## Error Detection and Correction

Note
The Hamming distance between two words is the number of differences between corresponding bits.

## Example 10.4

Let us find the Hamming distance between two pairs of words.

1. The Hamming distance $d(000,011)$ is 2 because $000 \oplus 011$ is 011 (two 1s)
2. The Hamming distance $\mathbf{d}(10101,11110)$ is 3 because

Note
The minimum Hamming distance is the smallest Hamming distance between all possible pairs in a set of words.

## Example 10.5

Find the minimum Hamming distance of the coding scheme in Table 10.1.

Solution
We first find all Hamming distances.

| $d(000,011)=2$ | $d(000,101)=2$ | $d(000,110)=2$ | $d(011,101)=2$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $d(011,110)=2$ | $d(101,110)=2$ |  |  |

The $d_{\text {min }}$ in this case is 2.

## Example 10.6

Find the minimum Hamming distance of the coding scheme in Table 10.2.

## Solution

We first find all the Hamming distances.

| $d(00000,01011)=3$ | $d(00000,10101)=3$ | $d(00000,11110)=4$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $d(01011,10101)=4$ | $d(01011,11110)=3$ | $d(10101,11110)=3$ |

The $d_{\text {min }}$ in this case is 3.

## Note

To guarantee the detection of up to s errors in all cases, the minimum
Hamming distance in a block code must be $d_{\text {min }}=s+1$.

## 10-3 LINEAR BLOCK CODES

Almost all block codes used today belong to a subset called linear block codes. A linear block code is a code in which the exclusive OR (addition modulo-2) of two valid codewords creates another valid codeword.

Topics discussed in this section:
Minimum Distance for Linear Block Codes Some Linear Block Codes

Note
In a linear block code, the exclusive OR (XOR) of any two valid codewords creates another valid codeword.

## Note

A simple parity-check code is a single-bit error-detecting code in which
$n=k+1$ with $d_{\text {min }}=2$.
Even parity (ensures that a codeword has an even number of 1's) and odd parity (ensures that there are an odd number of 1's in the codeword)

Table Simple parity-check code C(5, 4)

| Datawords | Codewords | Datawords | Codewords |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0000 | 00000 | 1000 | 10001 |
| 0001 | 00011 | 1001 | 10010 |
| 0010 | 00101 | 1010 | 10100 |
| 0011 | 00110 | 1011 | 10111 |
| 0100 | 01001 | 1100 | 11000 |
| 0101 | 01010 | 1101 | 11011 |
| 0110 | 01100 | 1110 | 11101 |
| 0111 | 01111 | 1111 | 11110 |

10. 

## Figure Encoder and decoder for simple parity-check code



## Example

Let us look at some transmission scenarios. Assume the sender sends the dataword 1011. The codeword created from this dataword is 10111, which is sent to the receiver. We examine five cases:

1. No error occurs; the received codeword is 10111. The syndrome is 0 . The dataword 1011 is created.
2. One single-bit error changes $a_{1}$. The received codeword is 10011. The syndrome is 1 . No dataword is created.
3. One single-bit error changes $r_{0}$. The received codeword is 10110. The syndrome is 1 . No dataword is created.

## Example

4. An error changes $r_{0}$ and a second error changes $a_{3}$. The received codeword is 00110. The syndrome is 0. The dataword 0011 is created at the receiver. Note that here the dataword is wrongly created due to the syndrome value.
5. Three bits- $a_{3}, a_{2}$, and $a_{1}$-are changed by errors. The received codeword is 01011. The syndrome is 1 . The dataword is not created. This shows that the simple parity check, guaranteed to detect one single error, can also find any odd number of errors.

Note

## A simple parity-check code can detect an odd number of errors.

## Figure Two-dimensional parity-check code

| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | $1 \stackrel{\text { U }}{\text { ¢ }}$ |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Column parities |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

a. Design of row and column parities

## Figure Two-dimensional parity-check code


b. One error affects two parities

c. Two errors affect two parities

## Figure Two-dimensional parity-check code

| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
|  | $\leftarrow$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
|  | $\uparrow$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |

d. Three errors affect four parities

e. Four errors cannot be detected

Table Hamming code $C(7,4)-n=7, k=4$

| Datawords | Codewords | Datawords | Codewords |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0000 | 0000000 | 1000 | 1000110 |
| 0001 | 0001101 | 1001 | 1001011 |
| 0010 | 0010111 | 1010 | 1010001 |
| 0011 | 0011010 | 1011 | 1011100 |
| 0100 | 0100011 | 1100 | 1100101 |
| 0101 | 0101110 | 1101 | 1101000 |
| 0110 | 0110100 | 1110 | 1110010 |
| 0111 | 0111001 | 1111 | 1111111 |

