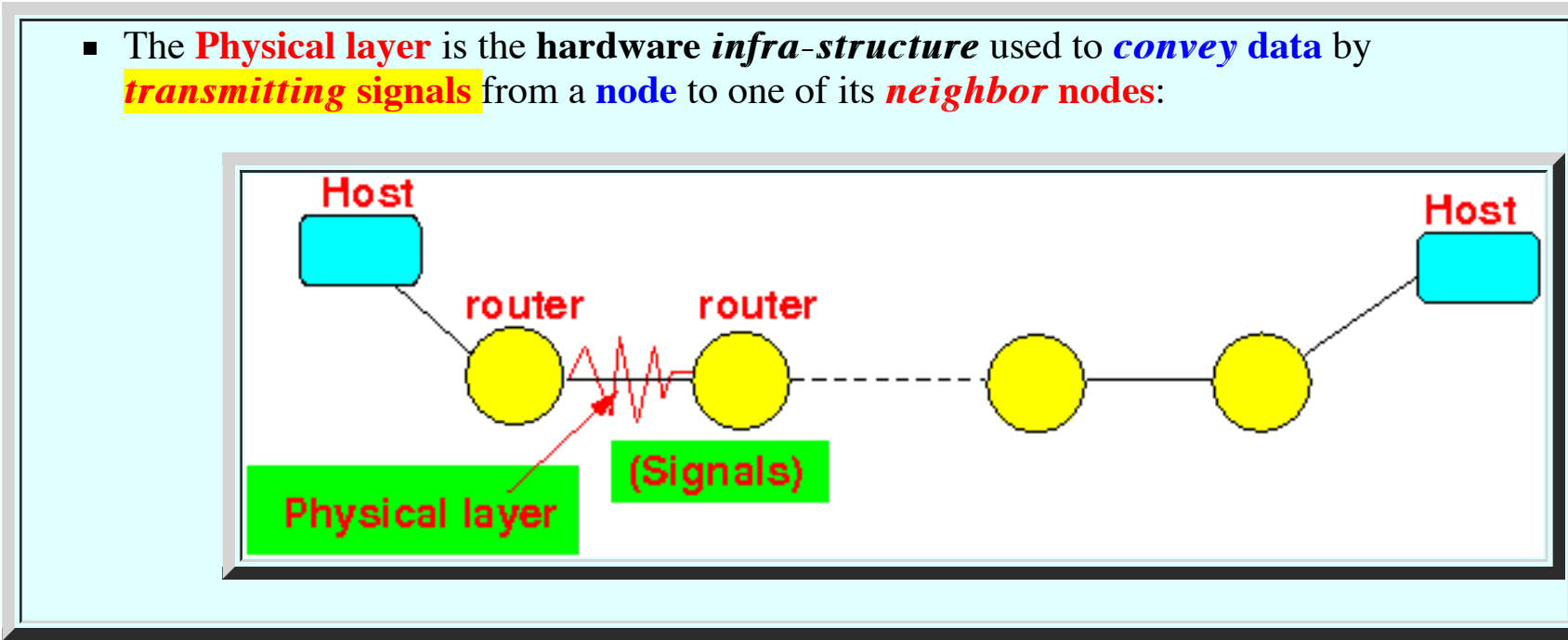


Physical Layer

- The Physical Layer
 - Purpose of the Physical layer:



- Important note:

■ The **physical layer** deals *only* with *nodes* that can be reached *directly*

Information, data and signals

- **Information and data**

- **Data:**

- **Data** = A set of *qualitative* or *quantitative* values

- E.g.: **Dentist, Feb 2, 10:00 AM**

- **Information:**

- **Information** = the *meaning* that **humans** impart on **data**

- E.g.: I have a *dentist appointment* on **Feb 2, at 10 AM.**

- **Data communication**

- **Fact:**

- We can *only* transmit *data*....

- We *do not* transmit *information*

- **Data and signals**

- **Data transmission:**

- In computer communication, *data* is transmitted using *(electrical) signals*

- **Note:**

- I *sometimes* use

- **Data**
- **Signal**

interchangeably, because:

- **Data** can be **stored** in the transmission **signals** !!!

- **Types of data**

- There are **2 types** of **data**:

- **Analog data:**

- **Analog data** varies over a **continous range** of values

Examples:

- **Temperature** over a **period** of time
- **Voice** (waves are varying continuously)

- **Digital data:**

- **Discrete data** takes on a **finite set** of values

Examples:

- **Current temperature (rounded to 1 decimal)** (ranged from -40.0 .. 140.0)
- **Marital status** (single, married, divorced, widowed)
- **Character** (must be a **value** from an **alphabet**)
- **Social Security Number** (between **000-00-0000** and **999-99-9999**)

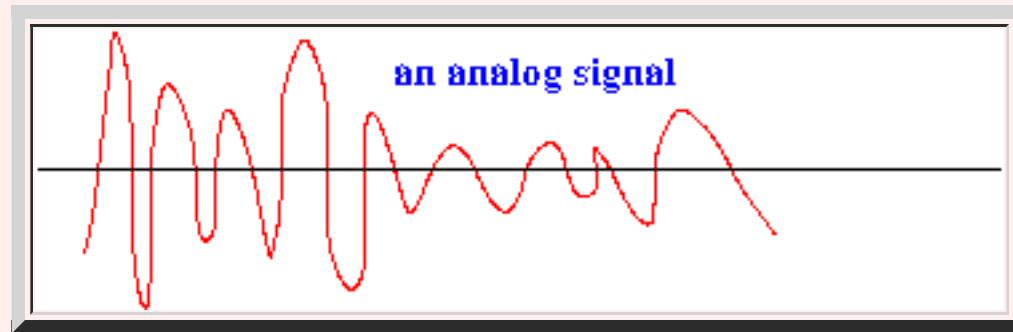
- **Types of signaling methods (signals to send data)**

- Data communication can use **2 different signaling methods**:

- **Analog signaling**

- the **signals** in the **transmissions** can take on **any value** in some **(continuous) range** of value.

Example:

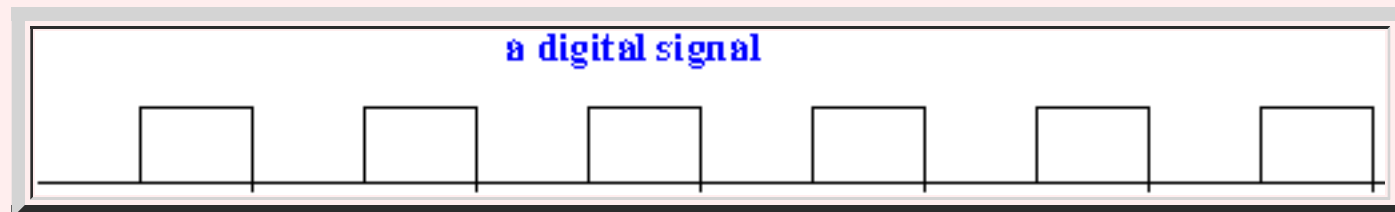


▪ Digital signaling

- The **signals** in the **transmissions** can **only** take on a **finite number** of values

- Commonly used: 2 levels (**binary signal**)

Example: a **binary signal** (can **only** take on **2 different values**)



• Transmitting **analog/digital data** using **analog/digital signals**

◦ You can:

- Transmit **analog information (data)** using **analog signals**
- Transmit **analog information (data)** using **digital signals**
- Transmit **digital information (data)** using **analog signals**
- Transmit **digital information (data)** using **digital signals**

Transmitting *analog* data using *analog* signals

- Analog data transmitted with *analog* signals
 - 2 ways to transmit *analog* data using *analog* signals:

▪ If the transmission medium is **suitable** (i.e., it can *carry the transmitted signals*), then:

▪ transmit the signal...

▪ If the transmission medium is **not suitable** (i.e., it does *not carry the transmitted signals*), then:

▪ *Modulate* (super-impose) the **signal** on a *carrier signal*

▪ Transmit the *modulated signal*

- Example a *naive* transmission
 - "Talking":

▪ The **atmosphere** is **suitable** to carry **audio waves**....

▪ **Sound waves** can be transmitted *naively*:



- **Intro to Modulation**

- **Problem:**

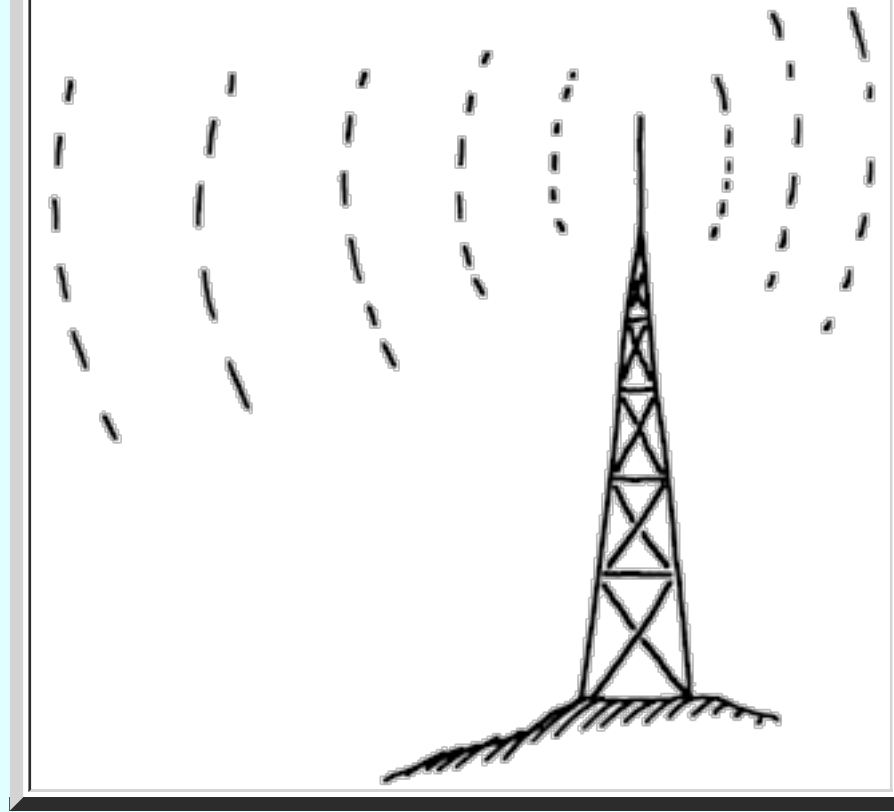
- **How** can **astronauts** talk on the **moon** ???

- The **moon** does **not** have an **atmosphere**

- **Sound wave** is **not** suitable

- **Solution:**

- **Radio waves** can **propagate** through vacuum:



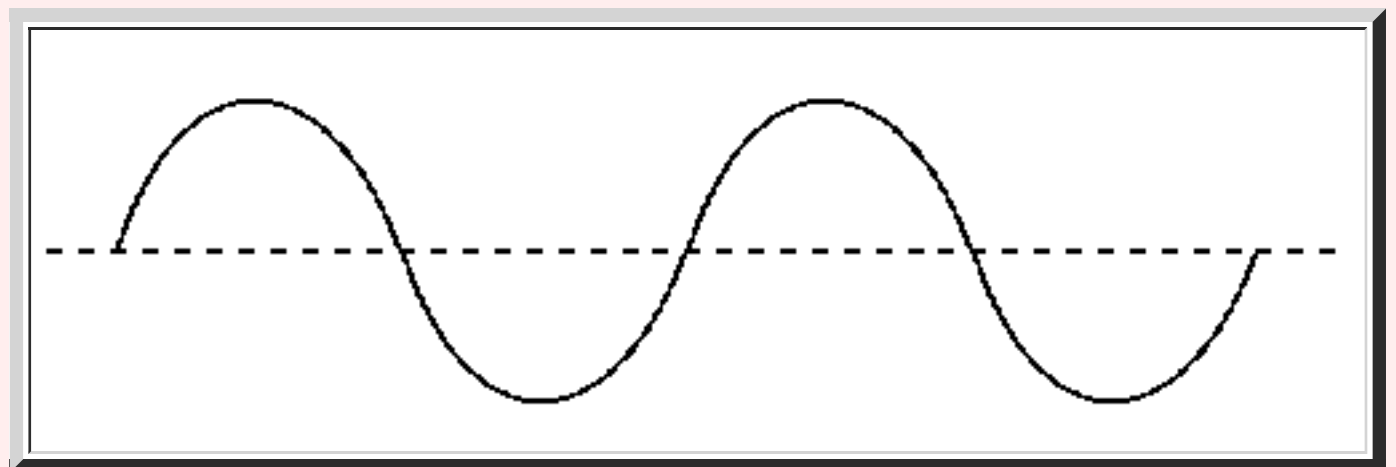
- We **modulate** the **radio wave** using a **sound wave**
- Then **transmit** the **modulated radio wave** (through vacuum)....

- **What is "Modulation"**

- **Carrier wave:**

- **Carrier wave** = a **sine wave** of a specific **frequency** and **amplitude** that **propagates easily** through the **transmission medium**

Example: carrier wave



- **Modulation:**

- **Modulation** = **change** a **carrier wave** using some **(input) signal**

- **What** can you **change** in the **carrier wave**:

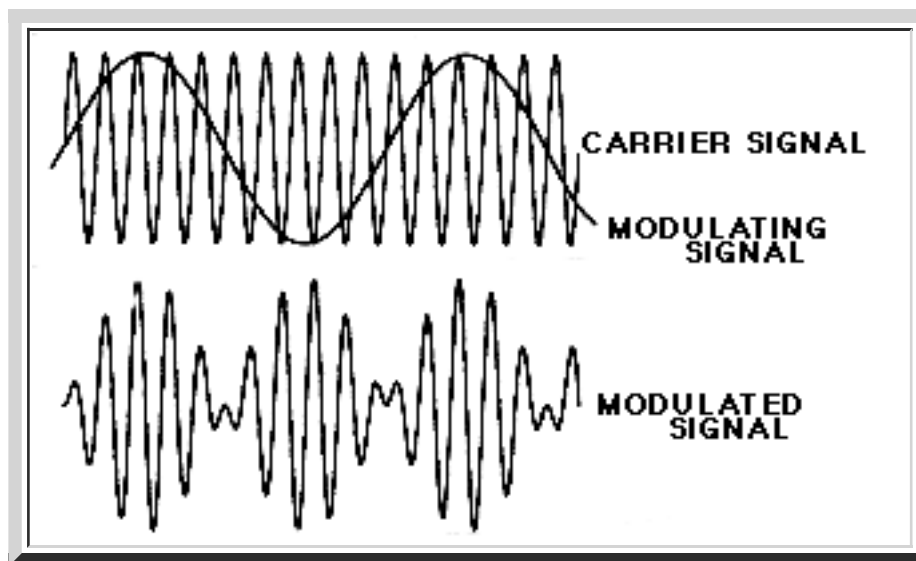
- The **amplitude** of the **carrier wave** (= **Amplitude Modulation (AM)**)
- The **frequency** of the **carrier wave** (= **Frequency Modulation (FM)**)
- The **phase** of the **carrier wave** (= **Phase Modulation (PM)**)

- **Amplitude Modulation**

- **Amplitude modulation (AM)**:

- the **amplitude** of the **carrier wave** is **changed** according to the **input signal**

Example:



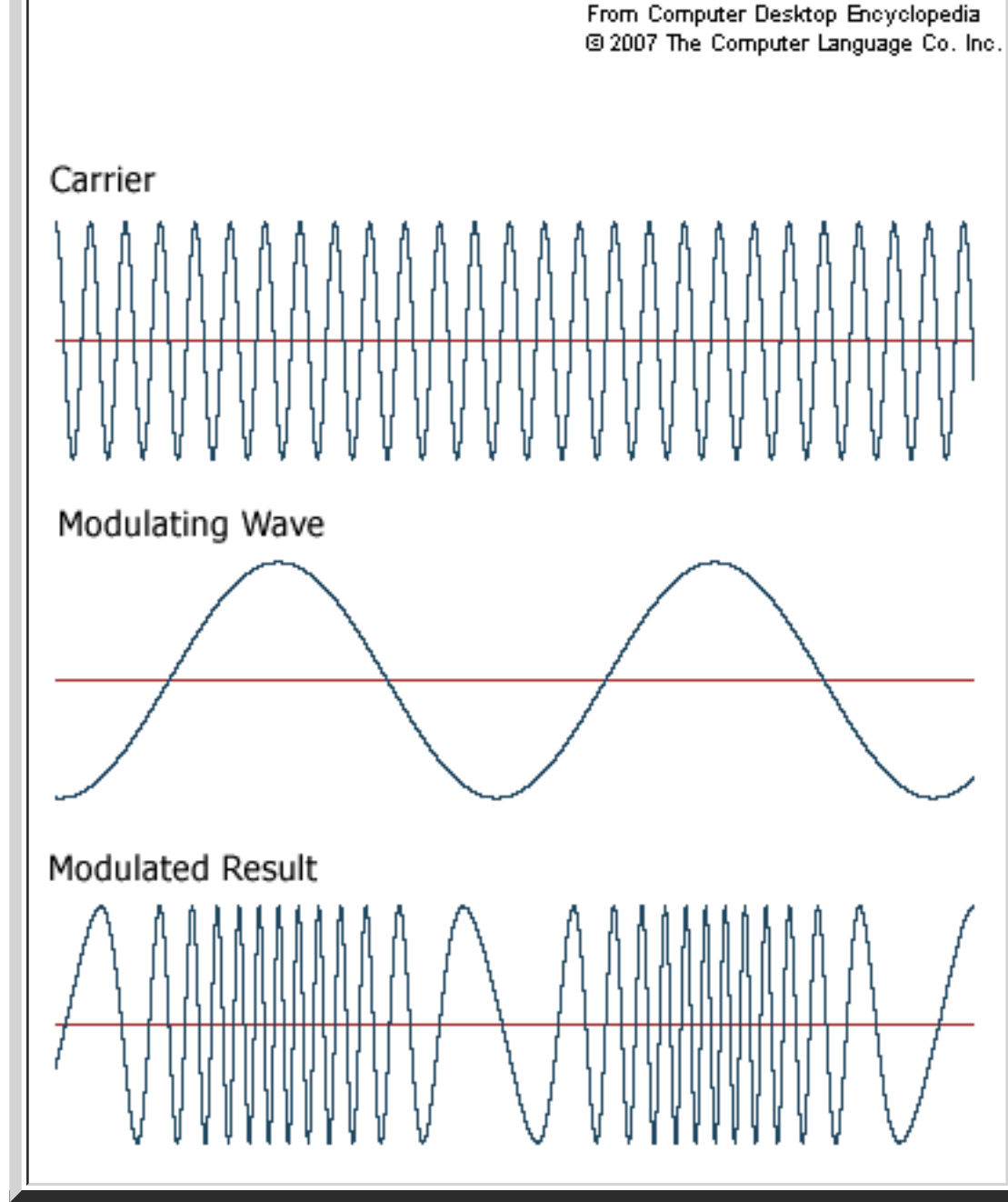
- **Frequency Modulation (FM)**

- **Frequency modulation (FM)**:

- the **frequency** of the **carrier wave** is **changed** according to the **input signal**

Example:





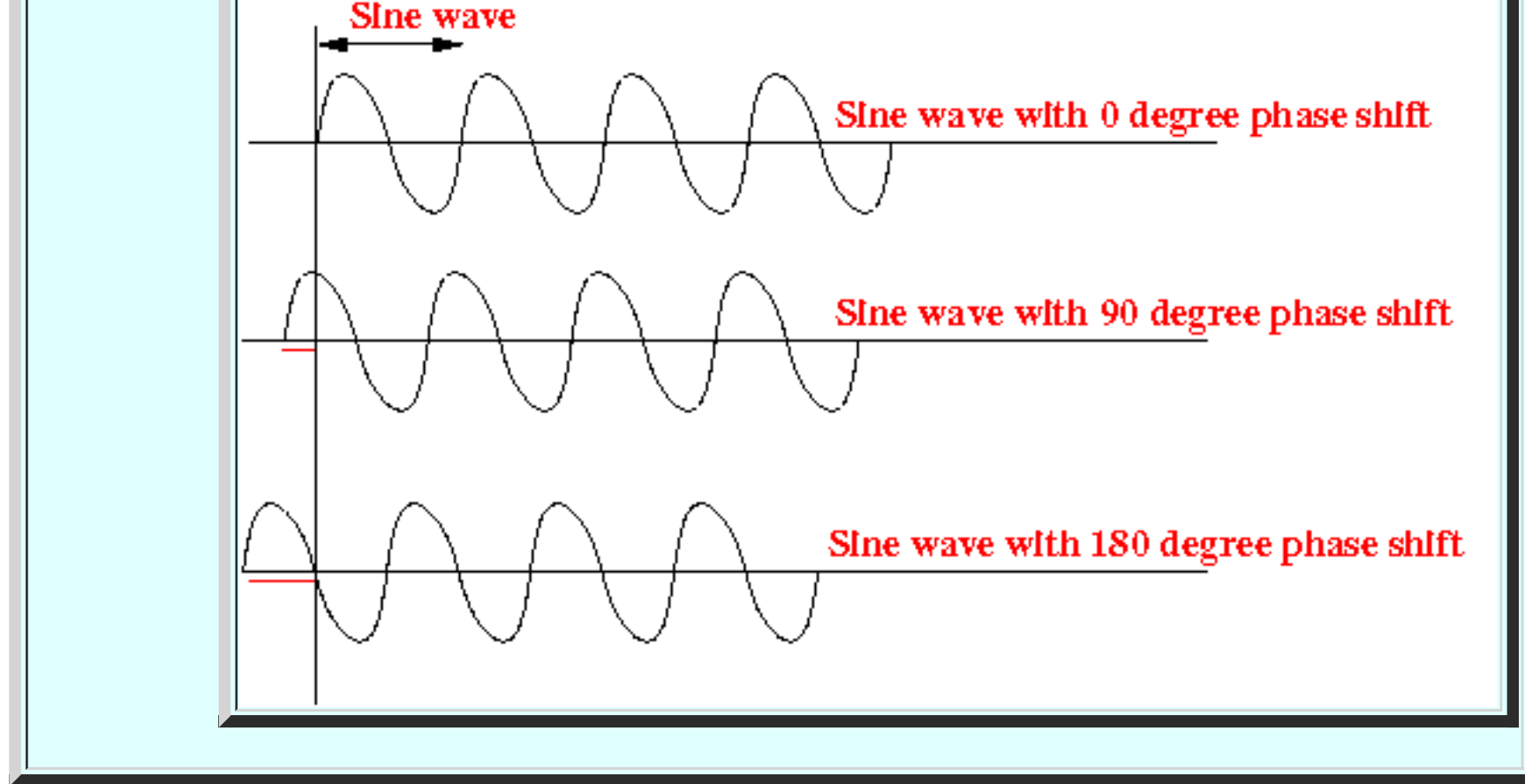
- **Phase Modulation (PM)**

- **Phase modulation (PM):**

- the **phase** of the **carrier wave** is **changed** according to the **input signal**

- The **phase** of a **wave**:

- The **phase** of a **sine wave** is the **amount of shift**:



- In **PM**, you **change** the *instantaneous phase* of the **carrier signal**.

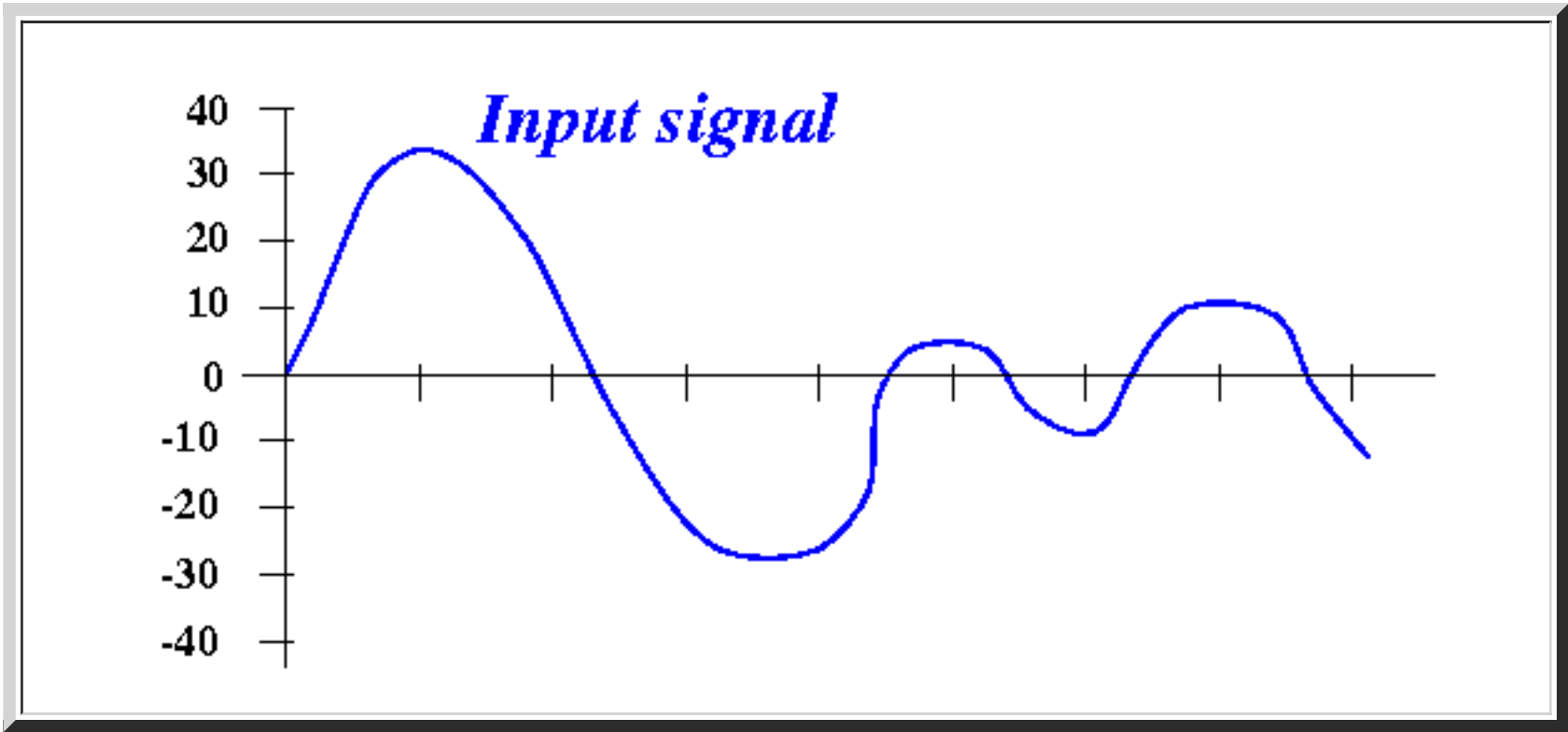
▪ This is **very hard** to **detect**, even for **electronics** - let alone **humans** !!!

I will **not try** to **draw** a **continuous phase shifted** signal.....

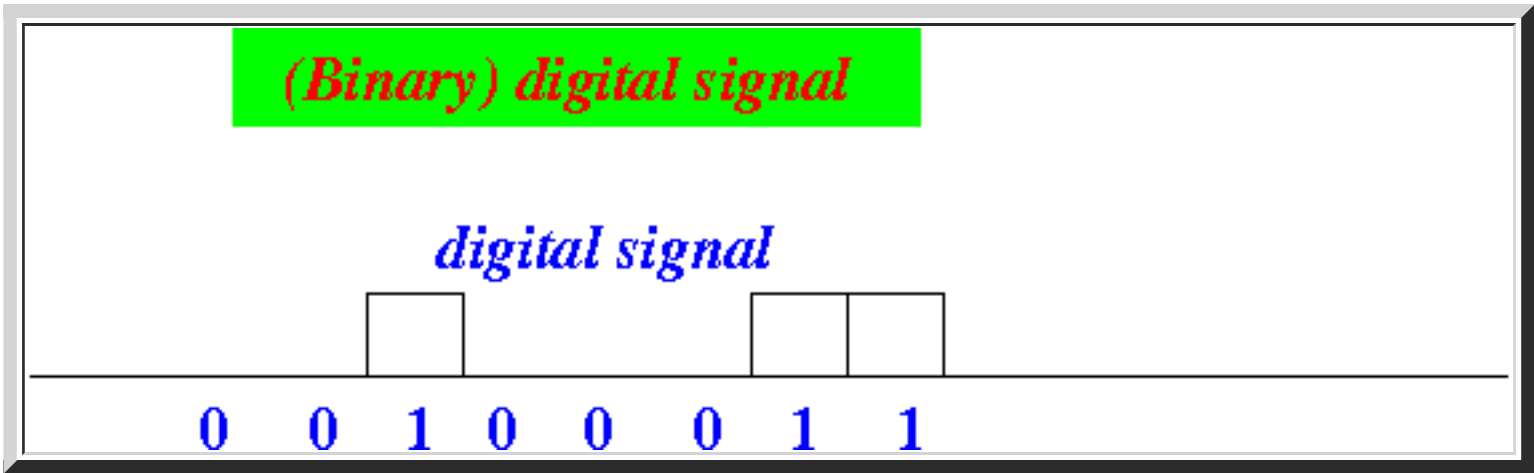
It's *too hard* :)

Converting *analog* data (signals) to *digital* data (signals)

- Transmitting **analog** data using **digital** signals
 - **Analog** (input) data:

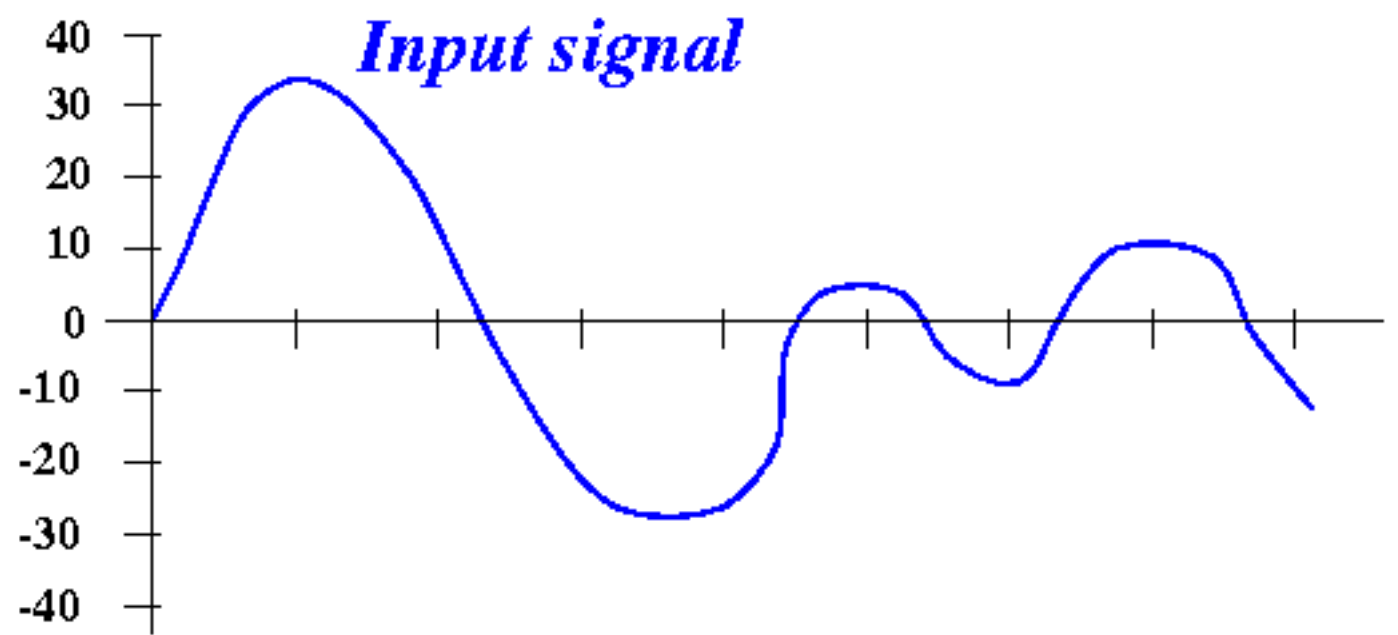


- **Digital** signals:



- Problem Description:

- **How** do we **convert** *this*:



into *this*:

(Binary) digital signal

digital signal

0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1

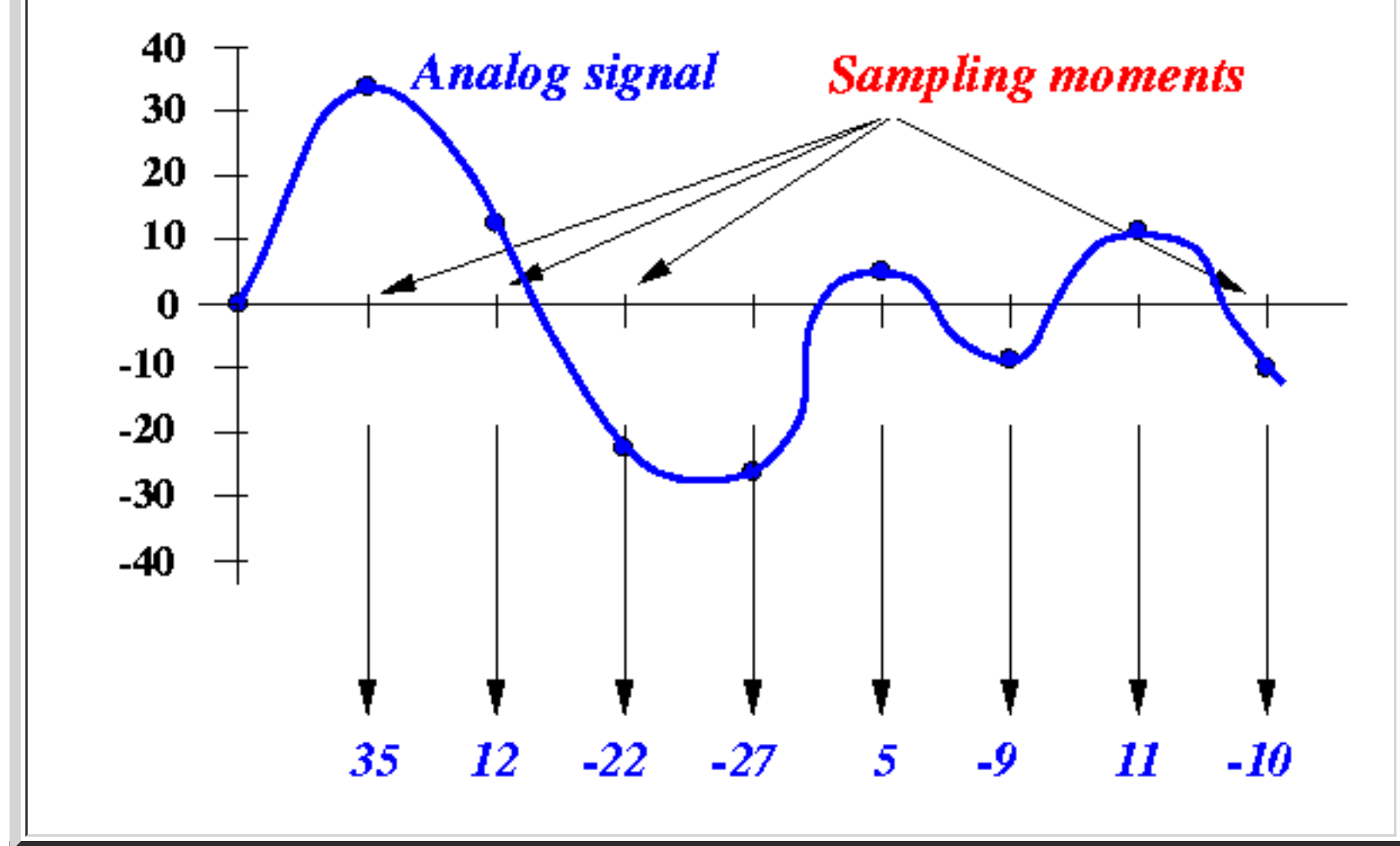
- **Sampling**

- **Sampling:**

- **Measure** (and **record**) a **continuous** signal at **regular intervals**

Example:

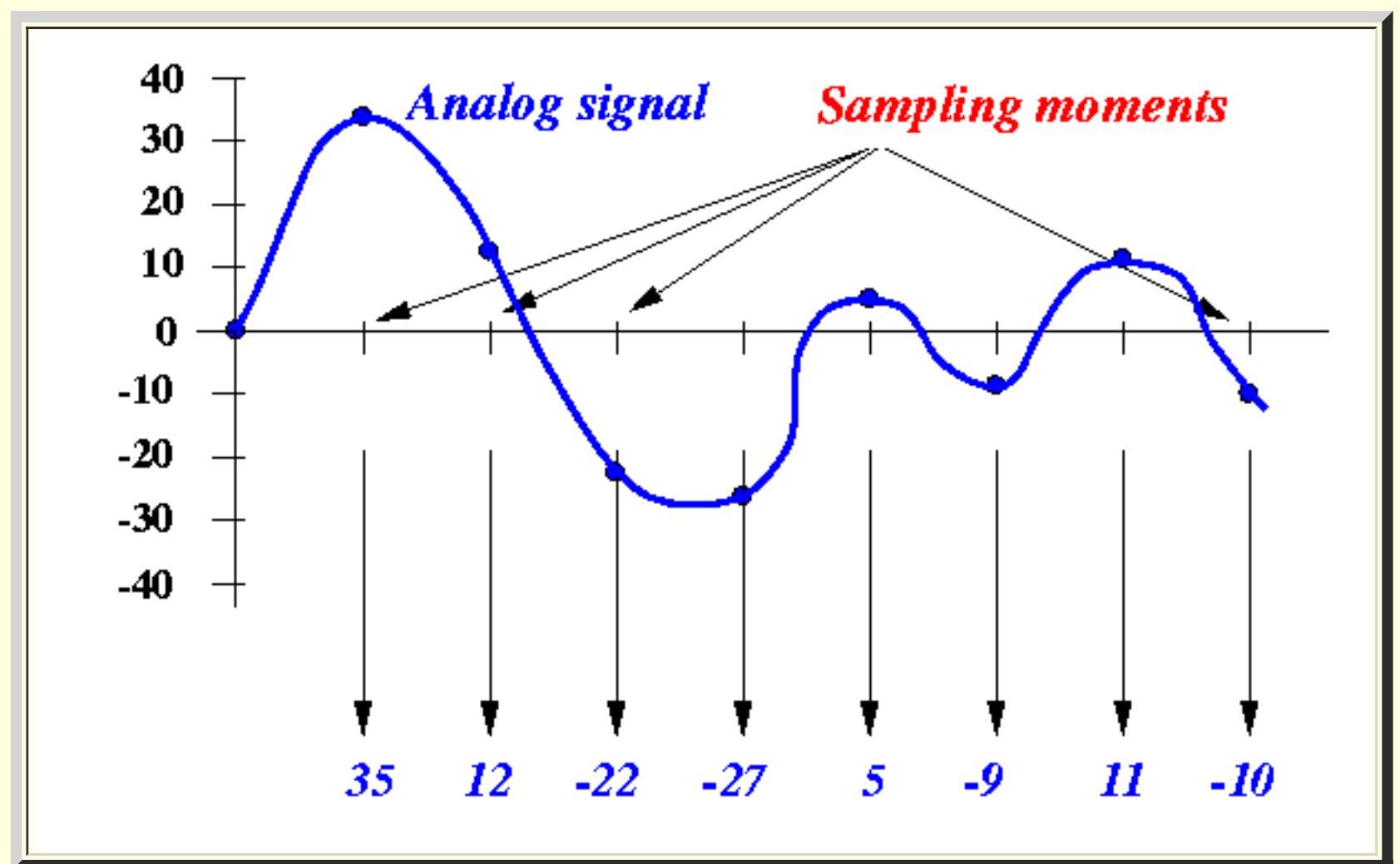




- Converting **analog** data (signal) to **digital** data (signal)
 - How to transmit **analog** data using **discrete** signals

1. The **analog** data is **first sampled** into serie of **numerical** values

Example:



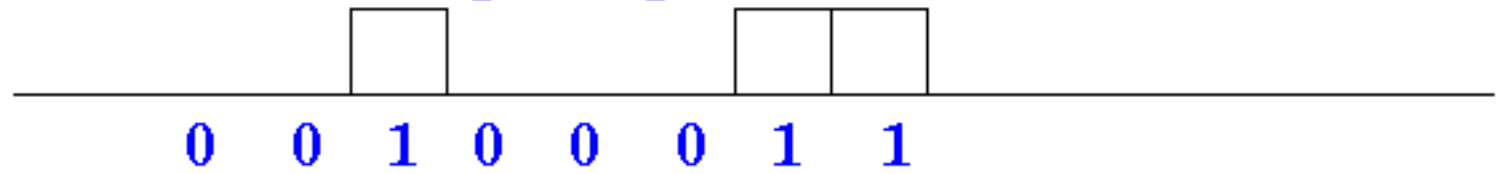
2. Each of the **numerical** value is **encoded** into a **binary** number and transmitted using **(binary) digital** signals:

(Binary) digital signal

35 = 00100011



digital signal



- A/D converters

- A/D converter (chip):

- A/D converter = the device (chip) that converts (samples) analog signals to digital signals
 - Wikipedia page: [click here](#)

You can specify a **sampling rate**:

- The more frequent you sample the input signal, the better accurate the approximation !!!

