

# **COMP 3721**

# **Introduction to Data Communications**

**07a - Week 7 - Part 1**

# Learning Outcomes

- By the end of this lecture, you will be able to
  - Explain what are the types of errors.
  - Distinguish between error detection and error correction.
  - Explain how block coding and hamming distance work.
  - Explain how cyclic codes work.
  - Explain how to calculate a checksum.
  - Explain FEC (Forwarding Error Correction) techniques.

# Introduction

- Networks must be able to transfer data from one device to another with **acceptable accuracy**.
  - The data received **must be identical** to the data transmitted.
- Data may become **corrupted** in passage (one or more bits may be modified).
- A small level of error may be tolerated by some applications.

# Introduction

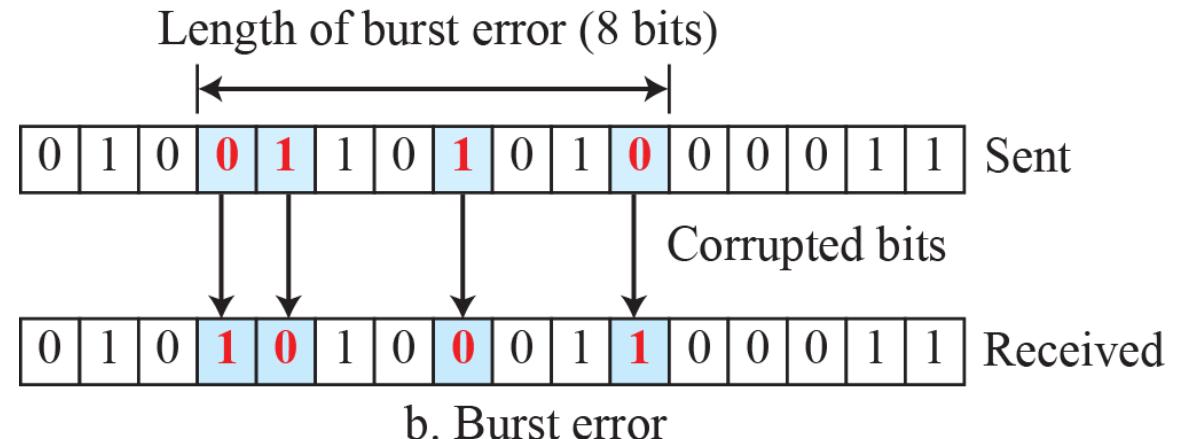
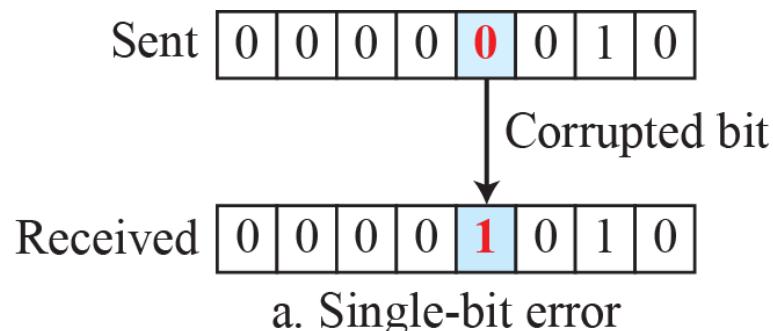
- Networks must be able to transfer data from one device to another with **acceptable accuracy**.
  - The data received **must be identical** to the data transmitted.
- Data may become **corrupted** in passage (one or more bits may be modified).
- A small level of error may be tolerated by some applications.
- The approach of most link-layer protocols for error control → simply **discard the frame** and let the **upper-layer protocols** handle the **retransmission** of the frame.

# Types of Errors

- **Interference** can change the shape of the signal.
  - Bits are subject to unpredictable changes.

# Types of Errors

- **Interference** can change the shape of the signal.
  - Bits are subject to unpredictable changes.
- **Single-bit error** and **Burst error**
  - Only 1 bit of a given data unit (such as a byte, character, or packet) is changed from 1 to 0 or from 0 to 1 → **single-bit error**
  - 2 or more bits in the data unit have changed from 1 to 0 or from 0 to 1 → **Burst Error**



**More likely to happen. Why?**

# Number of Bits affected by the Noise

Number of bits affected by the noise depends on  
the **data rate** and the **duration of noise**.

# Example

- Assume we are sending data and there is a noise of 0.001 second.
- How many bits are affected by this noise if
  - a) The data rate is 1 kbps.
  - b) The data rate is 1 Mbps.

# Example

- Assume we are sending data and there is a noise of 0.001 second.
- How many bits are affected by this noise if
  - a) The data rate is 1 kbps.
  - b) The data rate is 1 Mbps.
- **Answer:**
  - a)  $1000 \times 0.001 = 1 \text{ bit}$
  - b)  $1000000 \times 0.001 = 1000 \text{ bits}$

# Error Detection vs. Error Correction

- **Error detection**
  - Only looking to see if any error has occurred.
  - The number of corrupted bits (type of error) is not important.
- **Error correction**
  - The **exact number of corrupted bits** and **their location** in the message need to be identified.
  - The number of errors and the size of the message are important factors.
- The **correction** of errors is **more difficult** than the **detection**.

# Redundancy for Error Control

- Sending some **extra bits** with our data.
- These redundant bits are **added by the sender** and **removed by the receiver**.
- Redundant bits allow the **receiver** to **detect** or **correct** corrupted bits.
- Redundancy is achieved through **coding schemes**.
- The sender adds redundant bits which **have a relationship** with the actual data.

# Block Coding

- **Dataword**
  - The message is divided into blocks, each of  $k$  bits.

# Block Coding

- **Dataword**
  - The message is divided into blocks, each of  $k$  bits.
- **Codeword**
  - $r$  redundant bits are added to each block to make the length  $n = k + r$

# Block Coding

- **Dataword**
  - The message is divided into blocks, each of  $k$  bits.
- **Codeword**
  - $r$  redundant bits are added to each block to make the length  $n = k + r$
- $2^k$  datawords <  $2^n$  codewords

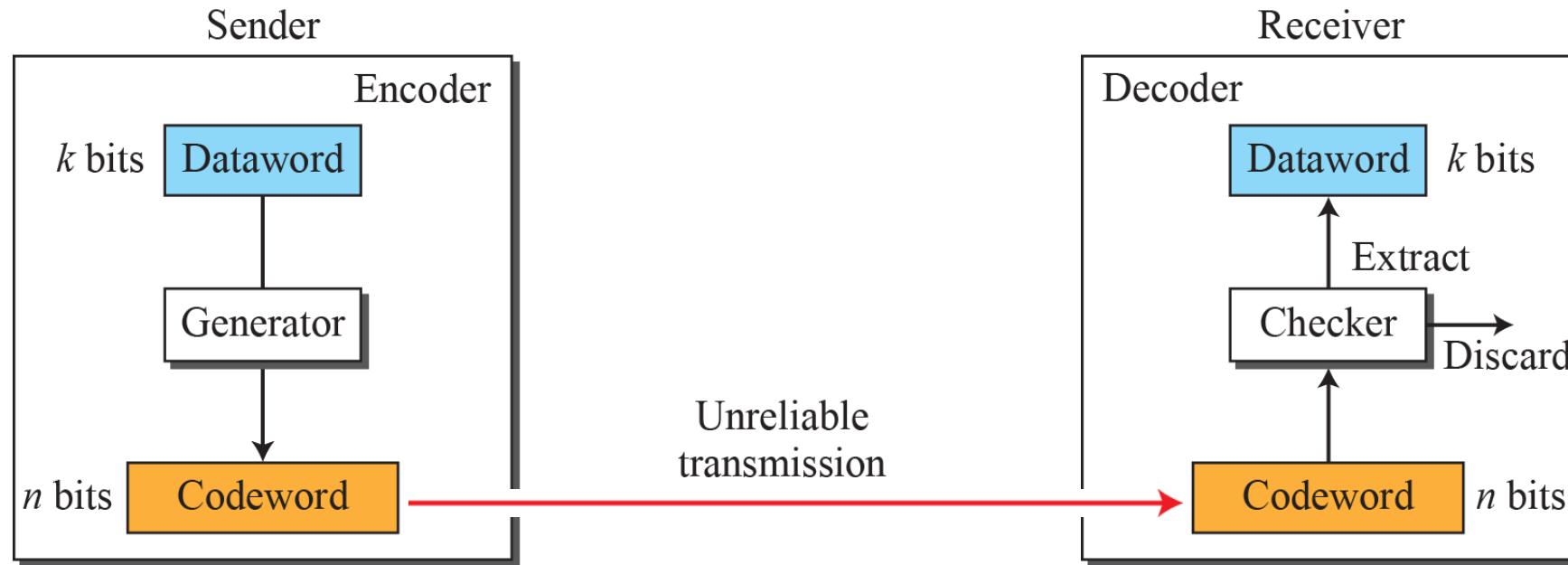
# Block Coding

- **Dataword**
  - The message is divided into blocks, each of  $k$  bits.
- **Codeword**
  - $r$  redundant bits are added to each block to make the length  $n = k + r$
- $2^k$  datawords <  $2^n$  codewords
- The **block coding** process is **one-to-one**.
  - The **same dataword** is always encoded as the **same codeword**.
  - $(2^n - 2^k)$  codewords are not used (invalid codes) → the **trick** in error detection