Calculating the parity bits at the transmitter :

Modulo 2 arithmetic:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& r_{0}=a_{2}+a_{1}+a_{0} \\
& r_{1}=a_{3}+a_{2}+a_{1} \\
& r_{2}=a_{1}+a_{0}+a_{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

Calculating the syndrome at the receiver:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{s}_{0}=\mathrm{b}_{2}+\mathrm{b}_{1}+\mathrm{b}_{0} \\
& \mathrm{~s}_{1}=\mathrm{b}_{3}+\mathrm{b}_{2}+\mathrm{b}_{1} \\
& \mathrm{~s}_{2}=\mathrm{b}_{1}+\mathrm{b}_{0}+\mathrm{b}_{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Figure The structure of the encoder and decoder for a Hamming code


10.

## Burst Errors

- Burst errors are very common, in particular in wireless environments where a fade will affect a group of bits in transit. The length of the burst is dependent on the duration of the fade.
- One way to counter burst errors, is to break up a transmission into shorter words and create a block (one word per row), then have a parity check per word.
- The words are then sent column by column. When a burst error occurs, it will affect 1 bit in several words as the transmission is read back into the block format and each word is checked individually.


## CYCLIC CODES

Cyclic codes are special linear block codes with one extra property. In a cyclic code, if a codeword is cyclically shifted (rotated), the result is another codeword.

## Table A CRC code with C(7, 4)

| Dataword | Codeword | Dataword | Codeword |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0000 | 0000000 | 1000 | 1000101 |
| 0001 | 0001011 | 1001 | 1001110 |
| 0010 | 0010110 | 1010 | 1010011 |
| 0011 | 0011101 | 1011 | 1011000 |
| 0100 | 0100111 | 1100 | 1100010 |
| 0101 | 0101100 | 1101 | 1101001 |
| 0110 | 0110001 | 1110 | 1110100 |
| 0111 | 0111010 | 1111 | 1111111 |

10. 

## Figure CRC encoder and decoder

Sender


## Figure Division in CRC encoder


10.

## Figure Division in the CRC decoder for two cases


10.

## Figure Hardwired design of the divisor in CRC


10.

## Figure Simulation of division in CRC encoder


10.

## Figure The CRC encoder design using shift registers



## Figure General design of encoder and decoder of a CRC code

## Note:

The divisor line and XOR are missing if the corresponding bit in the divisor is 0 .

a. Encoder

b. Decoder

## Using Polynomials

- We can use a polynomial to represent a binary word.
- Each bit from right to left is mapped onto a power term.
- The rightmost bit represents the "0" power term. The bit next to it the " 1 " power term, etc.
- If the bit is of value zero, the power term is deleted from the expression.


## Figure A polynomial to represent a binary word


a. Binary pattern and polynomial

b. Short form

## Figure CRC division using polynomials



Note
The divisor in a cyclic code is normally called the generator polynomial or simply the generator.

## Note

## In a cyclic code,

 If $s(x) \neq 0$, one or more bits is corrupted. If $\boldsymbol{s}(\mathrm{x})=0$, eithera. No bit is corrupted. or
b. Some bits are corrupted, but the decoder failed to detect them.

## Table Standard polynomials

| Name | Polynomial | Application |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| CRC-8 | $x^{8}+x^{2}+x+1$ | ATM header |
| CRC-10 | $x^{10}+x^{9}+x^{5}+x^{4}+x^{2}+1$ | ATM AAL |
| CRC-16 | $x^{16}+x^{12}+x^{5}+1$ | HDLC |
| CRC-32 | $x^{32}+x^{26}+x^{23}+x^{22}+x^{16}+x^{12}+x^{11}+x^{10}+$ <br> $x^{8}+x^{7}+x^{5}+x^{4}+x^{2}+x+1$ | LANs |

## CHECKSUM

The last error detection method we discuss here is called the checksum. The checksum is used in the Internet by several protocols although not at the data link layer. However, we briefly discuss it here to complete our discussion on error checking

## Topics discussed in this section:

Idea
One's Complement
Internet Checksum
10.

## Figure Example



## Note

## Sender site:

1. The message is divided into 16 -bit words. 2. The value of the checksum word is set to 0 .
2. All words including the checksum are added using one's complement addition. 4. The sum is complemented and becomes the checksum.
3. The checksum is sent with the data.

## Receiver site:

1. The message (including checksum) is divided into 16-bit words.
2. All words are added using one's complement addition.
3. The sum is complemented and becomes the new checksum.
4. If the value of checksum is 0 , the message is accepted; otherwise, it is rejected.
