

18-345 – Fall 08

Lecture 6 Digital Transmission Fundamentals

Peter Steenkiste

reading: Chapter 3

Outline Physical Layer Lectures

- Digital representation of information
 - Digital representation of analog signals
- Analog versus digital transmission
- Basic properties of dig. transmission
- Fundamental limits of dig. transmission
- Line coding, modulation
 - Amplitude, frequency, and phase modulation
- Properties of transmission media
- Synchronization
- Error detection and error correction

Announcements

- Quiz today!
- Project 1 due on Thursday
- Powering optical amplifiers
 - Powering using DC from both ends – powered devices in series
 - Also diagnostic capabilities: monitoring, switching to spare fiber, etc.
 - Can look at equipment specs

Error Detection and Correction

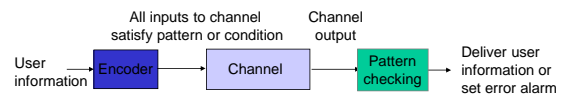
Reading: Section 3.9

Error Control

- Channels introduce errors in digital communications
- Applications require certain reliability level
 - Data applications require error-free transfer
 - Voice & video applications tolerate some errors
- Error control may be needed to meet application requirement
- Error control ensures a data stream is transmitted to a certain level of accuracy despite errors
- Two basic approaches:
 - Error **detection** & retransmission (ARQ)
 - Forward error **correction** (FEC)

Key Idea

- All transmitted data blocks (“codewords”) are chosen so that they satisfy a pattern
- If received block doesn’t satisfy pattern, it is in error
- Redundancy: Only a subset of all possible blocks can be valid codewords
- Undetectable Error: When channel transforms a codeword into another valid codeword



Single Parity Check

- Append a parity bit to k information bits

Info Bits: $b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots, b_k$

Check Bit: $b_{k+1} = b_1 + b_2 + b_3 + \dots + b_k \text{ modulo } 2$

Codeword: $(b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots, b_k, b_{k+1})$

- All codewords have even # of 1s
- Receiver checks to see if # of 1s is even
 - All error patterns that create an odd # of 1 bits are detectable
 - All even-numbered error patterns are undetectable
- ASCII code is precisely such as code (7+1 bits)

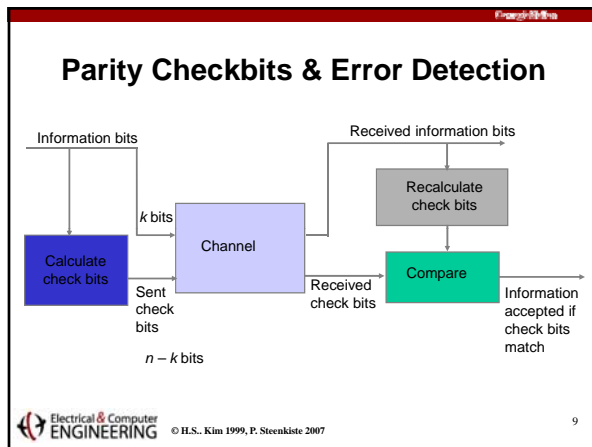
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Example of Single Parity Code

- Information (7 bits): (0, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0)
- Parity Bit: $b_8 = 0 + 1 + 0 + 1 + 1 + 0 + 0 = 1$
- Codeword (8 bits): (0, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1)

- If single error in bit 3 : (0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1)
 - # of 1's =5, odd
 - Error detected
- If errors in bits 3 and 5: (0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1)
 - # of 1's =4, even
 - Error not detected

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How good is the single parity check code?

- Redundancy:** Single parity check code adds 1 redundant bit per k information bits: $\text{overhead} = 1/(k+1)$
- Coverage:** all error patterns with odd # of errors can be detected
 - An error pattern is a binary $(k+1)$ -tuple with 1's where errors occur and 0's elsewhere
 - Of 2^{k+1} binary $(k+1)$ -tuples, $\frac{1}{2}$ are odd, so 50% of error patterns can be detected
- Is it possible to detect more errors if we add more check bits?
- Yes, with the right codes

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What if bit errors are random?

- Many transmission channels introduce bit errors at random, independently of each other, and with probability p
- Some error patterns are more probable than others:

$$P[10000000] = p(1-p)^7 = (1-p)^8 \left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right) \text{ and}$$

$$P[11000000] = p^2(1-p)^6 = (1-p)^8 \left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right)^2$$

- In any worthwhile channel $p < 0.5$, and so $(p/(1-p)) < 1$
- It follows that patterns with 1 error are more likely than patterns with 2 errors and so forth
- What is the probability that an undetectable error pattern occurs?