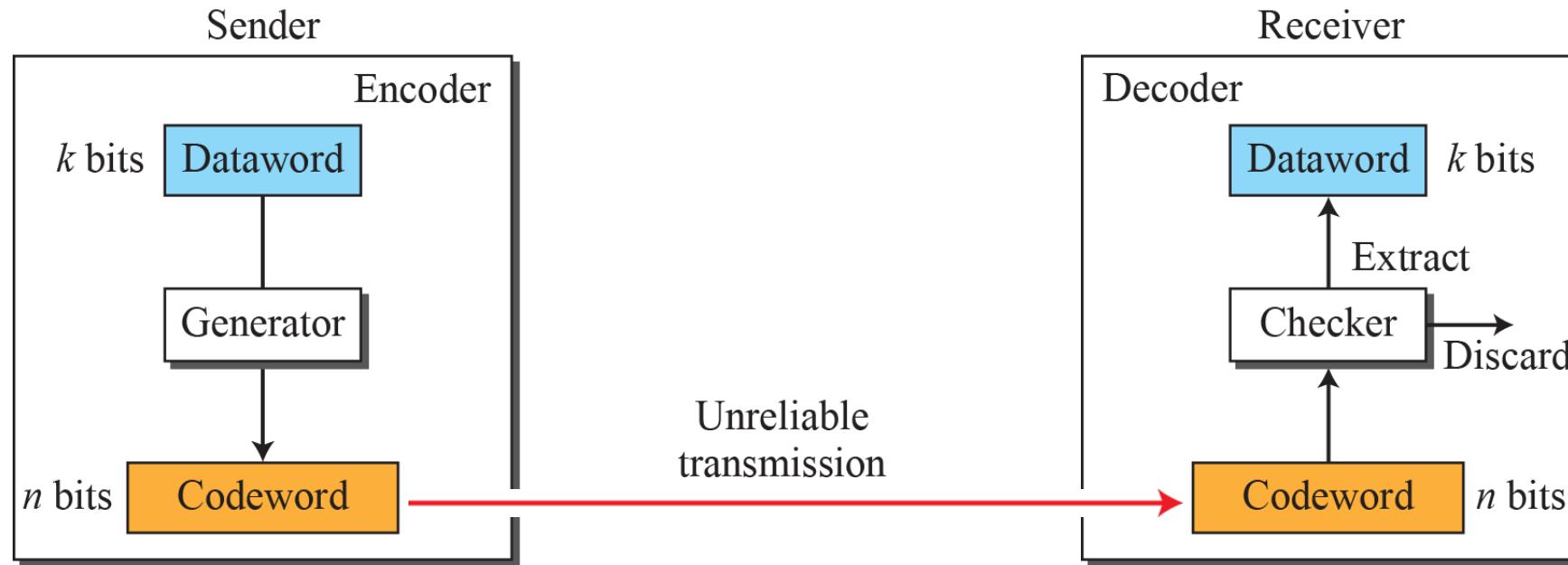
# Block Coding

- **Dataword**
  - The message is divided into blocks, each of  $k$  bits.
- **Codeword**
  - $r$  redundant bits are added to each block to make the length  $n = k + r$
- $2^k$  datawords <  $2^n$  codewords
- The **block coding** process is **one-to-one**.
  - The **same dataword** is always encoded as the **same codeword**.
  - $(2^n - 2^k)$  codewords are not used (invalid codes) → the **trick** in error detection
- **Error detection by receiver** (3 conditions)
  1. The receiver has (or can find) a list of valid codewords.
  2. The original codeword has changed to an invalid one and it'll be discarded.
  3. The original codeword changes to a valid one! → makes the error **undetectable**

# Error Detection in Block Coding



# Error Detection in Block Coding



If the codeword is corrupted during transmission but the received word still matches a valid codeword, the **error remains undetected**.

# Hamming Distance

- **Definition:** The **Hamming distance** between two words (of the same size) is the number of differences between corresponding bits.
  - $d(x, y)$ : Hamming distance between two words  $x$  and  $y$  as  $d(x, y)$ .
  - e.g., the Hamming distance between 011011 and 001111 is **two**.

# Hamming Distance

- **Definition:** The **Hamming distance** between two words (of the same size) is the number of differences between corresponding bits.
  - $d(x, y)$ : Hamming distance between two words  $x$  and  $y$  as  $d(x, y)$ .
  - e.g., the Hamming distance between 011011 and 001111 is **two**.
- How does the Hamming distance help in error detection?
  - The Hamming distance between the **received codeword** and the **sent codeword** is the **number of bits** that are **corrupted** during transmission.
  - $d(x, y) = 0 \rightarrow$  no error
  - $d(x, y) > 0 \rightarrow$  error

# Hamming Distance (Cont.)

- **Calculating Hamming distance**
  - XOR operation ( $\oplus$ ) on the two words and **count the number of 1s** in the result.
  - Example:  $d(10101, 11110) = 3 \leftarrow 10101 \oplus 11110 = 01011$

# Hamming Distance (Cont.)

To **guarantee** the **detection of up to  $s$  errors** in all cases in a block coding scheme, the **minimum Hamming distance** between all pairs of valid codewords must be  $d_{\min} = s + 1$ .

# Linear Block Codes

- Almost all block codes used today belong to a subset of block codes called **linear block codes**.
- The use of nonlinear block codes for error detection and correction is **not as widespread** because their structure makes theoretical analysis and implementation difficult.
- The formal definition of linear block codes requires the knowledge of **abstract algebra** (particularly **Galois fields**). → beyond our scope
- **Informal Definition for our purpose:** a **linear block code** is a code in which the **XOR** (addition modulo-2) of two valid codewords creates another valid codeword.

# Linear Block Codes – Parity-Check Code

- Parity-check code is a linear block code.
- A  $k$ -bit dataword is changed to an  $n$ -bit codeword where  $n = k + 1$ .
- Parity bit
  - The extra bit is selected such that the total number of 1s in the codeword becomes even (We only consider even parity here, while some implementations specify an odd number of 1s).

# Linear Block Codes – Parity-Check Code

- Parity-check code is a linear block code.
- A  $k$ -bit dataword is changed to an  $n$ -bit codeword where  $n = k + 1$ .
- Parity bit
  - The extra bit is selected such that the total number of 1s in the codeword becomes even (We only consider even parity here, while some implementations specify an odd number of 1s).
  - The minimum Hamming distance for this category is  $d_{\min} = 2$ , which means that the code is a single-bit error-detecting code.

# Linear Block Codes – Parity-Check Code

- The simple parity check, guaranteed to **detect one single error**, and can also **find any odd number of errors**.
  - E.g., the dataword is **10001** and the codeword **100010** is generated using **even parity bit** of **0** (added to the dataword as the rightmost bit). This codeword is transferred to another computer. In transit, the data is corrupted, and the computer receives the incorrect data **011010**. This codeword has **odd parity** (the number of 1s = 3), therefore, the codeword is **corrupted**.