- Caveat:

- If you sample below a certain threshold, you may not be able to reconstruct the original signal using the sampled values !!!

First, let's look at how you re-construct the original signal from the samples

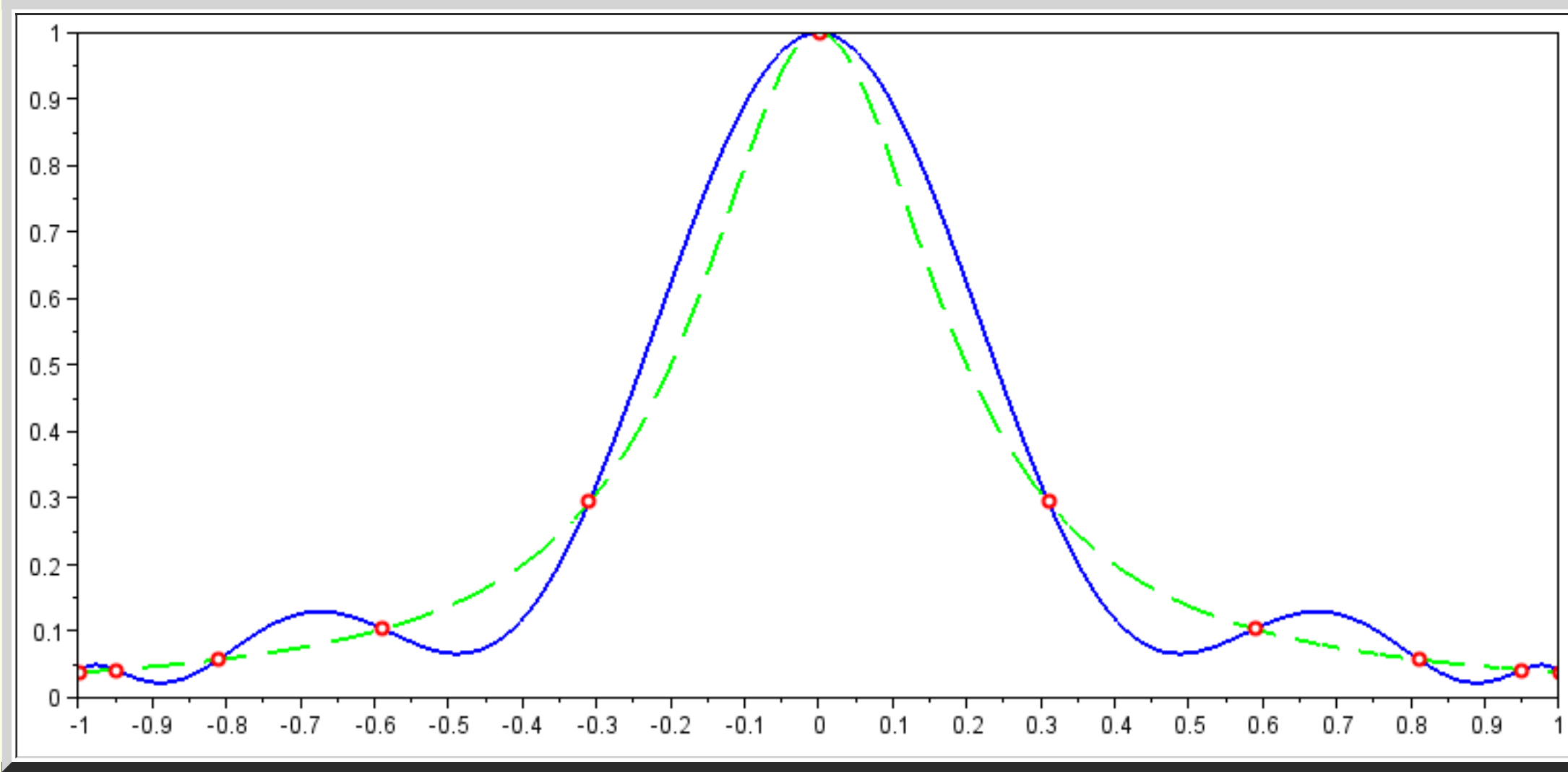
Re-constructing the *analog* data (signals)

• Re-constructing the *analog* data from the samples: *Lagrange inter-polation*

- Fact: (from **Mathematics**)

■ You can **construct** a *unique polynomial function* of degree **$n-1$** that passes through **exactly n** points

Examples:



The **dotted** plot is the **original signal**

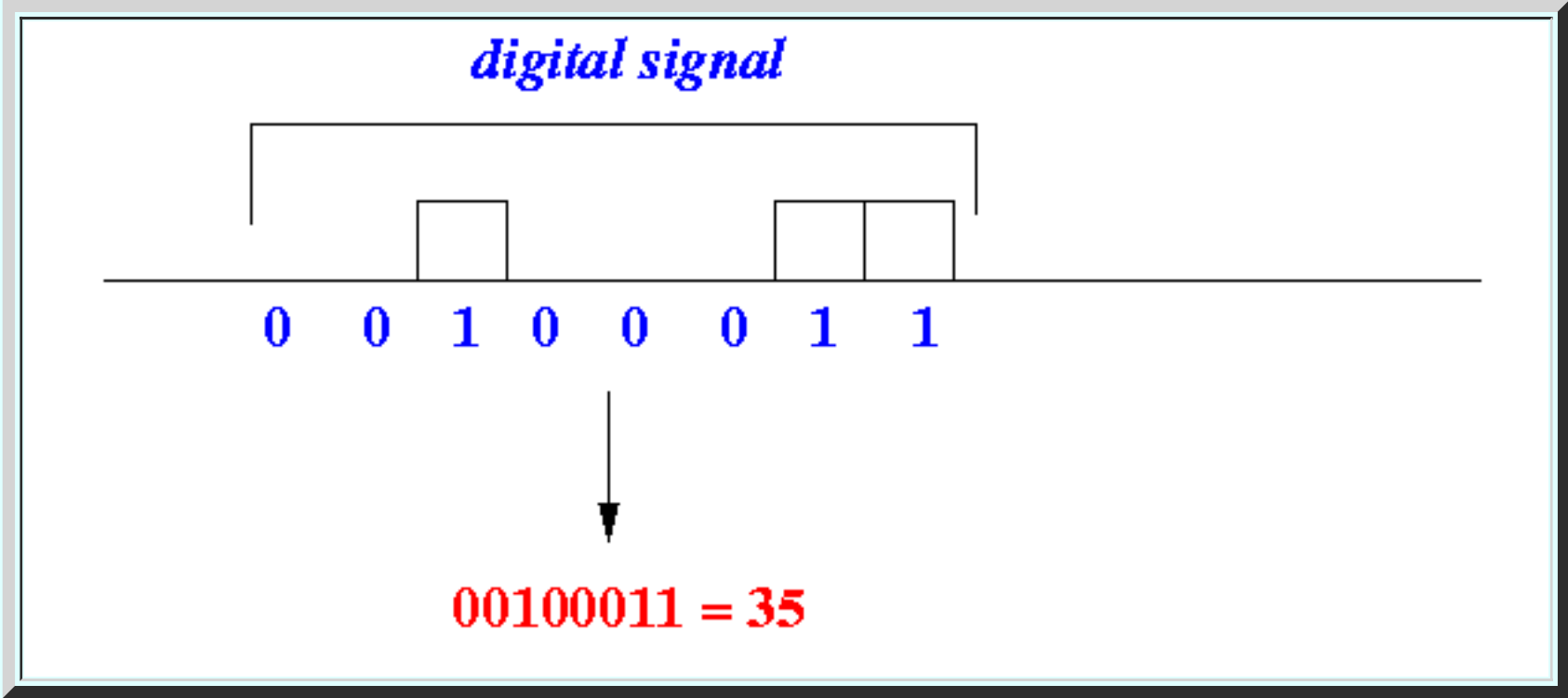
- Langrange Polynomial:

■ **Langrange Polynomial** = the *polynomial function* (of degree **$n-1$**) that you can **construct** when given **exactly n** data points

See Wikipedia for more **details**: [click here](#)

- Re-constructing the **analog data** from the **digital signal**:

1. The **digital signals (pulses)** is **first** converted **back** to **digital values**:



2. A **Interpolation Polynomial** is **computed** using **n data points** at a time

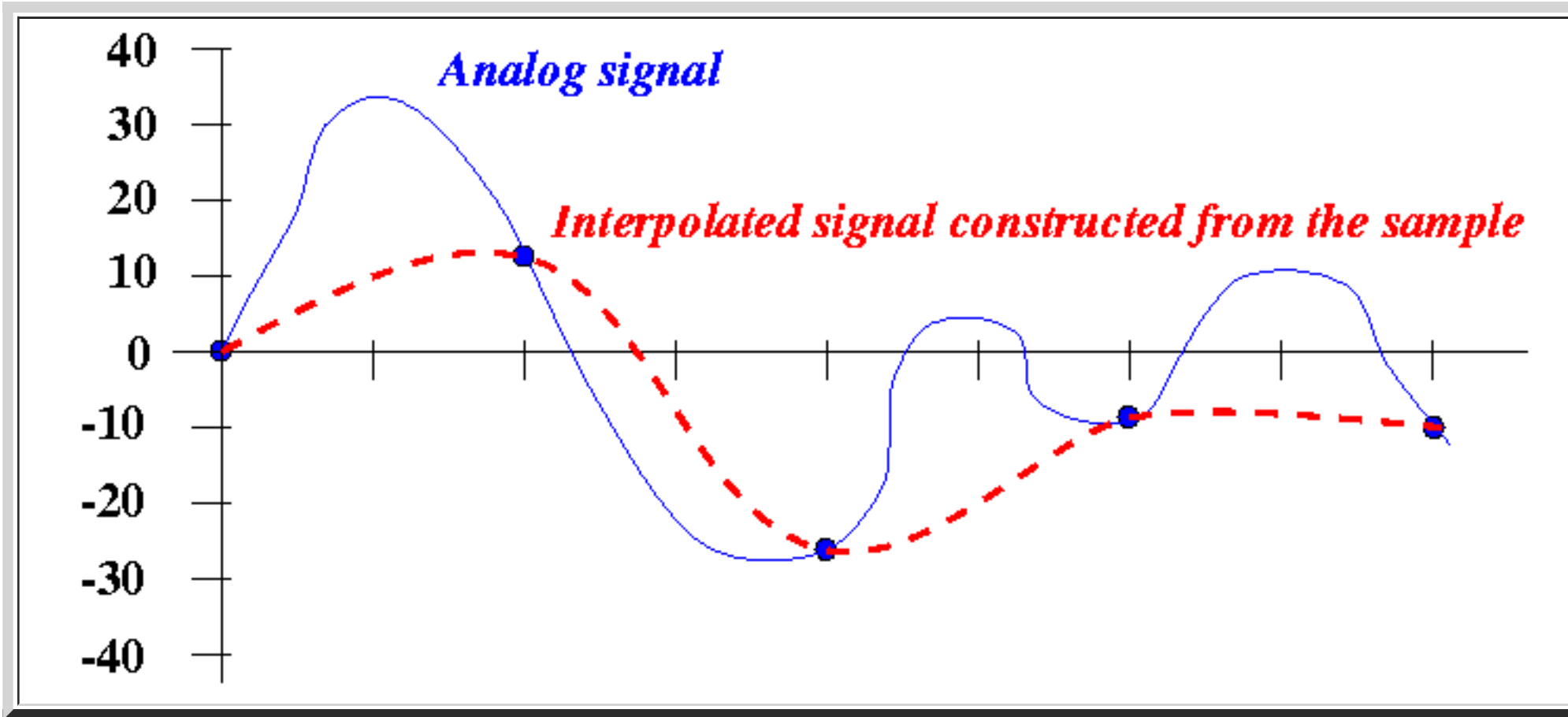
- **Try it out**:

- Here's a nice **Language Polynomial** applet that you can **play with:** [click here](#)
- I **downloaded** a less nicer one: [click here](#)

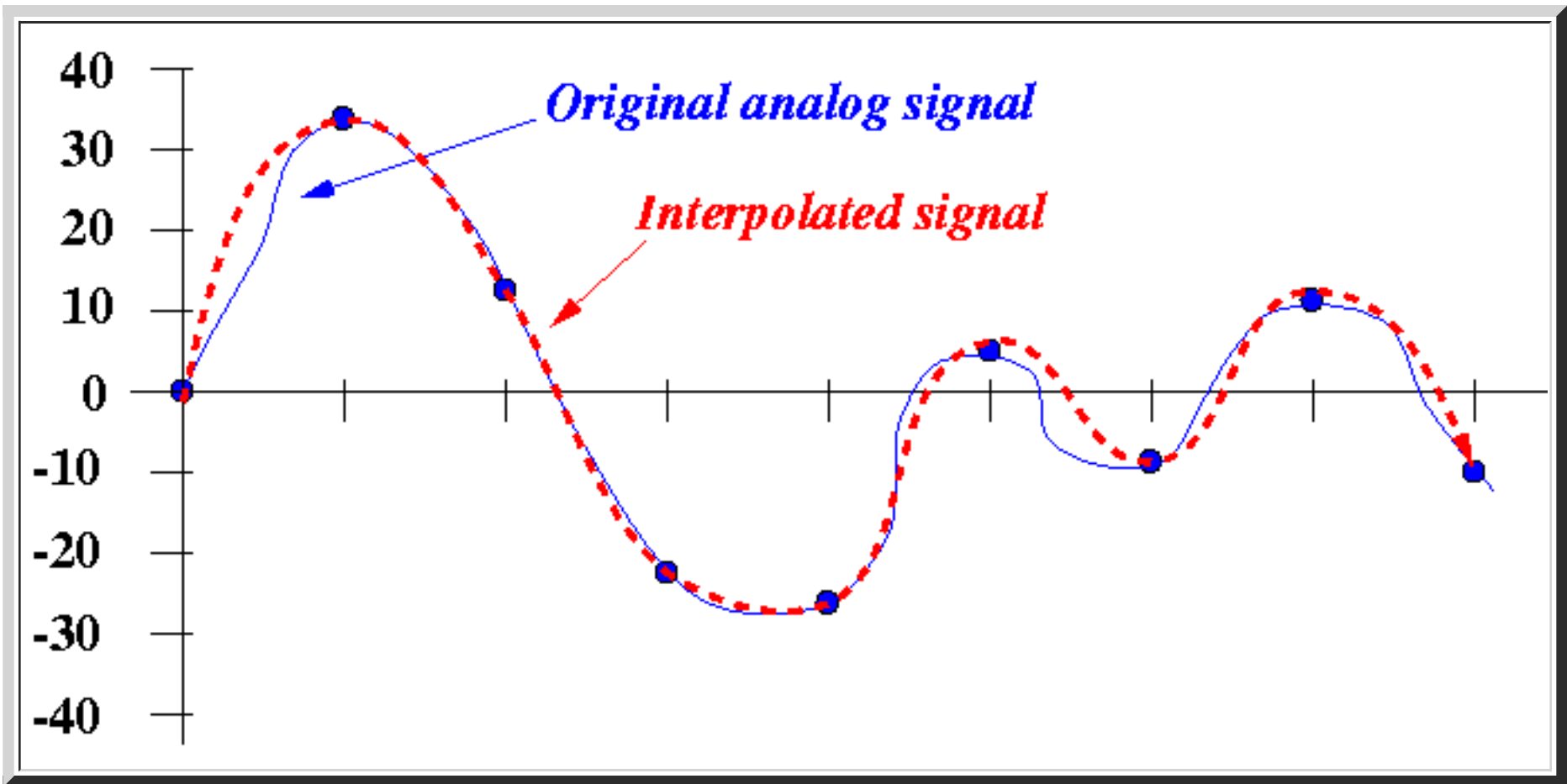
Check out the **/home/cs455000/demo/Langrange** directory

Sampling rate and accuracy --- the Nyquist rate

- **Sampling rate and accuracy of the reconstructed analog signal**
 - **Re-constructed signal** and the **original signal** using a **low sampling rate**:



- **Re-constructed signal** and the **original signal** using a **higher sampling rate**:



- **Conclusion:**

▪ The **faster (more frequent)** you sample, the **more accurate** the approximation

- **\$64,000 question:**

- *Should* we sample as *fast as possible* ????

No !!!! The *reason* is *cost* !!

- **Transmission rate**

- **Transmission rate:**

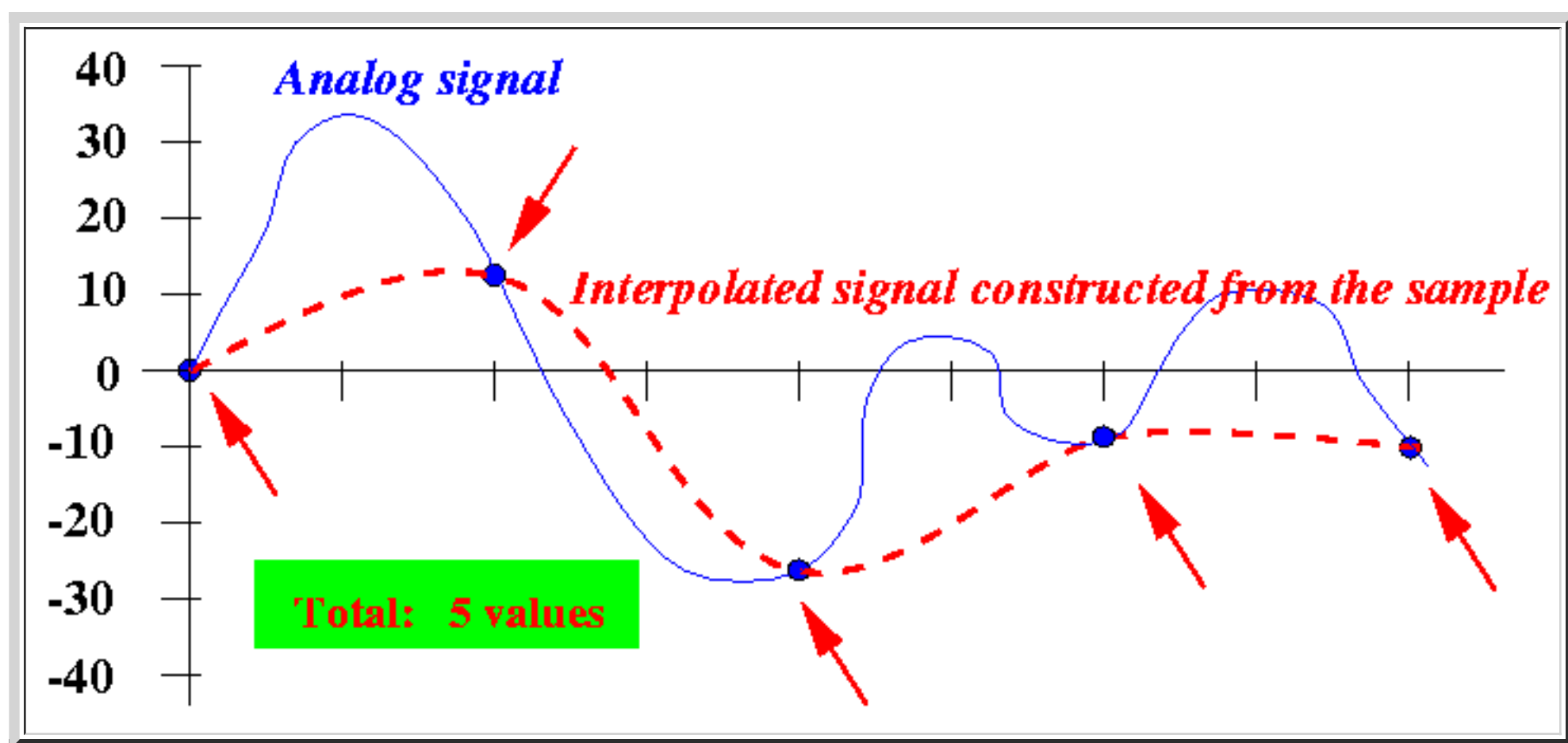
- **Transmission rate** = the **amount** of **data (in bits)** transmitted per **time unit (sec)**

- **Fact:**

- We should **try** to **keep** the **transmission rate** as **low** as **possible**
(**More data** sent = *higher cost*)

- **Sampling rate and transmission rate**

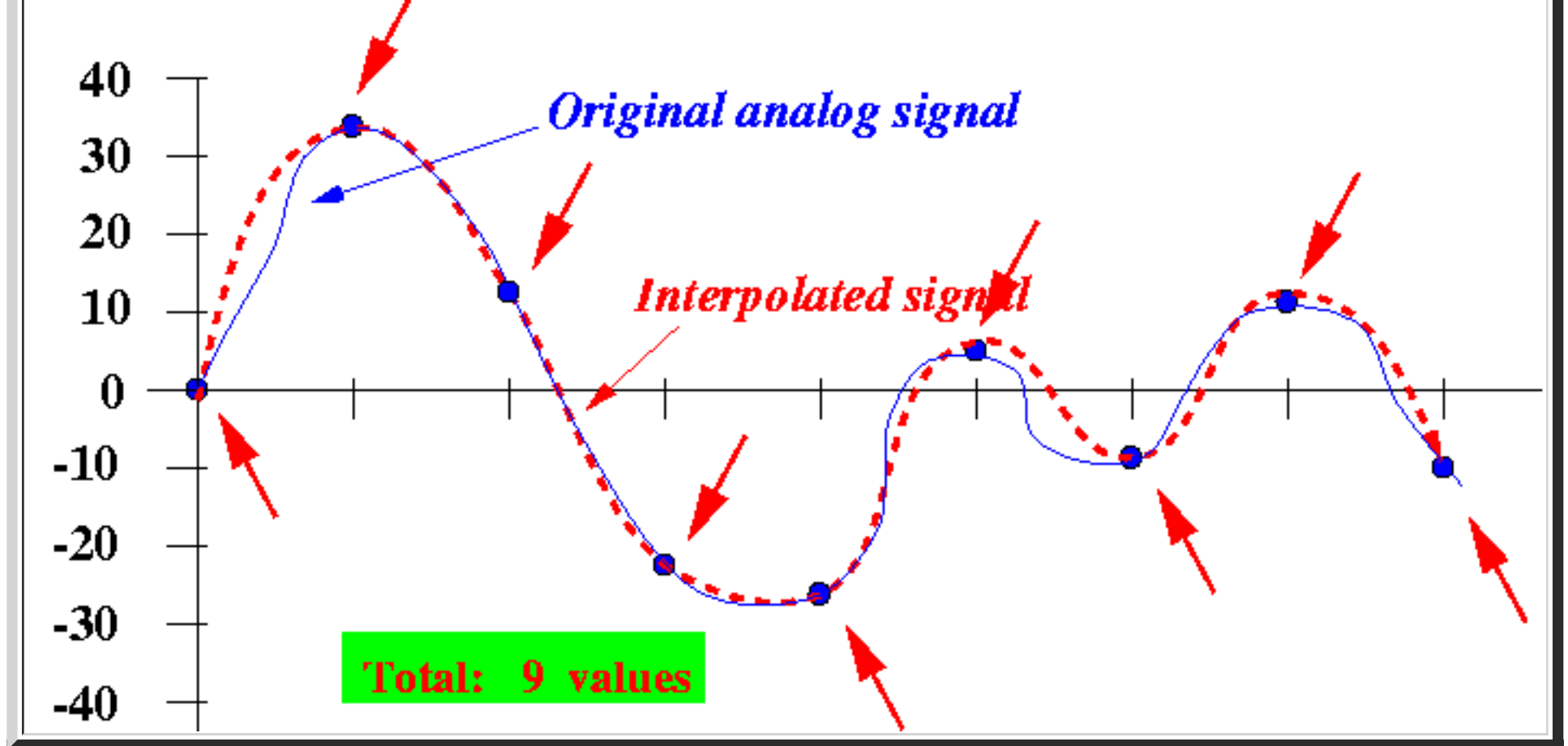
- **Data rate** at a **low sampling rate:**



Conclusion:

- We **only** need to sent **5 values** when we **sample** at the **lower sampling rate**

- **Data rate** at a **higher sampling rate:**



Conclusion:

- We must send **9 values** when we **sample** at the **higher sampling rate** !!!!

◦ Therefore:

- The **faster** (more frequent) you **sample**, the **higher** the (transmission) data rate

• What is the **best** sampling rate ???

◦ **High** sampling rate:

- **Good accuracy**
- **High** transmission data rate (costly)

◦ **Low** sampling rate:

- **Poor** accuracy
- **Low** transmission data rate (cost-efficient)

◦ **Goal:** (what we want)

- At **which** data rate can we achieve **good enough** accuracy ????

• The Nyquist Sampling Rate

◦ The Nyquist (sampling) rate:

- **Nyquist (sampling) rate** = the *minimum* sampling rate required to **avoid aliasing** when **sampling a continuous signal**.

See: [Wikipedia](#)

- **Aliasing:**

- an **effect** that causes **different signals** to become *indistinguishable* when sampled.

See: [Wikipedia](#)

- In **plain English**:

- **Nyquist rate** = the *lowest possible* sampling rate that **permits** an *accurate reconstruction* of a **input signal** using **samples**

- **Disclaimer:**

- We will **not** derive the **Nyquist rate** :-)...
because it requires a **lot** of **background knowledge** and is **beyond the scope** of this course...

- I will **only** state the **result** from **Signal Processing**:

Nyquist Rate = 2 × B

where:

B = highest frequency found in the (analog) input signal

Application of the Nyquist Rate: digital CD quality audio

- Nyquist rate to obtain digital CD quality audio

- Problem description:

- We want to store music (which is analog data) as a computer file (which is digital data)

- Question:

- How fast do you need to sample to reconstruct audible audio waves completely accurately ?

- Pre-requisite: a fact from Biology

- Human ear can hear sound waves with frequency ≤ 20,000 Hz

- The Nyquist sampling rate for human audible signal:

- Nyquist Sampling Rate = 2 × MaxFrequency (MaxFreq = 20,000 Hz)
 - = 2 × 20000 Hz
 - = 40000 Hz
 - (Meaning: 40000 samples per second)

Note:

- 1 Hz (Hertz) = 1 event (sample) per second

- Sampling rate used by the music industry

- Digital music:

- Digital music = audio (music) stored in digital format
 - _____
 - Use sampling to convert audio to digital !!!

- Sampling rate used by the music industry:

- The sample rate used to obtain CD quality audio is: 44100 Hz

(This rate is **higher** than the *Nyquist* rate of **40,000 Hz**)

- The reason is **historical**:

- The sampling rate of **44.1 kHz** was **inherited** from recording method they **already used** in **video cassettes**

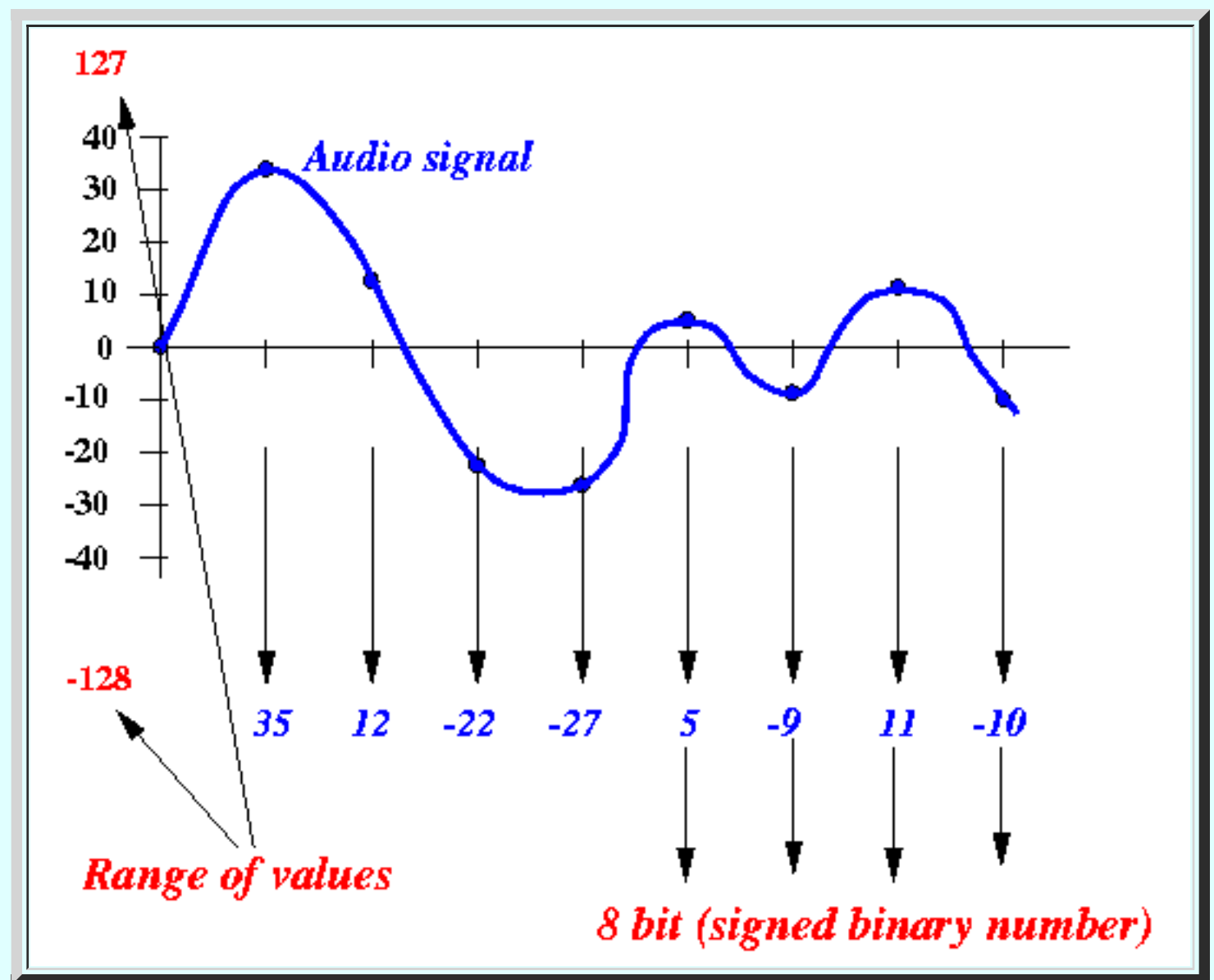
Reference: [click here](#)

- **Encoding CD quality audio**

- Encoding **standard quality** audio:

- **Normally**, an **audio sample** (= the **amplitude value** of the **audio signal**) is encoded using **8 bits** (as a **signed binary number**)

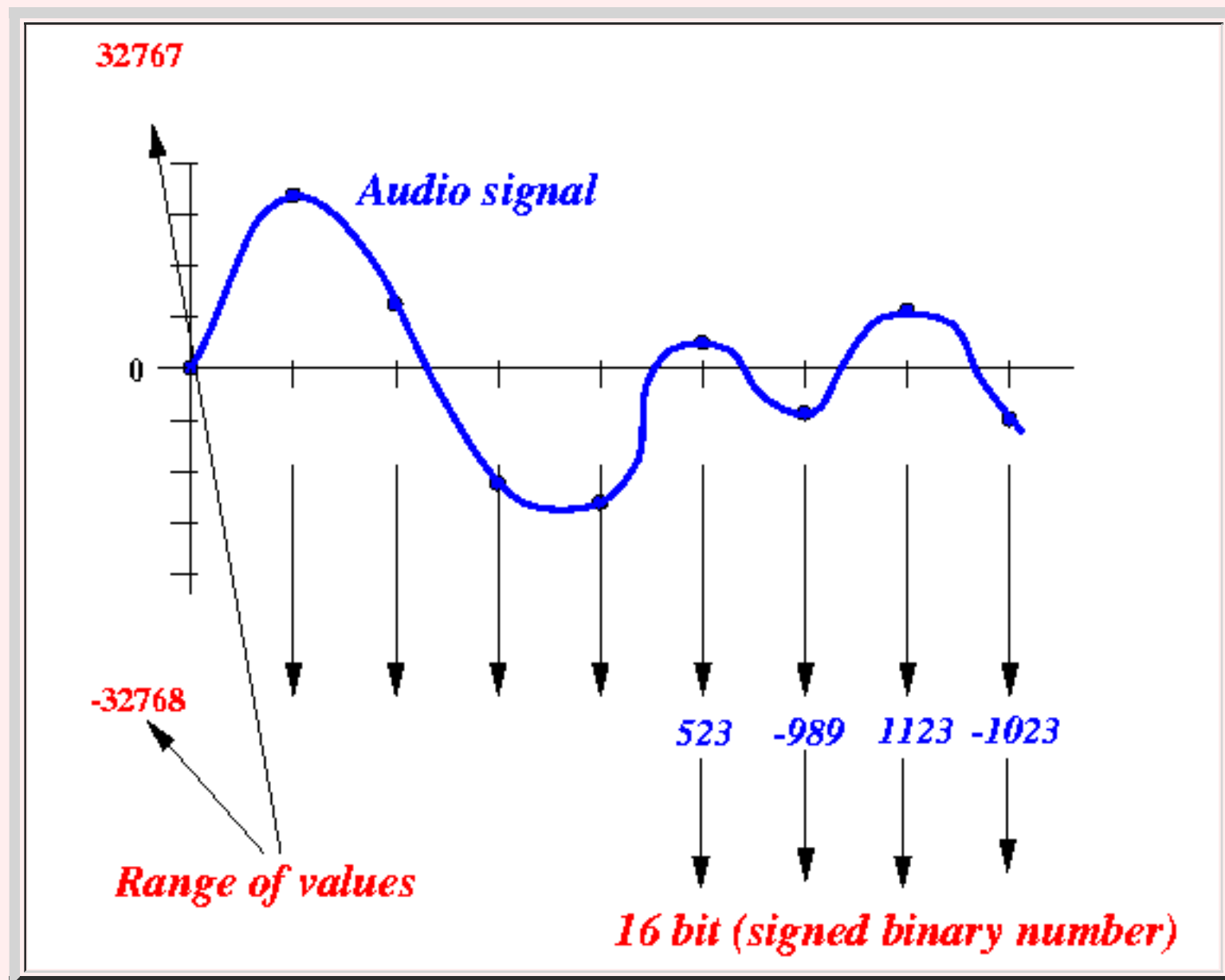
Example:



- Encoding **CD quality** audio:

- In **CD quality audio**, an **audio sample** is encoded using **16 bits** (**signed binary number**)

Example:



(Result: **highly accurate** representation of the **original audio signal**, but will require **more storage**)

- **Data rate of CD-quality audio**

- **Data rate** of **mono CD quality audio**:

Sample Rate = 44,100 Hz (i.e., we sample 44,100 times in 1 sec)

====> 44,100 samples in 1 sec

1 sample is encoded using 16 bits

====> $44,100 \times 16 = 705,600$ bits in 1 sec

Data rate of (mono) CD quality audio = 705,600 bits/sec

- **Data rate** of **mono CD quality audio**:

2 channels used for stereo

$$\implies 2 \times 705,600 \text{ bits} = 1,411,200 \text{ bits/sec}$$

Application of the Nyquist Rate: Digital Telephone

- Digital telephone
 - Telephone quality audio:

- Human ear can hear frequencies: 20 - 20,000 Hz....

But:

- You do **not** need the *full range* to **understand** what someone is saying...

- Understandable conversions can be **carried** using the following **range of frequencies**:

- 300Hz - 3400 Hz

- Nyquist rate for "telephone" quality audio
 - **Maximum frequency** of "telephone" quality audio:

- 3400 Hz !!!

- **Nyquist sampling rate** for "telephone" quality audio:

Nyquist Sampling Rate (telephone quality) = 2 × MaxFrequency
= 2 × 3400 Hz
= 6800 Hz

i.e.: Minimum sampling rate = 6800 times per second.

- Sampling rate used by telephone companies
 - Sampling rate of (digital) telephone:

- Today's (digital) telephone **samples** the voice at:

- **8000 Hz**

I.e.: **8000 samples in 1 sec** or **1 sample in 1/8000 sec**

- **Encoding "telephone" quality** audio:

- Each sample is **encoded** using **signed binary value** of **8 bits**

- **Data rate of "telephone" quality audio**

- **Data rate of *telephone quality* audio:**

Sampling Rate = 8000 Hz

====> 8000 samples in 1 sec

1 sample outputs 8 bits

====> 8000 × 8 bits = 64000 bits in 1 sec

Data rate of telephone quality audio = 64,000 bps

- **Digital telephone**

- **Fact:**

- The **telephone company** reserves a **64,000 bps** communication channel for each **phone conversation**

However:

- The telephone company **"steals" one bit** from **every byte (8 bits)** for **administration purposes**

- E.g., send the **caller ID** to the **phone**

- **Effective data rate** of a **telephone channel**:

- **effectively**, a **telephone channel** transmits:

- $7/8 \times 64,000 \text{ bps} = 56,000 \text{ bps}$

of **real audio data**

- **A gadget from the past**

- The **equipment** that allows you to **transmit data** over a **telephone connection** is:

- a **modem** (**modulator/de-modulator**)

- Due to the **channel capacity** of a telephone connection (see **above !!!**), the **modem speed** is **limited** to **56 kbps !!!**



Modem is a thing of the **past** because **telecom companies** now sell **Data Services** to their customers.