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Single parity check code with random bit errors

- Undetectable error pattern if even # of bit errors:

$$P[\text{error detection failure}] = P[\text{undetectable error pattern}] = P[\text{error patterns with even number of 1s}]$$

$$= \binom{n}{2} p^2 (1-p)^{n-2} + \binom{n}{4} p^4 (1-p)^{n-4} + \dots$$
- Example: Evaluate above for $n=32, p=10^{-3}$

$$P[\text{undetectable error}] = \binom{32}{2} (10^{-3})^2 (1-10^{-3})^{30} + \binom{32}{4} (10^{-3})^4 (1-10^{-3})^{28}$$

$$\approx 496 (10^{-6}) + 35960 (10^{-12}) \approx 4.96 (10^{-4})$$
- For this example, roughly 1 in 2000 transmissions will result in an undetectable error

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What is a good code?

- Most channels will have relatively few bit errors
- Erroneous codewords transmitted over those channels will map to nearby n-tuples
- If valid codewords are close to each other, then detection failures may occur
- Good codes should maximize separation between valid codewords

Poor distance properties

x = valid codewords
o = non-codewords

Good distance properties

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Two-Dimensional Parity Check

- More parity bits to improve coverage
- Arrange information as columns
- Add single parity bit to each column
- Add a final "parity" column
- Used in early error control systems

1	0	0	1	0		0
0	1	0	0	0		1
1	0	0	1	0		0
1	1	0	1	1		0
1	0	0	1	1		1
Bottom row consists of check bit for each column						

Last column consists of check bits for each row

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Error-detecting capability

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Arrows indicate failed check bits

1, 2, or 3 errors can always be detected; Not all patterns >4 errors can be detected

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Other Error Detection Codes

- Many applications require very low error rate
- Need codes that detect more number of errors
- Single parity check codes do not detect enough errors
- Two-dimensional codes require too many check bits
- The following error detecting codes are widely used in practice:
 - Internet Check Sums
 - CRC Polynomial Codes

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Internet Checksum

- Several Internet protocols (e.g. IP, TCP, UDP) use check bits to detect errors in the **header**
- A checksum is calculated for header contents and included in a special field.
- Checksum is potentially recalculated at every router, so algorithm selected for ease of implementation in software
- Let header consist of L, 16-bit words, $b_0, b_1, b_2, \dots, b_{L-1}$
- The algorithm appends a 16-bit checksum b_L

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Checksum Calculation

The checksum b_L is calculated as follows:

- Treating each 16-bit word as an integer, find $x = b_0 + b_1 + b_2 + \dots + b_{L-1}$ modulo $2^{16}-1$
- The checksum is then given by: $b_L = -x$ modulo $2^{16}-1$

Thus, the headers must satisfy the following **pattern** at the receiver:

$$0 = b_0 + b_1 + b_2 + \dots + b_{L-1} + b_L \text{ modulo } 2^{16}-1$$

- The checksum calculation is carried out in software using one's complement arithmetic

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Internet Checksum Example

Use Modulo Arithmetic

- Assume 4-bit words
- Use mod $2^4-1 (= 15)$ arithmetic
- $b_0=1100 = 12$
- $b_1=1010 = 10$
- $b_0+b_1=12+10=7 \pmod{15}$
- $b_2 = -7 = 8 \pmod{15}$
- Therefore
- $b_2=1000$

Use Binary Arithmetic

- Note $16 \equiv 1 \pmod{15}$
- So: $10000 = 0001 \pmod{15}$
- leading bit wraps around

$$\begin{aligned}
 b_0 + b_1 &= 1100+1010 \\
 &= 10110 \\
 &= 10000+0110 \\
 &= 0001+0110 \\
 &= 0111 \\
 &= 7 \\
 \text{Take 1's complement} \\
 b_2 &= -0111 = 1000
 \end{aligned}$$

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Polynomial Codes

- Polynomials instead of vectors for codewords
- Polynomial arithmetic instead of check sums
- Implemented using shift-register circuits
- Also called *cyclic redundancy check (CRC)*
- Most data communications standards use polynomial codes for error detection
 - Have very simple hardware implementations
- Polynomial codes also basis for powerful error-correction methods

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Binary Polynomial Arithmetic

- Binary vectors map to polynomials

$$(i_{k-1}, i_{k-2}, \dots, i_2, i_1, i_0) \rightarrow i_{k-1}x^{k-1} + i_{k-2}x^{k-2} + \dots + i_2x^2 + i_1x^1 + i_0$$