# Simple Parity-Check Code – C(5, 4)

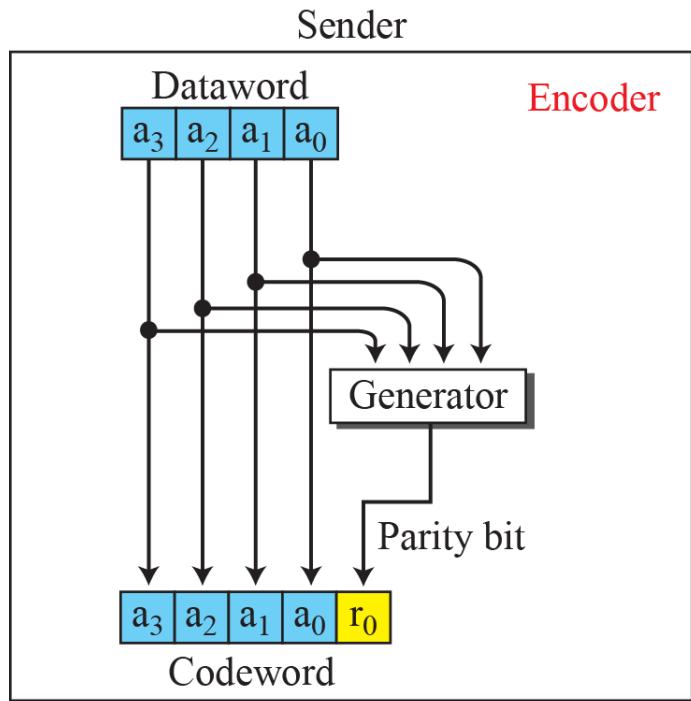
- $n=5$ ,  $k=4$  (even parity)

<i>Dataword</i>	<i>Codeword</i>	<i>Dataword</i>	<i>Codeword</i>
0000	<b>00000</b>	1000	<b>10001</b>
0001	<b>00011</b>	1001	<b>10010</b>
0010	<b>00101</b>	1010	<b>10100</b>
0011	<b>00110</b>	1011	<b>10111</b>
0100	<b>01001</b>	1100	<b>11000</b>
0101	<b>01010</b>	1101	<b>11011</b>
0110	<b>01100</b>	1110	<b>11101</b>
0111	<b>01111</b>	1111	<b>11110</b>

# Encoder and Decoder for Simple Parity-Check Code

- The calculation is done in **modular arithmetic**.

$$r_0 = a_3 + a_2 + a_1 + a_0 \text{ (modulo-2)}$$

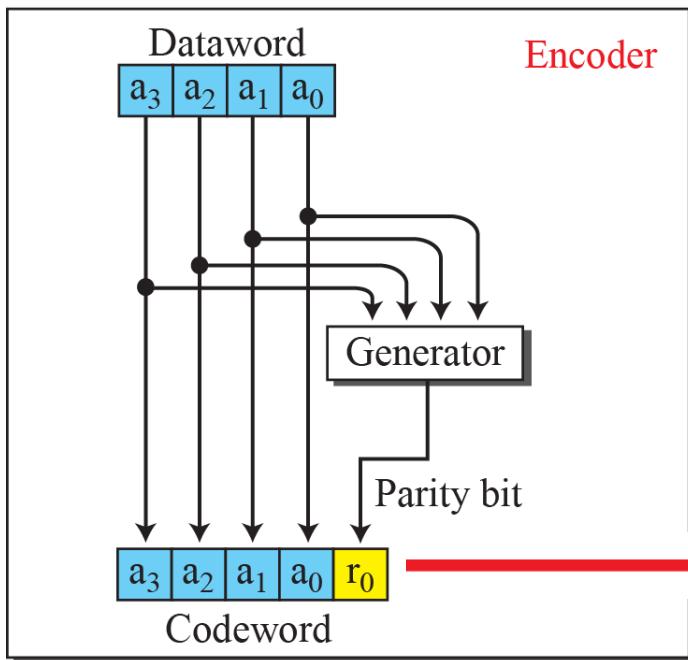


# Encoder and Decoder for Simple Parity-Check Code

- The calculation is done in **modular arithmetic**.

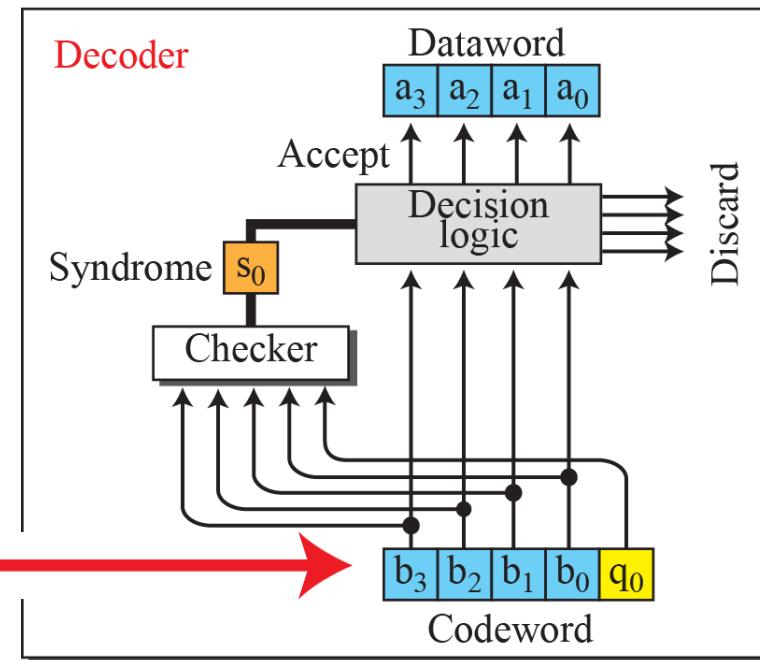
$$r_0 = a_3 + a_2 + a_1 + a_0 \text{ (modulo-2)}$$

Sender



$$s_0 = b_3 + b_2 + b_1 + b_0 + q_0 \text{ (modulo-2)}$$

Receiver

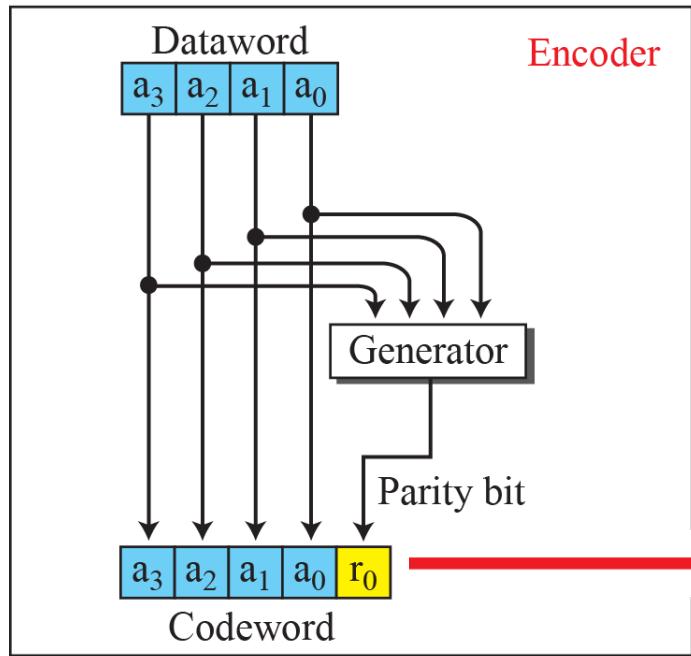


# Encoder and Decoder for Simple Parity-Check Code

- The calculation is done in **modular arithmetic**.

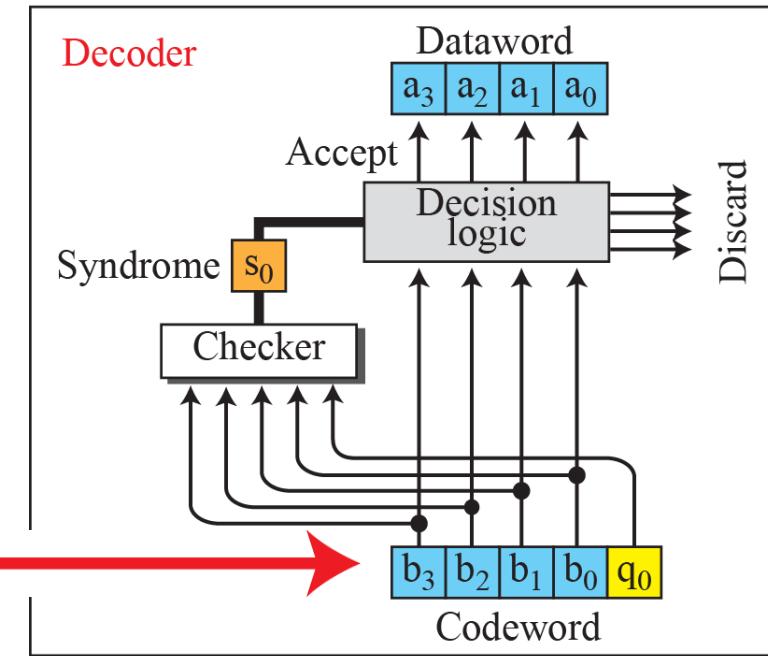
$$r_0 = a_3 + a_2 + a_1 + a_0 \text{ (modulo-2)}$$

Sender



$$s_0 = b_3 + b_2 + b_1 + b_0 + q_0 \text{ (modulo-2)}$$

Receiver



If the syndrome is 0, there is no detectable error in the received codeword.