Encoding/decoding *digital* data using *digital* signals

• Digital data

◦ Digital data:

▪ Digital data = *discrete* values

Example:

▪ 12, 45, -67

▪ 3.14, 4.12,

◦ Fact:

▪ Digital values can be *converted* into a *binary* representation

Example:

▪ 12 ↔ 00001100

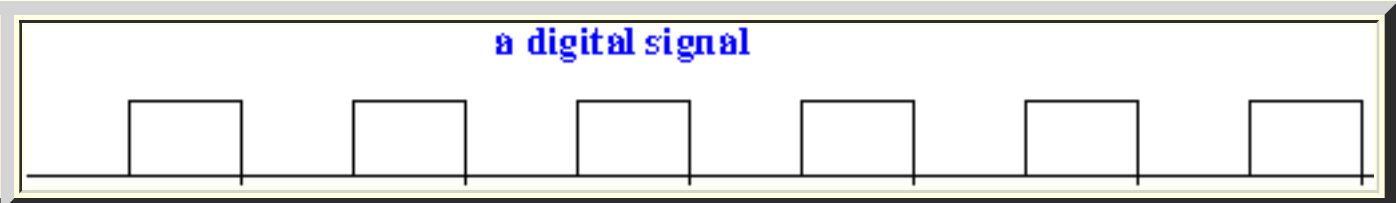
• Digital signal

◦ Digital signal:

▪ Digital signal = a signal with *finite number* of *discrete* levels

Example: a *two level* digital signal

a digital signal



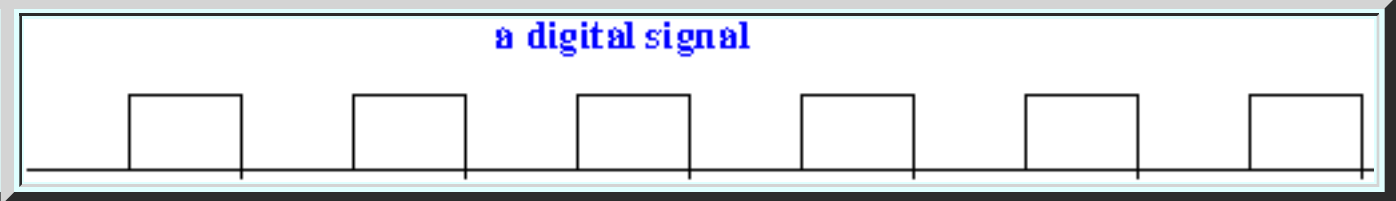
• Digital data transmission with digital signals

◦ Transmitting *digital* data using *digital* signal:

▪ Digital data: 01010101

▪ Digital signal to relay this *digital data*:

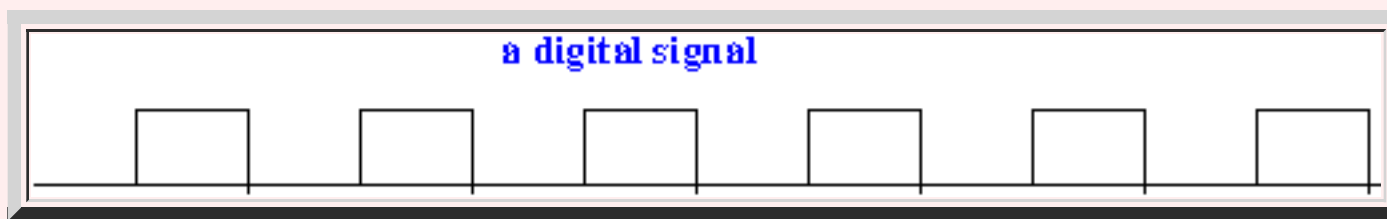
a digital signal



• The missing ingredient in digital transmission

\$64,000 questions:

- Suppose you **receive** this **digital signal**:



Question:

- **What** was the **data transmitted** ???

Obvious answer:

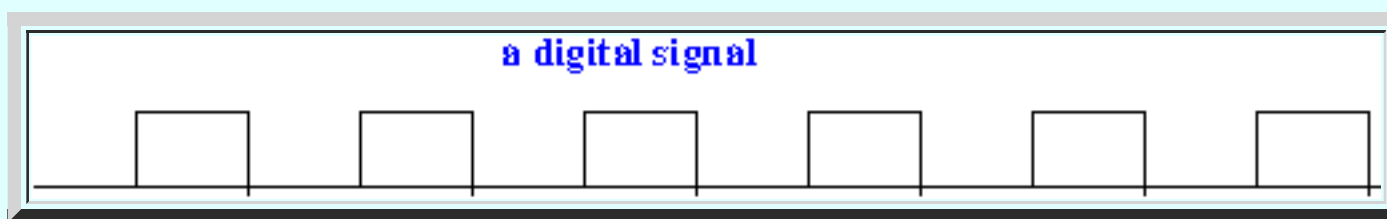
0101010101

Is this the **only** answer ?????

- **Decoding a digital signal**

- *Illustrative* example:

- Suppose you **received** the following **digital signal**:

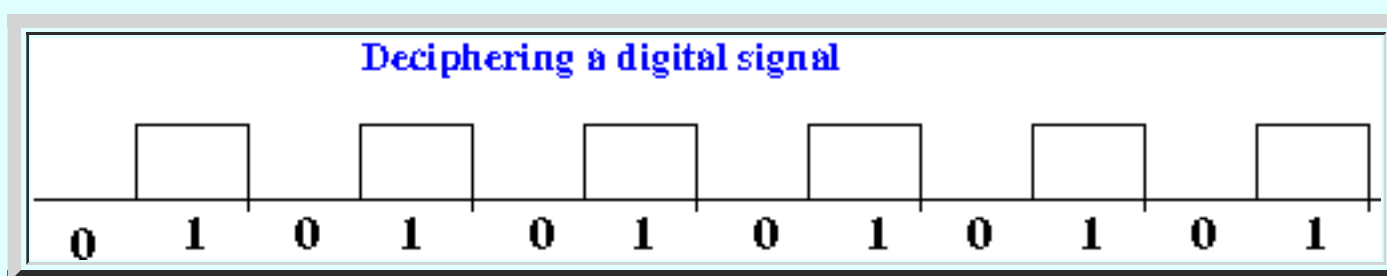


Question:

- What was the **digital data** that is **encoded** by this **signal** ???

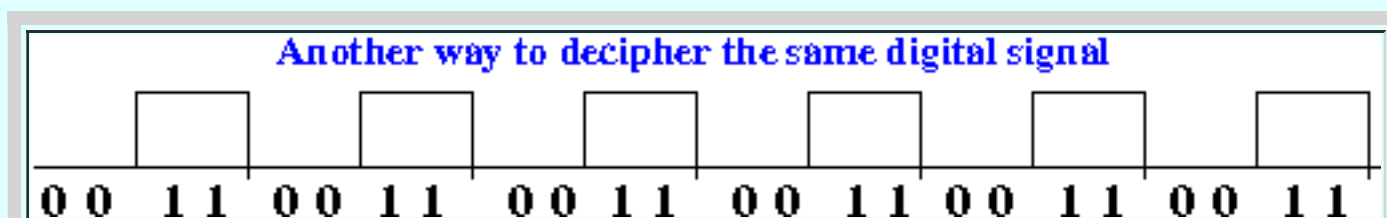
- An **obvious** answer is 0101010101

because:



- An **not so "obvious"** answer is 00110011001100110011

because:



- **Answer** to the \$64,000 question:

- You **need** to **know** the **transmission rate** (of the **digital signal**) in order to **decode** (= **determine the result**) a **digital signal** !!!!

- **Clock signal**

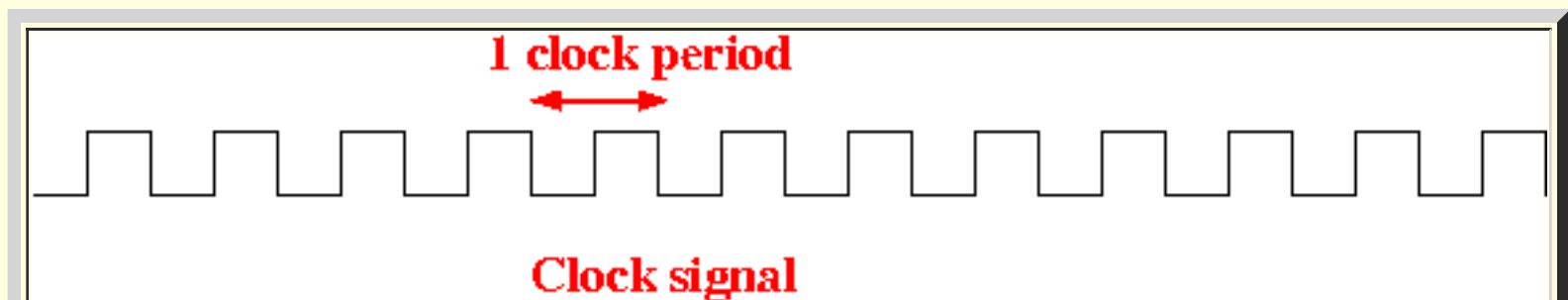
- **Fact:**

- **Transmission rate (= speed)** in **electronic devices** are **controlled** by a **clock signal**

- **Clock signal:**

- **Clock signal** = a **periodic wave** of **0,1** transitions at a **fixed frequency**

Example:



- **Clock signal generation circuits:**

- **Clock generator** = a **circuit** that produces a **timing signal** for use in **driving (synchronizing)** a **circuit's operation**.

See: [Wikiopedia](#)

- **Transmitting and decoding digital signals**

- **How to** use a **clock** in **digital communication**:

- **Requirement:**

- Both the **sender** and the **receiver must** use a **clock** with the **same frequency**

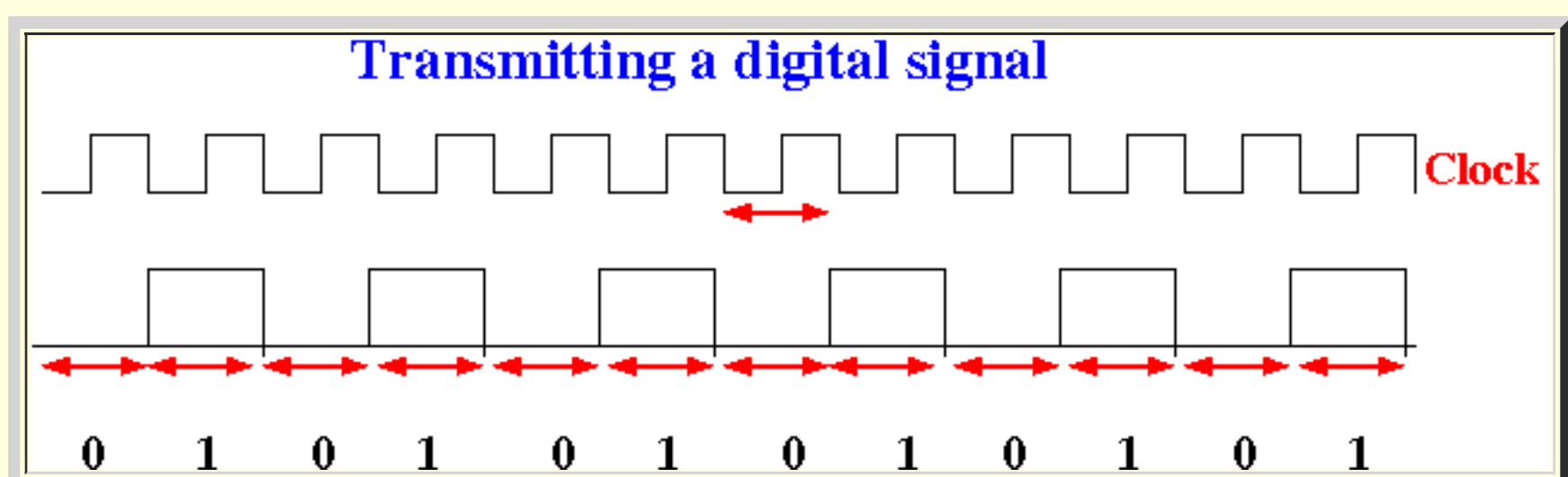
I.e.:

- **Sender** and **receiver** will **operate** at the **same speed !!!**

- **Transmission method** used by the **sender:**

- **Transmit** the **signal (= 0 or 1)** for **1 clock period**

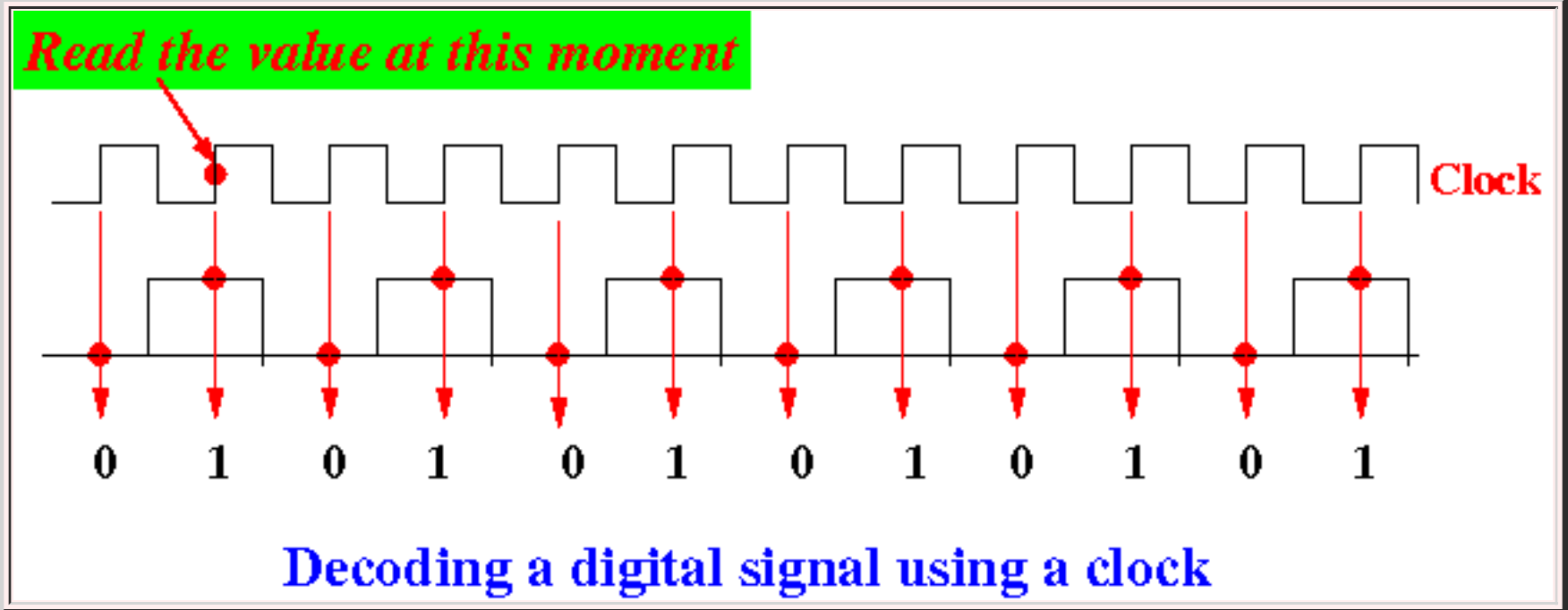
Example:



- **Decoding (= reception) method** used by the **receiver**:

- **Read** the **received signal** at the ***middle point*** of a **clock period**

Example:



- **Very important:**

- **Sender** and **receiver** that uses **digital signaling** to **communicate** with each other ***must*** use the ***same clock frequency*** !!!
(Otherwise, you will have ***reception errors*** !)

The problem of *clock drift*

- Click drift

- Fact:

- *No 2 digital clocks* will ever run on the *same frequency*

- E.g., *temperature* can *affect* the *frequency (= speed)* of *digital clocks !!!*

- Fact of (normal) life:

- *Two "identical" clock signals* (used in *computer communication*) will run at *slightly different speeds*

- The *difference* in *clock speed* is called:

- *"drift"*.

- Consequence of clock drift

- Consequence of clock drift:

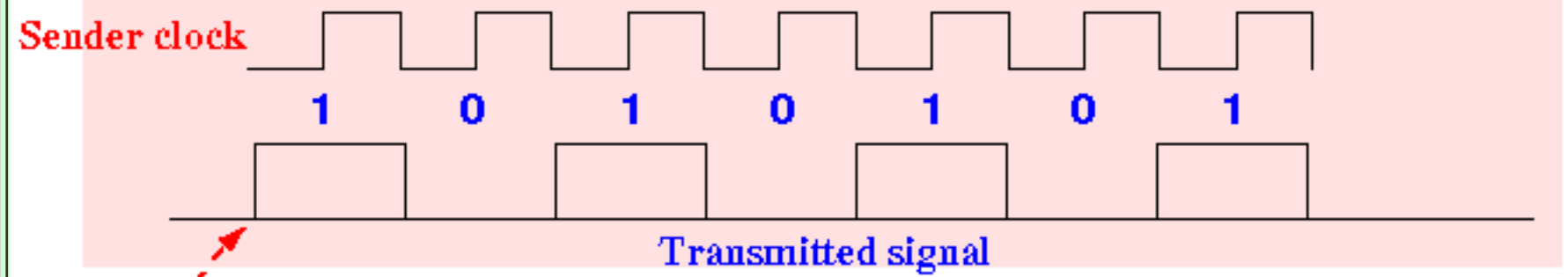
- *Clock drift* can cause *reception (decoding) errors if:*

- A *large number* of *bits* is being *decoded*

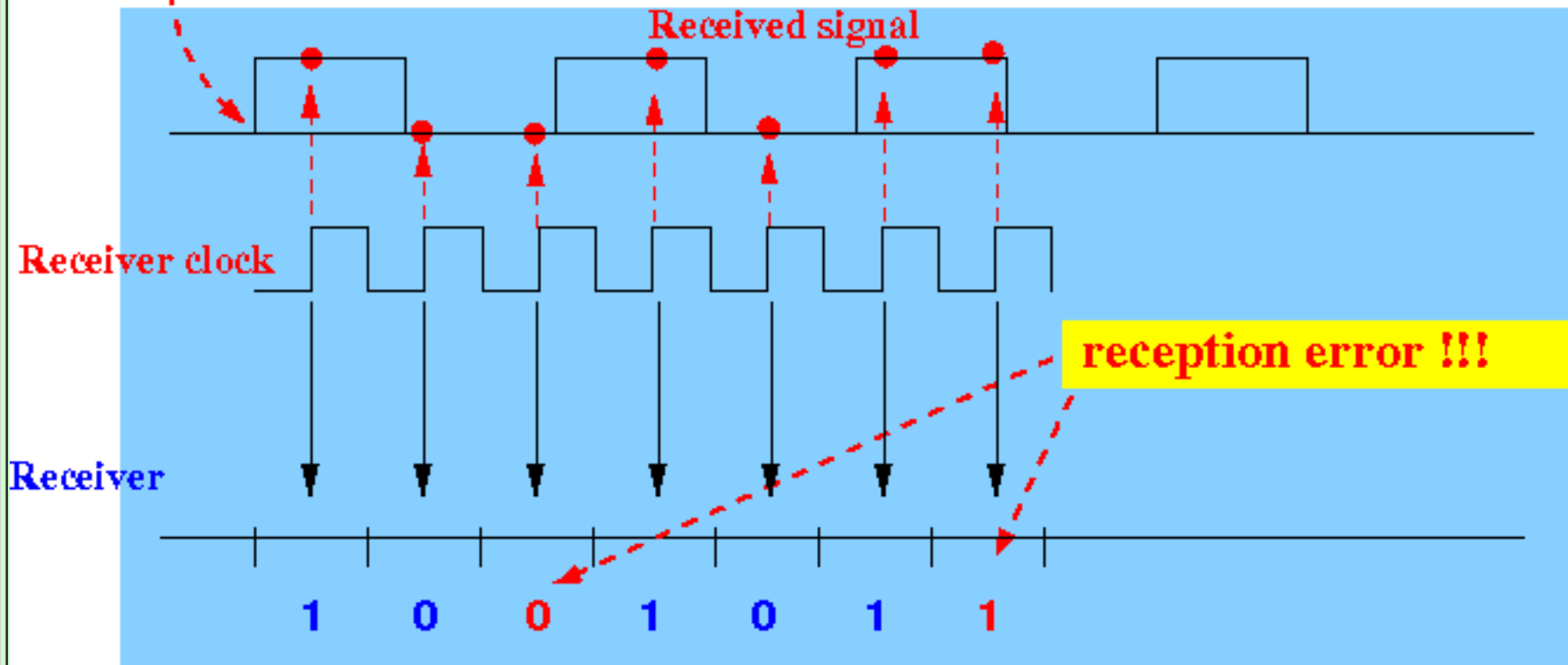
Example:

Sender

Sender clock



Sender and receiver are synchronized at the start

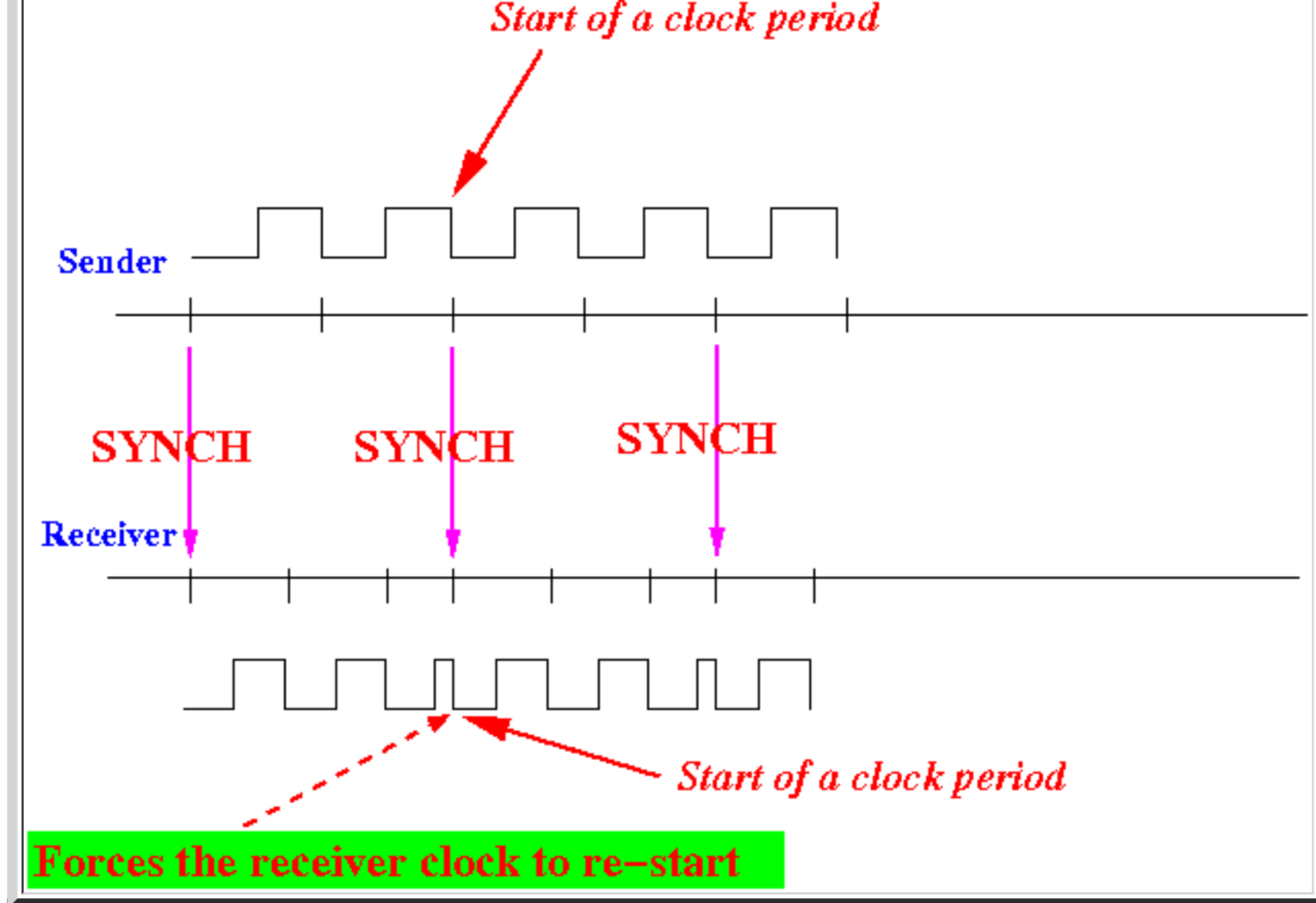


- Receiver clock (*re-*)synchronization

- Important conclusion:

- The **receiver** must (from time to time) **re-synchronize its clock** with the **sender's clock**

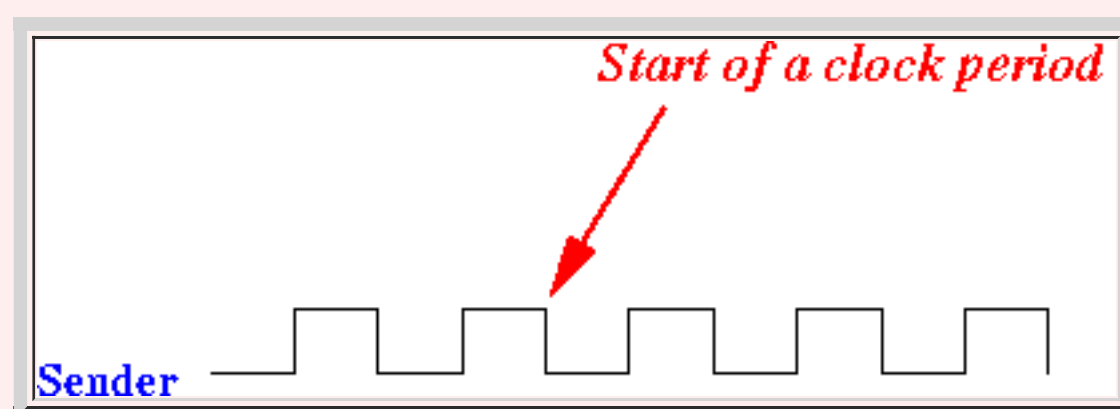
Example:



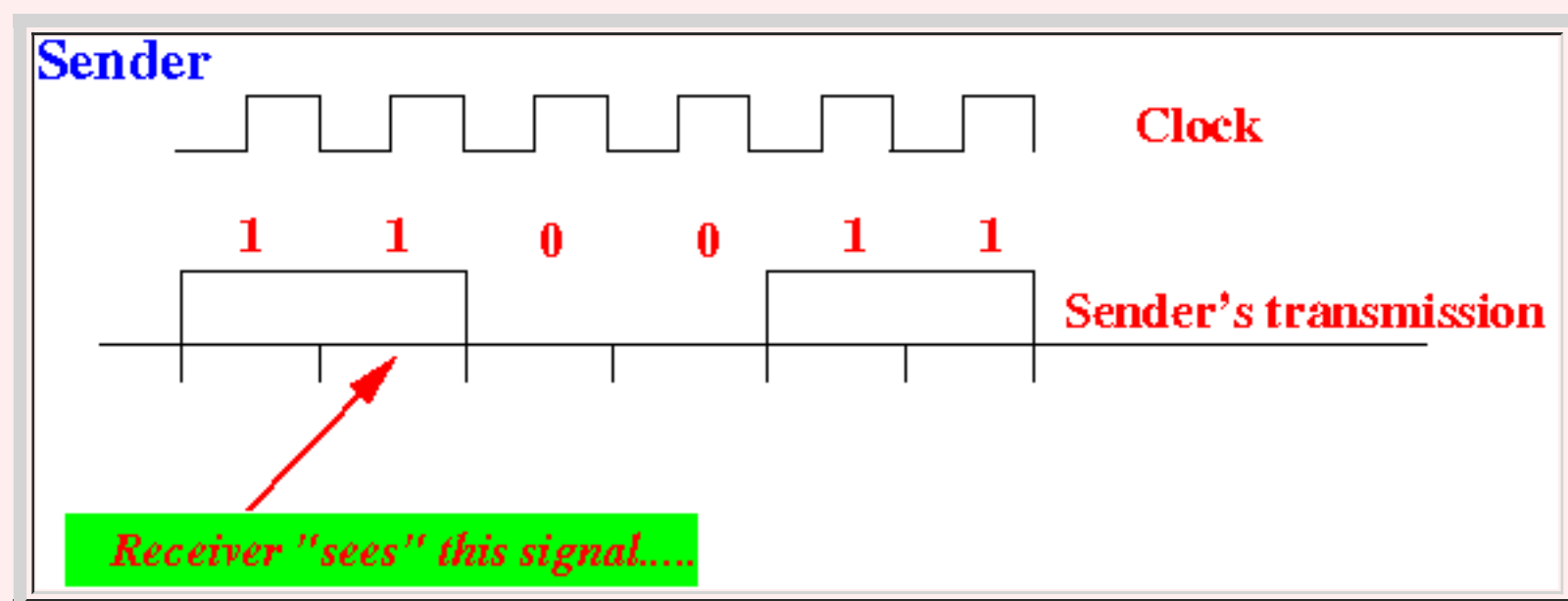
- **When** can you re-synchronize the receiver's clock ???

Problem:

- The **receiver** can **not** "see" the **sender's clock**:



- The **receiver** can **only** "see" the **transmission** from the **sender**:



- **This** is what the **receiver** will "see":

Receiver:

Received transmission



- **When** can the receiver **perform** a **clock (re-)synchronization** ???

I.e.:

- Which **moments** can the receiver **know for sure what** the **state** of the sender's **clock** is ???

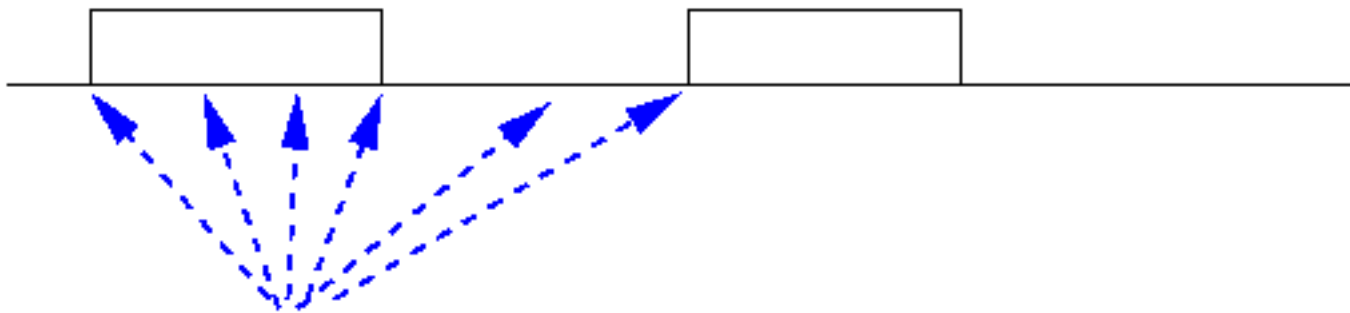
- \$64,000 question:

- **Which** moment(s) in **time** can you know **for sure** that the sender's **clock** is at the **beginning** of a **clock period** ???

Pictorially:

Receiver:

Received transmission



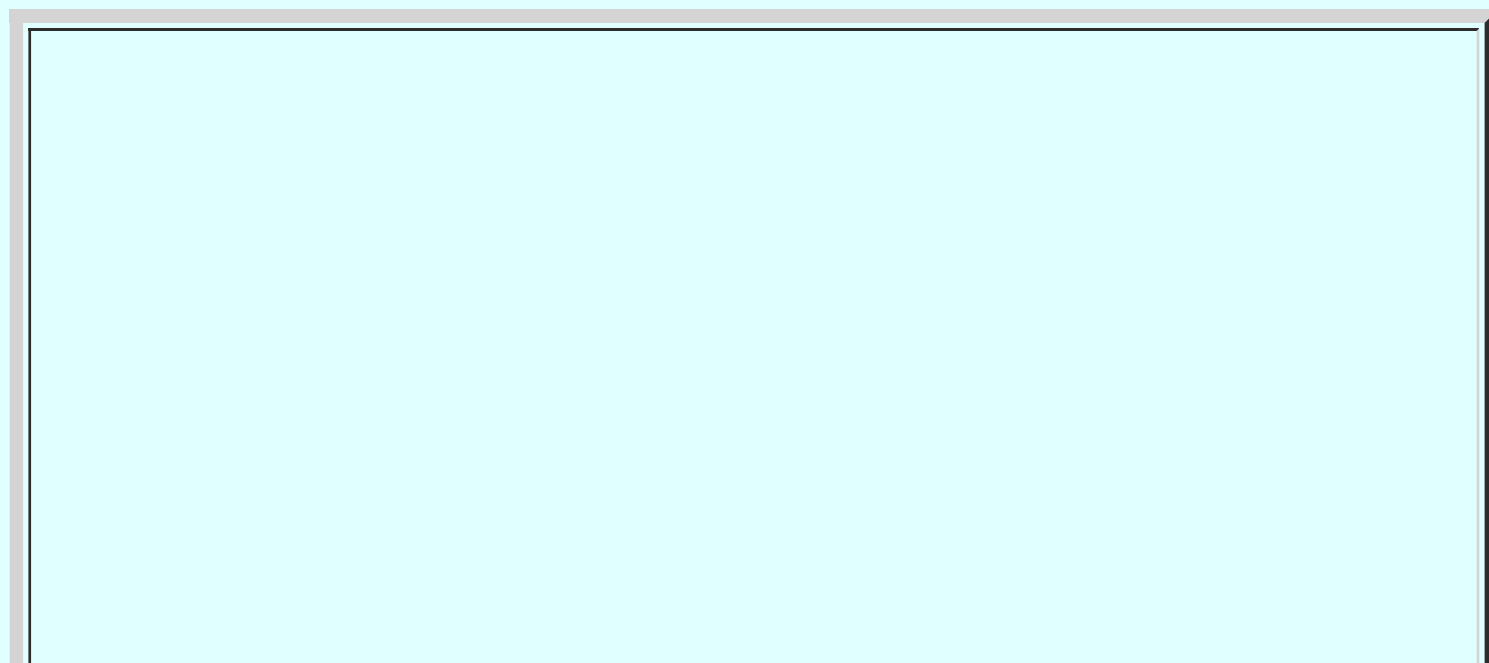
Which points in time can you tell when the sender's clock is starting ?

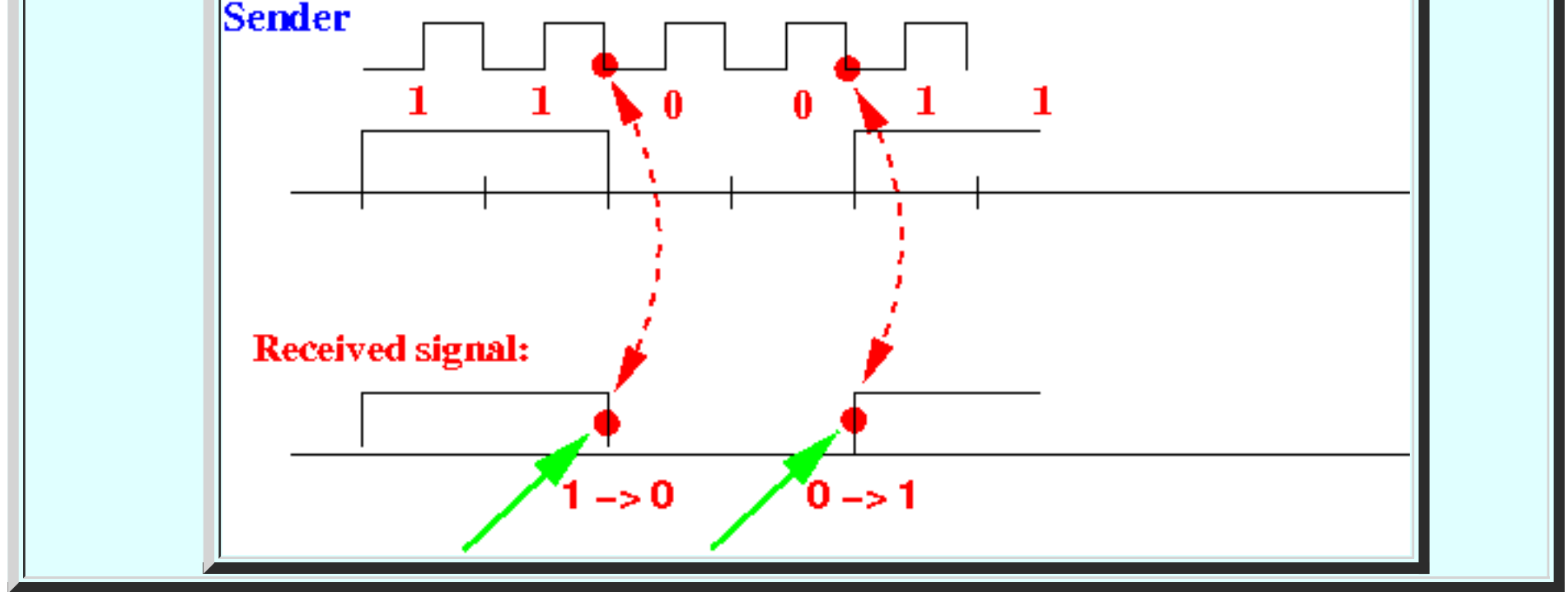
Answer:

- **Receiver** can **re-synchronize** its **clock** when the **received signal** makes the following **transition**:

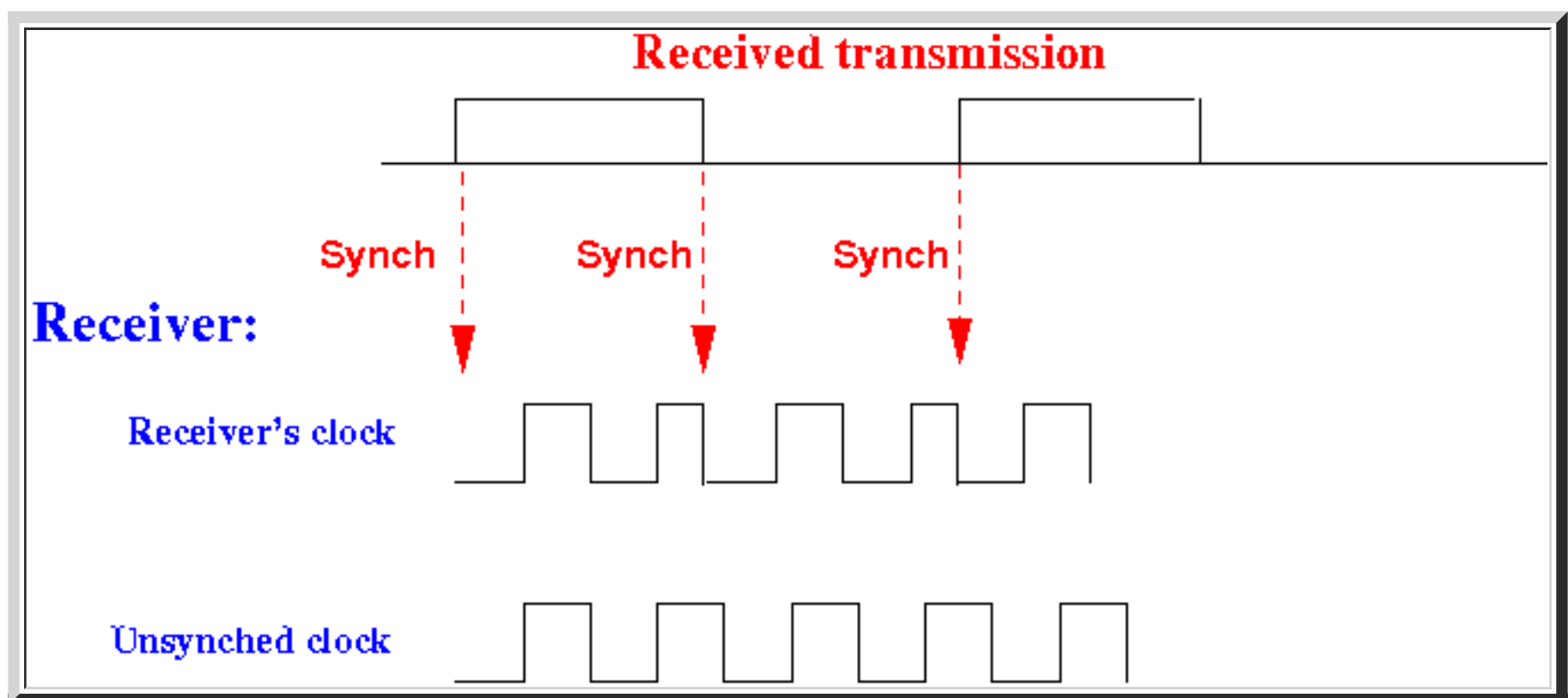
- from **0 → 1** or
- from **1 → 0**:

Graphically:

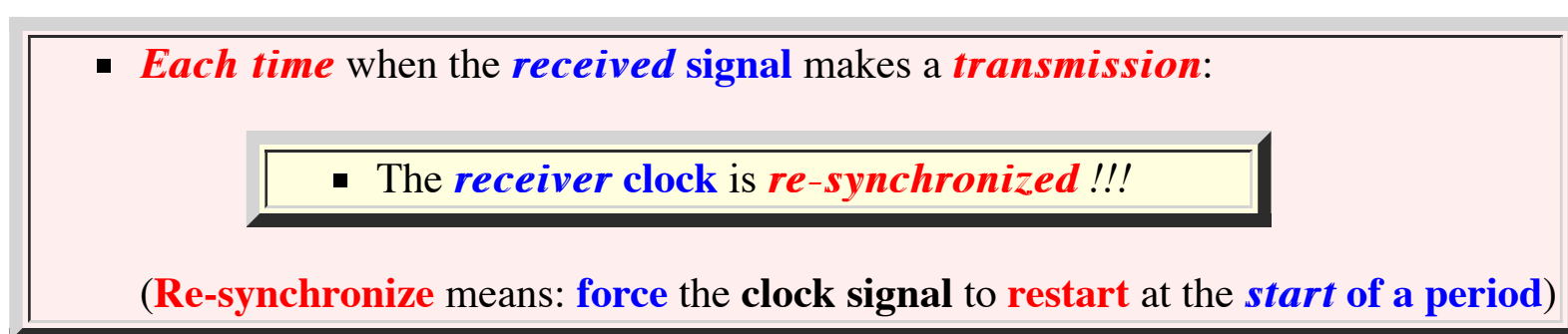




Example:

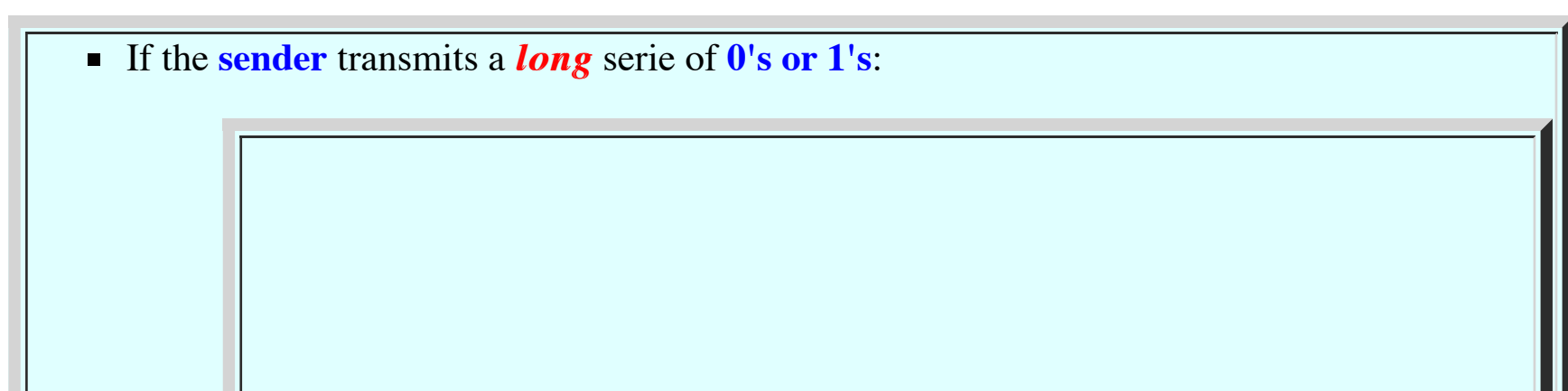


◦ **General practice:**



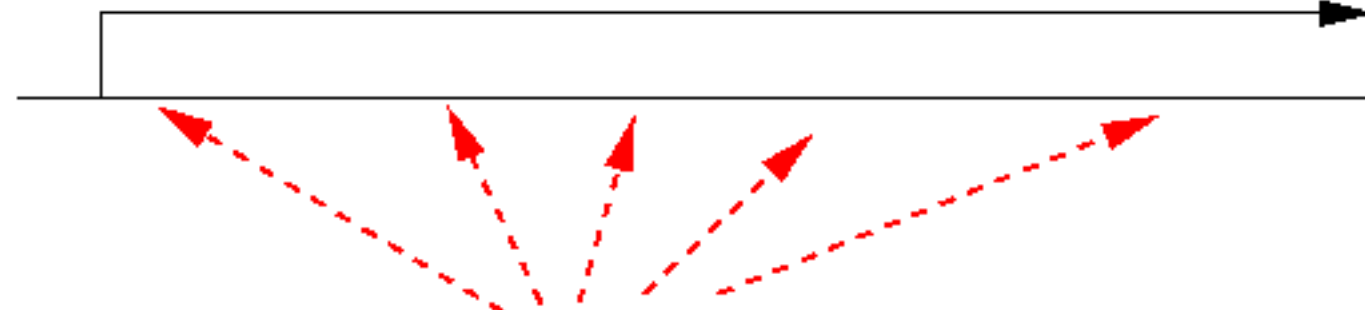
• **Wait !!!** There is still a problem...