Addition:

$$(x^7 + x^6 + 1) + (x^6 + x^5) = x^7 + x^6 + x^6 + x^5 + 1 = x^7 + (1+1)x^6 + x^5 + 1 = x^7 + x^5 + 1 \text{ since } 1+1=0 \pmod{2}$$

Multiplication:

$$(x+1)(x^2+x+1) = x(x^2+x+1) + 1(x^2+x+1) = (x^3+x^2+x) + (x^2+x+1) = x^3 + 1$$

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Binary Polynomial Division

- Division with Decimal Numbers

$$\begin{array}{r}
 34 \leftarrow \text{quotient} \\
 35 \overline{) 1222} \\
 \underline{105} \quad \leftarrow \text{dividend} \\
 172 \\
 \underline{140} \\
 32 \leftarrow \text{remainder}
 \end{array}$$

dividend = quotient x divisor + remainder
 $1222 = 34 \times 35 + 32$

- Polynomial Division

$$\begin{array}{r}
 x^3 + x^2 + x \quad = q(x) \text{ quotient} \\
 x^3 + x + 1 \overline{) x^6 + x^6} \quad \leftarrow \text{dividend} \\
 \underline{x^6 + x^4 + x^3} \\
 x^2 + x^2 \\
 \underline{x^2 + x} \\
 x \quad = r(x) \text{ remainder}
 \end{array}$$

Note: Degree of $r(x)$ is less than degree of divisor

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Polynomial Coding

- k information bits define polynomial of degree k-1

$$i(x) = i_{k-1}x^{k-1} + i_{k-2}x^{k-2} + \dots + i_2x^2 + i_1x + i_0$$

- Code has binary *generating polynomial* of degree n-k

$$g(x) = x^{n-k} + g_{n-k-1}x^{n-k-1} + \dots + g_2x^2 + g_1x + 1$$

- Find *remainder polynomial* of at most degree n-k-1

$$g(x) \overline{) x^{n-k} i(x)} \quad x^{n-k}i(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x)$$

- Define the *codeword polynomial* of degree n-1

$$b(x) = \underbrace{x^{n-k}i(x)}_{\text{n bits}} + \underbrace{r(x)}_{\text{n-k bits}}$$

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Polynomial example: k=4, n-k=3

Generator polynomial: $g(x) = x^3 + x + 1$
 Information: $(1, 1, 0, 0)$ $i(x) = x^3 + x^2$
 Encoding: $x^3i(x) = x^6 + x^5$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 x^3 + x^2 + x \\
 x^3 + x + 1 \overline{) x^6 + x^5} \\
 \underline{x^6 + x^4 + x^3} \\
 x^2 + x^2 + x^2 \\
 \underline{x^2 + x} \\
 x
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 1110 \\
 1011 \overline{) 1100000} \\
 \underline{1011} \\
 1110 \\
 \underline{1011} \\
 1010 \\
 \underline{1011} \\
 010
 \end{array}$$

Transmitted codeword:
 $b(x) = x^6 + x^5 + x$
 $b = (1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0)$

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The Pattern in Polynomial Coding

- All codewords satisfy the following pattern:

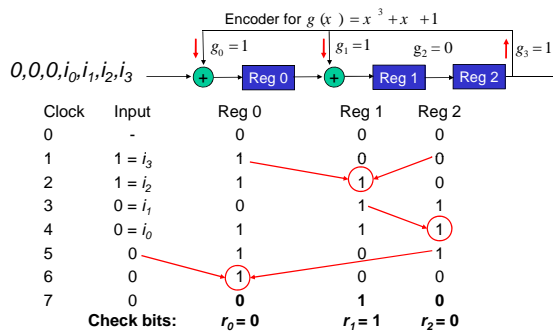
$$b(x) = x^{n-k}i(x) + r(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x) + r(x) = q(x)g(x)$$

- All codewords are a multiple of $g(x)$!
- Receiver should divide received n-tuple by $g(x)$ and check if remainder is zero
- If remainder is non-zero, then received n-tuple is not a codeword

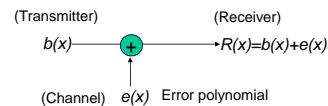
Shift-Register Implementation

- Accept information bits $i_{k-1}, i_{k-2}, \dots, i_2, i_1, i_0$
- Append n-k zeros to information bits
- Feed sequence to shift-register circuit that performs polynomial division
- After n shifts, the shift register contains the remainder

Feedback-Shift Register Circuit



Undetectable error patterns



- $e(x)$ has 1's in error locations & 0's elsewhere
- Receiver divides the received polynomial $R(x)$ by $g(x)$
- Undetectable error: If $e(x)$ is a multiple of $g(x)$, that is, $e(x)$ is a non-zero codeword, then

$$R(x) = b(x) + e(x) = q(x)g(x) + q'(x)g(x)$$
- The set of undetectable error polynomials is the set of nonzero code polynomials
- Choose the generator polynomial so that selected error patterns can be detected.