# Linear Block Codes – Cyclic Codes

- **Cyclic codes**

- Special linear block codes with **one extra property**: if a codeword is cyclically shifted (**rotated**), the result is another codeword
- E.g., If **1011000** is a codeword → cyclic left-shift → **0110001** is also a codeword

# Linear Block Codes – Cyclic Codes

- **Cyclic codes**
  - Special linear block codes with **one extra property**: if a codeword is cyclically shifted (**rotated**), the result is another codeword
  - E.g., If **1011000** is a codeword → cyclic left-shift → **0110001** is also a codeword
- **Advantages** of cyclic codes
  - Very good performance in detecting single-bit errors, double errors, and burst errors.
  - Can easily be implemented in hardware and software.
  - Especially fast when implemented in hardware.

# Linear Block Codes – Cyclic Codes

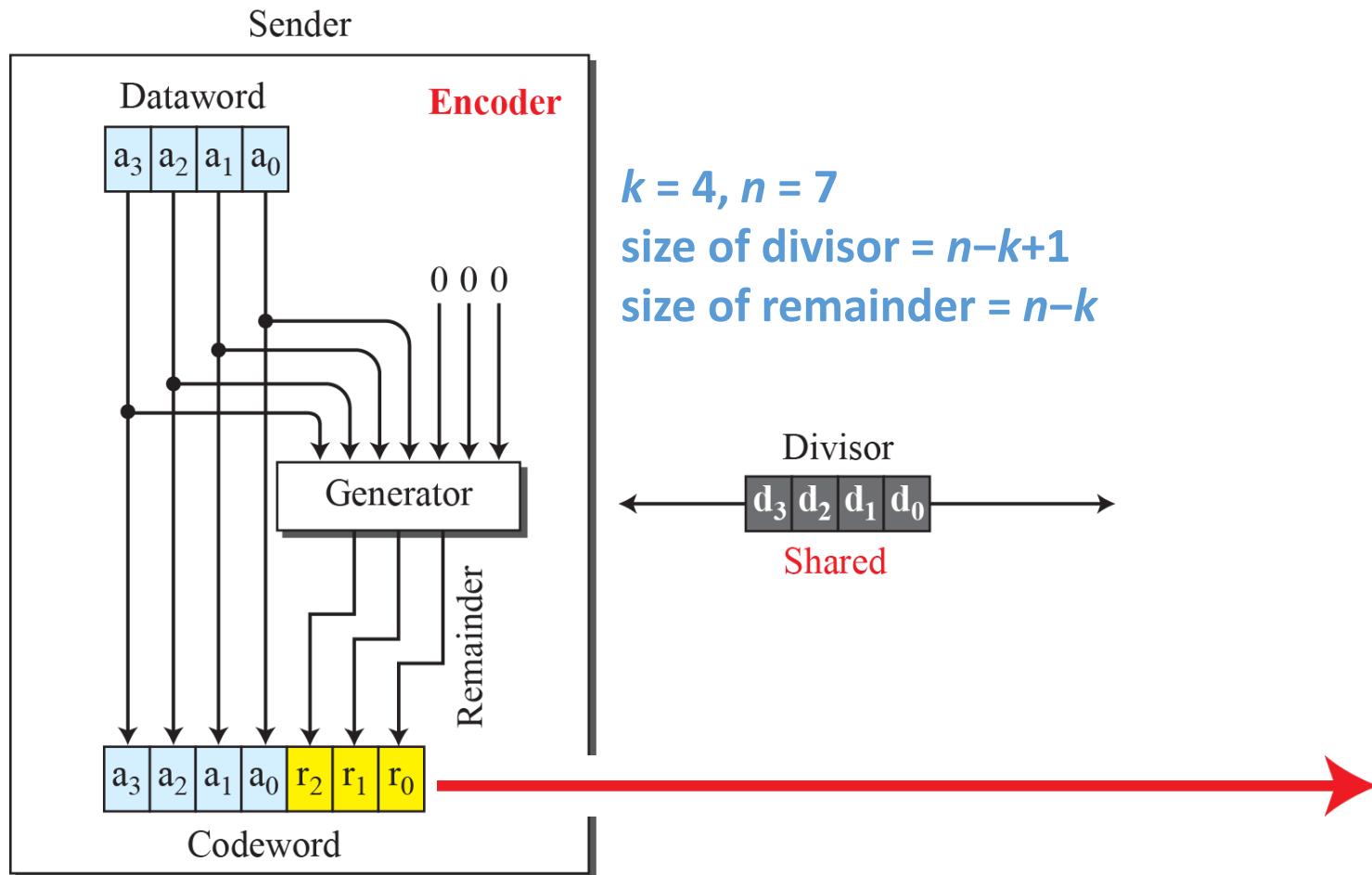
- **Cyclic codes**
  - Special linear block codes with **one extra property**: if a codeword is cyclically shifted (**rotated**), the result is another codeword
  - E.g., If **1011000** is a codeword → cyclic left-shift → **0110001** is also a codeword
- **Advantages** of cyclic codes
  - Very good performance in detecting single-bit errors, double errors, and burst errors.
  - Can easily be implemented in hardware and software.
  - Especially fast when implemented in hardware.
- **Our focus**
  - A subset of cyclic codes called **Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)**, which is used in LANs and WANs