◦ There is **still** a **problem**:



Receiver:

Received transmission



No way to re-synch !!!

the **receiver** can **not** perform **re-synchronize**

◦ **Solution ???**

▪ **More complicated transmission encoding !!!**

The NRZ (Non-Return to Zero) transmission code

- Digital transmission *codes*

- There are **2 signaling levels** in *binary digital transmission*:

- low* (= 0)
- high* (= 1)

- However:*


- There are *different ways* to *signal data* using these **2 signal levels** !!


- We will look at some **commonly used** schemes

- Each **signaling scheme** has its **strengths** and *also*, it's **weakness(es)**
(The **law of "conservation of misery"** --- Herman Bavinck)

- The Non-return-to-zero (NRZ) code

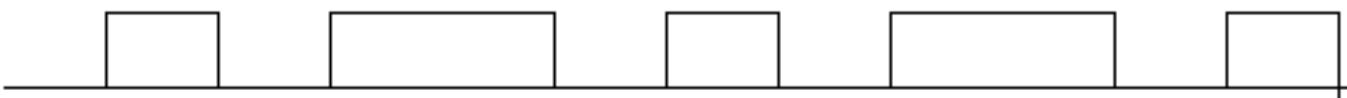
- The **Non-return-to-zero (NRZ)** encoding scheme:

0 signal

no pulse

1 signal

pulse

(It's the *most intuitive* code :))

- Example:

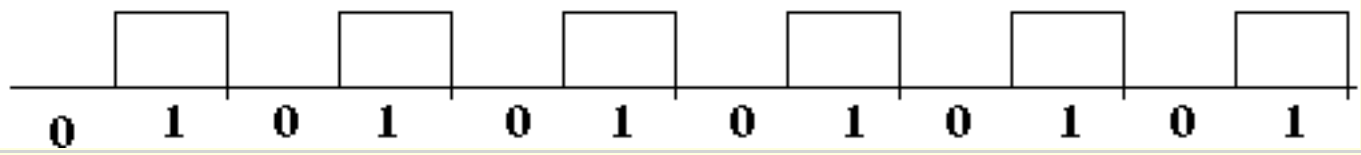
A NRZ signal

0 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 1 0 1

- Advantage:**

- The *highest frequency* of the **transmitted signal** is **relatively low**
Explanation:

- The **signal** will **vary** at its *fastest rate* when you transmit as string of **01010101....**:

Fastest varying NRZ signal:



- Compare to *other signalling codes* (that you will learn *later*), this **signal form** varies at the *lowest rate possible* !

◦ **Disadvantage:**

- There are **situations** where the **receiver** *cannot synchronize* its clock with the **sender's clock**:

Example:

Message: 11111111111111111111111111111111....



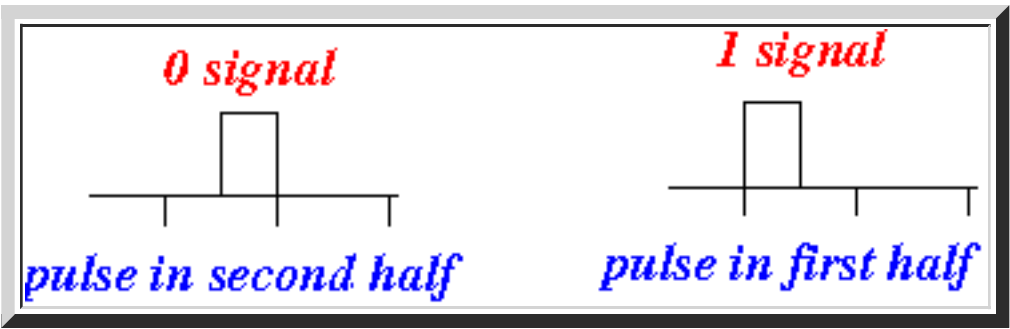
(There is **no transmission** in the signal so the **receiver** can **not perform re-synchronization** !)

◦ **Common Practice:**

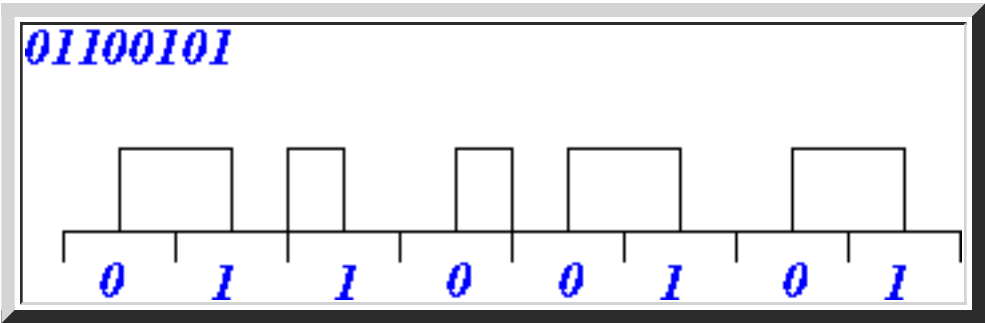
- Because of its *shortcoming*, the **NRZ** code is *only used* for *very short transmissions* (e.g., transmit **1 byte (= 8 bits)**)

The *Manchester* transmission code

- Manchester encoding: *embedding* the clock in the signal
 - The **Manchester** transmission *code*:

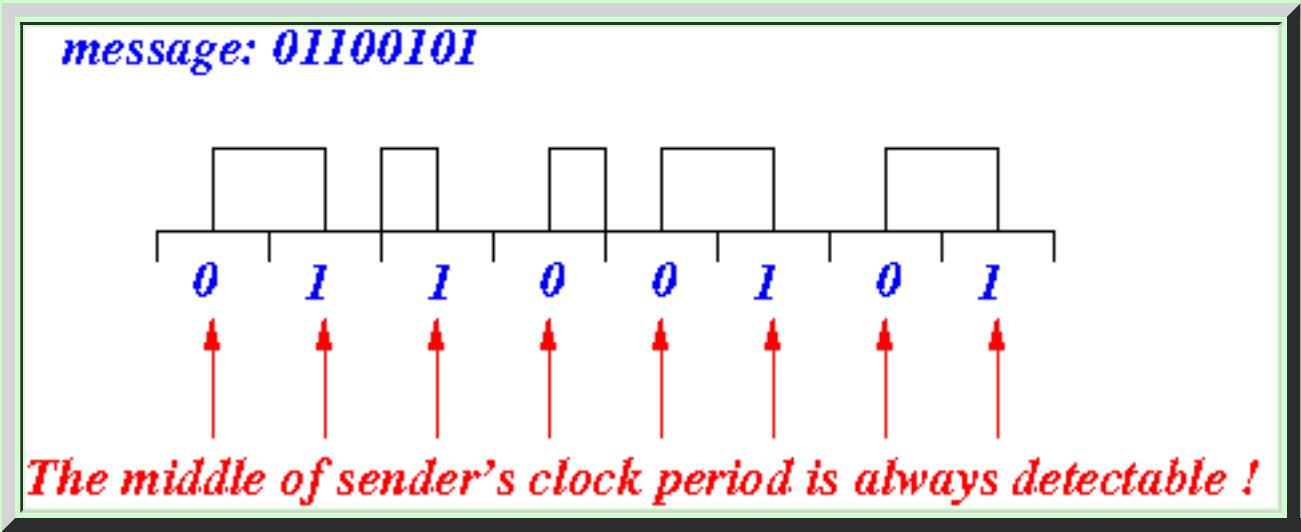


- Example:



- Advantage:

- The receiver can *always synchronize* its clock at *every* transmitted bit:
Reason: there is a *transition* at the *middle* of the signal (which is *detectable*)



- Therefore:

- The **Manchester** code is *ideal* for *very long* digital

transmissions (packet length of several Kbytes).

- **Practice in real life:**

- **Ethernet packets** can be as long as **1500 bytes**

- Ethernet uses the **Manchester code !!!**

- **NOTE:**

- The **synchronization operation** using **Manchester code** will **reset** the *receiver's clock* to the **middle** of a clock period
(It's easy to do, take **CS355** if you want to learn more about this).

- The **ability** to **synchronize clocks** does **not** come **cheaply**....

- **Disadvantage:**

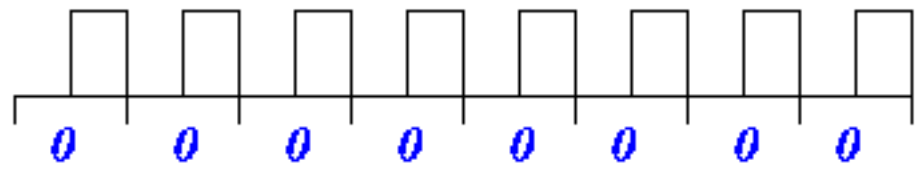
- The **highest frequency** of the **transmitted signal** is **relatively high**

In fact:

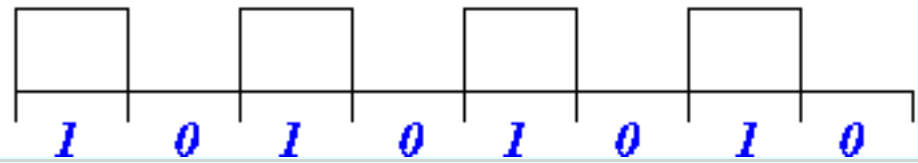
- The **highest frequency** used by the **Manchester scheme** is **twice** as large as the highest frequency used in the **NRZ method**

- **Example:** the **highest frequency** signal using **Manchester code** is achieved when you transmit a string of **00000000...**:

Highest possible wave frequency in Manchester



Highest possible wave frequency in NRZ



I drew the **highest frequency** of a **signal** using **NRZ** below in the **above figure**.

You can see the **Manchester code** signal has **2 times** the **frequency** as the **NRZ code** signal.

The 4B/5B trnasmission code

- 4B/5B code: fixing the *synchronization* in NRZ problem cheaply...
 - The 4B/5B code:

- 4B/5B code = a very clever way to provide *synchronization opportunities* to the receiver by:

- Encoding 4 bits using 5 bits
 - The encoding of 5 bits makes sure that there is a transition within the 5 bits

- Operation using 4B/5B code:

- The data is *first transformed* using the 4B/5B encoding scheme
- The encoded result is transmitted using the NRZ code as its basic transmission scheme

Note:

- When the receiver received the transmitted data, it must use the reverse mapping of the 4B/5B encoding scheme to obtain the transmitted data.

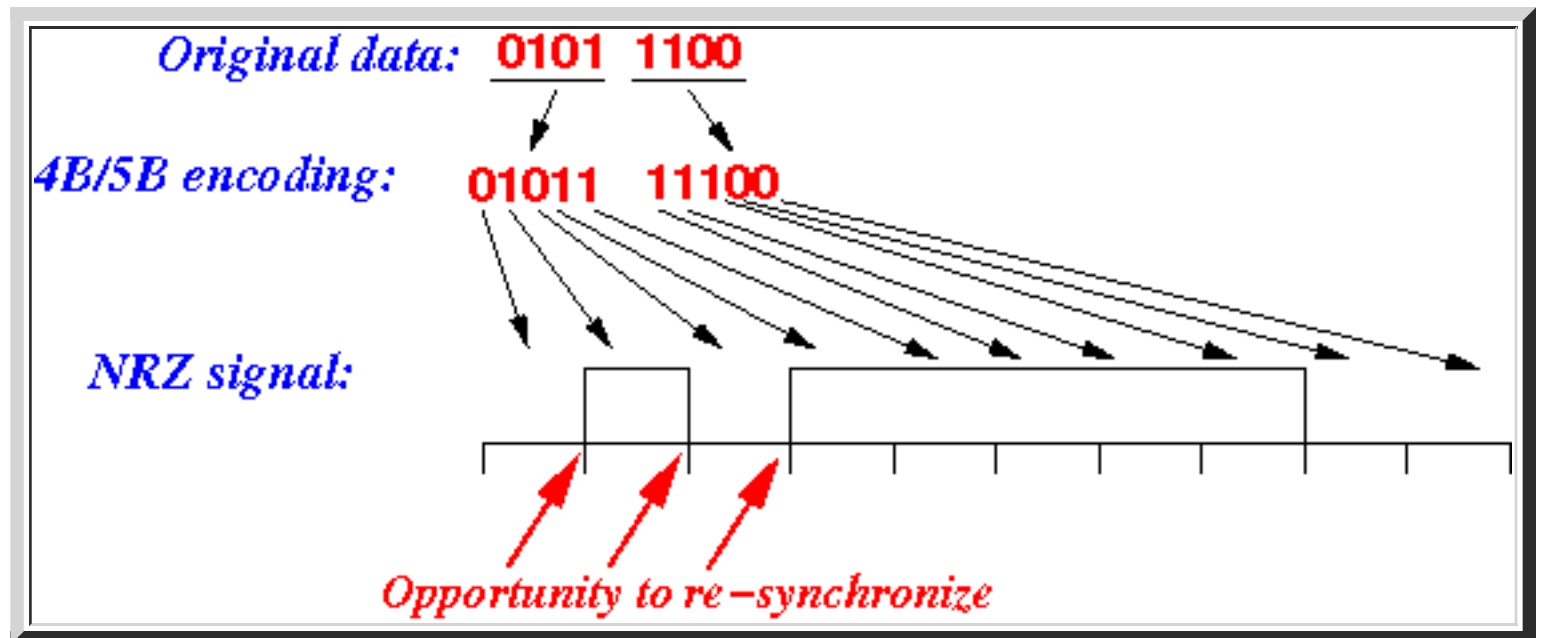
- 4B/5B mapping scheme:

Original 4 bits	Transformed 4 bits
=====	=====
0000	11110
0001	01001
0010	10100
0011	10101
0100	01010
0101	01011
0110	01110
0111	01111
1000	10010
1001	10011
1010	10110
1011	10111
1100	11010
1101	11011

1110
1111

11100
11101

- Example using 4B5B:



- Notice that:

- After *transforming* the original sequence of bits, the **result sequence** will have:

- *at most 3* consecutive 0 bits

One way to transmit **3 consecutive 0 bits** is: 0010 (which is transformed to 10100) followed by 0100 (which is transformed to 01010)

Original 4 bits	Transformed 4 bits
=====	=====
0000	11110
0001	01001
0010	10100
0011	10101
0100	01010
0101	01011
0110	01110
0111	01111
1000	10010
1001	10011
1010	10110
1011	10111
1100	11010
1101	11011
1110	11100
1111	11101

- *at most 8* consecutive 1 bits

This will happen when you transmit: **0111** (which is transformed to **01111**) followed by **0000** (which is transformed to **11110**)

Original 4 bits	Transformed 4 bits
0000	11110
0001	01001
0010	10100
0011	10101
0100	01010
0101	01011
0110	01110
0111	01111
1000	10010
1001	10011
1010	10110
1011	10111
1100	11010
1101	11011
1110	11100
1111	11101

Intro: transmitting *digital* data using *analog* signals

- *Digital* data and *analog* signals

- Digital data:

- **Digital data** consists of **discrete values**

- **Discrete values** can *always* be **mapped** onto **integer (whole) numbers**

Example:

- **Discrete value set:**

- {**single, married, divorced, widowed**}

- **Mapping (representation)** to *integers*:

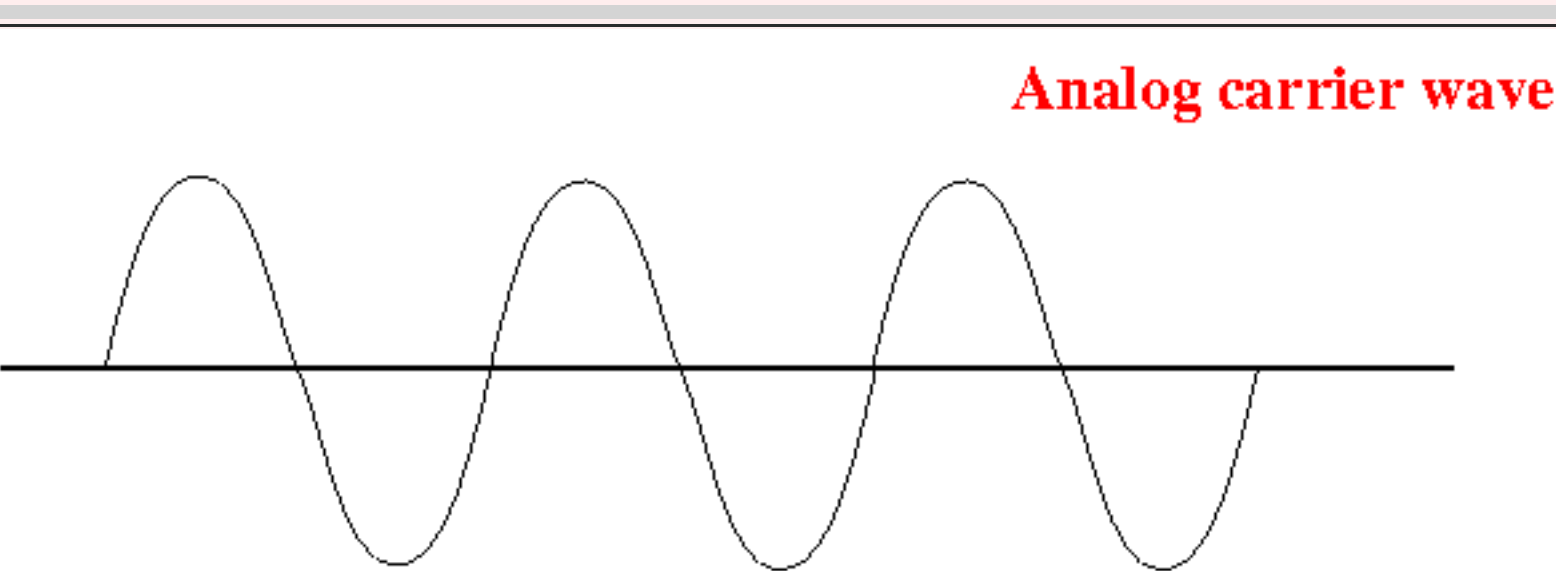
0	=	single
1	=	married
2	=	divorced
3	=	widowed

- **Integer (whole) numbers** in computer communication are **represented** using the **Binary Number System**:

0	-->	00
1	-->	01
2	-->	10
3	-->	11

- Analog signals:

- The *basic analog signal* is the **sine wave**:



- Transmitting *digital* data using *analog* signals

- Transmitting *any kind* data using *analog signal* means:

- **Modulate (change)** the **sine wave** using the *input data*
-
-

- Transmitting *digital* data using *analog signal* means:

- **Modulate (change)** the **sine wave** to **represent** the values **0 and 1**
-
-

- **Recall:**

- There are **3 modulation methods**:

- **Amplitude Modulation (AM)**: Change the **amplitude** of the (sine) wave
 - **Frequency Modulation (FM)**: Change the **frequency** of the (sine) wave
 - **Phase Modulation**: Change the **phase** of the (sine) wave
-
-
-
-

Transmitting *digital* data using *amplitude* modulation

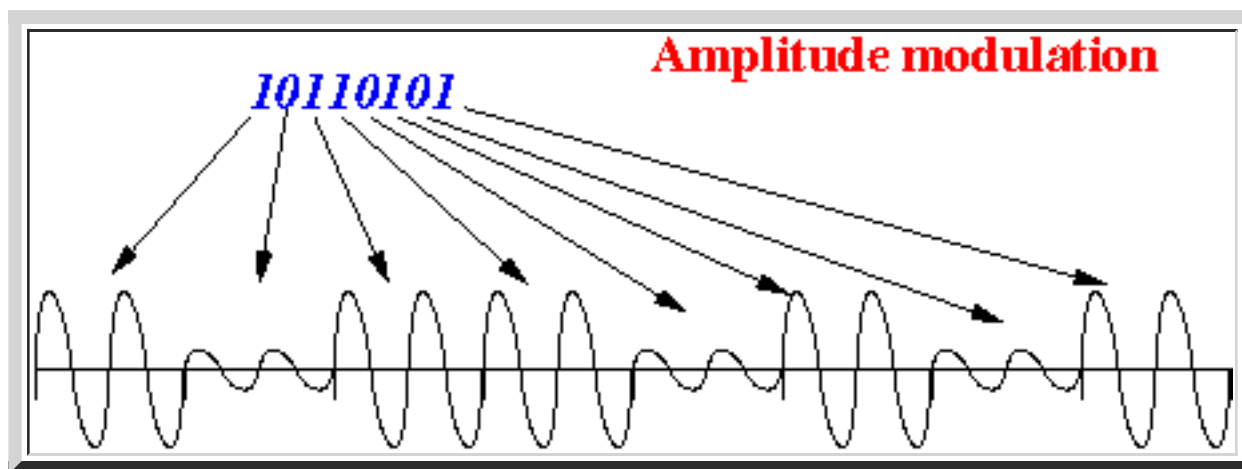
- Transmitting *digital* data using *Amplitude* Modulation

- The **amplitude** of a **wave** determines its **loudness**...

- **Amplitude modulation:**

- **0** = transmit a *softer* signal for **one time unit** and
- **1** = a *loud* signal for **one time** unit

Example: (in example, **1 time unit** = **2 sine waves**)

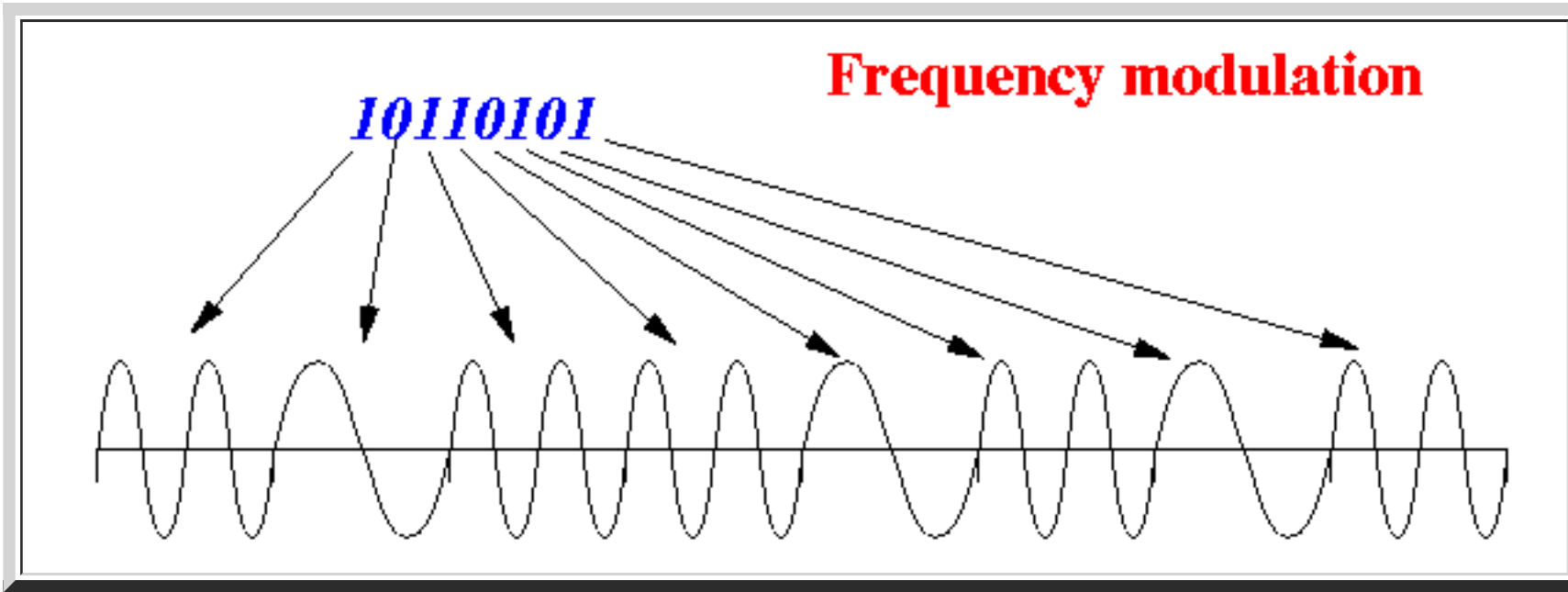


Transmitting *digital* data using *frequency* modulation

- Transmitting *digital* data using *Frequency* Modulation
 - The **frequency** of a **wave** determines the **pitch** (of the tone)
 - **Frequency modulation:**

- **0** = a *lower pitch* tone for **one time unit** and
- **1** = a *high pitch* tone for **one time unit**

Example: (in example, **1 time unit** = **2 sine waves**)

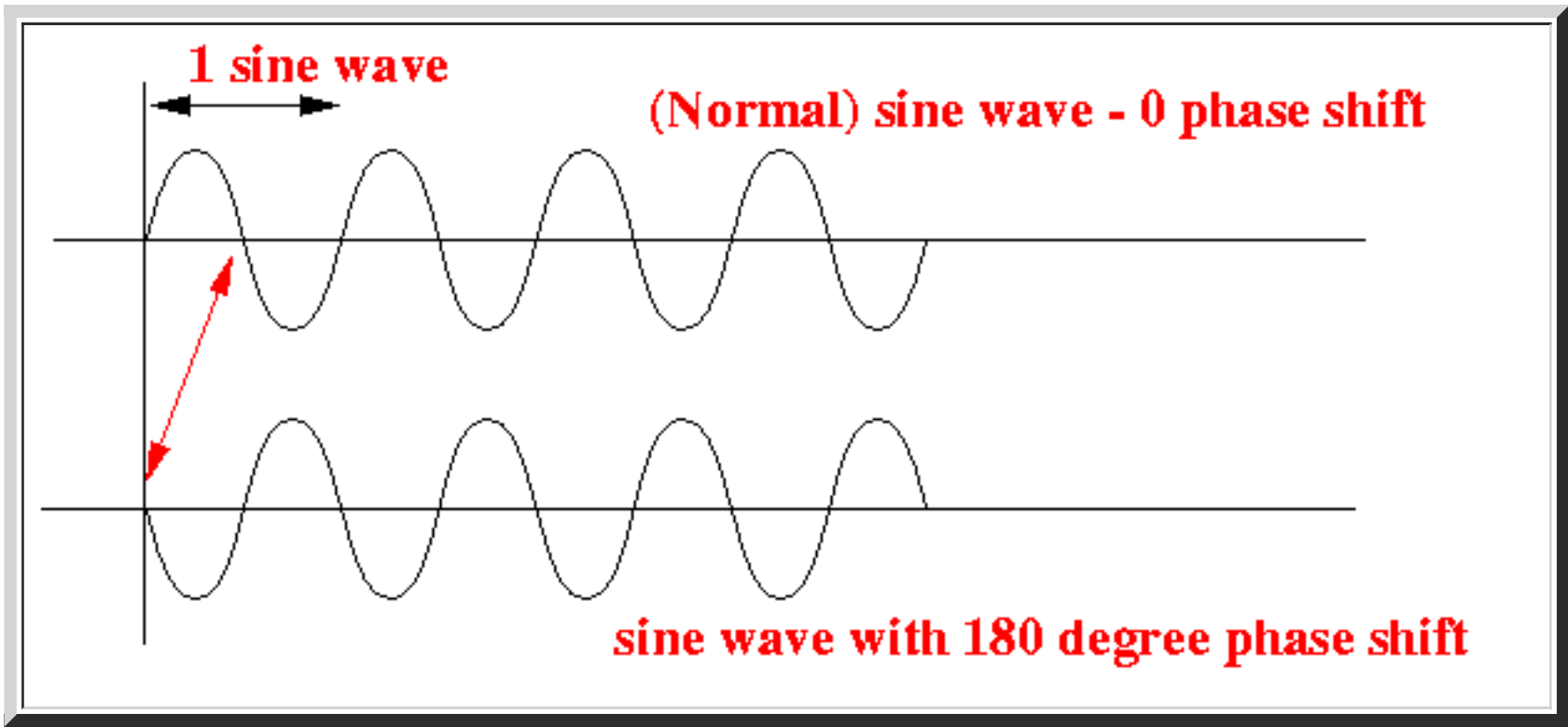


- **Cool demo** on **YouTube** on **Frequency Modulation**: [click here](#)

Transmitting *digital* data using *phase* modulation

- Transmitting *digital* data using *Phase* Modulation
 - The **phase** of a (sine) wave is the **shift** in the **x-axis** direction

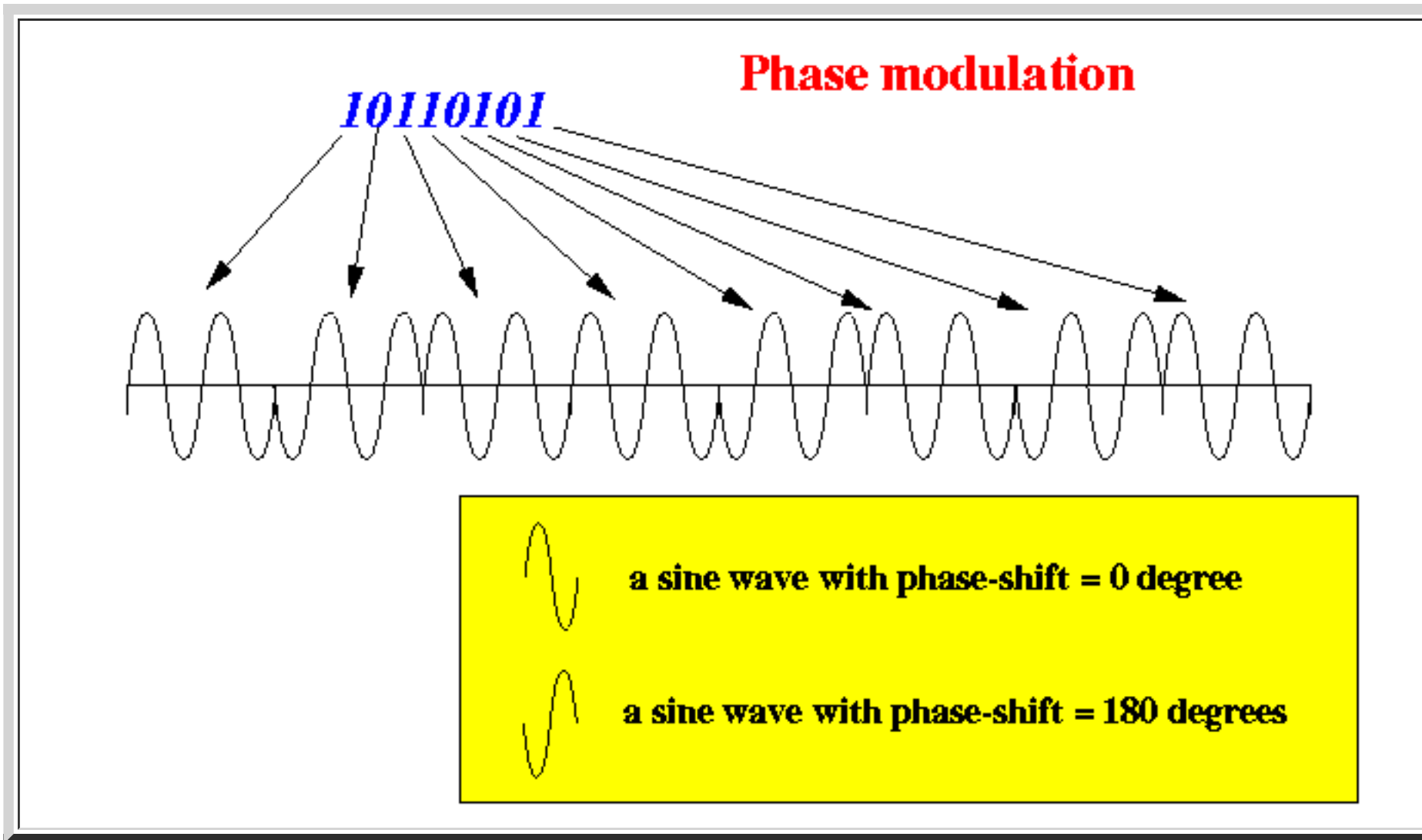
Example:



- **Phase modulation:**

- **0** = a sine wave with **0 phase shift** for **one time unit**
- **1** = a sine wave with **180 degree phase shift** for **one time unit**

Example:



Transmitting *digital* data using a *combination* of modulation techniques

- Combining modulating techniques in *digital* data transmission

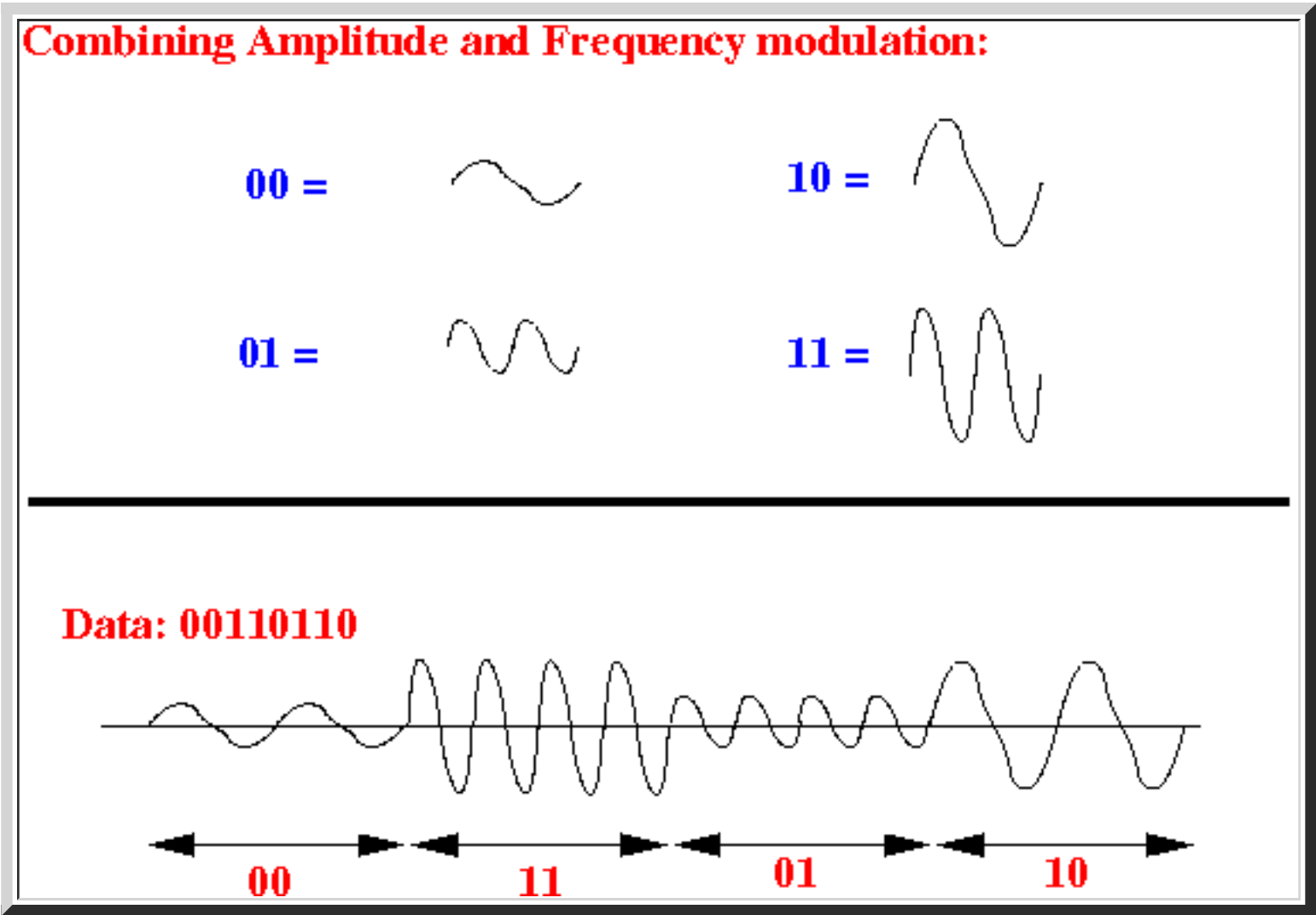
- Fact:

- It is **common** to **combine** the above **3 modulation methods** to achieve a **higher data rate**

Example: combining **amplitude** and **frequency**

00	low	amplitude	and	low	frequency
01	low	amplitude	and	high	frequency
10	high	amplitude	and	low	frequency
11	high	amplitude	and	high	frequency

Graphical example:



Notice that:

- We can **now** transmit:

- **2 bits** using **1 sine wave**

- **Historical fact:**

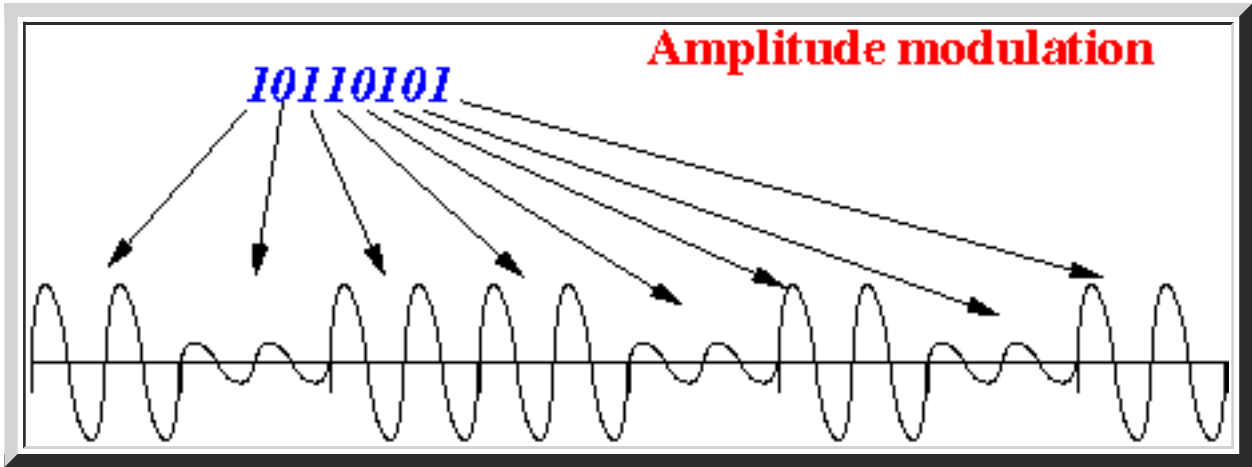
- **Modems** (which was used around **1990**) use a **combination** of all **3 techniques** and can achieve upto **56Kbps**:



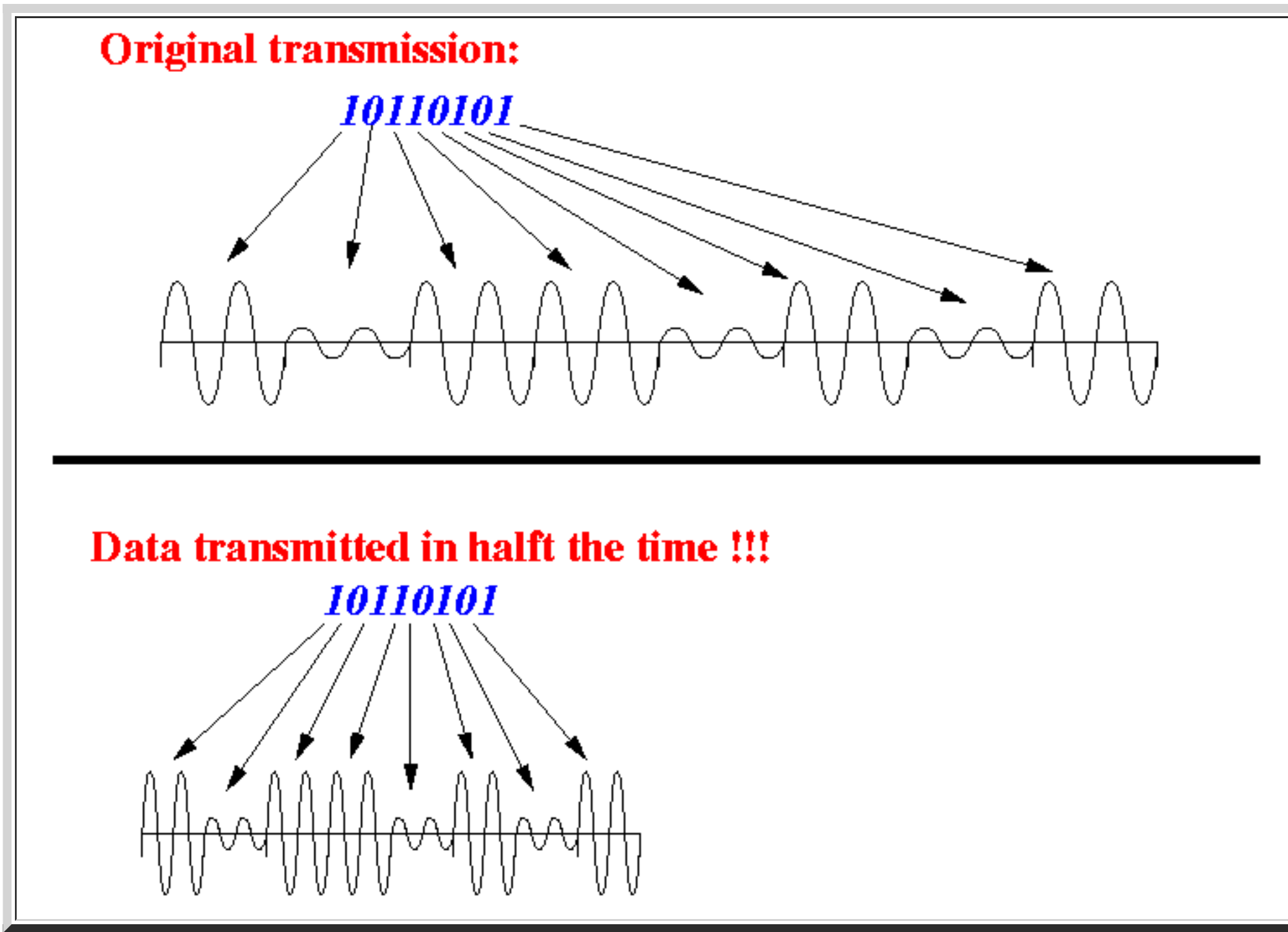
- which was the **maximum** possible **data rate** on a **telephone line**

Bandwidth and *maximum* transmission rate

- **How to transmit data *faster***
 - **Recall:** transmitting **digital data** using *amplitude modulation*:



- **One way** to **transmit** data **faster** is use a *higher frequency* signal:



- **So:**

■ We can **achieve *infinitely high*** data **transmission rates** ???

Obviously not... by *why* ???

• Interesting question....

◦ Question:

▪ **Why** can't we transmit **tera bytes** of **data** per **second** over - for example - a **copper wire** ???

◦ More *precisely*:

▪ **What prevents** us from transmitting **tera bytes** of **data** per **second** over a **copper wire** ???

Speed limitation in *wireless* transmissions

- **Signal used in wireless transmissions**
 - **Wireless transmission:**

- Always use **electro-magnetic waves**

- Note: *light* is *also* a form of **electro-magnetic wave** !!!

Example: **radio wave**



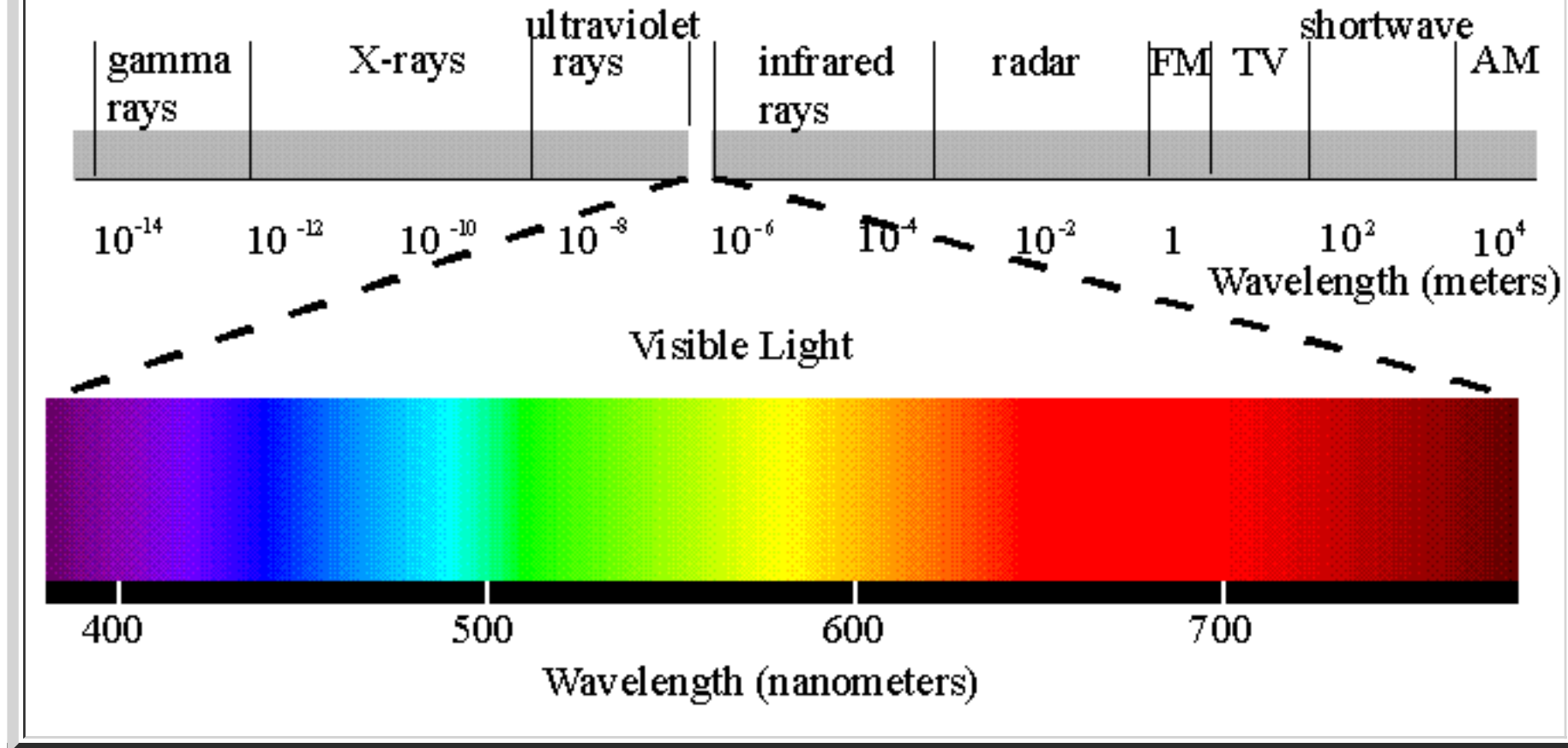
- **The *spectrum* of Electro-Magnetic waves**
 - Electro-magnetic waves goes by **many *different names***, such as:

- **Radio wave** (this is what **ordinary people** would think of...)
- **Light** !!
- **Micro-wave** (the kind of **electro-magnetic waves** used to **cook**)
- **X-ray**
- And so on....

The ***difference*** between the **electro-magnetic waves** above is:

- Their ***frequency***....

- The **frequencies** of **electro-magnetic waves** spans a **very wide range**:



- **Transmission data at *higher* (data) rate**

- **Fact:**

- **Higher data rate** transmissions must use a **high frequency** electro-magnetic wave signal

- **Consequence:**

- To achieve **very high data rate**, we would have to use **X-ray or gamma-ray** !!!

- These **rays** are **harmful** to **biological entities** !!!!

- **Breaking news....**

- **Cell phone** and **brain cancer**:

- Be careful with your **cell phones**:

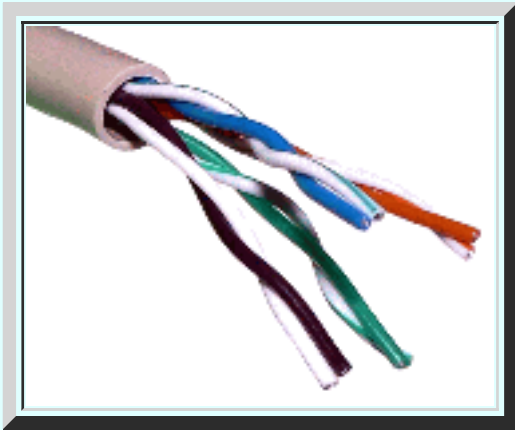
- Cellphone radiation can cause cancer: [click here](#)

(**Cellphone** operates at **frequencies** that is **very close** to **micro-wave** --- the kind of **waves** used to **cook food**....

Transmission media

- *Commonly used* Transmission media
 - *Commonly used* wired **transmission media**:

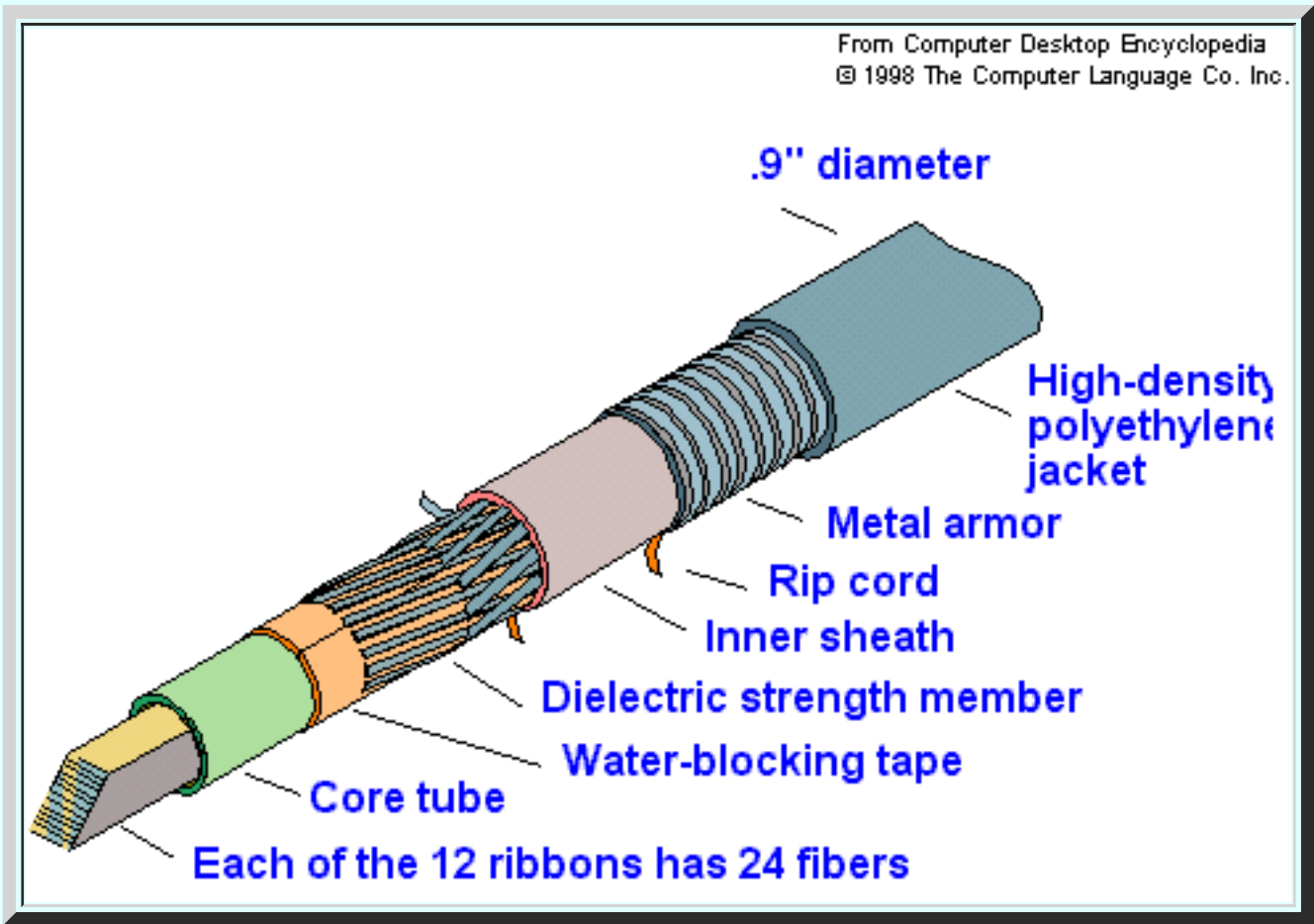
- **Twisted pair** of (**copper**) wires (good)



- **Coaxial cable** - (better)



- **Optical Fiber** (best)



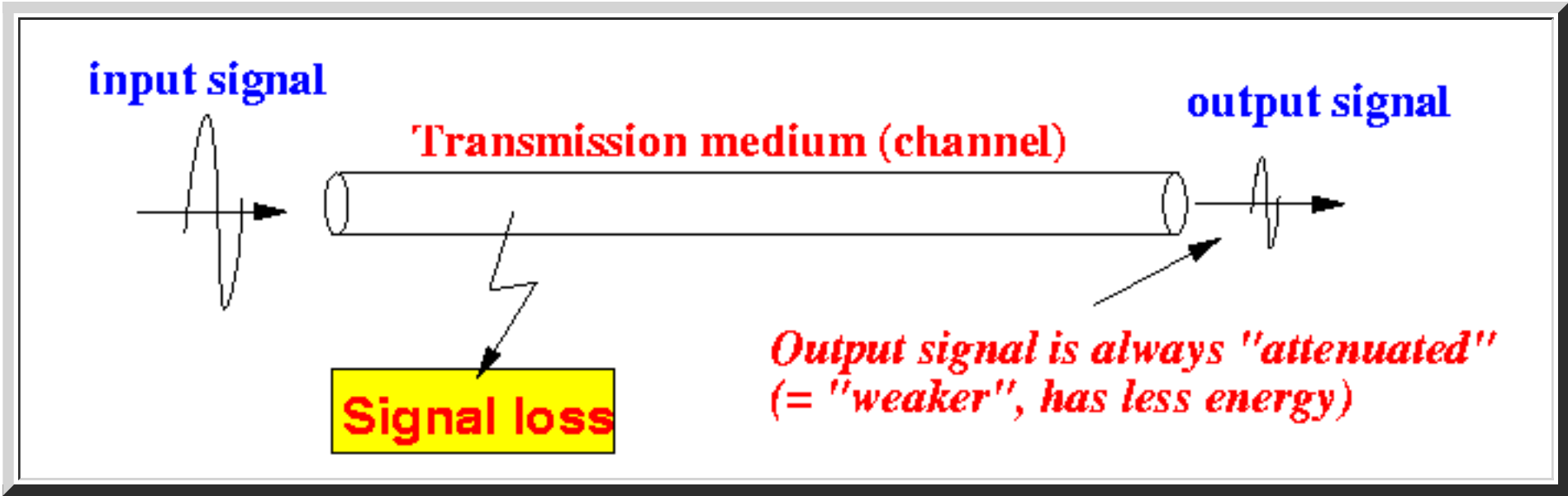
Transmission over a copper wire

- Energy loss in signal transmission in copper wires

- Physics:

- When an **electrical signal** (= electricity) *traverse* through a **copper wire**, the always **lose** some *power*

Graphically:



Terminology:

- **Attenuation** = **loss** of **power**

- Source of power loss

- There are **2 ways** that an **electrical signal** can **lose power**:

- **Resistance** (in the **wire**):

Resistance in the **wire** will cause **some** of the **energy** in the **signal** to be **converted** into **heat**

- **Radiation**:



When the **frequency** of the **electric current** is **very high**, an **alternating current** will generate a **strong electro-magnetic field**.

The **wire** will work like an **antenna** - and some **energy** of the **signal** will **radiate** away....

◦ **Fact from Physics:**

- The **amount** of **power loss** depends on:

- The **resistance** of the **transmission medium**
- The **frequency** of the **electro-magnetic signal** (= how **much** of the **power** will **radiate** away).

• **Energy loss characteristics**

- The **energy loss characteristics** is as follows:

- When the **(alternating) electric current** has a **very low frequency**:

- the **current** encounters **high electrical resistance**.
(**DC** current generates a **low** of **heat** !!!!)

Result:

- A **large portion of the energy** in the **transmitted signal** is **lost** because the **energy** is converted into **heat**

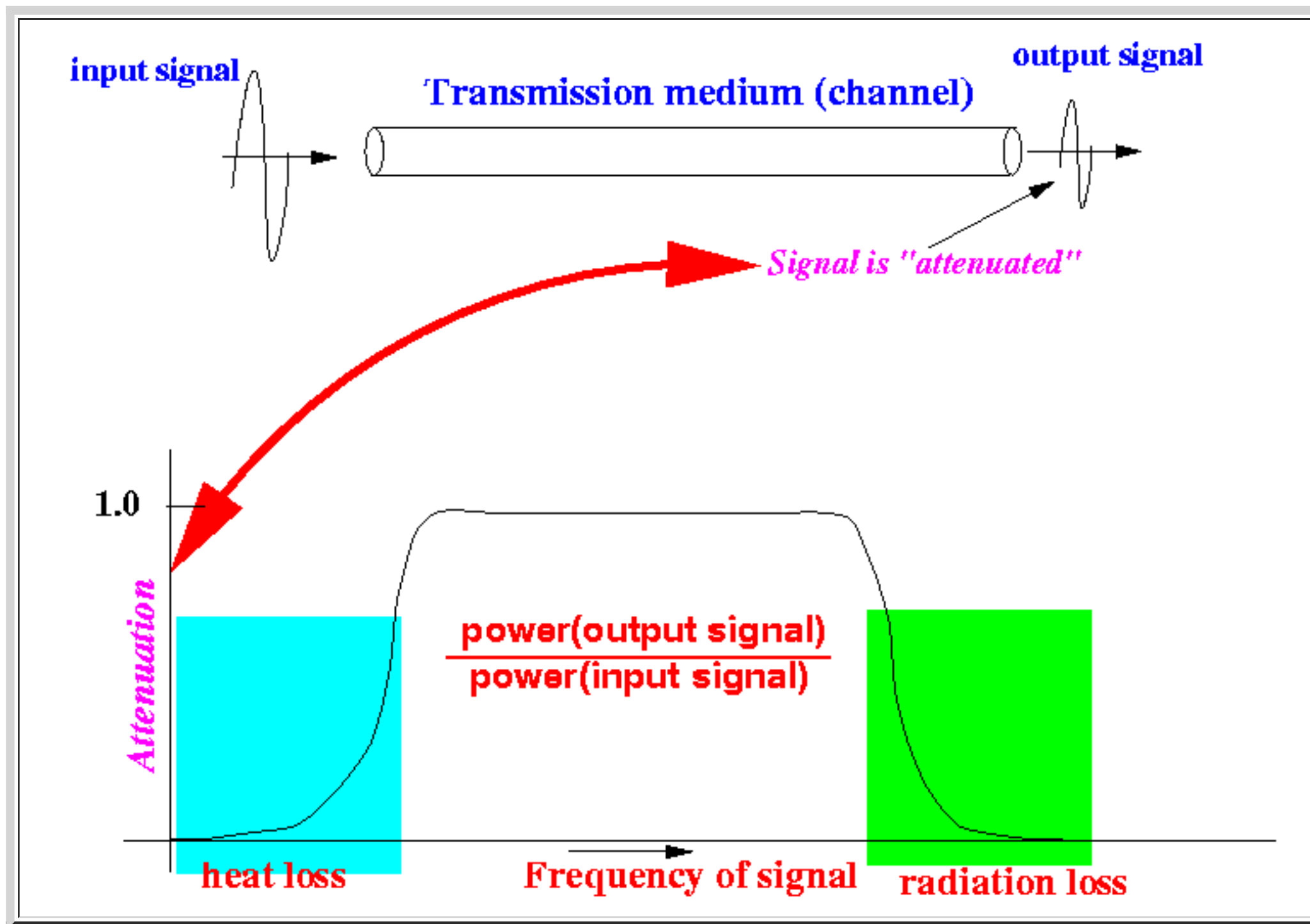
- When the **(alternating) electric current** has a **very high frequency**:

- the **current** will generate a **strong electro-magnetic field**.

Result:

- A **large portion of the energy** in the **transmitted signal** is **lost** because the **energy** is converted into **electro-magnetic wave (radiation)**

- **Energy loss characteristic** of a **wire** transmission medium is as follows:



The *bandwidth* of a transmission medium

- *Acceptable* level of power loss
 - **Acceptable** loss **threshold** (set by **electrocal engineers**):

$$\frac{\text{power}(\text{output signal})}{\text{power}(\text{input signal})} \geq \ln 2 \approx 0.7$$

This **value** is known as the **half-power point**: [click here](#)

- *Range of acceptable* frequencies of a transmission media

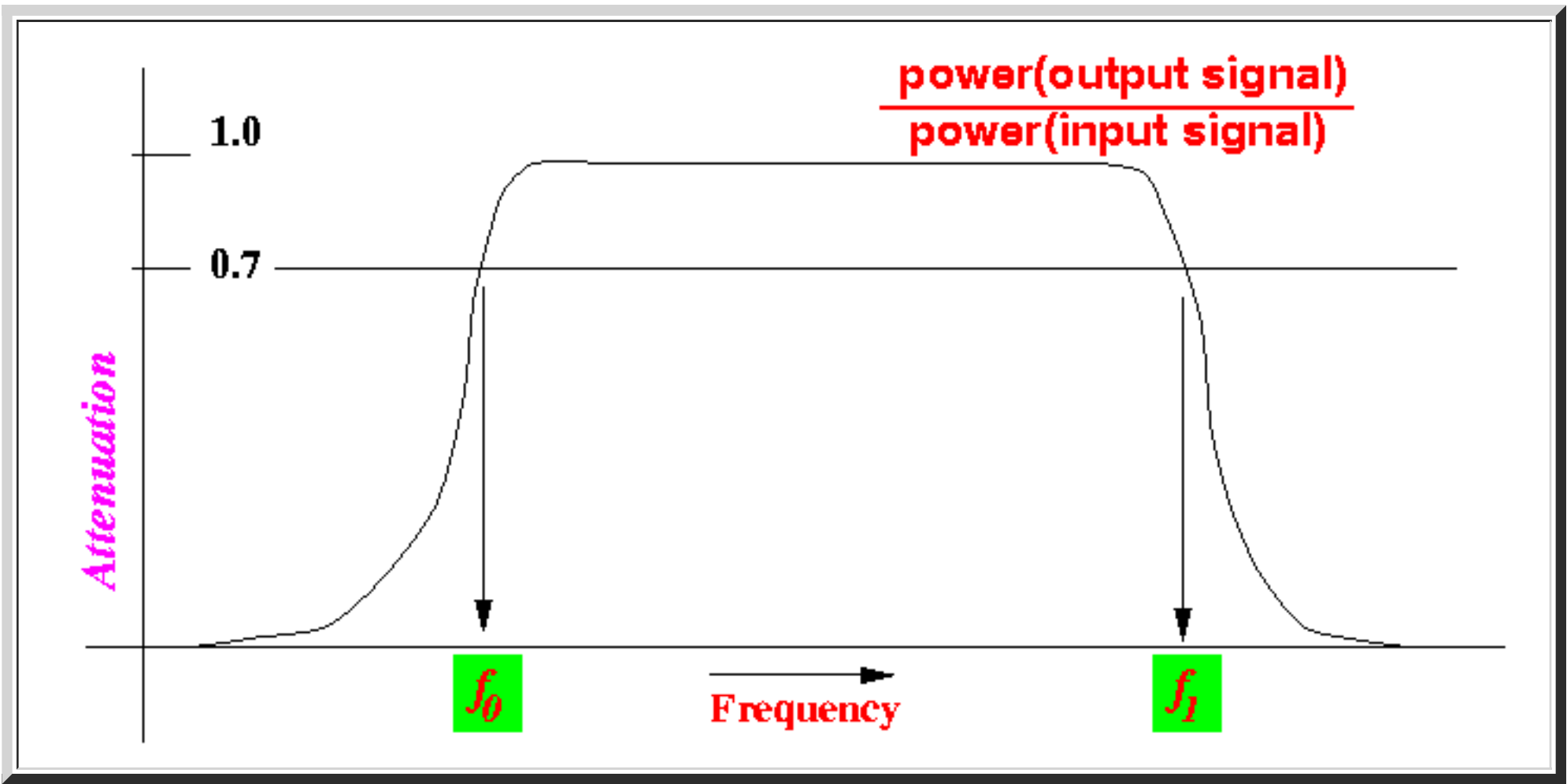
- **Definitions:**

- Let f_0 = the **low end frequency** such that:

$$\frac{\text{power}(\text{output signal})}{\text{power}(\text{input signal})} = \ln 2 = 0.7$$
- Let f_1 = the **high end frequency** such that:

$$\frac{\text{power}(\text{output signal})}{\text{power}(\text{input signal})} = \ln 2 = 0.7$$

- **Graphically:** the *frequencies* f_0 and f_1 are defined as follows:



- **Fact:**

- **Electrical signals (= alternating current))** that have a **frequency** between f_0 and f_1 will pass through the

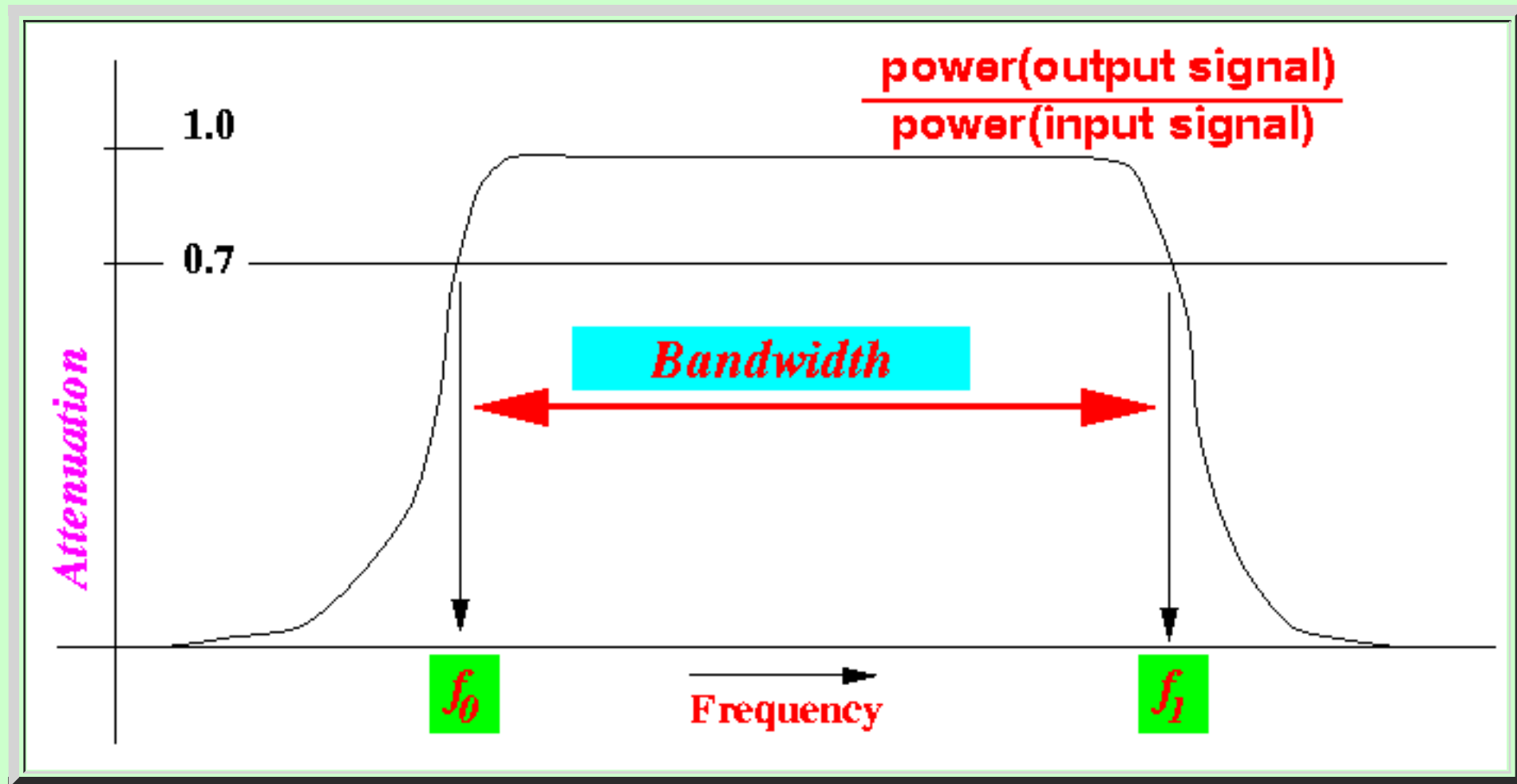
transmission medium with *relatively little loss* of energy

- **Bandwidth** of a communication medium

- Definition: **bandwidth** of a communication medium:

- **Bandwidth** of a **communication medium** (a.k.a., **transmission channel**) = $f_1 - f_0$

Graphically:



Fact:

- There is a **direct relationship** between

- **Bandwidth** of a **communication channel** and
- **Maximum transmission rate** of the **communication channel** (= how *fast* you can **transmit** communication channel)

This **relationship** is called the **Shannon formula** and will be discussed **next**

Data transmission rate and frequency

- **Data (transmission) rate**

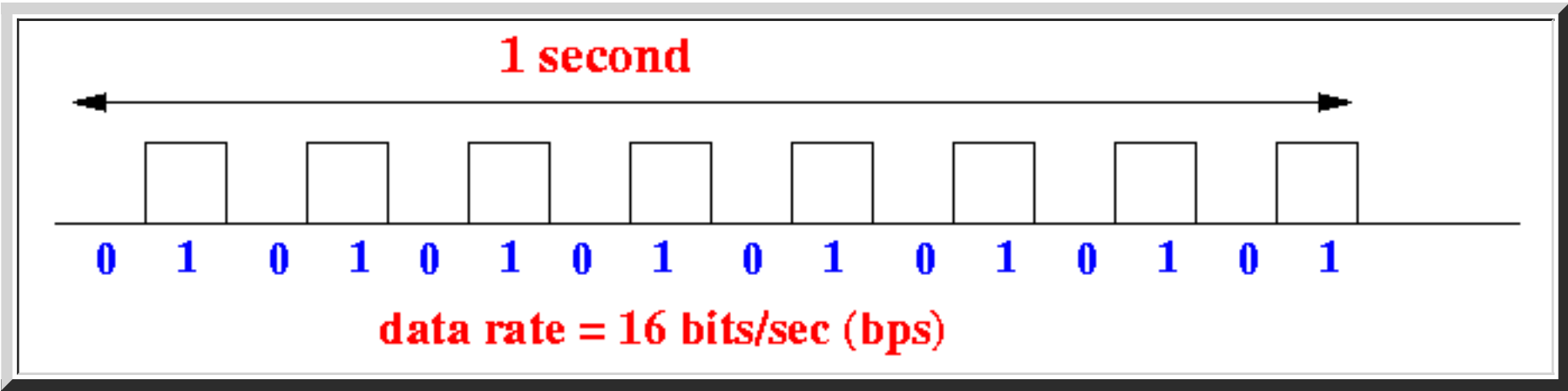
- **Fact:**

- **Computer communication** often use *digital signalling*
(I.e., computers transmit a **series** of **pulses** that represent **bits**)

- **Definition: data rate**

- **data rate** (or data transmission rate) = **number of bits** transmitted in **one second**
- **Unit** is: **bits/sec**

Example:

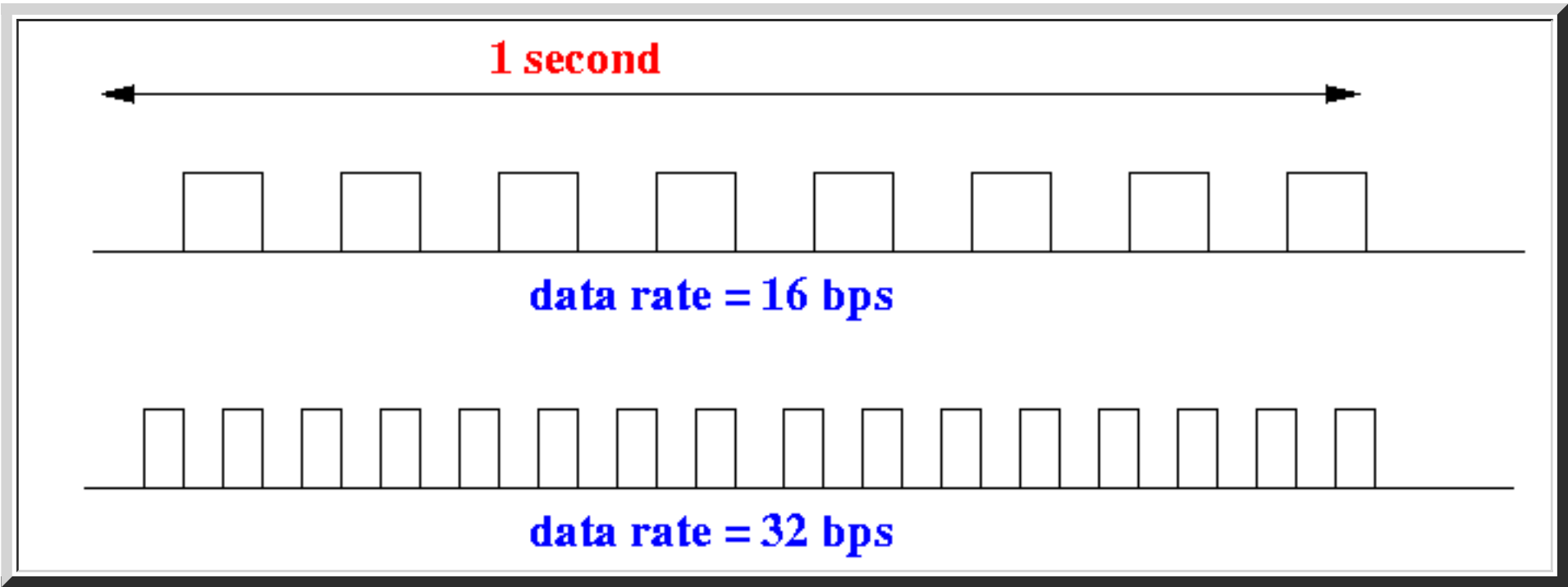


- **Data rate and frequency**

- **Observable fact:**

- *Faster data rate* will result in a **signal** with a *higher frequency*

Example:



The **frequency** of the **second signal** is *higher* (more cycles per second)

- **Relationship between *bandwidth* and data transmission *rate***

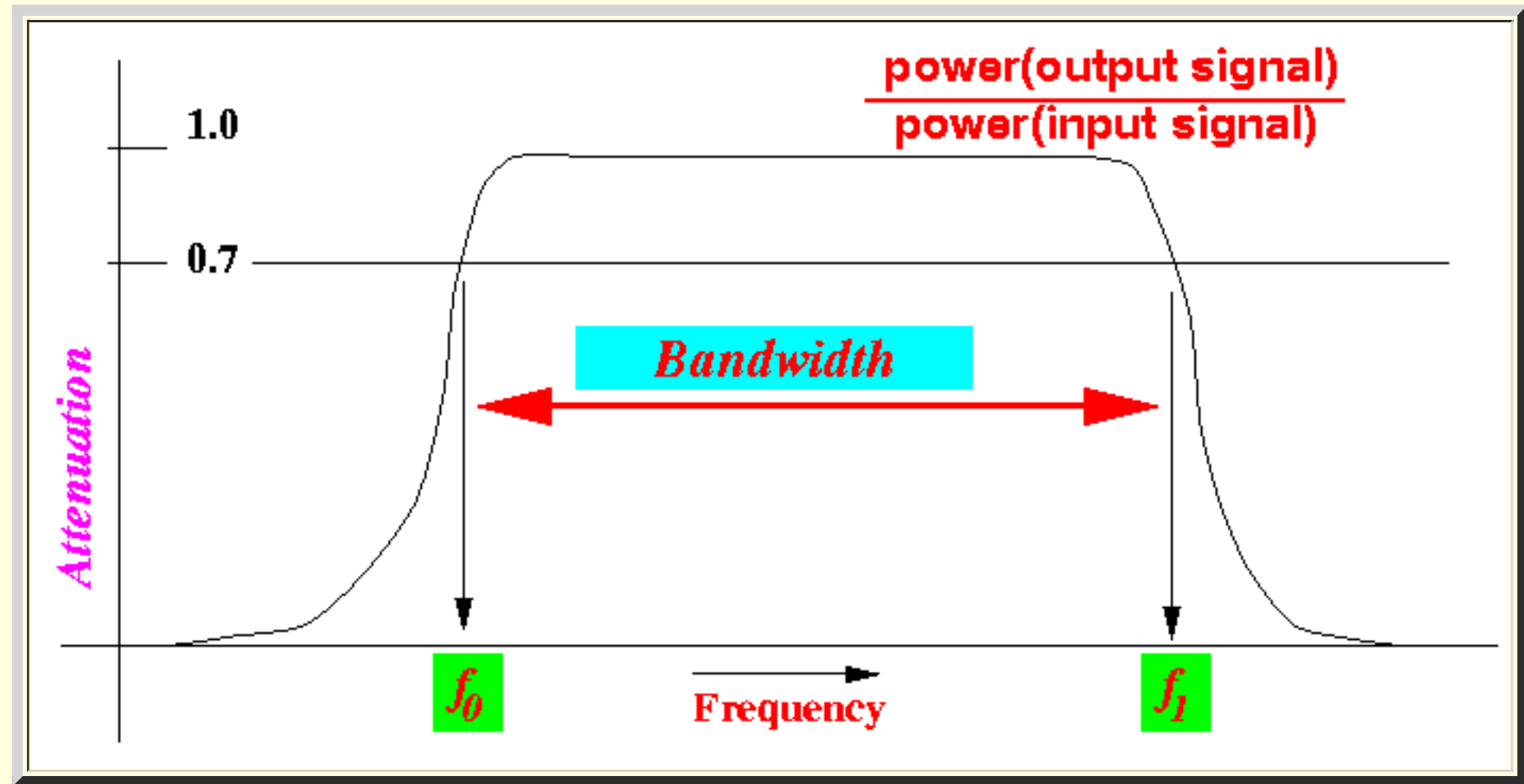
- **Clearly:**

- A *higher data (transmission) rate* wil **result** in a **signal** with *higher frequencies*

- **Limitation:**

- When the **frequency** of the **transmitted signal** is *too high*:

- The **signal** become *unrecognizable* due to **attenuation** !!!