Designing good polynomial codes

- Select generator polynomial so that likely error patterns are not multiples of $g(x)$
- Detecting Single Errors
 - $e(x) = x^i$ for error in location $i+1$
 - If $g(x)$ has more than 1 term, it cannot divide x^i
- Detecting Double Errors
 - $e(x) = x^i + x^j = x^i(x^j+1)$ where $j > i$
 - If $g(x)$ has more than 1 term, it cannot divide x^i
 - If $g(x)$ is a primitive polynomial, it cannot divide x^m+1 for all $m < 2^{n-k} - 1$ (Need to keep codeword length less than $2^{n-k} - 1$)
 - Primitive polynomials can be found by consulting coding theory books

Standard Generator Polynomials

CRC = cyclic redundancy check

- CRC-8: $= x^8 + x^2 + x + 1$ ATM
- CRC-16: $= x^{16} + x^{15} + x^2 + 1$
 $= (x+1)(x^{15} + x + 1)$ Bisync
- CCITT-16: $= x^{16} + x^{12} + x^5 + 1$ HDLC, XMODEM, V.41
- CCITT-32: IEEE 802, DoD, V.42
 $= x^{32} + x^{26} + x^{23} + x^{22} + x^{16} + x^{12} + x^{11} + x^{10} + x^8 + x^7 + x^5 + x^4 + x^2 + x + 1$

Hamming Codes

- Class of *error-correcting* codes
- Capable of **correcting** all *single-error* patterns
- For each $m \geq 2$, there is a Hamming code of length $n=2^m-1$ with $n-k=m$ parity check bits

Redundancy

m	$n=2^m-1$	$k=n-m$	m/n
3	7	4	3/7
4	15	11	4/15
5	31	26	5/31
6	63	57	6/63

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m=3 Hamming Code

- Information bits are b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4
- Equations for parity checks b_5, b_6, b_7

$$b_5 = b_1 + b_3 + b_4$$

$$b_6 = b_1 + b_2 + b_4$$

$$b_7 = b_2 + b_3 + b_4$$

- There are $2^4=16$ codewords
- $(0,0,0,0,0,0,0)$ is a codeword

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Hamming (7,4) code

Information	Codeword	Weight
$b_1 \ b_2 \ b_3 \ b_4$	$b_1 \ b_2 \ b_3 \ b_4 \ b_5 \ b_6 \ b_7$	$w(b)$
0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0 0 0	0
0 0 0 1	0 0 0 1 1 1 1	4
0 0 1 0	0 0 1 0 1 0 1	3
0 0 1 1	0 0 1 1 0 1 0	3
0 1 0 0	0 1 0 0 0 1 1	3
0 1 0 1	0 1 0 1 1 0 0	3
0 1 1 0	0 1 1 0 1 1 0	4
0 1 1 1	0 1 1 1 0 0 1	4
1 0 0 0	1 0 0 0 1 1 0	3
1 0 0 1	1 0 0 1 0 0 1	3
1 0 1 0	1 0 1 0 0 1 1	4
1 0 1 1	1 0 1 1 1 0 0	4
1 1 0 0	1 1 0 0 1 0 1	4
1 1 0 1	1 1 0 1 0 1 0	4
1 1 1 0	1 1 1 0 0 0 0	3
1 1 1 1	1 1 1 1 1 1 1	7

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Minimum distance of any Hamming Code = 3

- Spheres of distance 1 around each codeword do not overlap
- If a single error occurs, the resulting n-tuple will be in a unique sphere around the original codeword
- Thus, receiver can correct erroneous reception back to original codeword

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Outline Physical Layer Lectures

- Digital representation of information
 - Digital representation of analog signals
- Analog versus digital transmission
- Basic properties of dig. transmission
- Fundamental limits of dig. transmission
- Line coding, modulation
 - Amplitude, frequency, and phase modulation
- Properties of transmission media
- Synchronization
- Error detection and error correction

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