# A CRC Code with C(7, 4)

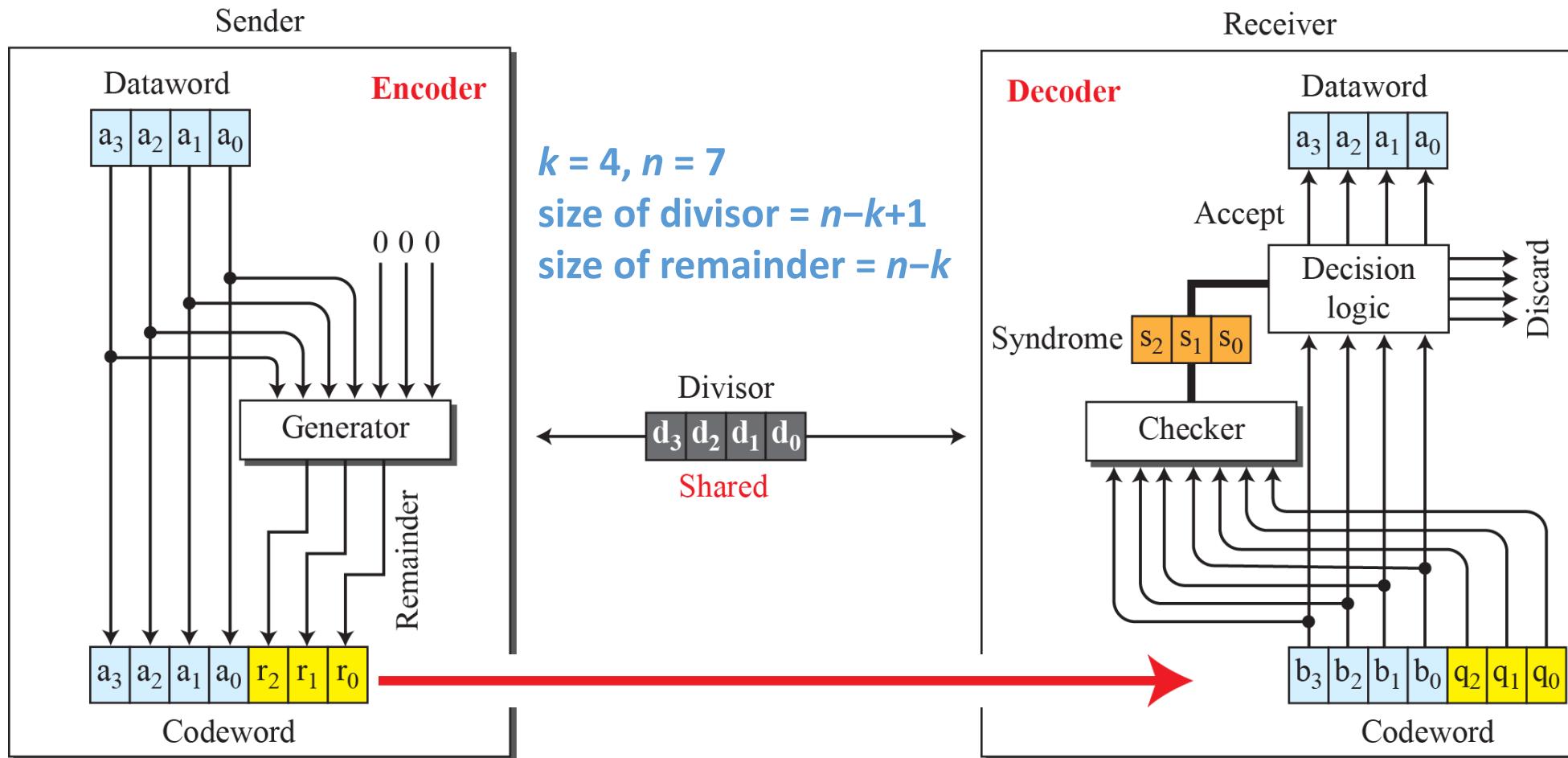
- $n=7, k=4$

<i>Dataword</i>	<i>Codeword</i>	<i>Dataword</i>	<i>Codeword</i>
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

