

## EECS 122, Lecture 6

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### Errors

- Errors occur due to noise or interference on a communication channel
- Error detection and correction
  - error detecting (correcting) codes
  - retransmission (ARQ)
- Usually, codes are used for bit errors, ARQ is used for packets

### Channel Coding

- Codes to correct for errors in channel (versus source coding--compression)
- Benefits due to these phenomena
  - Redundancy
  - Noise averaging (over long time spans)
- Types of codes
  - block codes, tree codes

### Block and Tree Codes

- Block codes
  - $k$  input bits  $\rightarrow$   $n$  output bits; an “ $(n,k)$  code”
  - memoryless process, simple mapping
  - code rate  $R = k/n$  [typ  $0.25 < R < 0.875$ ]
- Tree codes (incl. convolutional codes)
  - $k$  input,  $n$  output,  $n$  is  $f(v+k)$  input bits
  - $v > 0$  implies process has memory

### Where are Codes Used?

- Used on storage media (magnetic tape, CDs, etc)
- Common examples
  - Parity bits
  - Cyclic redundancy check (CRC)
  - Internet checksum
- (we will look briefly at block codes)

### Basics

- Hamming weight is # of 1's in a word
- Hamming distance ( $d$ ) is # of differences
  - 110101, 111001 have  $d = 2$
  - (also the Ham. weight of their XOR!)
- At least some errors can be detected or corrected if, for a code with HD  $d$ :  
$$d \geq (\# \text{ errors that can be detected}) + (\# \text{ errors that can be corrected}) + 1$$

## Basics 2

- A pattern of  $t$  or fewer errors can be detected *and* corrected if:
  - $d \geq 2t + 1$  (use closest code word)
- The minimum distance of the code is the smallest  $d$  of any codeword pairs
- Want codes with as large as possible minimum distance

## Simple Parity

- Starting with  $n-1$  information bits, construct the  $n$ th bit so that the Hamming weight is even (even parity)
- Will detect an odd number of bit errors
- Does not handle even # of errors
- Does not correct

## Parity Check Code

- Consider a codeword to be of form:
 
$$\mathbf{i_1 i_2 i_3 \dots i_k p_1 p_2 p_3 p_r}$$
  - (symmetric form...info comes first)
  - then for  $(n,k)$  block code,  $n = k + r$
- We can think of selecting a codeword  $\mathbf{c}$  as a matrix multiplication (w/mod-2 +):
 
$$\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{mG}$$
- $\mathbf{m}$  is message,  $\mathbf{G}$  is *generator matrix*

## Parity Generation

- $\mathbf{G}$  is a  $k \times n$  ( $k$  rows) matrix:

$$\mathbf{G} = [\mathbf{I} \mid \mathbf{Z}^T] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & z_{11} & z_{12} & \dots & z_{1k} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & z_{21} & z_{22} & \dots & z_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & z_{rk} & z_{rk} & \dots & z_{rk} \end{bmatrix}$$

## The Z Matrix

- entries in  $\mathbf{Z}$  are binary numbers specified to give the desired codewords in the  $(n,k)$  block code [Hamming is 1 example]
- Want this relationship:

$$\begin{aligned} p_1 &= z_{1,1}i_1 \oplus z_{1,2}i_2 \oplus \dots \oplus z_{1,k}i_k \\ p_2 &= z_{2,1}i_1 \oplus z_{2,2}i_2 \oplus \dots \oplus z_{2,k}i_k \\ &\dots \\ p_r &= z_{r,1}i_1 \oplus z_{r,2}i_2 \oplus \dots \oplus z_{r,k}i_k \end{aligned}$$

## Parity Generation Example

- $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{mG}$  for  $(7,4)$  systematic code word:

$$\mathbf{c} = [1011] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = [1011010]$$

## Parity Checking

- H is a  $(n-k) \times n$  matrix:

$$H = [Z \mid I] = \begin{bmatrix} z_{11} & z_{12} & \dots & z_{1k} & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ z_{21} & z_{22} & \dots & z_{2k} & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ z_{n-1,1} & z_{n-1,2} & \dots & z_{n-1,k} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Syndrome:  $\mathbf{s} = \mathbf{r} H^T \neq \mathbf{0}$  indicates error

