and column is correct $\Rightarrow$ no errors

Parity check fails for row #2 and column #2 $\Rightarrow$ bit D_4 is incorrect

Parity check only fails for row #2 $\Rightarrow$ bit P_2 is incorrect

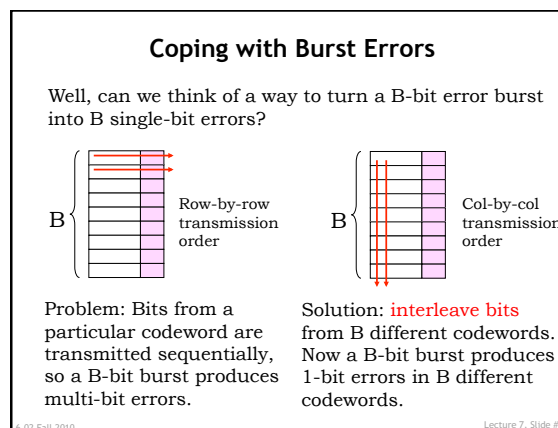
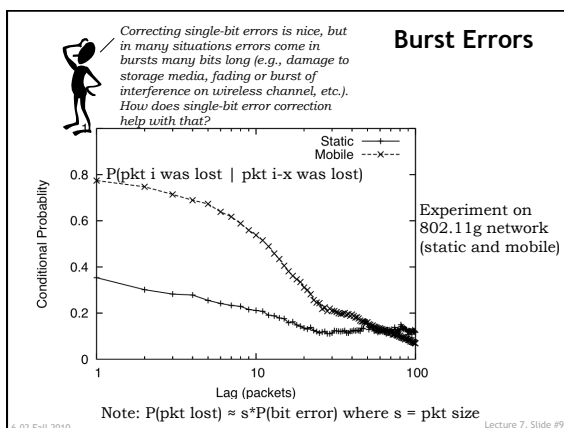
If we add an overall parity bit P_5 , we get a (9,4,4) code!

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Linear Block Codes: Wrap-Up

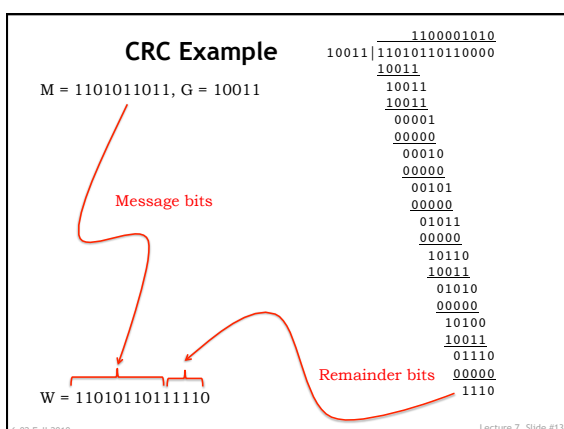
- (n,k,d) codes with rate k/n
- Code words are linear operations over message bits: sum of any two code words is a code word
- Message + 1 parity bit: (n+1,n,2) code
 - Good code rate, but only 1-bit error detection
- Replicating each bit c times is a (c,1,c) code
 - Simple way to get great error correction; poor code rate
- Hamming single-error correcting codes are (n,n-p,3) where $n = 2^p - 1$ for $p > 1$
 - Adding an overall parity bit makes the code (n+1,n-p,4)
- Rectangular parity codes are (rc+r+c, rc, 3) codes
 - Rate not as good as Hamming codes

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- Error Detection Schemes**
- Simple checksum
 - Add up all the message units and send along sum
 - Easy for two errors to offset one another
 - Some 0 bit changed to 1; 1 bit in same position in another message unit changed 0... sum is unchanged
 - Weighted checksum
 - Add up all the message units, each weighted by its index in the message, send along sum
 - Still too easy for two errors to offset one another
 - Both! Adler-32
 - $A = (1 + \text{sum of message units}) \bmod 65521$
 - $B = (\text{sum of } A_i \text{ after each message unit}) \bmod 65521$
 $= (n \cdot n \cdot m_1 + (n-1) \cdot m_2 + \dots + 1 \cdot m_n) \bmod 65521$
 - Send 32-bit quantity $(B \ll 16) + A$
 - Cheaper in SW, but not quite as good as a CRC
 - Not good for short messages
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- Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)**
- Cyclic code: If w is a code word, any cyclic shift of w is also a code word
 - Think of bits in w as coefficients of polynomial of degree $n-1$. Add with GF(2) rules (i.e., XOR)
 - E.g., 11000101 would be $x^7 + x^6 + x^2 + 1$
 - Each valid code word $w(x)$ is a multiple of a generator polynomial, $g(x)$
 - Given a message $m(x)$, construct $w(x)$ as $w(x) = x^{n-k} m(x) + R\{x^{n-k} m(x) / g(x)\}$ where $R\{a/b\}$ is "remainder when a is divided by b "
 - The CRC check bits (there are $n-k$ of them) are given by $R\{\dots\}$
 - Receiver gets $r(x)$, divides by $g(x)$, and sees if remainder is 0 (if 0, then no errors detected)
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- Good CRC Generator Polynomials**
- Receiver gets $w(x) + e(x)$, where $e()$ is the error term
 - If non-zero $e(x)$ evenly divides $g(x)$, then we have an undetected error
 - If $(1+x)$ is a factor of $g(x)$, then all odd numbers of errors will be detected
 - Because $(1+x)$ (any polynomial) will have an even number of terms, so all valid codewords will have even parity
 - Double error pattern has $e(x) = x^i + x^j$
 - If $g(x)$ does not have x as a factor and if it does not evenly divide $1 + x^{j-i}$ for $1 \leq j-i \leq n-1$, then can detect 2 errors
 - Can extend rule to detect burst errors of bounded size (burst size $< n-k$ bits)
 - Many CRC polynomials exist, used very widely
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