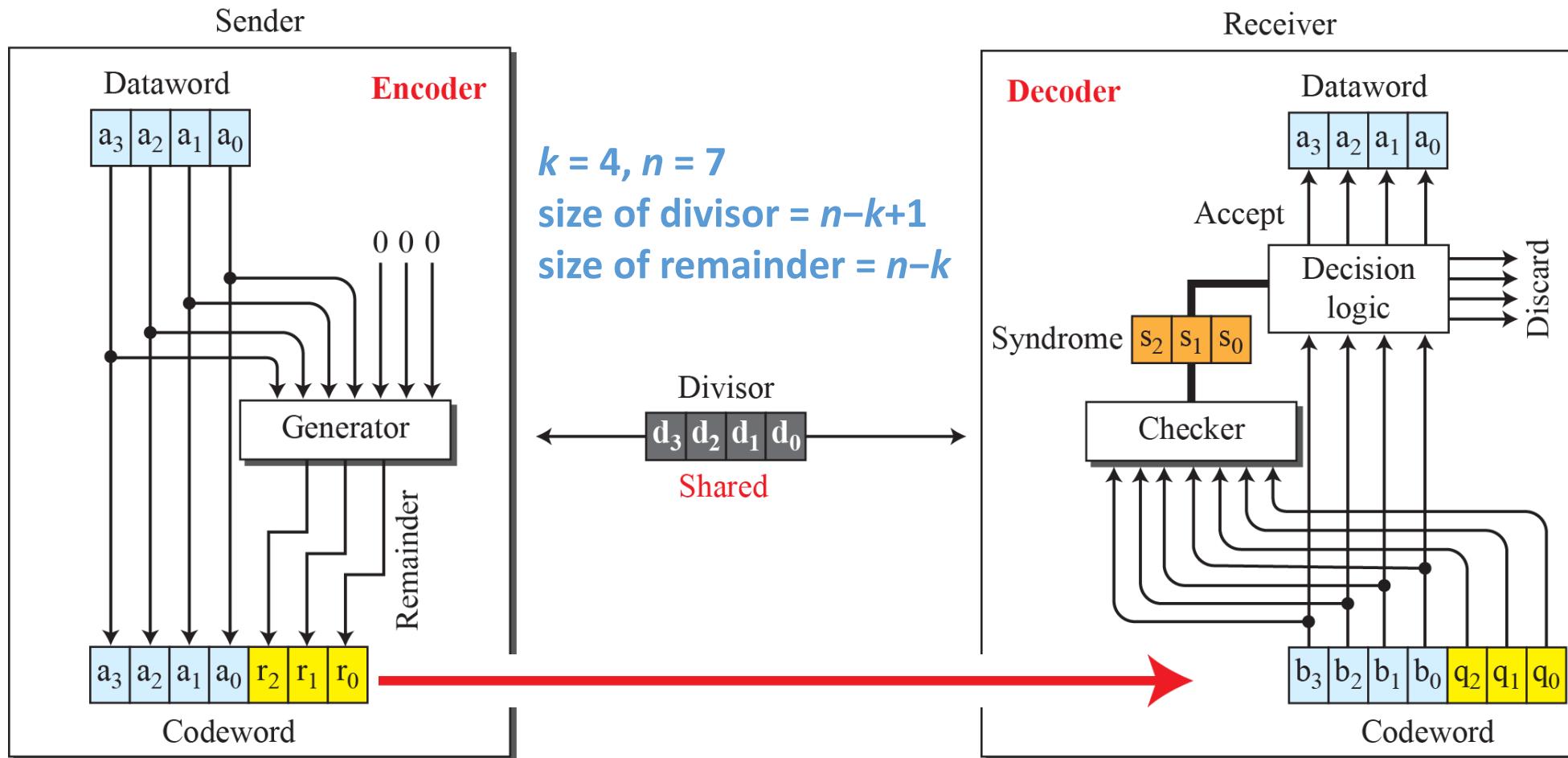
# CRC Encoder and Decoder



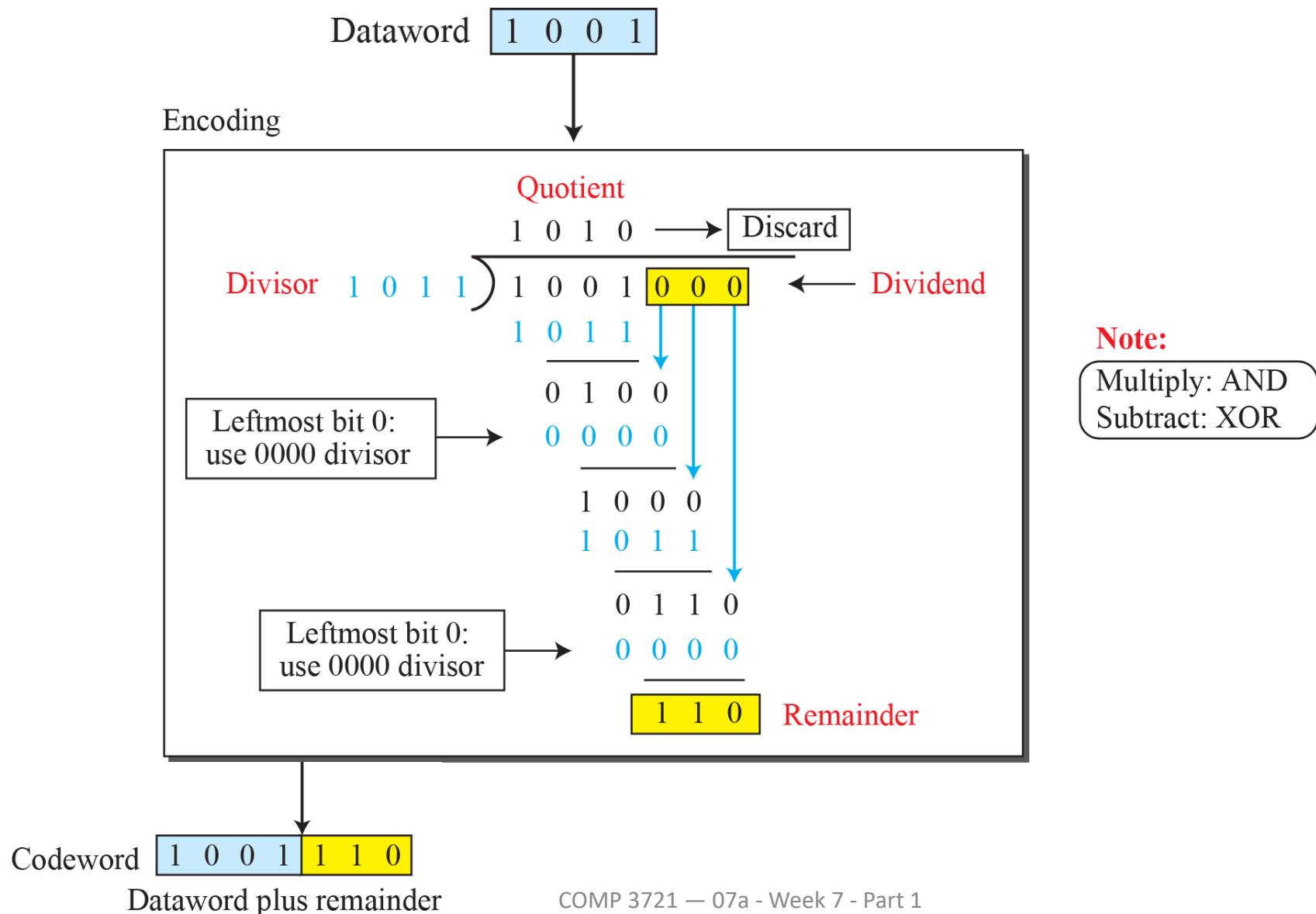
# CRC Encoder and Decoder



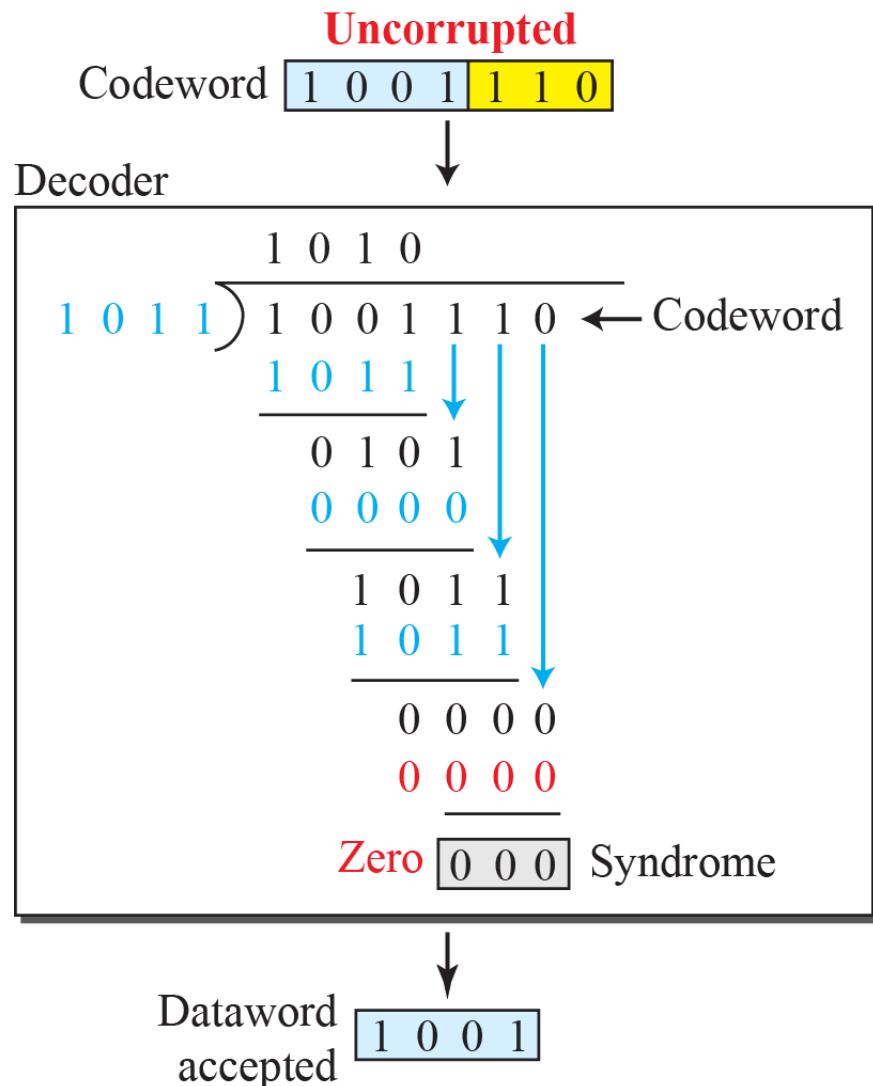
# CRC Encoder and Decoder



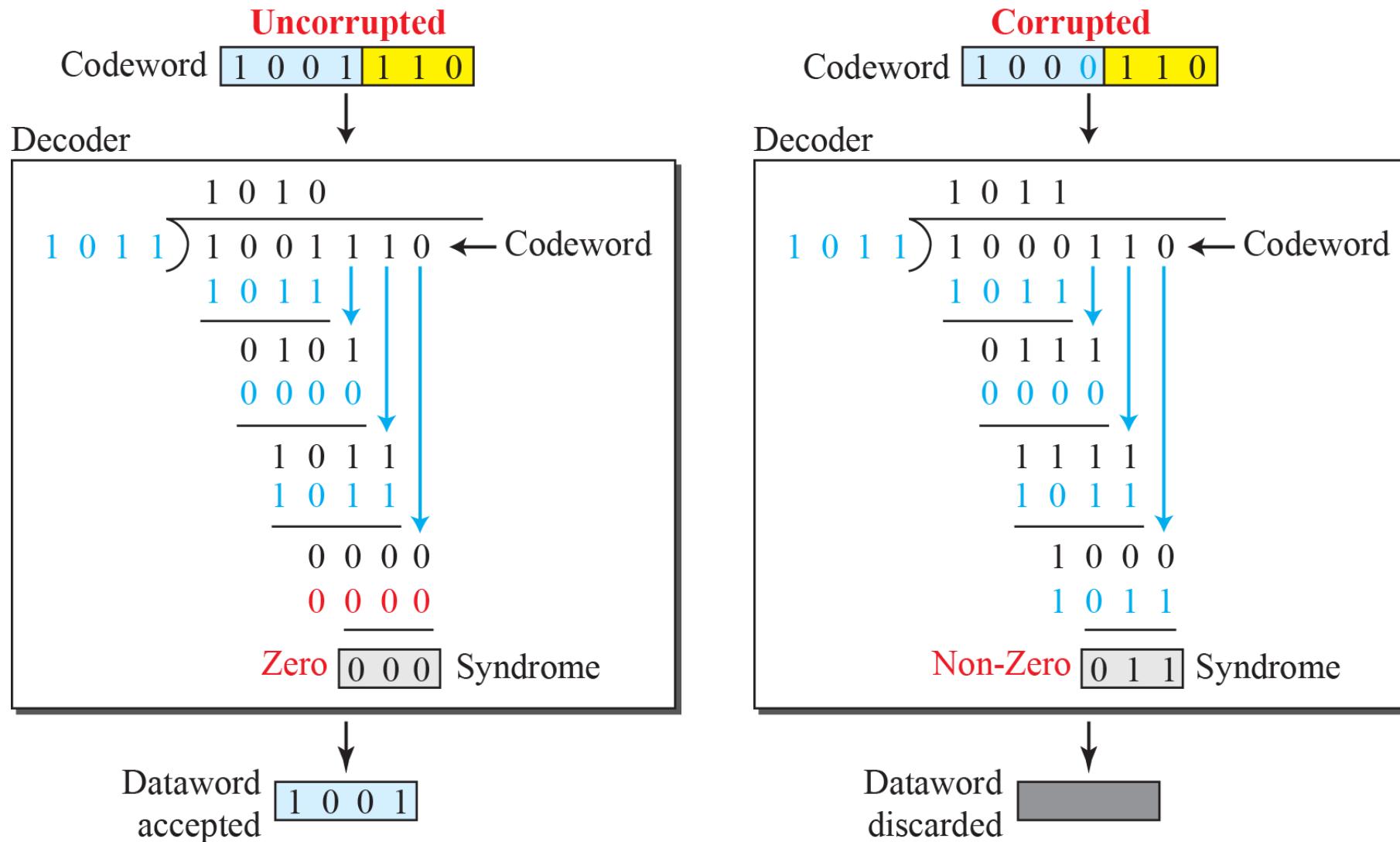
# Division in CRC Encoder



# Division in CRC Decoder for Two Cases



# Division in CRC Decoder for Two Cases

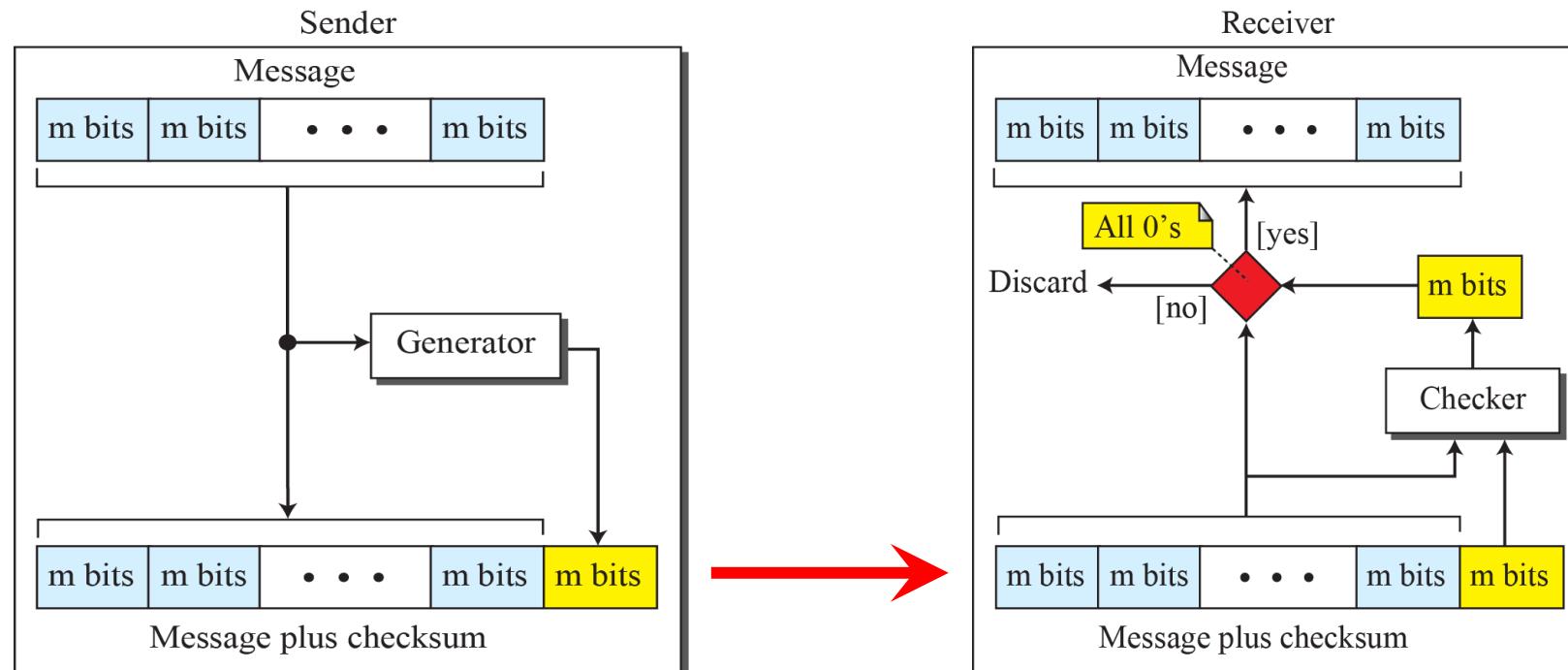


# Checksum

- An **error-detecting technique** that can be applied to a message of **any length**.
- Mostly used at the **network** and **transport layers** rather than the data-link layer.

# Checksum

- An **error-detecting technique** that can be applied to a message of **any length**.
- Mostly used at the **network** and **transport layers** rather than the data-link layer.



# Checksum – Example

- Suppose the message is a list of **five 4-bit numbers** that we want to send to a destination **(7, 11, 12, 0, 6)**:
  - In addition to sending these numbers, we send the **sum** of the numbers.
  - E.g., we send **(7, 11, 12, 0, 6, 36)**, where **36** is the sum of the original numbers.
  - The receiver adds the five numbers and compares the result with the sum.
  - If the two are the same, the receiver assumes no error, accepts the five numbers, and discards the sum.
  - Otherwise, there is an error somewhere and the message is not accepted.

# Checksum – Example

- The previous example has one issue:
  - Each number can be written as a 4-bit word (each is less than 15) **except for the sum.**
- **Solution:** Use **one's complement** arithmetic.

# Checksum – One's Complement Arithmetic

- Unsigned numbers between 0 and  $2^m - 1$  are represented using only  $m$  bits.

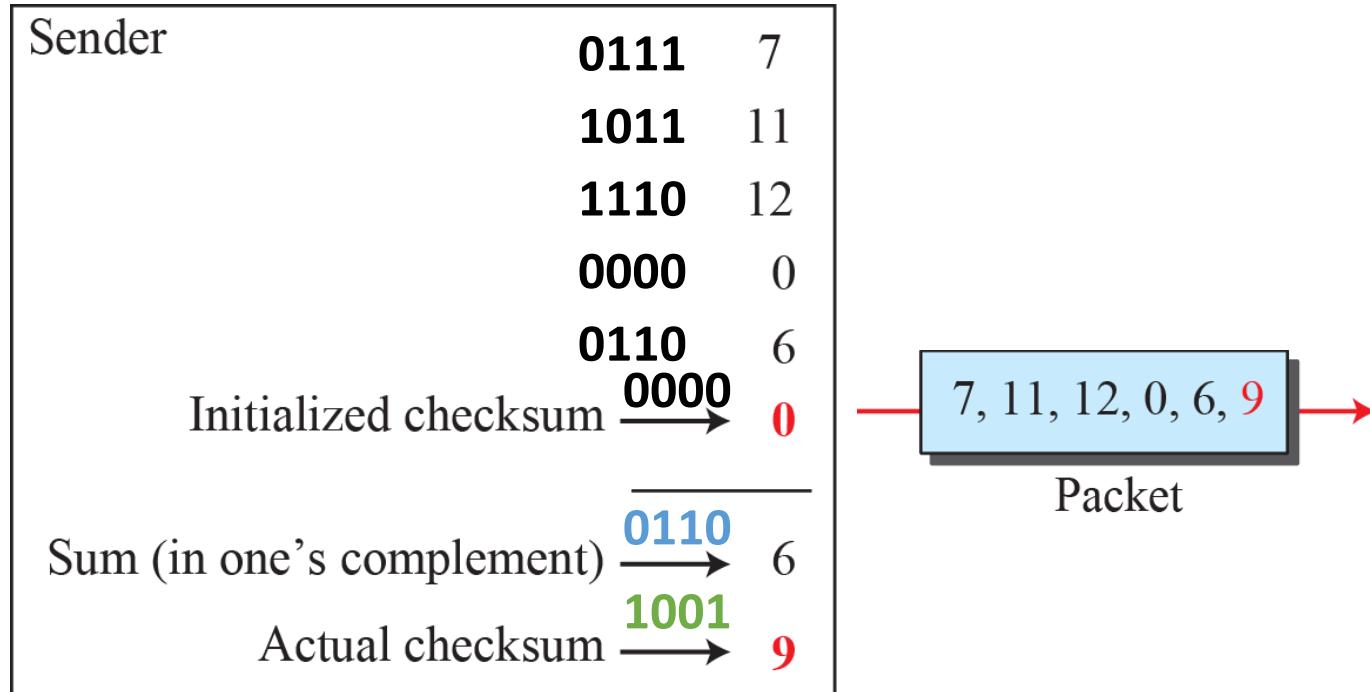
# Checksum – One's Complement Arithmetic

- Unsigned numbers between 0 and  $2^m - 1$  are represented using only  $m$  bits.
- If the number has more than  $m$  bits, the **extra leftmost bits** need to be added to the  **$m$  rightmost bits (wrapping)**.
  - E.g., decimal number 36 in binary  $\rightarrow 100100$ , to change it to a 4-bit number:  
 $(10)_2 + (0100)_2 = (0110)_2 \rightarrow (6)_{10}$

# Checksum – One's Complement Arithmetic

- Unsigned numbers between 0 and  $2^m - 1$  are represented using only  $m$  bits.
- If the number has more than  $m$  bits, the **extra leftmost bits** need to be added to the  **$m$  rightmost bits (wrapping)**.
  - E.g., decimal number 36 in binary → **100100**, to change it to a 4-bit number:  
 $(10)_2 + (0100)_2 = (0110)_2 \rightarrow (6)_{10}$
- The **complement** of a number is found by changing all 1s to 0s and all 0s to 1s.
  - The same as subtracting the number from  $2^m - 1$ .
- In one's complement arithmetic, we have **two 0s**: one positive and one negative, which are complements of each other.
- The positive zero has all  $m$  bits set to 0 (**0000**); the negative zero has all bits set to 1 (it is  $2^m - 1$ ) (**1111**).