## Hamming Codes [BSTJ-4/50]

- Special block codes with  $d = 3$
- Because  $d \geq 2t + 1$ ,  $t = 1$  (Single EC)
- Requires:  $(n, k) = (2^m - 1, 2^m - 1 - m)$
- where integer  $m \geq 3$
- So, allowable codes include (7, 4), (15, 11), (31, 26), (63, 57), (127, 120)

## Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

- Block based error detection commonly used in link-layer networks
- Idea: Given a  $k$ -bit message, generate an  $n$ -bit frame check sequence (FCS) so that a combined  $k+n$  bit frame is evenly divisible by some pre-defined number
- On receipt, no remainder means no error

## Messages as Polynomials

- Consider  $n$  bit message as corresponding to an  $(n-1)$  degree polynomial with the message bits as coefficients
- Example:  
 $-m = 10011010$   $M(x) = x^7 + x^4 + x^3 + x^1$

## What to Send

- Let  $C(x)$  be our divisor polynomial  
 $-$  example:  $C(x) = x^3 + x^2 + x^1$  (degree 3)
- So, first scale  $M(x)$  by multiplying by degree of  $C(x)$ :  $M(x) = x^{10} + x^7 + x^6 + x^4$
- Now, compute remainder of  $M(x)/C(x)$

## Polynomial Division

$$\begin{array}{r} 11111001 \\ 1101 \overline{) 10011010000} \\ \underline{1101} \phantom{0000} \\ 1000 \phantom{0000} \\ \underline{1101} \phantom{0000} \\ 1011 \phantom{0000} \\ \underline{1101} \phantom{0000} \\ 1100 \phantom{0000} \\ \underline{1101} \phantom{0000} \\ 1000 \phantom{0000} \\ \underline{1101} \phantom{0000} \\ 101 \phantom{0000} \end{array}$$

## Remainder Calculation

- So, we see that 101 is the remainder
- Thus,  $M(x) - 101$  would be evenly divisible by  $C(x)$
- So, just subtract off 101 (remember, we pre-multiplied leaving room for it)
- Then, new message is 10011010101

## Where did $C(x)$ Come From?

- $C(x)$  is standardized to be small but typically produce remainders. Detects:
  - all single bit errors
  - all double-bit errors if  $C(x)$  has a factor with at least 3 terms
  - any odd number of errors, if  $(x+1)$  divides  $C(x)$
  - any burst error of length  $<$  len of FCS
  - most large burst errors

## Standard CRC Polynomials

- CRC-8: 100000111
- CRC-10: 11000110011
- CRC-12: 1100000001111 (text is wrong)
- CRC-16: 1100000000000101
- CRC-CCITT: 10001000000100001
- CRC-32:  
1000010011000010001110110110111

## The Internet Checksum

- Used in IP, ICMP, TCP, UDP, ...
- Alg: 1's complement of the 1's complement sum of data interpreted 16 bits at a time. In 1's comp., two zeros!
- 1's complement addition is "end-round-carry" addition. Why?
  - 2's complement carry is a zero-crossing; account for -0 by adding one

## Internet Checksum Example

- Message: e3 4f 23 96 44 27 99 f3
- 2's comp sum is: 1e4ff
- 1's comp sum is: e4ff + 1 = e500
- So, Internet cksum is 1aff
- Note that message + cksum = ffff
- Thus,  $\text{cksum}(\text{msg} + \text{cksum}) = 0000$

## Interesting Properties (are these good for a checksum?)

- $\langle \{0001\dots\text{ffff}\}, + \rangle$  forms Abelian Group:
  - for all  $X, Y$   $(X+Y)$  is in  $\{0001\dots\text{ffff}\}$  [closure]
  - $A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C$  [assoc]
  - $e + X = X + e = X$  (for all  $X$ ),  $e = \text{ffff}$  [ident]
  - for all  $X$ ,  $X'$  exists where  $X + X' = e$  [inverse]
  - for all  $X, Y$ ,  $X+Y = Y+X$  [commutativity]
  - not closed under complement!
  - only trivial payload results in ffff cksum

## Other Characteristics

- easy to compute and check in software
- amenable to incremental updates
- not as strong as CRC
  - assume any bit error results in uniform csum value on [0000..fffe], then  $\text{Prob}(\text{cksumvalid}|\text{error}) = 1$  in 65536, about  $3 \times 10^{-5}$ .....ok if errors are rare

## Incremental Updates

- Possible to determine new cksum without touching all data...only need sum of areas being changed (from and to)
- Why useful? [for small changes]
  - Network Address Translation (NAT)
  - IP forwarding (TTL decrement)