The *Maximum* data rate of a transmission medium

- Another factor that affect reception quality

- Fact:

- Beside **physical constraints** imposed by the **property** of the the **transmission media**, another **factor** that affects the **quality** of the **received signal** is:

- **noise**

- *Maximum* data rate of a transmission channel

- The **factors** that **determine** the **data transmission rate** over a **transmission medium** (from electronics):

- **Bandwith** of the **transmission medium** (i.e., the **physical property**)
 - **Ambient noise**

- **Theoretical** maximum data rate of a **transmission channel**: (*no proof*)

- **Maximum data rate** of a **transmission medium** is:

$$C = B \log_2 \left(1 + \frac{S}{N} \right)$$

where:

C = maximum data rate (in # bits/sec) --- a.k.a. **capacity**

B = **Bandwidth** of the transmission medium (in Hz)

S = power of the transmited **signal** (in Watt)

N = power of the ambient **noise** (in Watt)

S/N is called the "Signal to Noise ratio"

Note:

- This **famous result** is derived by the late Mathematician **Claude Shannon** (see: [click here](#))

Sharing a Transmission Medium

- Motivation to *share* a communication medium

- Fact:

▪ The **capacity (data rate)** of a **transmission medium** is *very large*

Example:

▪ *One* optical fiber wire can transmit **≥ 1 TeraBits/sec** !!!
(See: [click here](#))

▪ A *single user* can **not fully** use **1 TeraBits/sec** data rate...

- Common practice:

▪ *Multiple* users usually *share* one **single communication channel**

- Terminology

- Multiplexing:

▪ **multiplexing** = the **techniques** used to *share* a communication medium

- Multiplexing Techniques

- There are *2 commonly used* multiplexing techniques used to **share transmission capacity** in the **physical layer** (= **signal transmission layer**):

▪ The **transmission channel** can be **shared** in the *time dimension*:

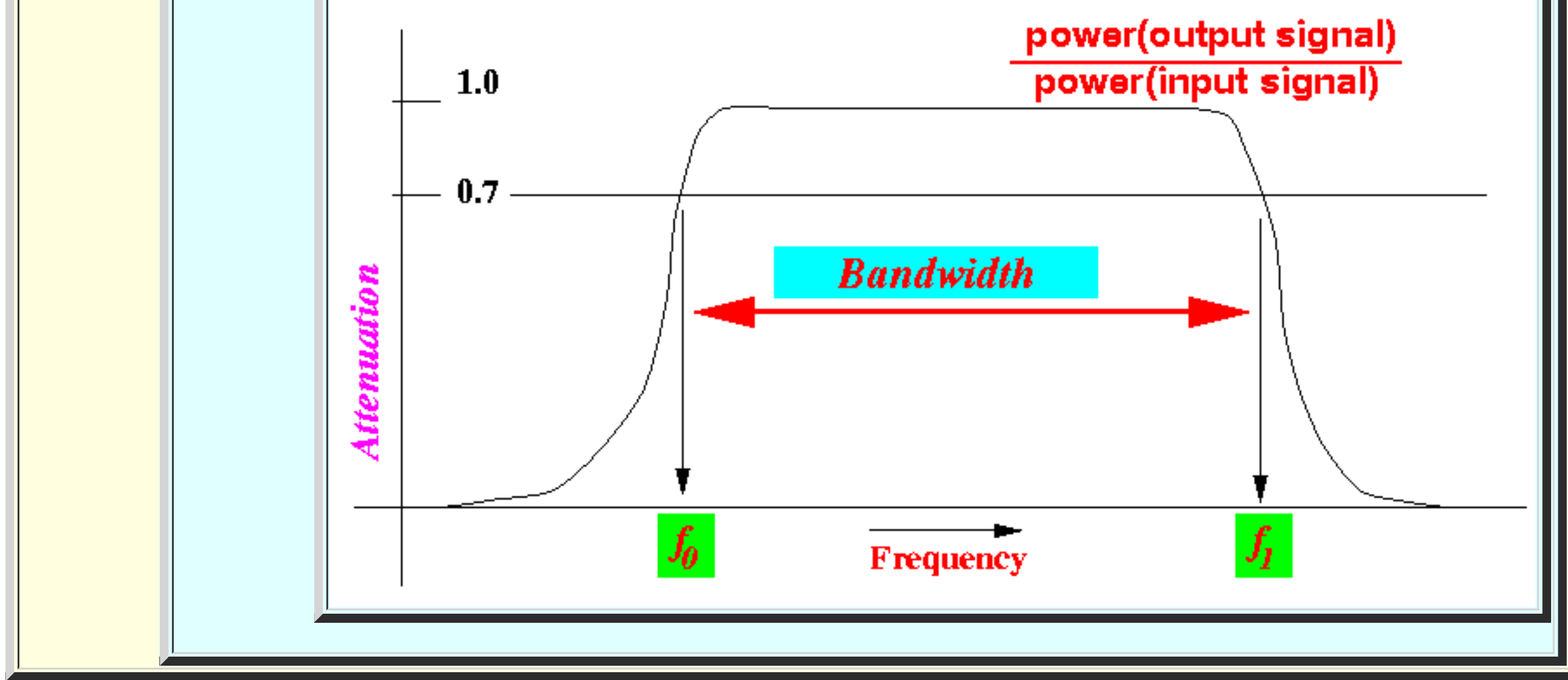
▪ *Time* division multiplexing

▪ The **transmission channel** can be **shared** in the "*space*" (frequencies) dimension:

▪ *Frequency* division multiplexing

Note:

▪ The "**space**" is a **communication medium** is the **range** of frequencies inside **bandwidth** of the **transmission medium**:

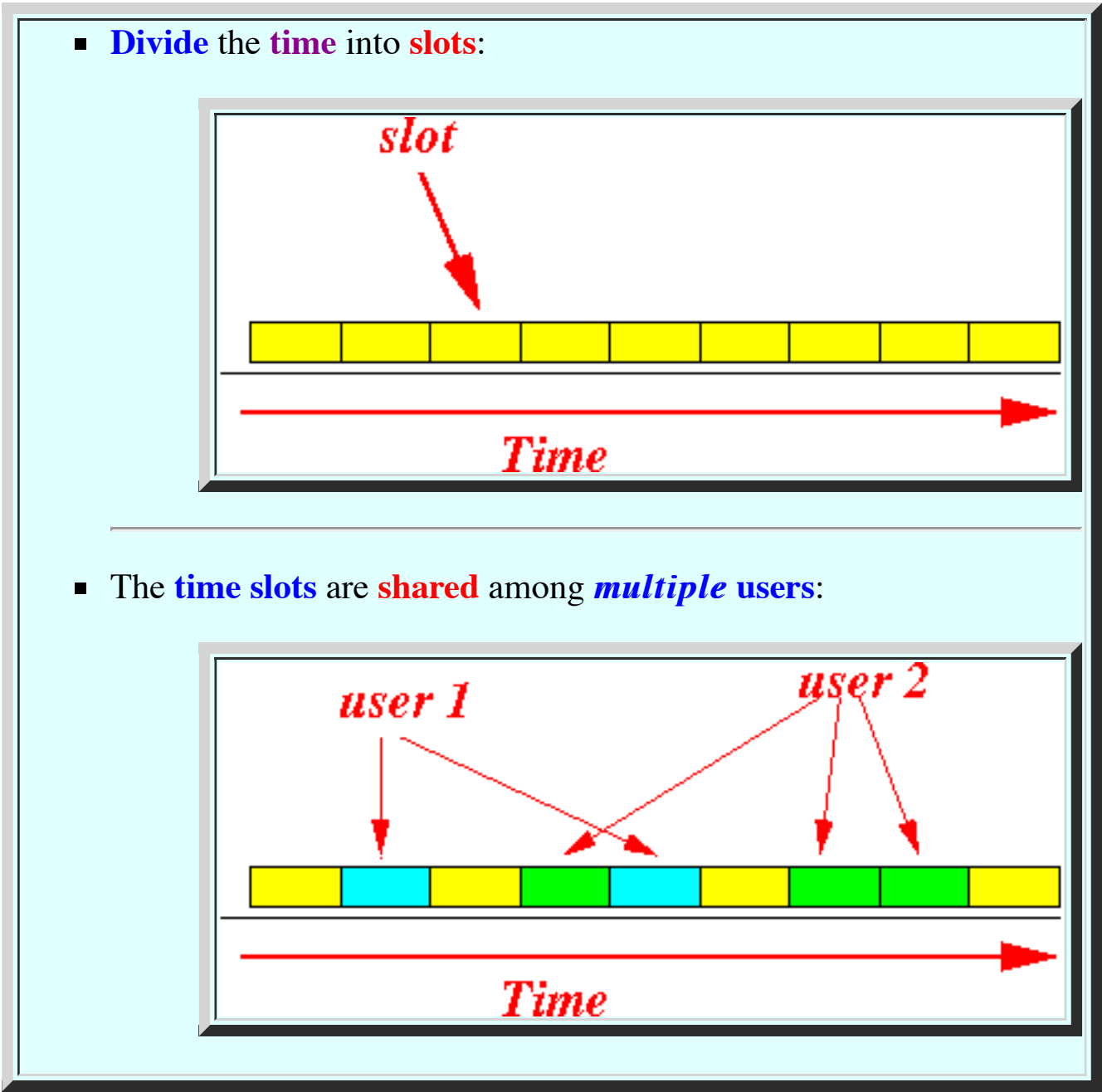


○ **Analogy:**

- **Sharing** a **house** with **4 rooms** among **4 persons**:
 - **Time sharing:**
 - Each **person** gets to **use** the *entire* **house** for **25%** of the time
 - **Space sharing:**
 - Each **persn** gets to **use** *one* **room** all the time

Synchronous/Asynchronous Time Division Multiplexing

- **Sharing a channel in temporal dimension: Time Division Multiplexing (TDM)**
 - The **basic idea** of the **Time Division multiplexing** technique:



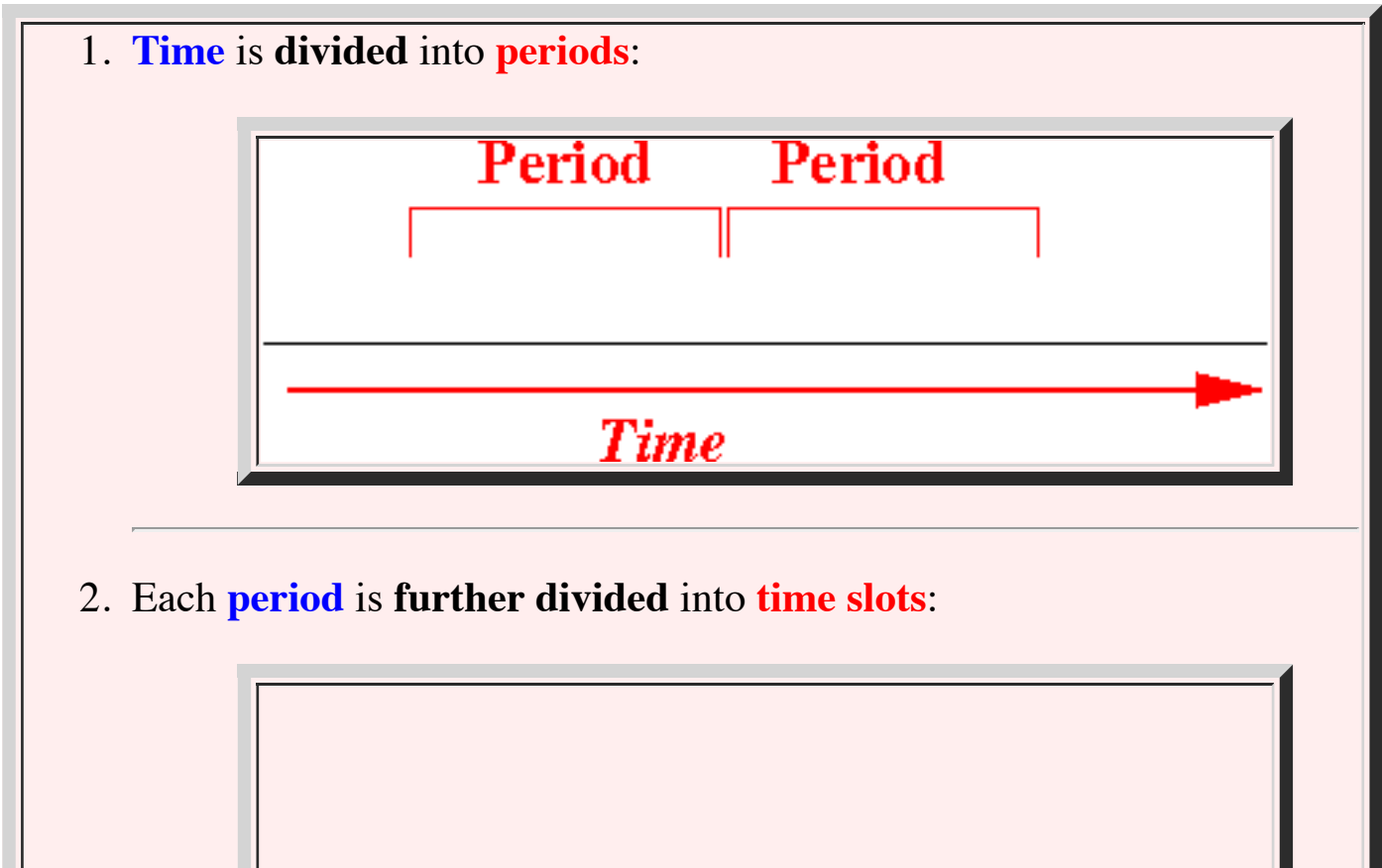
- The **2 variants** of the **TDM** technique:

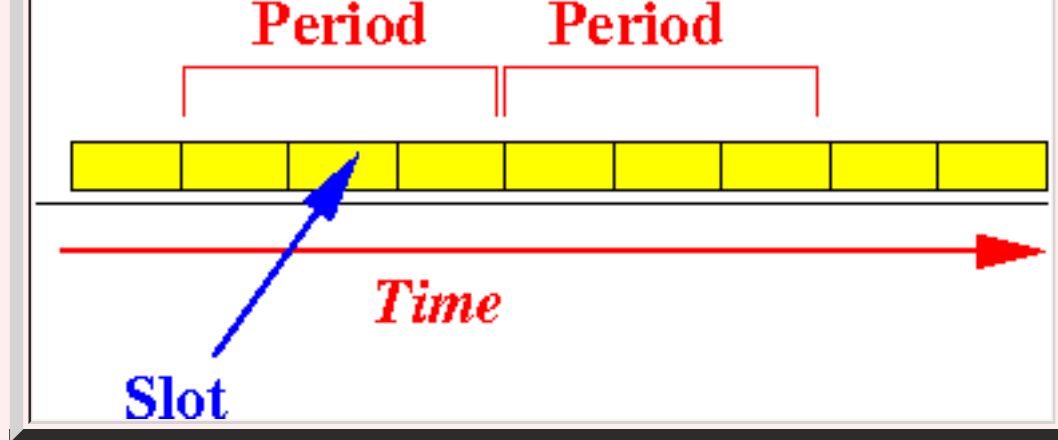
- **Synchronous** TDM

▪ **Asynchronous** TDM

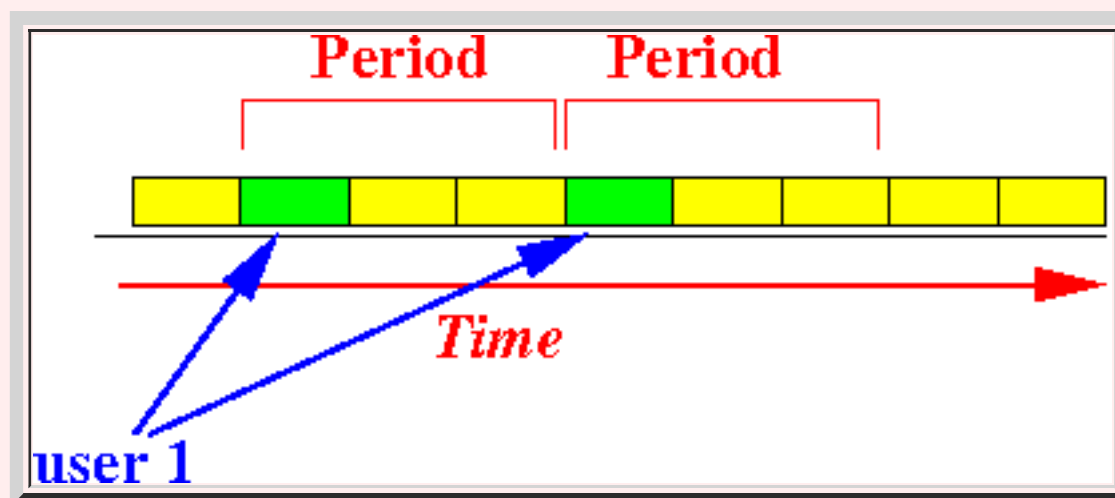
- **Synchronous TDM**

- The **Synchronous** TDM technique:



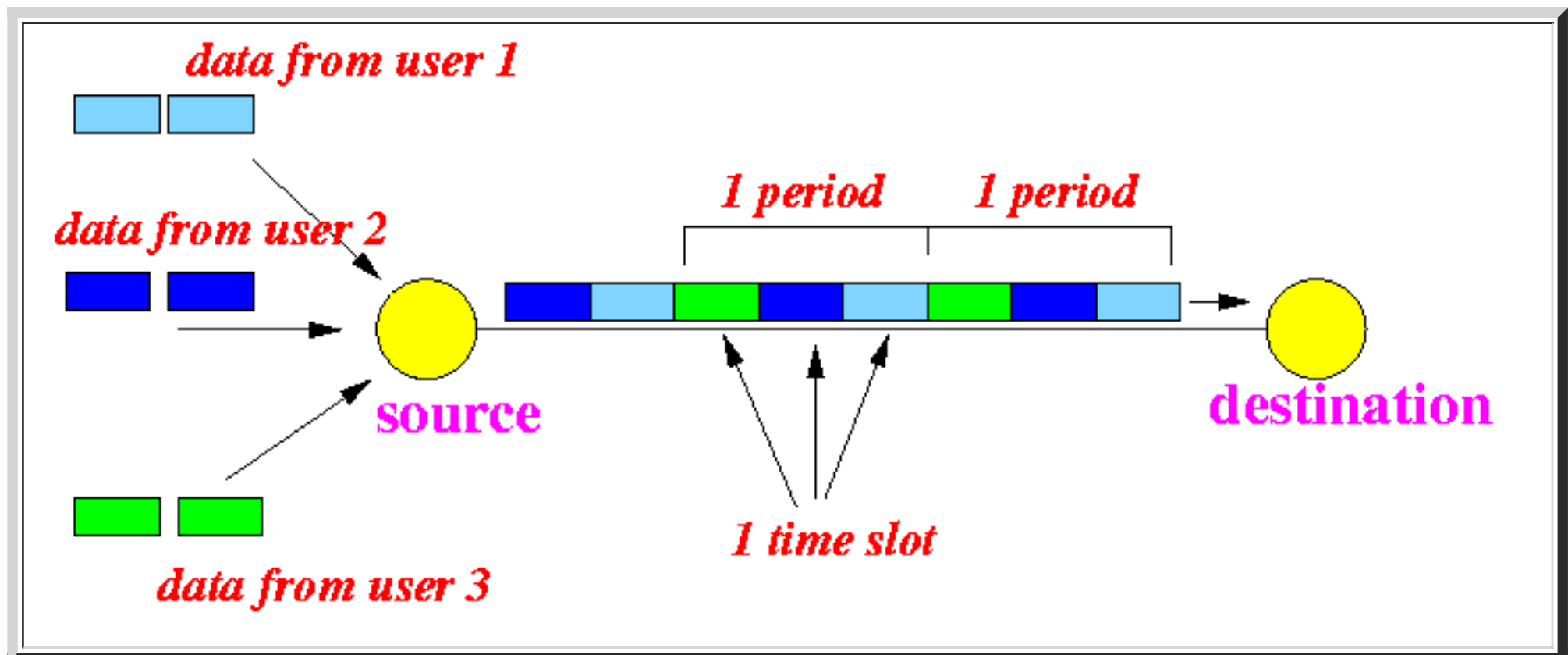


3. A **user** is assigned **one or more time slots** in every period:



The **slot** assigned is **always** in the **same position** inside a **period**

Example:



- Advantage/disadvantage of **Synchronous TDM**

- Advantage of **Synchronous TDM**:

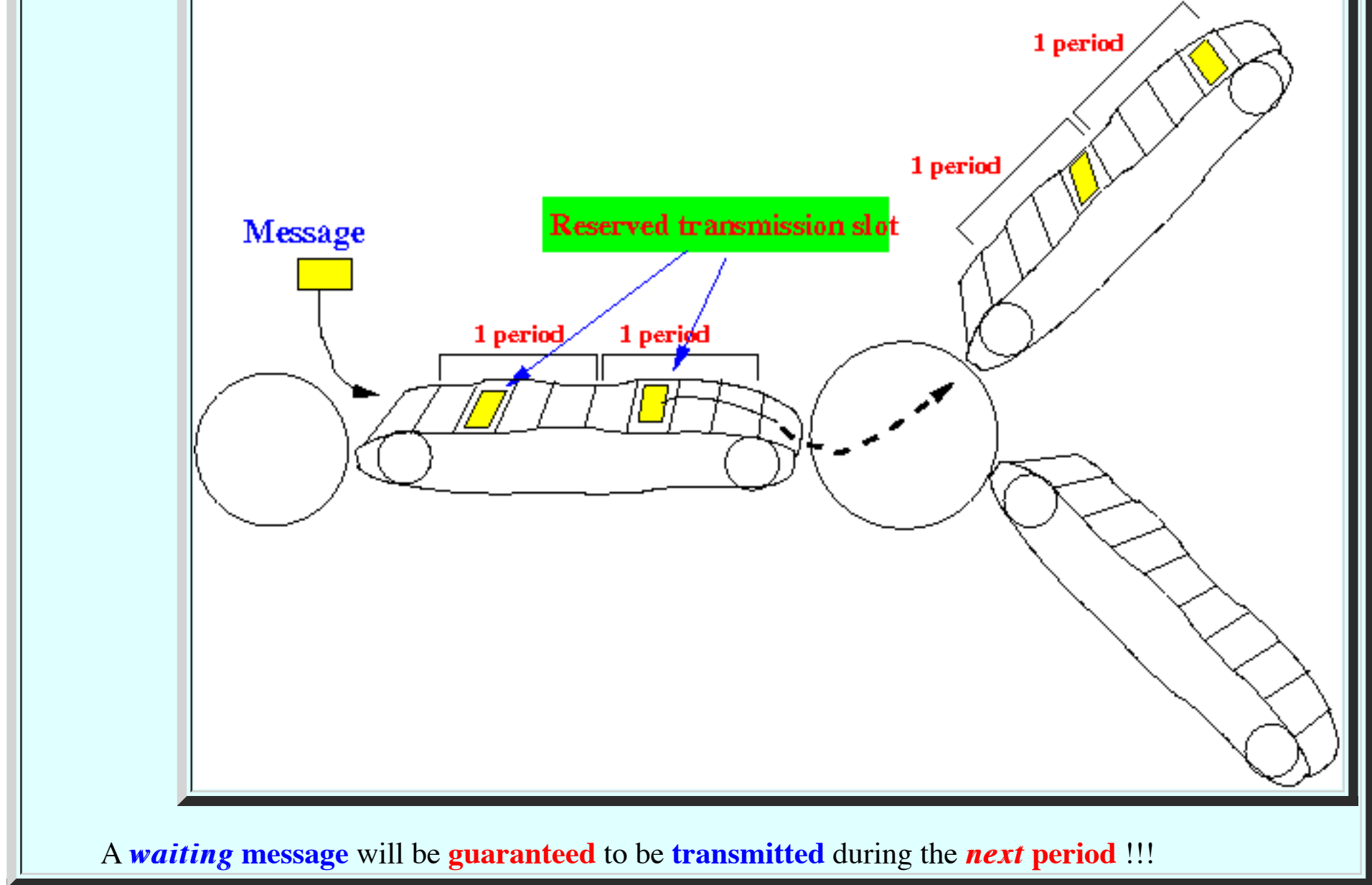
- **Simple** (= **easy**) to **implement**

- **Synchronous TDM** can provide **performance guarantee**

- **Asynchronous TDM** can provide a **fixed waiting time guarantees**

- (The **waiting time** is **at most 1 period** !!!)

Because the **Synch. TDM** method works like a **conveyer belt**:

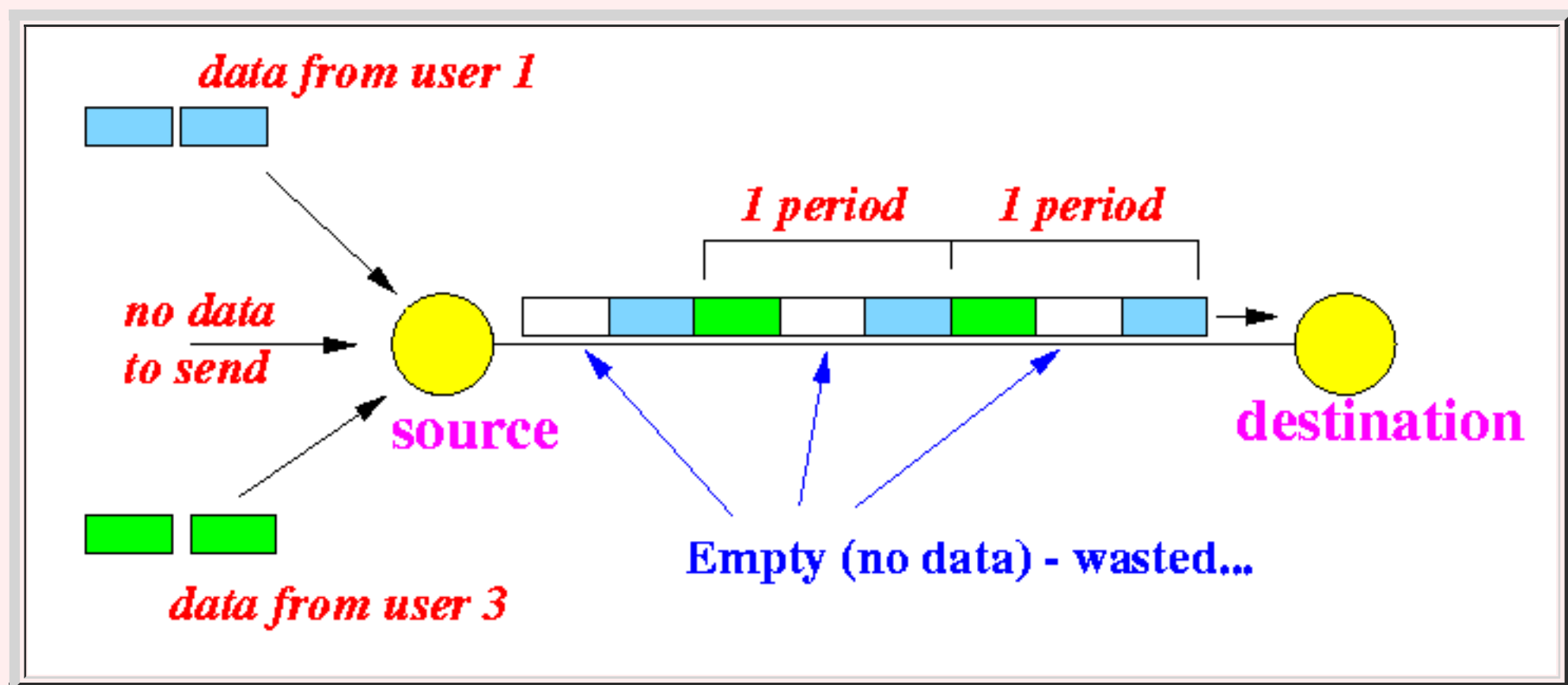


◦ **Disadvantage** of **Synchronous TDM**:

- **Time slots** is **wasted** if the **user** has **no data** to transmit.

▪ **Because** a **time slot** can **only** be used by that **specific user** !!!

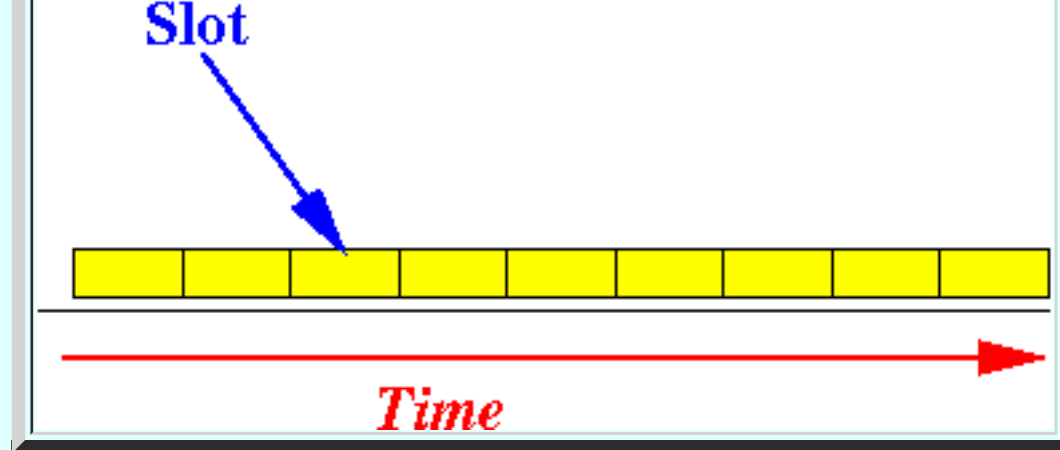
Example: if **user 2** **idle**, its slots are **wasted**



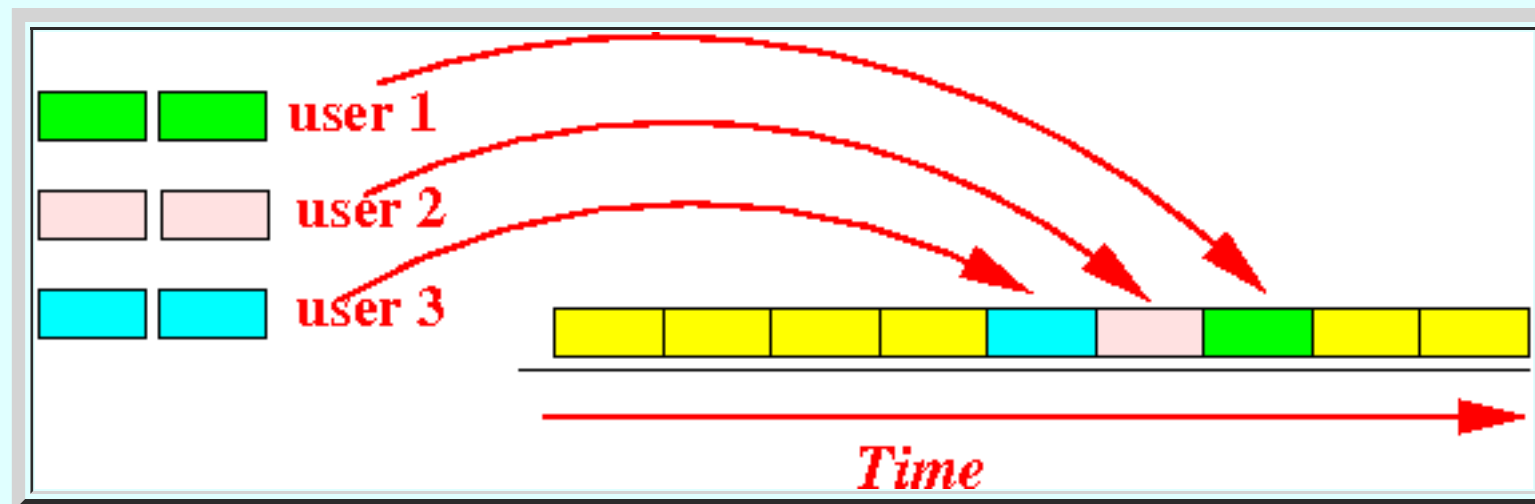
• **Asynchronous TDM**

- The **Asynchronous TDM** technique:

1. **Time** is **divided** into **slots**:



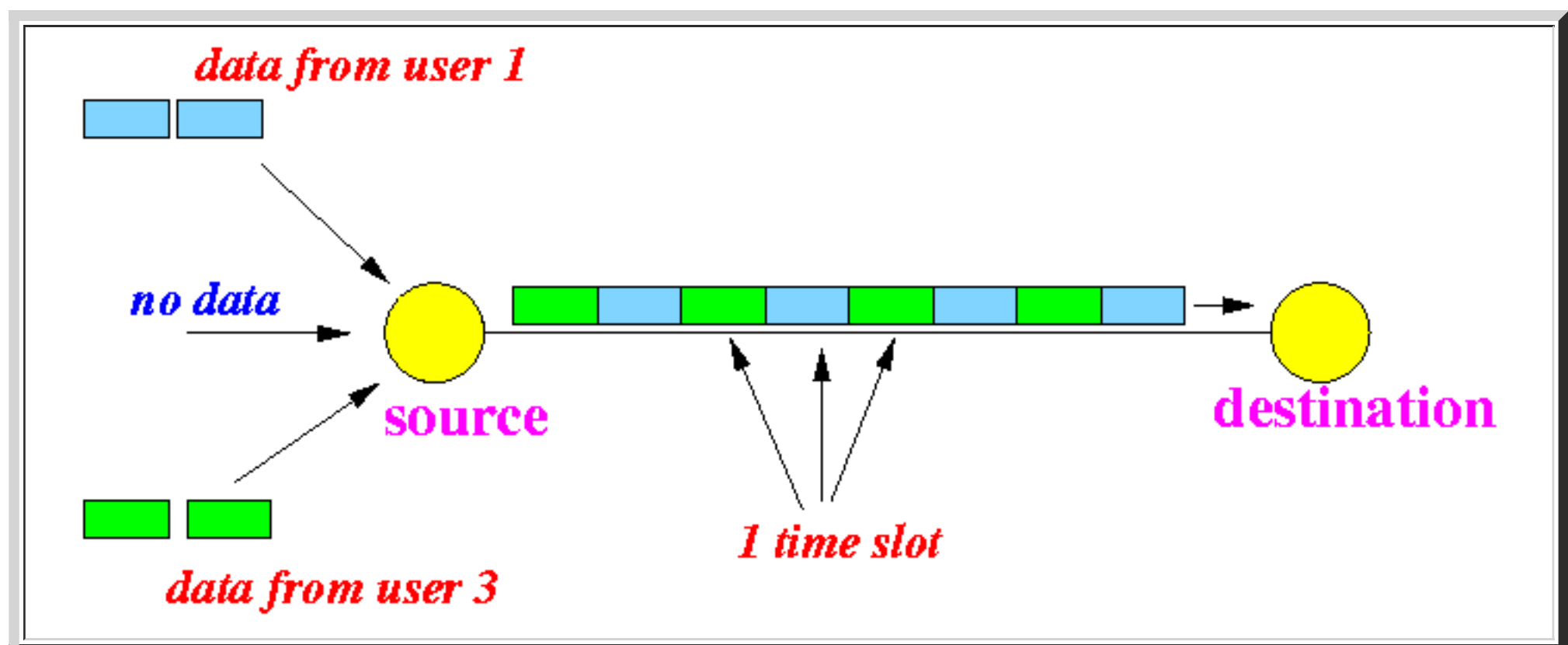
2. The **slots** are **shared** by all **active users**:



Note:

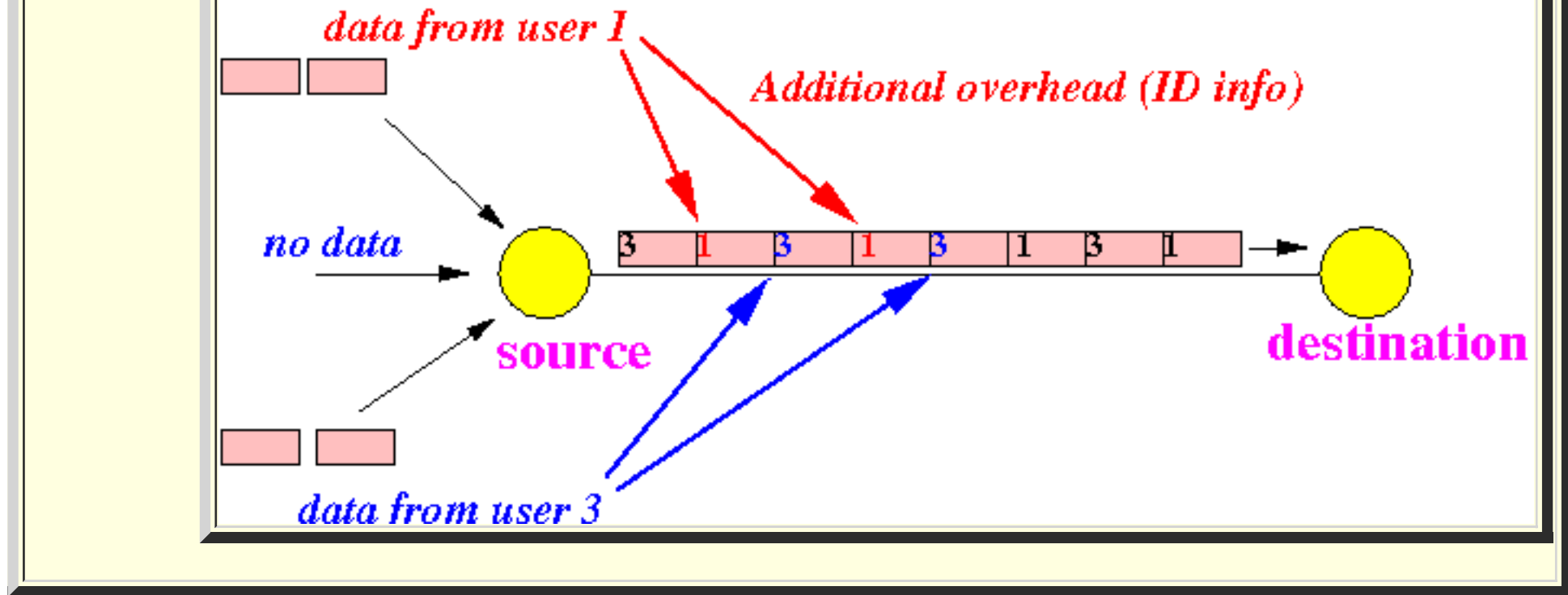
- A **slot** will **only** be **wasted**, if **all** users do **not have data** to transmit,

Example:



○ **Implementation note:**

- I used **colors** to indicate the **sender** of the **packets**....
- In reality, the **packet** are **distinguished** by a **source/destination ID**:



- Advantages/disadvantages of *Asynchronous TDM*

- **Advantage** of *Asynchronous TDM*:

- **Efficient use** of the **transmission capacity**.