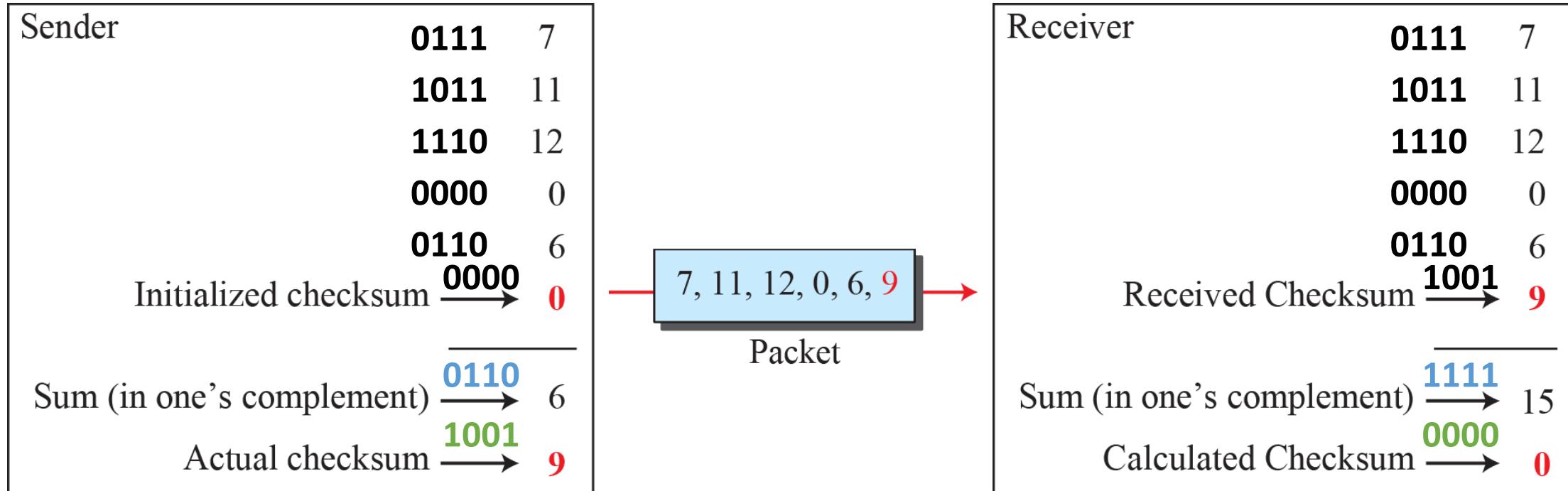
# Checksum – Example (4-bit binary numbers)



$$\begin{aligned} 36 &= (100100)_2 = (10)_2 + (0100)_2 \\ &= (0110)_2 = 6 \end{aligned}$$

One's Complement of 6 is 9 = (1001)<sub>2</sub>

# Checksum – Example (4-bit binary numbers)



$$\begin{aligned} 36 &= (100100)_2 = (10)_2 + (0100)_2 \\ &= (\textcolor{blue}{0110})_2 = \textcolor{blue}{6} \end{aligned}$$

One's Complement of 6 is 9 = **(1001)<sub>2</sub>**

$$\begin{aligned} 36 + 9 &= 45 = (\textcolor{blue}{101101})_2 = (\textcolor{blue}{10})_2 + (\textcolor{blue}{1101})_2 \\ &= (\textcolor{blue}{1111})_2 = \textcolor{blue}{15} \end{aligned}$$

One's Complement of 15 is 0 = **(0000)<sub>2</sub>**

# Procedure to Calculate the Traditional Checksum

- Traditionally, the Internet has used a 16-bit checksum.

<i>Sender</i>	<i>Receiver</i>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. The message is divided into 16-bit words.</li><li>2. The value of the checksum word is initially set to zero.</li><li>3. All words including the checksum are added using one's complement addition.</li><li>4. The sum is complemented and becomes the checksum.</li><li>5. The checksum is sent with the data.</li></ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. The message and the checksum is received.</li><li>2. The message is divided into 16-bit words.</li><li>3. All words are added using one's complement addition.</li><li>4. The sum is complemented and becomes the new checksum.</li><li>5. If the value of the checksum is 0, the message is accepted; otherwise, it is rejected.</li></ol>

# Forward Error Correction (FEC)

- Retransmission of corrupted and lost packets is not useful for real-time **multimedia transmission**.
  - Due to **unacceptable delay** in reproducing.
- In such applications, we need to correct the error or reproduce the packet immediately.

# FEC Techniques

- Hamming distance
- Using XOR
- Chunk interleaving
- ...

# FEC Techniques – Hamming Distance

- To **detect  $s$  errors**,  $d_{\min} = s + 1$ . For error correction, we need more distance.
- To **correct  $t$  errors**, we need to have  $d_{\min} = 2t + 1$ .
  - E.g., if we want to correct 10 bits in a packet, we need to make the minimum hamming distance 21 bits → lot of redundant bits need to be sent with the data

# FEC Techniques – Using XOR

- Using the property of XOR operation:

$$\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{P}_1 \oplus \mathbf{P}_2 \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbf{P}_i \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbf{P}_N$$

- This means:

$$\mathbf{P}_i = \mathbf{P}_1 \oplus \mathbf{P}_2 \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbf{R} \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbf{P}_N$$

# FEC Techniques – Using XOR

- Using the property of XOR operation:

$$\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{P}_1 \oplus \mathbf{P}_2 \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbf{P}_i \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbf{P}_N$$

- This means:

$$\mathbf{P}_i = \mathbf{P}_1 \oplus \mathbf{P}_2 \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbf{R} \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbf{P}_N$$

- We can divide a packet into  $N$  chunks, create the XOR of all the chunks and send  $N+1$  Chunks. If any chunk is lost or corrupted, it can be created at the receiver site.
- (If  $N = 4$ , it means that we need to send 25 percent extra data and be able to correct the data if only one out of four chunks is lost.)

# FEC Techniques – Chunk Interleaving

- Allowing some small chunks to be missing at the receiver.
  - Not all the chunks belonging to the same packet can be missing.
  - We can afford to let one chunk be missing in each packet.

# Chunk Interleaving – Example

Packet 1	05	04	03	02	01
Packet 2	10	09	08	07	06
Packet 3	15	14	13	12	11
Packet 4	20	19	18	17	16
Packet 5	25	24	23	22	21

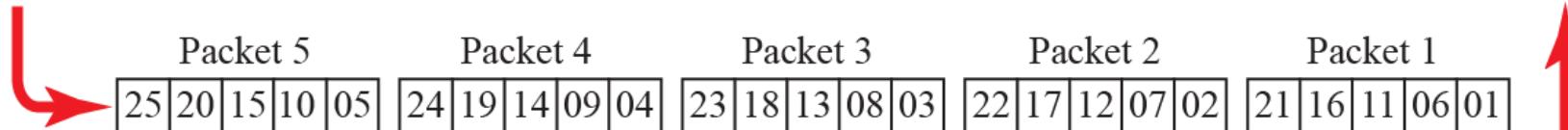
a. Packet creation at sender

Sending column by column

Packet 1	05	04	02	01
Packet 2	10	09	07	06
Packet 3	15	14	12	11
Packet 4	20	19	17	16
Packet 5	25	24	22	21

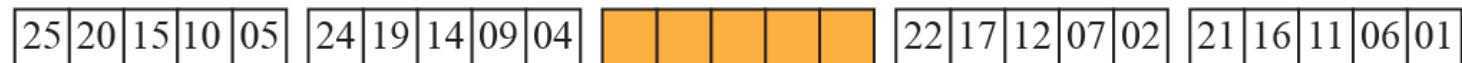
d. Packet recreation at receiver

Receiving column by column



b. Packets sent

**Lost**



Packet 5

Packet 4

Packet 3

Packet 2

Packet 1

c. Packets received

# Summary

- Possibility of data corruption during transmission
- Sending redundant bits with data for error detection/correction
- Block coding
- Hamming distance
- Cyclic codes as special linear block codes
- Internet checksum to detect errors in messages of any size

# References

- [1] Behrouz A. Forouzan, Data Communications & Networking with TCP/IP Protocol Suite, 6th Ed, 2022, McGraw-Hill companies.

# Reading

- Chapter 3 of the textbook, section 3.2.2.
- Chapter 3 of the textbook, section 3.6 (Practice Test)