- **Asynchronous TDM** will **only waste** transmission capacity (= slots) when **all senders** are **idle**

- **Disadvantage** of *Asynchronous TDM*:

- It's **much harder** to provide **service guarantees** because:

- The **time** that a **user** gets a **transmission slot** depends on the **current number** of **active users**
 - **Asynchronous TDM** can **not** provide a **fixed waiting time guarantee**

Note:

- **Asynchronous TDM** can provide a **soft guarantee** on **delay (waiting time)** using **flow control**
- Flow control** = controlling the **transmission rate** of **data** over a **communication link**

Frequency Division Multiplexing

- Sharing a channel by "space": Frequency Division Multiplexing

- *Frequency* Division multiplexing:

- The **range (space) of frequencies** is **divided** among the **users**

- **Fact** from **Physics**:

- The **signals** sent using **different frequency ranges** do **not interfere** with each other

- **Example**:

- **Radio**

- Transmissions on **FM 98.5** do **not interfere** with transmissions on **FM 94.1**....

- Problem with *Frequency* Division Multiplexing

- **Problem**:

- Users that use **different frequencies** to **transmit** can **not** receive **each others' transmissions** !!!

Result:

- **Freq. Div. Multiplexing** is **not** used in **computer communication** !!!

- **Note**:

- **Frequency division multiplexing** is **mainly** used in **radio** or **walkie-talkie** communication....

Intro: Error *Detection* and *Correction* at the Physical Layer

- Errors at the Physical Layer:

- Fact:

- A **transmitted signal** can be **received incorrectly**

Example:

- A **"1" signal** can be **received** (and **decoded**) as a **"0" signal**

- Common causes of **transmission errors**:

- **Background noise**:

- **Radiation** (from space) can cause **single bit errors** in a **stream of transmitted bits**

- **Weather related** (i.e., **lightning**):

- **Lightning** can cause **multiple consecutive bit errors** in a **stream of transmitted bits**

- Typical error rates

- Typical **error rates**:

- **Error rate** in **twisted pairs (copper wires)**:

- **1 bit error** in every few **1000 bits** transmitted.

- **Error rate** in **optical fibers**:

- **1 bit error** in several **1,000,000 bits** transmitted

- **Why detect errors in the *Physical* layer**

- **Detecting** transmission **errors**:

- **Error detection** is a **part** of the function to ***provide reliable communication***
- The **layer** (see **OSI model**: [click here](#)) that is **responsible** for providing **reliable communication** is:

- The ***data link layer***
(And ***not*** the ***physical layer***)

- **Technically**, it is ***not necessary*** to **detect errors** at the **Physical Layer**:

- **Why** detect errors at the ***physical layer***:

- ***Early error detection*** in the **Physical layer** will result in ***faster response***
- It is **also** more **efficient**:

- The **sooner** we detect an **error** (and ***stop*** the **processing** of a message), the **less computation resources** we will **waste**

Principle of error *detection* and *correction*

- Illustrative *question*

- Example of *transmitted data*:

11111111

- Example of *received data*:

11110111

Question:

- **How** can we **tell** *whether some bit(s)* is/are *incorrect* (*without* know **what** the **transmitted data** was) ???

- Principle of error *detection/correction* methods

- Principle to **detect/correct** of **errors**:

1. Embed *extra bits* into the **transmitted message**

- The *insert extra bit* creates a **certain pattern** in the **bits stream**
(usually conforming to some **(mathematical) property**)

2. The receiver **checks** for the **embedded pattern** in the *received data*:

- Pattern was **found** ⇒ **message** assumed to be **correct**
- Pattern was **not found** ⇒ **message** assumed to be in **error**

- Mathematics: *coding theory*

- FYI:

- The **mathematical theory** that deal with **design patterns** in the transmission is called **coding theory**.

I will only discuss some **commonly used codes**

- **Commonly used error detection/correction schemes**

- **Commonly used schemes:**

- **Error *detection* schemes:**

- **Parity checks**
- **Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)**

- **Error *Correction* Schemes:**

- **Hamming's code** (can **correct 1 bit error**)
- **Solomon-Reed's code** (can **correct 2 bit errors**)

One-dimensional parity-based error detection schemes

- *Parity*

- Parity:

- **Parity** = the state of **being equal** (from **dictionary**)

- **Parity-based** error **detection** scheme:

- **Add** some **bits** to the **transmitted message** so that:
 - The **number** of **1 bits** in the **message** is **even** (or **odd**)

(**That** is an **exmaple** of a **pattern** that I was **eluding** to in a **previous webpage**....)

- **Error detection** using a **parity based** scheme:

- When a **message** is **received**, the **reciever checks** for:
 - the **parity property**

to **verify** if there was an **error**.

- *One-dimensional Parity Scheme*

- Even and Odd **Parity**:

- **Even parity**:
 - Add **one extra bit** to the **message** so that the **total number** of **1's in the message** is **always even**
 - **Odd parity**:
 - Add **one extra bit** to the **message** so that the **total number** of **1's in the message** is **always odd**

- Examples:

Transmitted data (unprotected): 1111000 1010101 1111111

Even parity:	11110000	10101010	11111111
Odd parity:	11110001	10101011	11111110

◦ Error Checking:

- When the **received message** does not have an **even** (or **odd** number of 1's in the **even (or odd) parity method**, the **receiver** will **assume** that the **message** is **corrupted**

• Property of the *one-dimensional* parity scheme

◦ Properties:

- **Parity checks** can **detect** all **odd number** of **bit errors**

- **Each error** will **change** the **number** of **1 bits**:

- by **+1**:

Before:	11100111	(6	1's)
After:	1110 1 111	(7	1's)

or

- **-1**

Before:	11100111	(6	1's)
After:	11100 0 11	(5	1's)

- An **odd number** of **bit errors** will **result** in:

- A **change** of **parity**

(I.e.: **odd parity** will become **even parity** and **vice versa** !!!)

Example:

Original data (unprotected):	1111000
Even parity:	11110000
Data with 1 bit error:	11010000
==> 1 bit error results in odd parity !!! (error detected !!)	

- **Parity checks** can **not** detect an *even number* of **bit errors**

Example:

```
Original data (unprotected):    1111000
Even parity:                     11110000
Data with 2 bit errors:         11010100

==> 2 bit errors results in even parity !!!

Error cannot be detected !!!
```

Multi-dimensional parity-based error detection schemes

- Two-dimensional parity
 - Two-dimensional Parity scheme

- 2-dimensional parity scheme:
 - Form a $M \times N$ matrix of bits
 - Add a (even or odd) parity bit to each row and to each column

- Example:

```
Original data (unprotected):  1111000  1010101  1111111

1. For a matrix of bits:

      1111000
      1010101
      1111111

2. Add parity bits:

      11110000
      10101010
      11111111
      10100101
```

- Properties of the 2-dimensional parity scheme:

- The 2-dimensional parity scheme can correct all 1 bit errors
- Example:

```
Transmitted data:

      11110000
      10101010
      11111111
      10100101
```

```
Received with one bit in error:
```

```

11110000
10101010
11011111 <---- odd parity
10100101
  ^
  |
odd parity

```

The receiver can **tell which bit** was in **error** from the **parity check !!!**

Therefore:

- The receiver can **take the initiative** to **correct** the **received message** !

- The **2-dimensional parity scheme** can **detect** all **2 bit errors**...
but it **cannot correct** the error.

Example:

Transmitted data:

```

11110000
10101010
11111111
10100101

```

Received with 2 bits in error:

```

11110000
10111010 <---- odd parity
11011111 <---- odd parity
10100101
  ^ ^
  | |
odd parity

```

The errors can be **detected**.

However, the receiver **cannot correct** the error:

- The **cause** of error is **ambiguous**:

Original data:

```
11110000
10011010
11111111
10100101
```

Error pattern #1:

```
11110000
10001010 <---- odd parity
11011111 <---- odd parity
10100101
  ^^
  ||
odd parity
```

Error pattern #2:

```
11110000
10111010 <---- odd parity
11101111 <---- odd parity
10100101
  ^^
  ||
odd parity
```

Both cases will **result** in the **same parity pattern !!!**

The **receiver cannot tell which** of these **2 error cases** has **occured....**

So the **receiver** can **not** correct the **error**

Intro to Error *Correcting* Codes

- **Prelude: Coding Theory**
 - Coding Theory:

- **Coding Theory** = a discipline of **Mathematics** that study the **properties** of **codes** and their fitness for specific applications.

- Use of **codes**:

- **Data *compression***
- **Data *encryption***
- **Error correction**

Wikipedia: [click here](#)

- **Error correction codes**

- Key to **error correction**:

- ***Redundancy***....

Example: a ***naive*** error correction code

- For **every bit** that you send, **repeat it 3 times**

Example:

Message: **1011**

Transmitted as: **111000111111**

The receiver use "**majority voting**" on **groups of 3 bits** to decode the message

- **More sophisticated error correction codes:**

- ***Hamming code***:

- Can correct *single* bit errors

- *Reed-Solomon* code:

- Can correct *2* bits errors

I will *only* show you *how to* use *Hamming* code

No proofs.... (beyond the scope of this course !)

Hamming code: encoding procedure

- **The Hamming Code**

- **Hamming Code:**

- **Hamming code** is a **linear error-correcting code** named after its inventor, **Richard Hamming**.

- The Hamming code can:

- **Detect *and* correct** all **1 bit errors**
- **Detect *most*** 2 bit errors --- but does **not** detect **all** 2 bit errors

(It uses a **minimum number** of **extra bits** to achieve these properties)

- The *encoding* procedure of the Hamming code

- How to encode data using **Hamming code**:

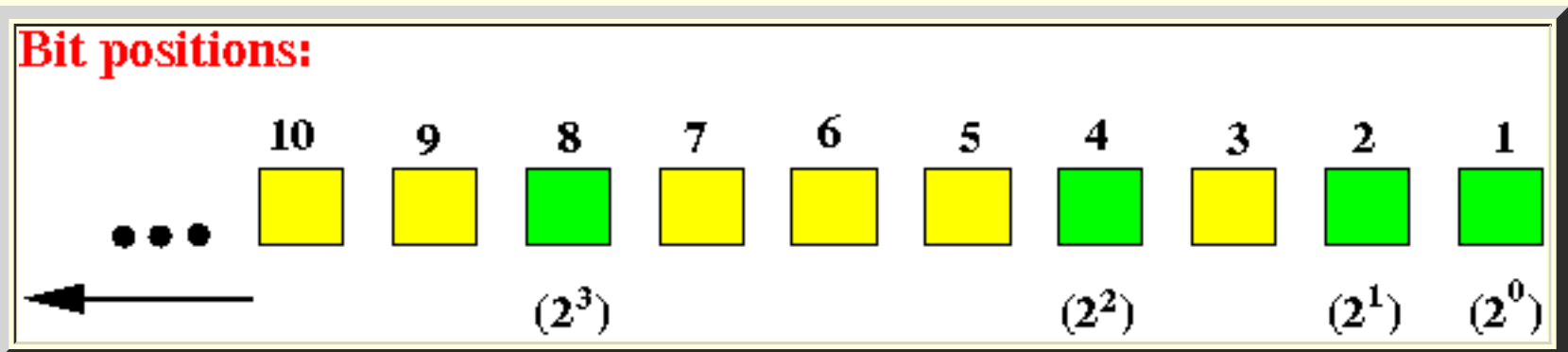
1. **Input** = a **sequence** of **bits (0/1 values)**
2. **Determine** the **number of extra bits** to insert (see **example**)
Insert the **extra bit positions** into the **input bits**
3. **Compute** the **values** of the **extra bit positions**
4. **Distribute** the **computed values** into the **extra bit positions**

- The **Hamming encoding procedure** illustrated by an **example**:

1. **Input** = 101010

2. **Determine** the **number of *extra* bits** to insert:

- The **positions** that corresponds to a **power of 2** are **Hamming check bit positions**:



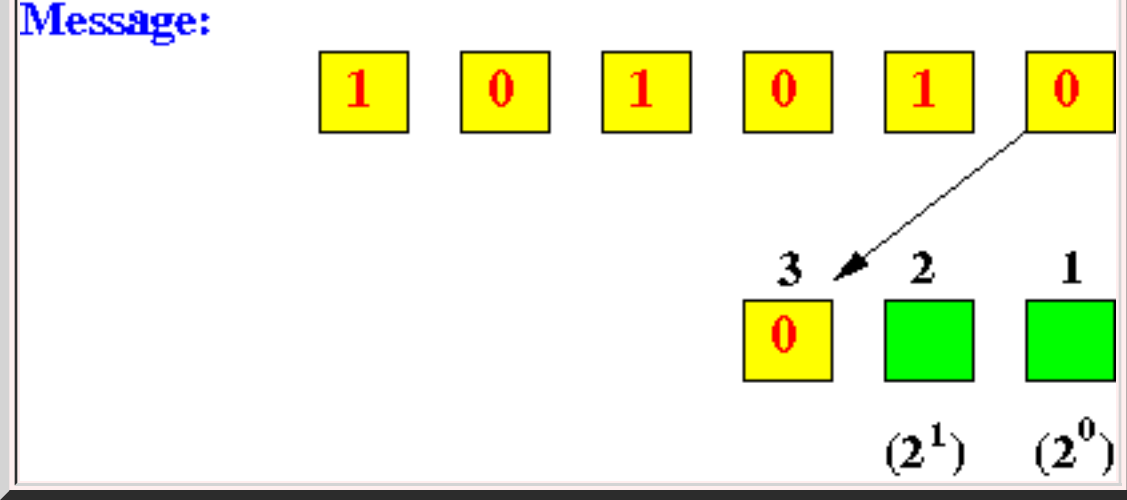
- **Add** extra bit positions at locations:

- $2^0, 2^1, 2^2, \dots$ (and so on)

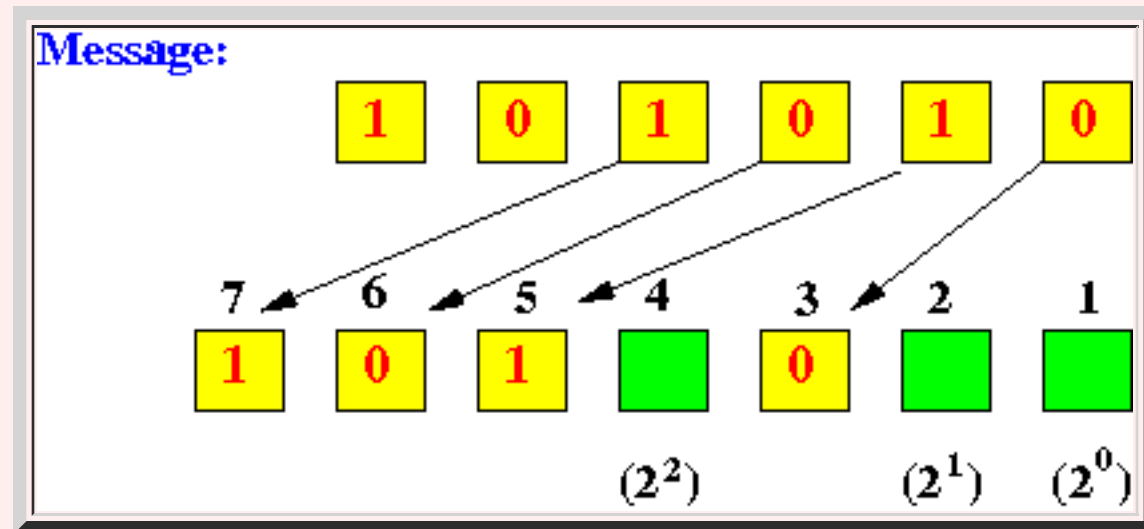
until **all data bits** can be **accommodated**

Example: input = 101010

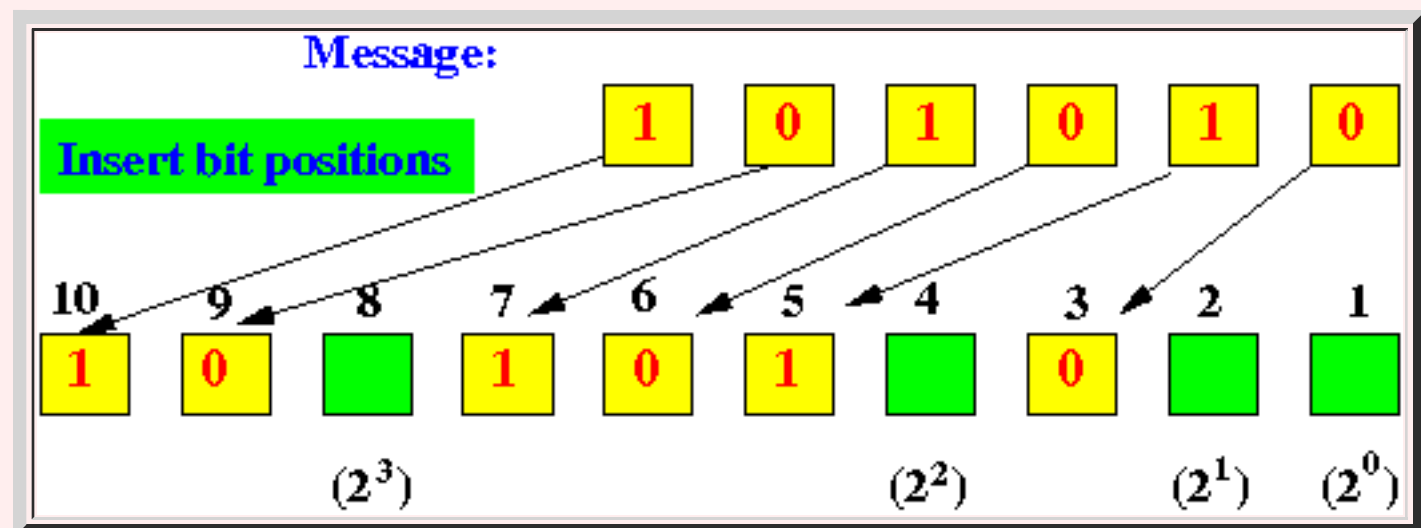
- We start with:



- We need to **add** one more *Hamming check bit*:



- We *still* need to **add** one more *Hamming check bit*:



Now we are **done** !

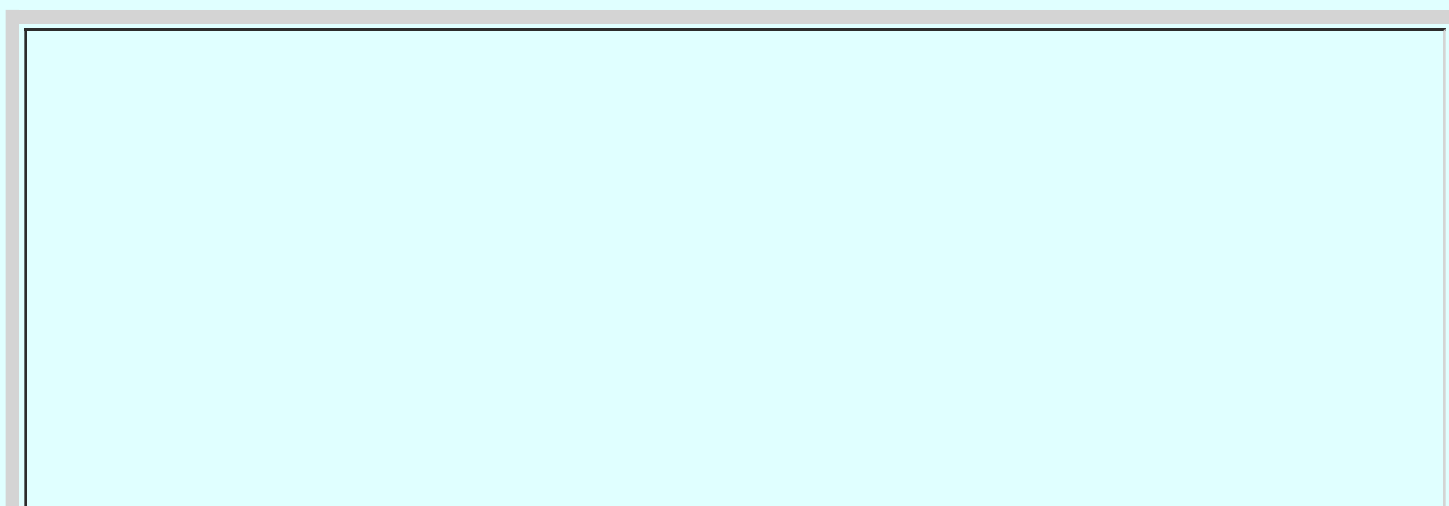
Note:

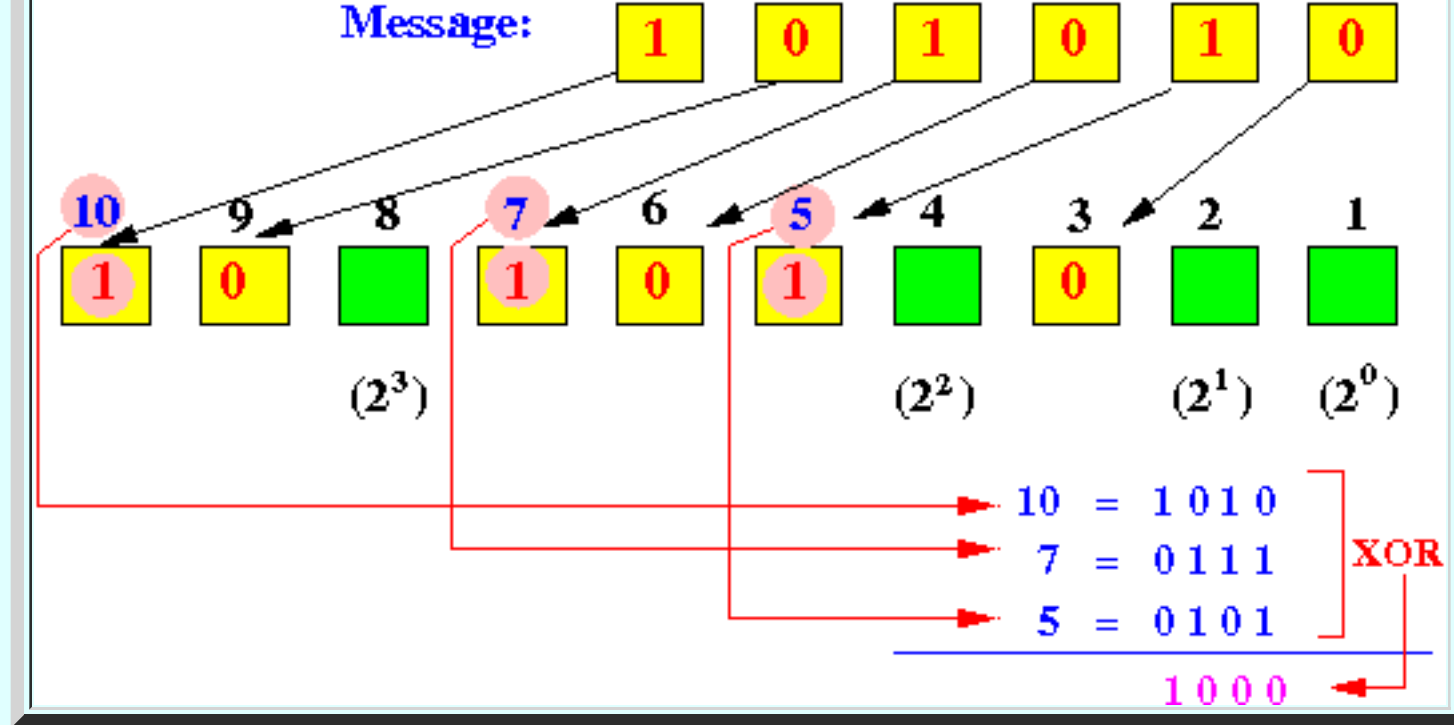
- The *empty positions* are **Hamming check bits** that will be **computed** next !!!

3. **Compute** the **values** of the **bits** at the **inserted Hamming code positions** by:

- Converting the **index** of the **"1" bits** of the **input data** into a **binary number**
- Perform the **XOR operations** *column-wise* on **all the (binary) numbers**

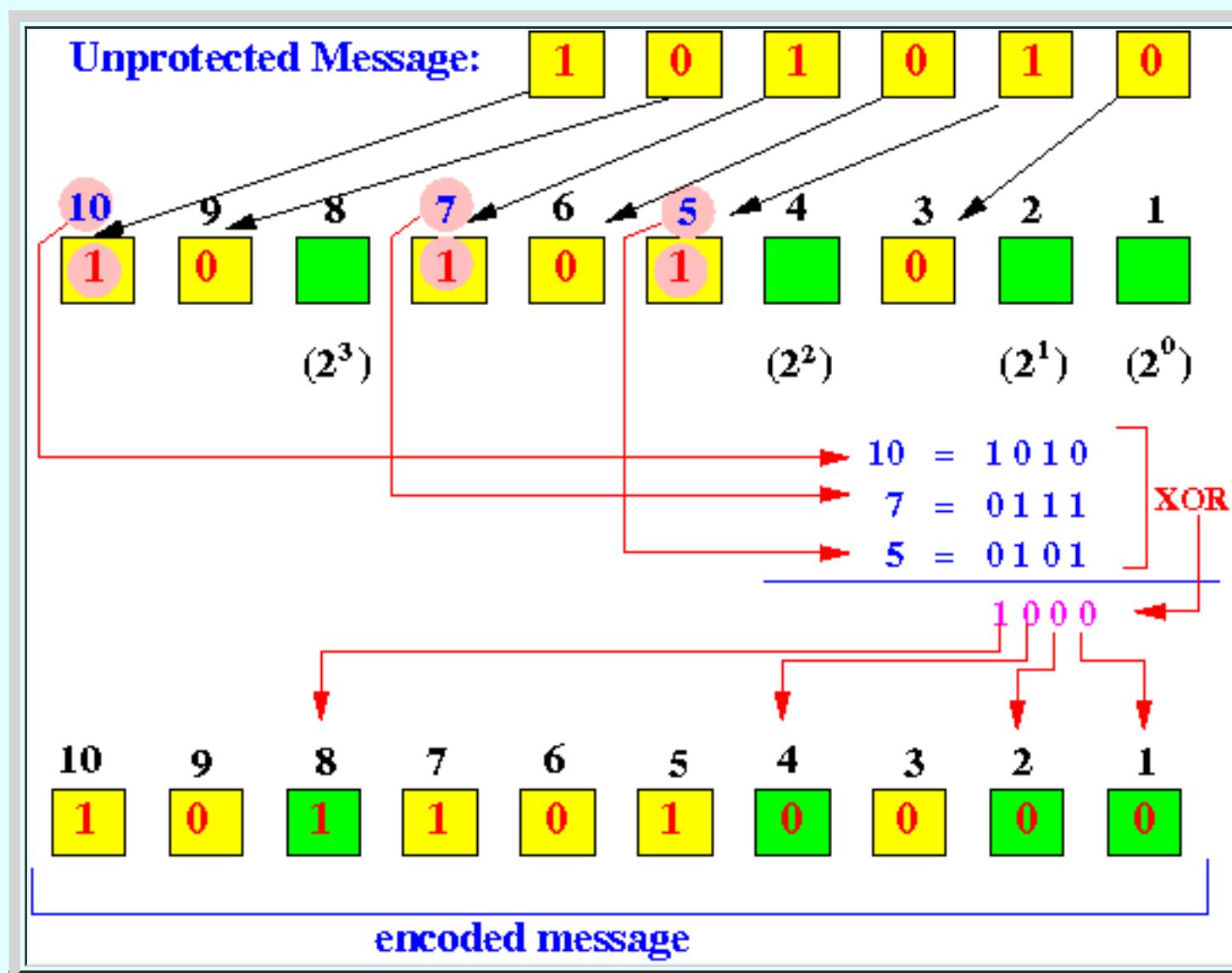
Example:





4. **Distribute** the computed (check) values into the **inserted (Hamming) bit positions**

Example:



- Summary (of the above):

- If the **sender** wants to **transmit 101010** using **Hamming Code**, it will **transmit**:

▪ **1011010000**

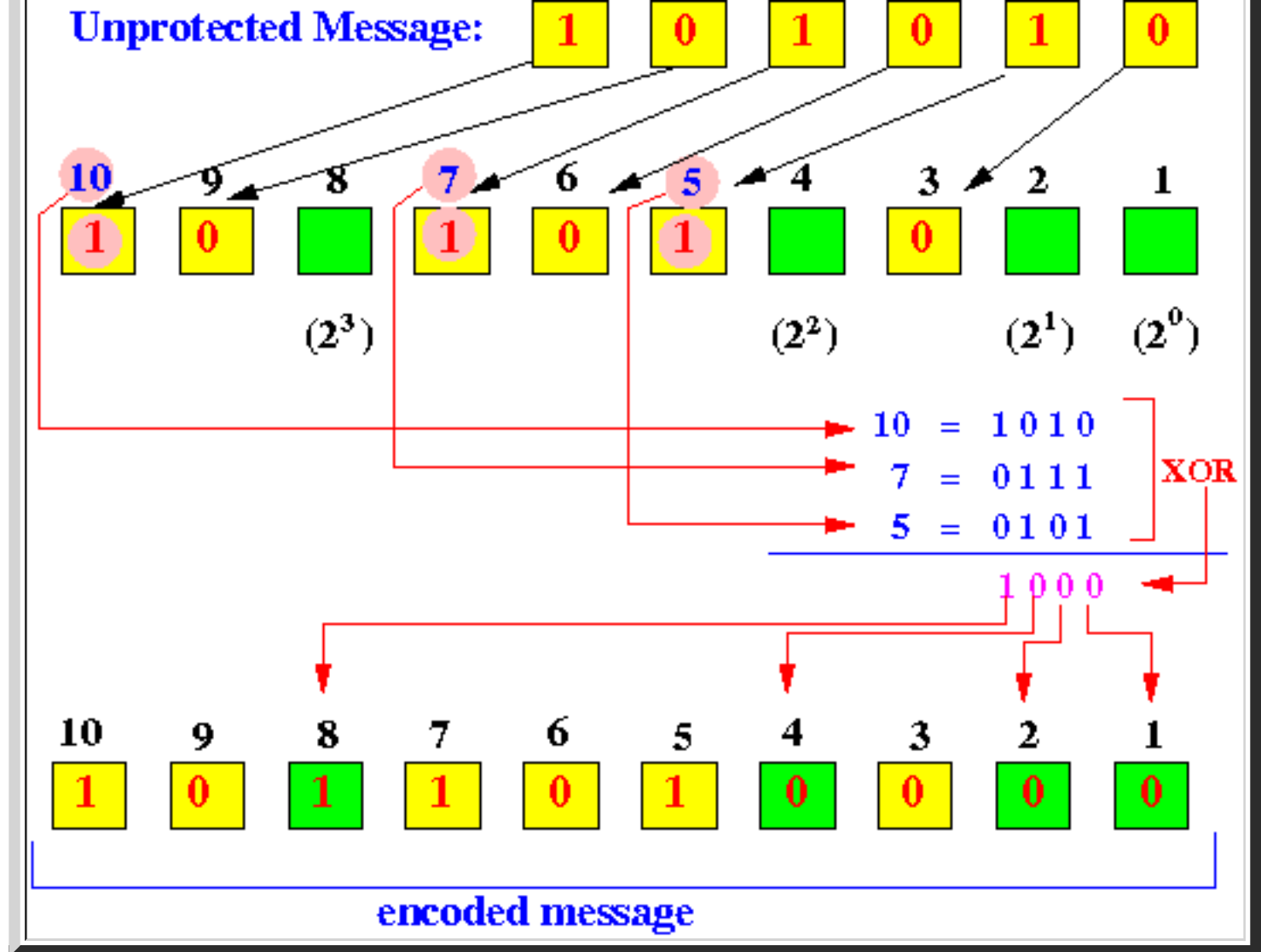
Hamming code: decoding procedure

- Decoding a Hamming coded message
 - Checking the *correctness* of a *received message*:

- Converting the **index** of the **1 bit** locations into a **binary number**
- Perform the **XOR operations** on **all resulting binary numbers**
- If the **result = 0** then the **messages (most likely)** contains **no error**
 - The **decoded message** consists of the **received bits** minus the bits at at positions: **$2^0, 2^1, 2^2, \dots, 2^k$**
- If the **result \leq length of the message** then the **messages (most likely)** contains **1 error**
 - **Change** the **value** of the **bit** at the **position** given by "**result**" (computed above)
 - The **decoded message** consists of the **received bits** minus the bits at at positions: **$2^0, 2^1, 2^2, \dots, 2^k$**
- If the **result $>$ length of the message** then the **messages (most likely)** contains **multiple errors**
 - The receiver **cannot perform correction**
 - It will **reject** the **message** as **corrupted**

- Example: **101010**

From the discussion above:

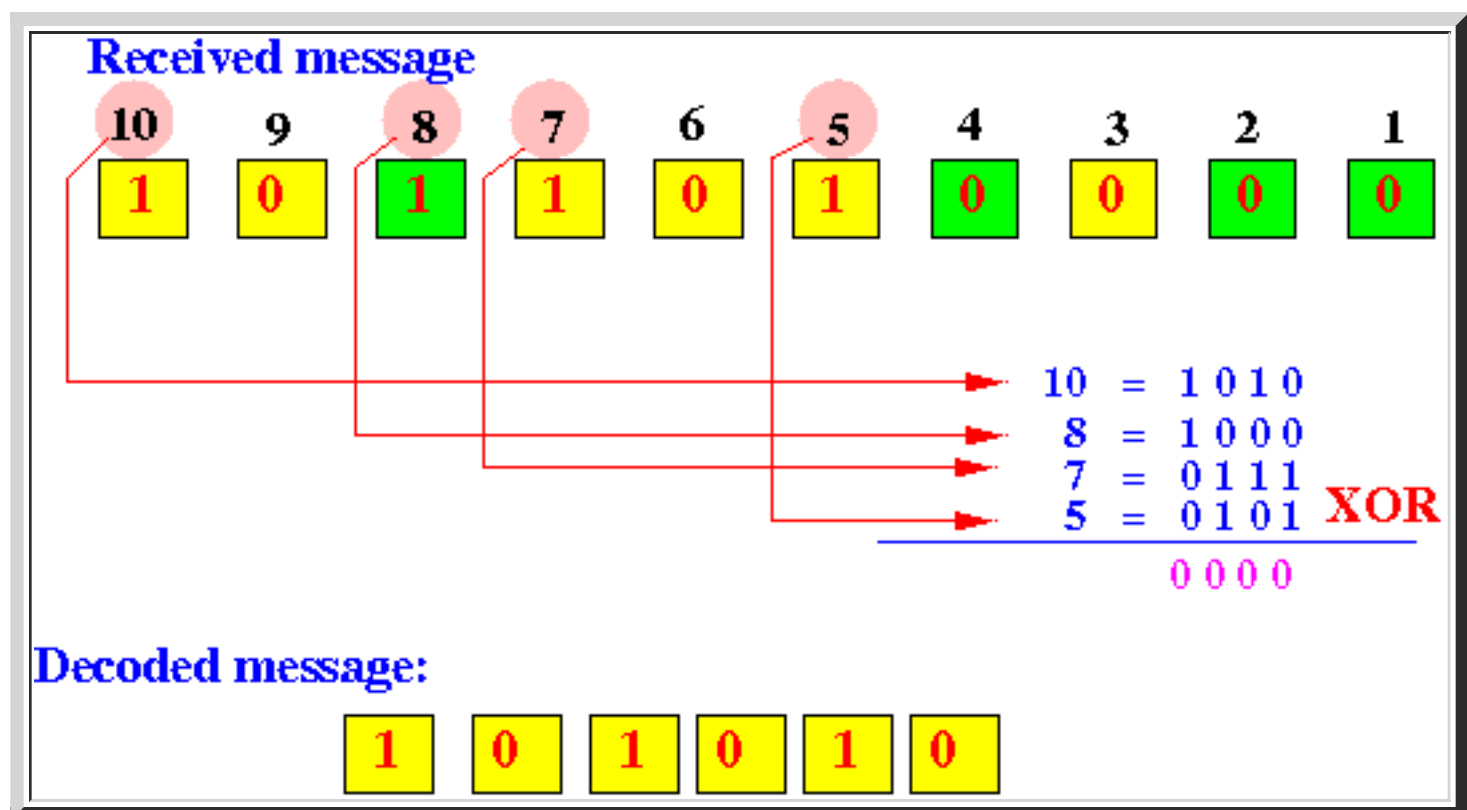


we know that the **sender** will **transmit: 1011010000**

- Case 1: transmission was received with **no error**

Received message = **1011010000**

Outcome of the **decode procedure**:



Result:

- **XOR** result = 0

Conclusion:

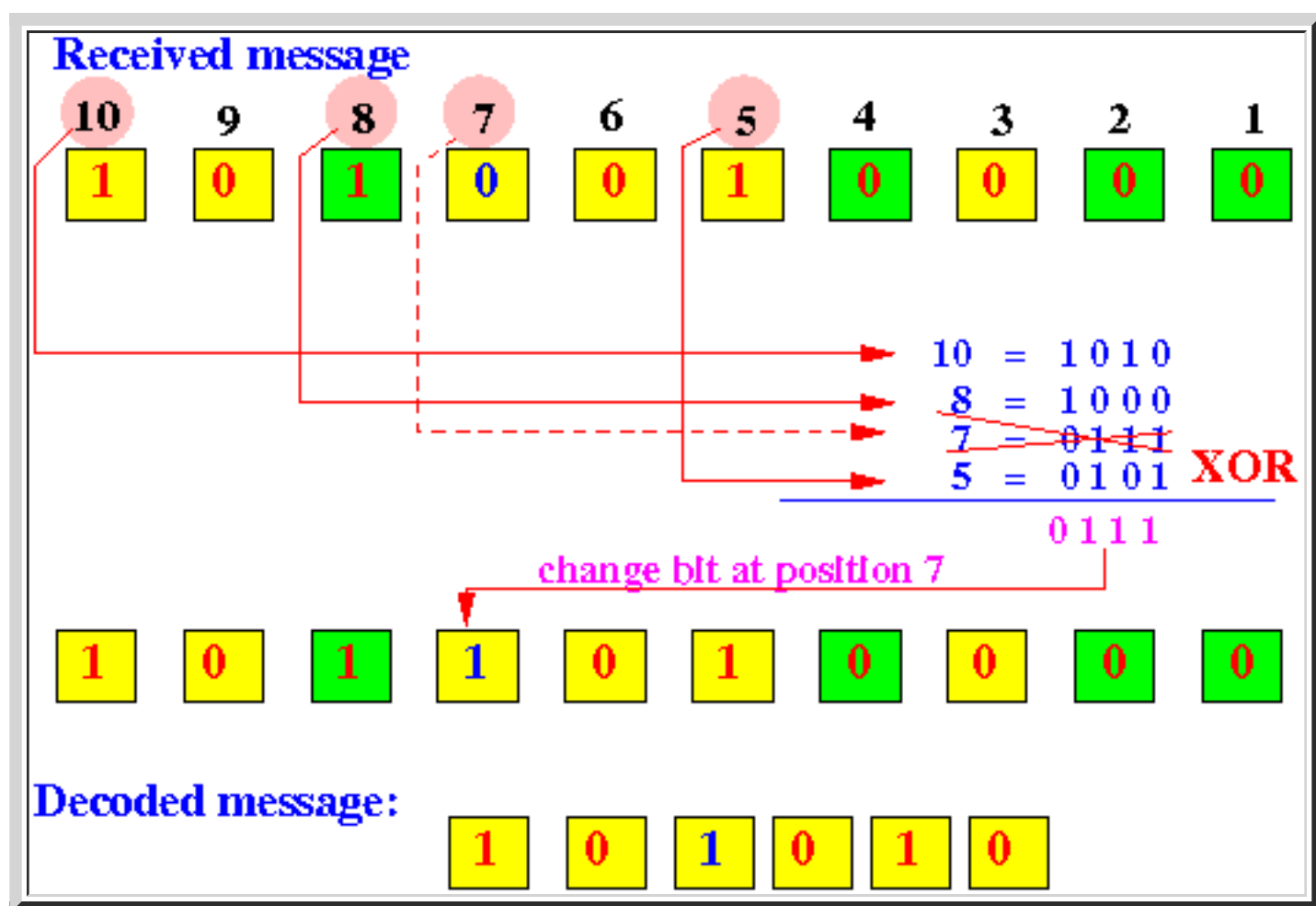
- Message has **no error** (which was what happened !)

- **Case 2:** transmission was received with **one bit error**

- Received message = **1010010000**

(bit position **7** was received in **error**)

Outcome of the decode procedure:



Result:

- **XOR** result = **0111** = **7** (≤ 10 (message length))

Conclusion:

- Message has **1 bit error** at **bit position 7** (which was what happened !)

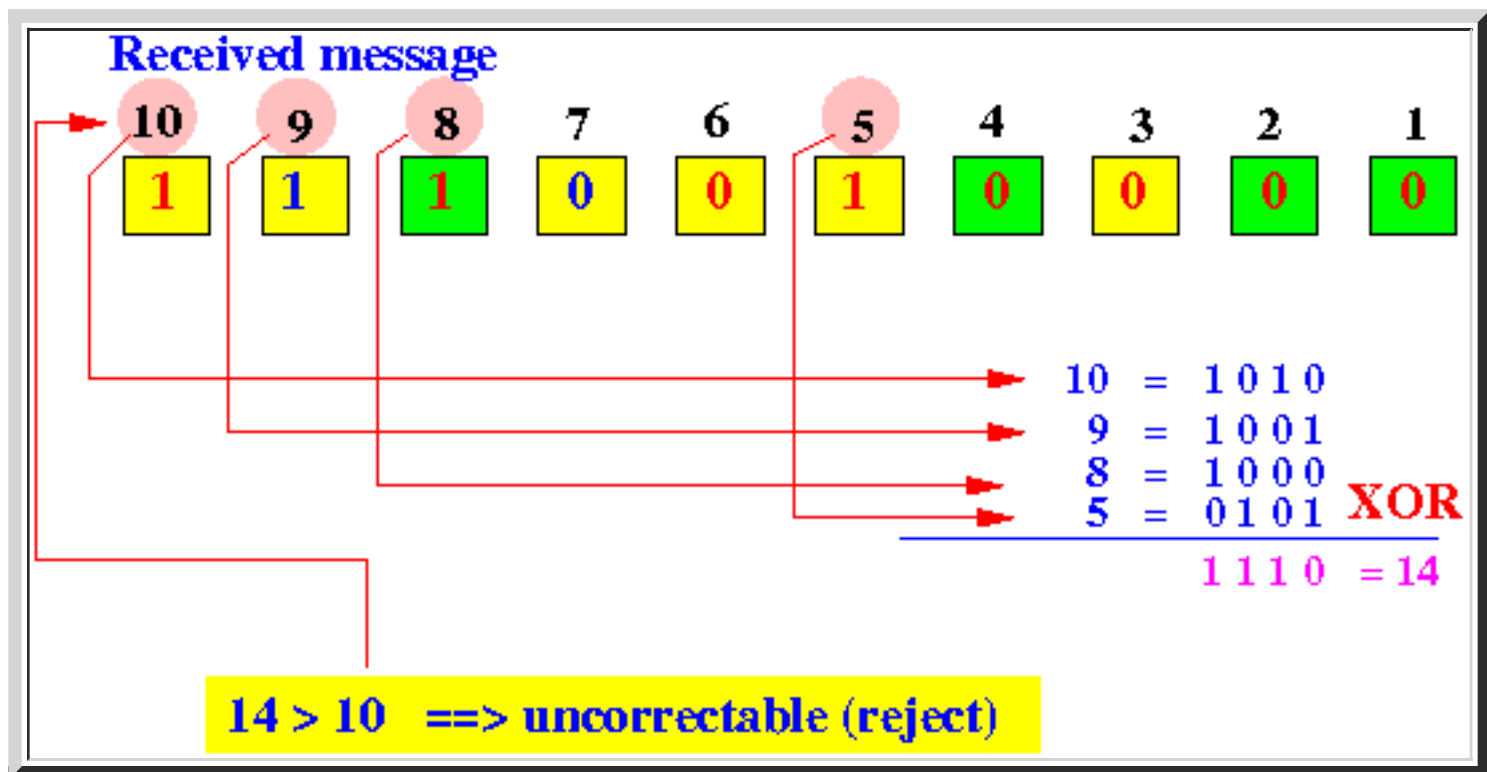
(Try with a bit error in some **other** position !)

Case 3: transmission was received with (detectable) **two bits error**

- Received message = **1110010000**

(Bit positions **7** and **9** were received in **error**)

Outcome of the **decode procedure**:



Result:

- XOR** result = **1110** = **14** (> **10** (message length))

Conclusion:

- Message has **multiple bit errors** -- correcting is **impossible** (which was what happened !)

• **Warning: multiple error can cause erroneous correction in Hamming procedure**

◦ **Fact:**

- Some multiple bit errors** will cause the **Hamming decode procedure** to believe that there was a **single bit error**

◦ **Example:**

- We use the **same** example:

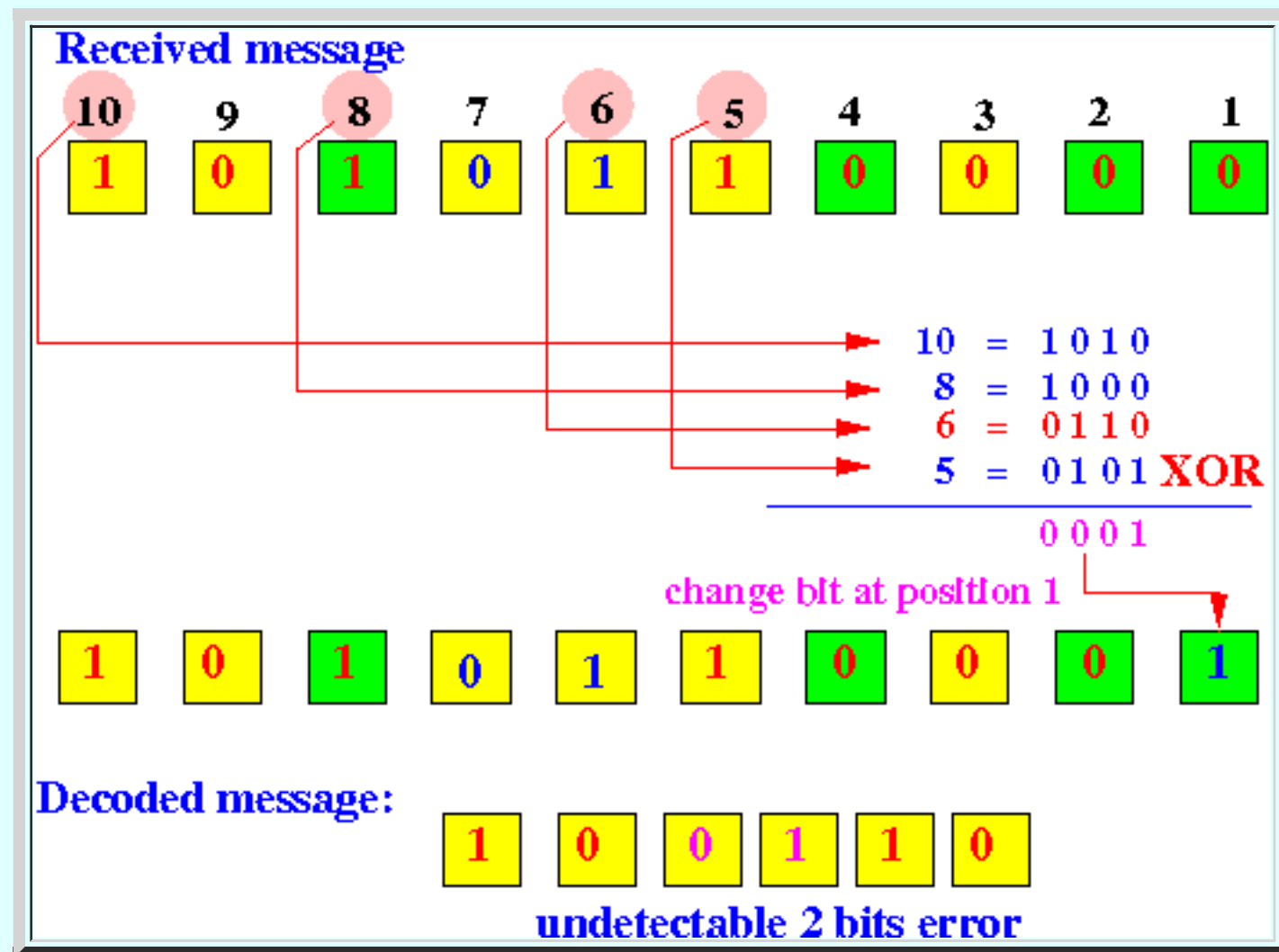
Hamming encode message: **1011010000**

(original message was: 101010)

- Suppose bit positions **6** and **7** were received in **error**:

Received message = 1010110000

- Outcome of the **decode procedure**:



Result:

- XOR** result = 0001 = 1 (≤ 10 (message length))

Conclusion:

- Messages has **1 bit error** at bit position **1**...

(This is **wrong** !!!)

Intro to *check summing*

- **Check summing**
 - Interpret a **binary pattern** as **numbers**:

- Facts about **binary numbers**:

- **Computer communication** always transmit **binary codes**
 - A **binary code** can represent some **fact**

Example:

ASCII code:	
01000001	'A'

Marital status code:	
00000000	Single
00000001	Married
00000010	Divorced
00000011	Widowed
- **Binary codes** can **always** be **interpreted** as an **integer**:

Binary code	meaning in ASCII code	meaning as bin number
01000001	the letter 'A'	decimal value 65

- **Check summing** a (input) message:

- We **interpret** a **binary code/pattern** in the **input data** as:

- **Integer value** (in **binary number representation**)
- We can **compute** the **sum** of **all value** in the **input data**:

- We **truncate** the (running) **sum** to **n bits** to **prevent "overflow"** ...
- **Commonly used lengths** for the **summation**:

- **8 bits**,
 - **16 bits** or
 - **32 bits**

- We *append* the (check) sum at the end of the input data
(So the receiver can verify the (check) sum of the original input)

○ Example:

Message: ABC

In Binary code: 01000001 01000010 01000011

Compute check sum:

$$\begin{array}{r} 01000001 \\ 01000010 \\ + 01000011 \\ \hline 110000110 \end{array} \quad (\text{truncated to 8 bits})$$

Transmitted message:

01000001 01000010 01000011 10000110

● Detecting bit errors with check sums

○ Checking for errors with check sum:

- The receiver *knows* that the message contains a check sum (byte) at the end !!!
- Check sum verification:
 1. The receiver compute the check sum of the received message (excluding the last byte)
 2. The receiver compares the computed check sum against the received check sum

○ Example 1: *no bit errors*

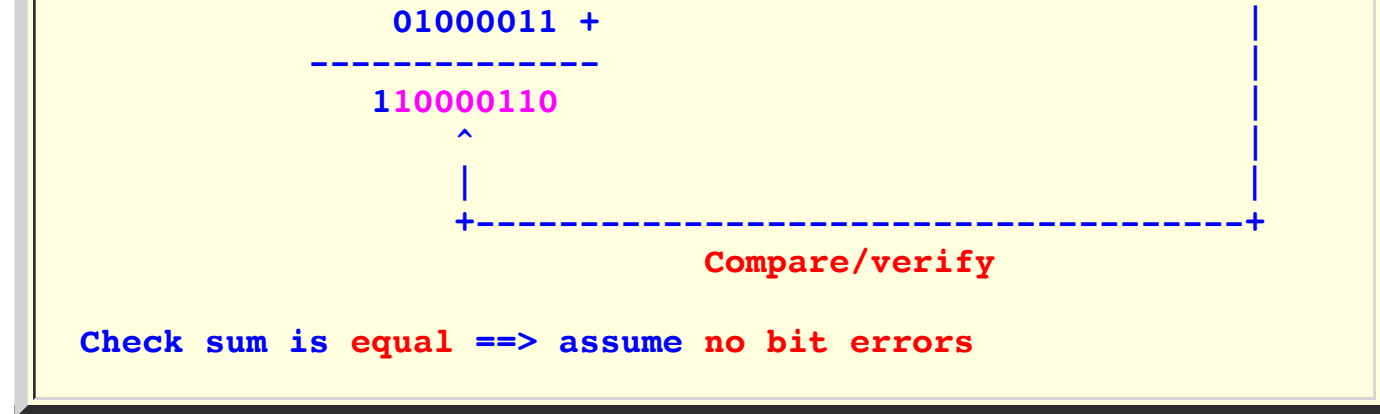
Original message: 01000001 01000010 01000011

Transmitted message: 01000001 01000010 01000011 10000110

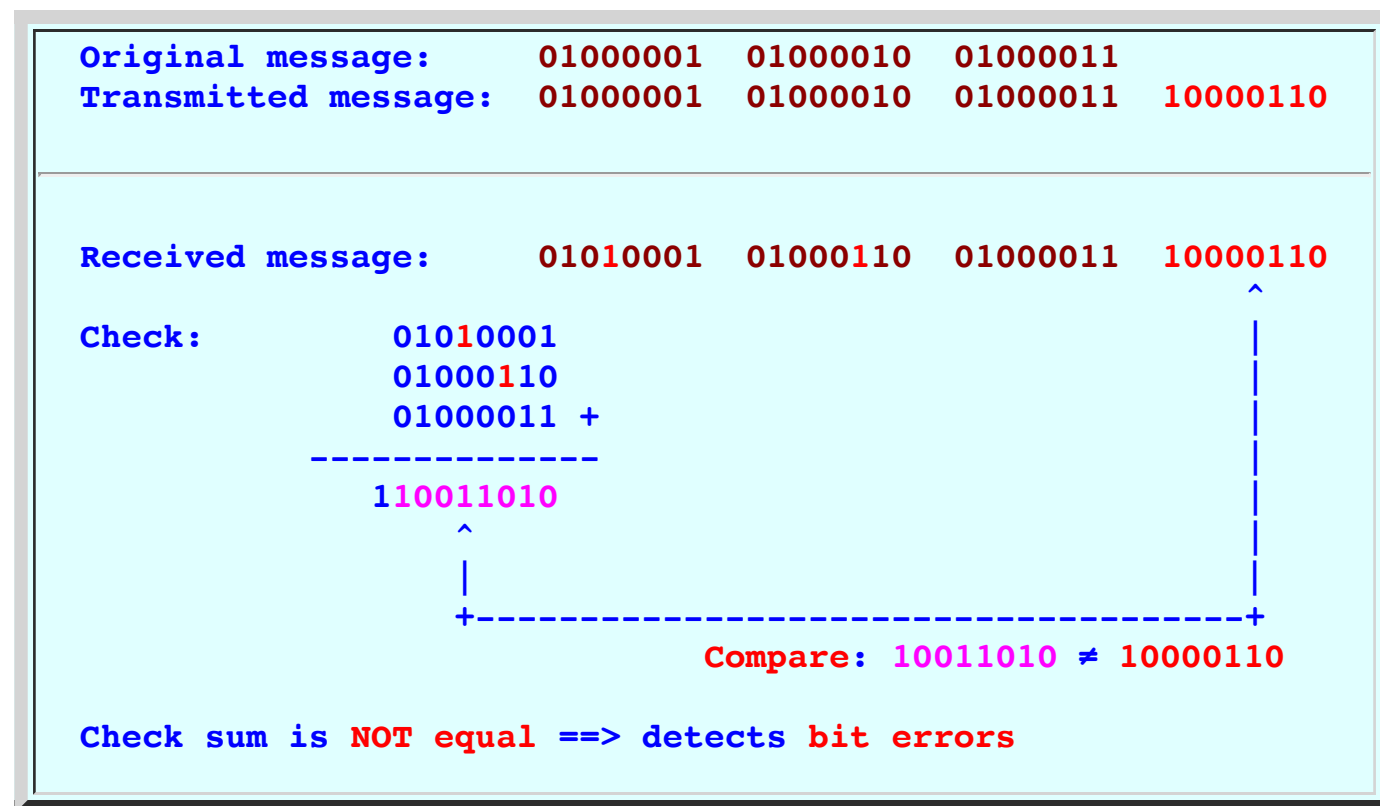
Received message: 01000001 01000010 01000011 10000110

Check sum:

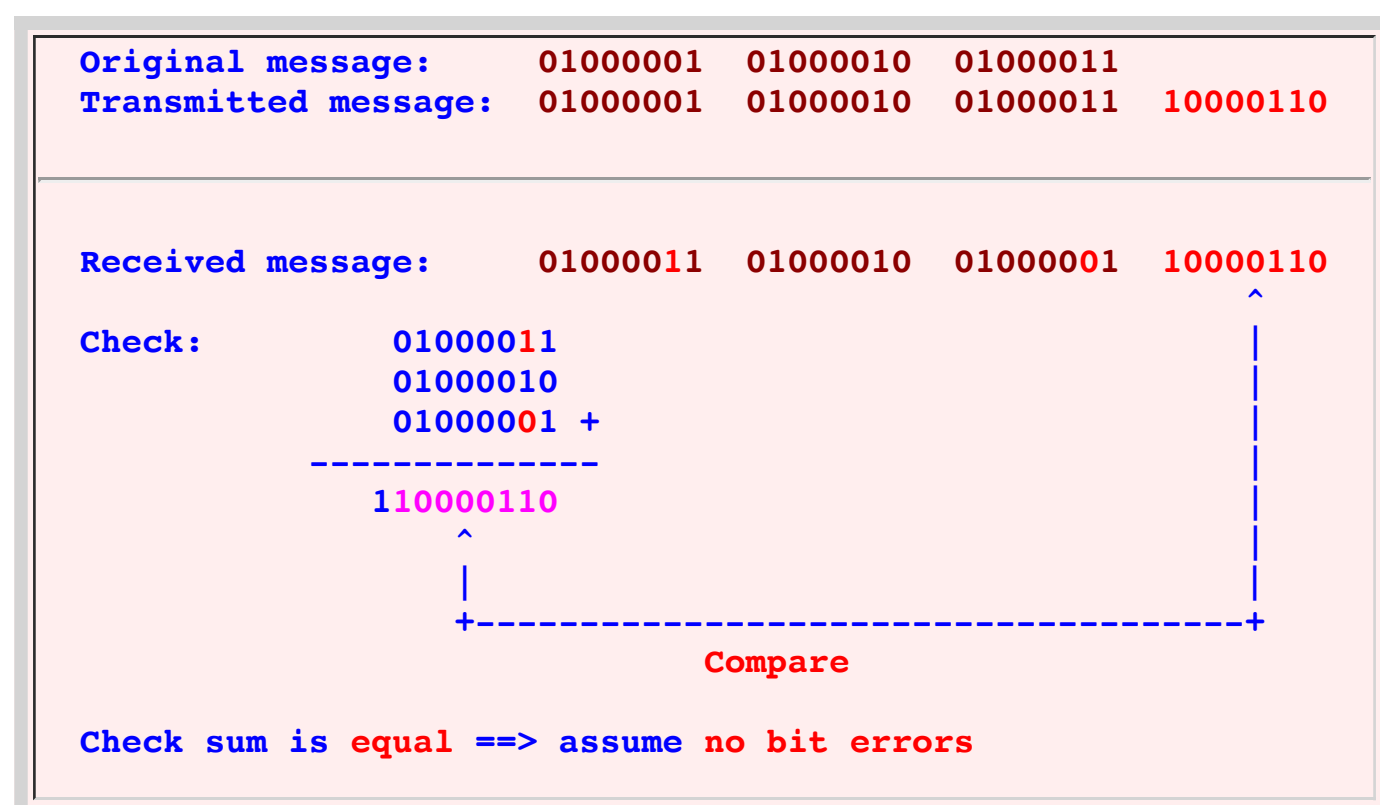
$$\begin{array}{r} 01000001 \\ 01000010 \\ \hline \end{array}$$



◦ Example 2: **some** bit errors



◦ Example 3: the **check sum** method can **miss detection** of some **2 bit errors**



• An **alternate sum** operation: XOR (instead of ADD)

◦ Goal of the **check sum**:

- The **check sum** is used to **protect** the **integrity** of every **(data) value** in the **entire message**

- The **sum** computed is **meaningless** (i.e., the **sum** is **not** a **total** of some **useful value**)

- A **more efficient** operation used to **protect** the **integrity** of **serie of values** is:

- **XOR**

Example:

```
Message:      ABC

In Binary:    01000001  01000010  01000011

Check "sum":

              01000001      (XOR is computed per column)
              01000010
XOR 01000011
-----
              01000000

Transmitted message:

              01000001  01000010  01000011  01000000
```

Note:

- **XOR** applied to **multiple input value** works like this:

- If there are an **even number** of 1's, then **XOR output** is **0**
- If there are an **odd number** of 1's, then **XOR output** is **1**

- **Property of a message that uses an XOR sum**

- **Fact:**

- Due to the **property** of the **XOR operation**:

- The **number of 1 bits** in **every column** of the **XOR check sum computation** is **even**

Example:

```
Message:      ABC

In Binary:    01000001  01000010  01000011

Check "sum":

              01000001      (XOR is computed per column)
              01000010
XOR 01000011
-----
              01000000
```

Reason:

- *If* a **column** has an *odd number* of **1 bits**:

- **XOR** will **result** in **1**; making the **total # 1 bits** in the **column** *even*

- *If* a **column** has an *even number* of **1 bits**:

- **XOR** will **result** in **0**; and the **total # 1 bits** in the **column** will *remain even*

• Detecting bit errors with "XOR check sums"

- **Checking** for **errors** with **check sum**:

- **How** to **verify** a **received message**:

- The **receiver** must **compute** the **XOR check sum** of the **message** *and* the **check sum**

- If the **result** = **000...00** (all bits are 0), then:

- The **receiver** will **assume** that the **message** contains *no bit errors*

Otherwise:

- The **receiver** will **assume** that the **message** contains *some bit errors*

- **Example 1: no bit errors** case

```
Original message:  01000001  01000010  01000011
Transmitted message: 01000001  01000010  01000011  01000000

Received message:  01000001  01000010  01000011  01000000

Check:
      01000001
      01000010
      01000011
      01000000  XOR
      -----
      00000000

"Xor sum" is equal to 00000000 ==> assume no bit errors
```

- **Example 2: some bit errors** case

Original message:	01000001	01000010	01000011	
Transmitted message:	01000001	01000010	01000011	01000000

Received message:	01010001	01000110	01000011	01000000
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------

Check:	01010001	
	01000110	
	01000011	
	01000000	XOR

	00010100	

Check sum is NOT equal to 00000000 ==> assumes some bit errors

- Example 3: the XOR sum method can *also* miss detection of some 2 bit errors

Original message:	01000001	01000010	01000011	
Transmitted message:	01000001	01000010	01000011	01000000

Received message:	01000011	01000010	01000001	01000000
-------------------	----------	----------	----------	----------

Check:	01000011	
	01000010	
	01000001	
	01000000	XOR

	00000000	

XOR sum is equal to 00000000 ==> assumes no bit errors

Pyloniimial arithmetic in **modulo 2**

- **CRC: a more *robust* (error detection) check summing technique**

- **Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC):**

- **Cyclic Redundancy Check** = a **check "sum"** computation technique based on *division* of:

- The **message (bits)** and
- A **"CRC polynomial"**

- The **Cyclic Redundance Check (CRC)** method is also known as

- **polynomial code checksum**

- Wikipedia page: [**click here**](#)

- **Facts on **CRC**:**

- The **Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)** method is the **most commonly used "check summing" method** in use today
- When a **communication professional** use the term "**check sum**" he/she is **referring** to a **CRC check sum**

Why is **CRC** is **so popular**:

- **CRC codes** can **detect common occuring errors** that are **caused by noise (lightning)** in **transmission channels**.

- **CRC** can **detect n consecutive bit errors**

- **CRC encoders/decoders** are **easy to construct**:

- **Electronic circuits** used to **compute** the **CRC code** consists of **handful** of **elementary gates** and **1-bit memery circuits (D-flipflops) !!!**

- **CRC computation**

- **Fact:**

- The **CRC check sum computation** uses:

- **Polynomial arithmetic** in **modulo 2** arithmetic

- **Furthermore:**

- The **polynomials** will be **represented** using **bit strings**.

- **Polynomial arithmetic** operation becomes **simple** binary number operations using **XOR !!!**

- **Preliminary to CRC computation**

- We will **discuss** the following **material** first:

1. **Polynomials** representation in **modulo 2 arithmetic**
2. Performing **modulo 2 arithmetic** on **polynomials**

3. **Representing** polynomials using **bit strings**
4. Performing **modulo 2 arithmetic** on **polynomials** represented in **bit strings**

- **Polynomial representation using modulo 2 arithmetic**

- **Modulo 2 representation:**

- An **even coefficient** is mapped to **0**
 - An **odd coefficient** is mapped to **1**

- **Example** representing **polynomials** in **modulo 2**:

Polynomial: $-x^3 + 2x + 1$
 The polynomial in module 2 representation: $x^3 + 1 \pmod{2}$

(Coefficient -1 is odd and is mapped to 1)
 (Coefficient 2 is even and is mapped to 0)
 (Coefficient 1 is odd and is mapped to 1)

- Polynomial arithmetic using modulo 2 arithmetic

- Example: addition

$$\begin{aligned} (x^3 + x) + (x + 1) &= x^3 + 2x + 1 \\ &= x^3 + 1 \pmod{2} \end{aligned}$$

- Example: subtraction

$$\begin{aligned} (x^3 + x) - (x + 1) &= x^3 - 1 \\ &= x^3 + 1 \pmod{2} \end{aligned}$$

- Example: multiplication

$$\begin{aligned} (x^2 + x) \times (x + 1) &= (x^3 + x^2) + (x^2 + x) \\ &= x^3 + 2x^2 + x \\ &= x^3 + x \pmod{2} \end{aligned}$$

- Example: division

$$\begin{array}{r} x^2 + 1 \\ \text{-----} \\ x + 1 \, / \, x^3 + x^2 + x \\ x^3 + x^2 \\ \text{-----} \\ x \\ x + 1 \\ \text{-----} \\ -1 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} x^3 + x^2 + x \\ \text{-----} \\ x + 1 \end{array} = x^2 + 1 \quad \text{remainder } 1 \pmod{2}$$

- Modulo 2 arithmetic

- Summary: **modulo 2 arithmetic**

0	1	0	1
+ 0	+ 0	+ 1	+ 1
-----	-----	-----	-----
0	1	1	0

Observation:

- The **+ (mod 2)** operation is the *same* as an **XOR (exclusive OR)** operation used in logic !!!!

- Polynomial representation using a bit string

- **Bit positions**

- **Bit string** and **position** of **a bit** in the **bit string**:

```

Bit string:      1010
                  ^^^^
                  ||||
                  |||+-- bit position 0
                  ||+--- bit position 1
                  |+---- bit position 2
                  +----- bit position 3

```

- **Bit string** representation of a **polynomial**:

- The **bit** at **position k** is the *coefficient* of the **factor x^k** in the **polynomial**

Example:

Polynomial:

$$= \begin{matrix} & x^5 & + & x^4 & + & & x^2 & + & & 1 \\ = & 1x^5 & + & 1x^4 & + & 0x^3 & + & 1x^2 & + & 0x^1 & + & 1x^0 \end{matrix}$$

Bit string representation for the polynomial:

110101
^ ^ ^ ^ ^
| | | | |
| | | | +----- x⁰
| | | | +----- x¹

$$\begin{array}{r}
 ||| + \text{-----} x^2 \\
 || + \text{-----} x^3 \\
 | + \text{-----} x^4 \\
 + \text{-----} x^5
 \end{array}$$

- Polynomial arithmetic using modulo 2 arithmetic with bit strings

- Polynomial arithmetic in modulo 2 can be perform with bit string representation as follows:

- Replace the + (mod 2) operation with:

XOR

- Example: addition

$$\begin{aligned}
 (x^3 + x) + (x + 1) &= x^3 + 2x + 1 \\
 &= x^3 + 1 \quad (\text{mod } 2)
 \end{aligned}$$

In bit string representation:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 1010 + 0011 ==> \begin{array}{r} 1010 \\ 0011 \\ \text{-----} \end{array} \text{XOR} \\
 1001 ==> x^3 + 1 \quad (\text{mod } 2)
 \end{array}$$

Same result !!!

- Example: subtraction

$$\begin{aligned}
 (x^3 + x) - (x + 1) &= x^3 - 1 \\
 &= x^3 + 1 \quad (\text{mod } 2)
 \end{aligned}$$

In bit string representation:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 1010 + 0011 ==> \begin{array}{r} 1010 \\ 0011 \\ \text{-----} \end{array} \text{XOR} \\
 1001 ==> x^3 + 1 \quad (\text{mod } 2)
 \end{array}$$

Same result !!!

○ Example: **multiplication**

$$\begin{aligned}
 (x^2 + x) \times (x + 1) &= (x^3 + x^2) + (x^2 + x) \\
 &= x^3 + 2x^2 + x \\
 &= x^3 + x \pmod{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

In bit string representation:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 110 \times 011 \implies \begin{array}{r} 110 \\ \times 011 \\ \hline 110 \\ 1100 \\ 00000 \\ \hline 1010 \end{array} \text{ XOR} \\
 \implies x^3 + x \pmod{2}
 \end{array}$$

Same result !!!

○ Example: **division**

$$\begin{array}{r}
 x^2 + 1 \\
 \hline
 x + 1 \mid x^3 + x^2 + x \\
 \underline{x^3 + x^2} \\
 x \\
 \underline{x + 1} \\
 -1
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 x^3 + x^2 + x \\
 \hline
 x + 1
 \end{array}
 = x^2 + 1 \text{ remainder } 1 \pmod{2}$$

In bit string representation:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 101 \implies \text{Quotient} = x^2 + 1 \pmod{2} \\
 11 \mid 1110 \\
 \underline{11} \\
 01 \\
 \underline{00} \\
 10 \\
 \underline{11} \\
 1 \implies \text{remainder} = 1 \pmod{2}
 \end{array}$$

○ **Conclusion:**

- We can **use** the **bit string *representation*** an the **XOR operation** to **perform** the **computation** for the **polynomial *arithmetic***

CRC encoding procedure

- **Generator polynomial**

- **Generator polynomial:**

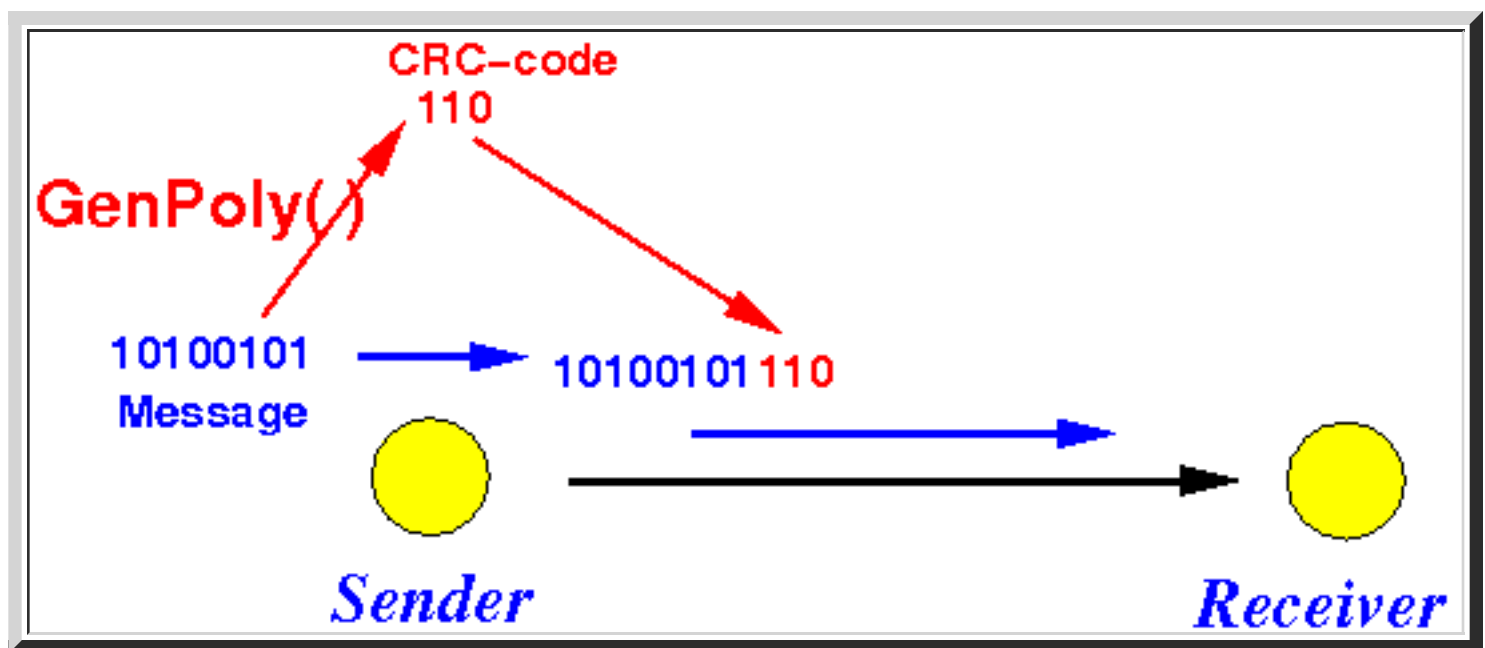
- **Generator polynomial** = the *divisor polynomial* in the **polynomial division** operation

- **Obvious fact:**

- The **sender** and the **receiver** must use the *same* **generator polynomial** to **encode/decode** the **messages**.

- **How to use CRC code**

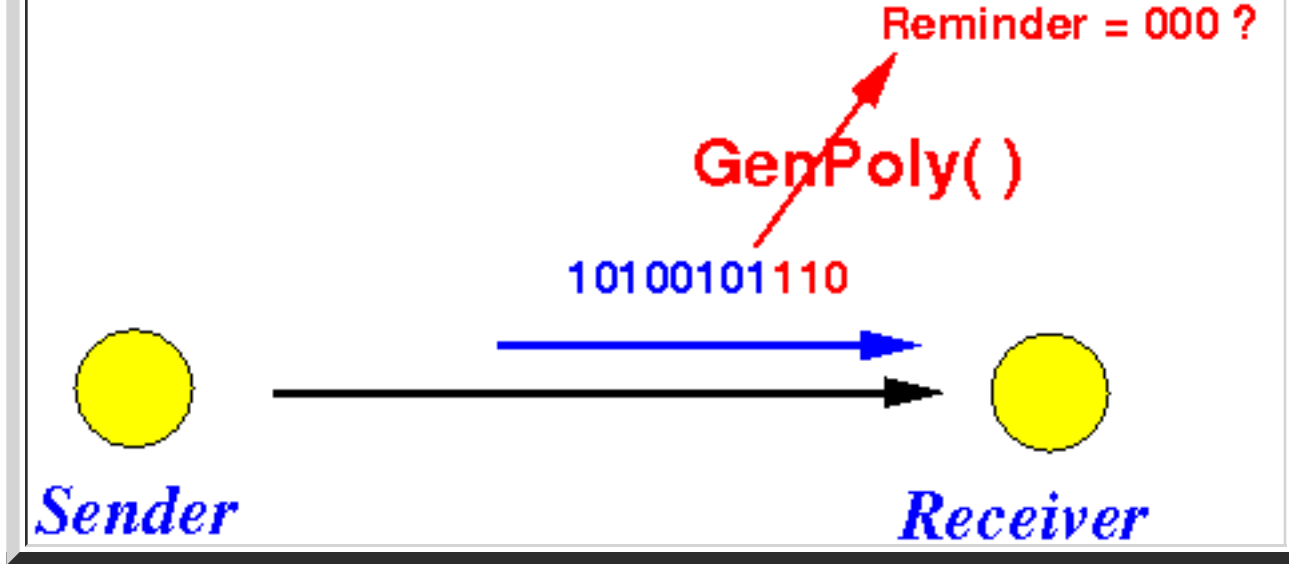
- **How** the **sender** transmits a **message**:



Explanation:

- The **sender** *divides* the **message** by the **generator polynomial**
 - The **sender** *includes* the **remainder** of the **division** in the **transmitted message**

- **How** the **receiver** checks a **received message** for **correctness**:



Explanation:

- The **receiver** divides the **message + CRC code (remainder)** by the **same** generator polynomial
- The **receiver** will **assume** there is **no bit error(s)** if the **remainder** of the **division** is equal to **0**

• *Encoding procedure of the Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC) codes*

- The **CRC encoding procedure**:

1. *Let:*

N = length of the generator polynomial
= number of bits in the generator polynomial

2. Append **N-1 ZERO (0) bits** to the **end** of the **input message**.

3. **Divide** the **messages + (N-1) ZEROS** by the **generator polynomial**.

Note:

- The **division operation** will use the **XOR operation** as the **subtract operation**

4. **Append** the **remainder** of the "**division**" to the **input message**

- The **resulting message** is the **CRC protected message**

- **Example:** computing the **CRC code** (= **check sum**) for a **message**

Generator polynomial: $x^3 + x^2 + 1$

Generator polynomial in bit string: **1101**

(**1101** represents the polynomial: $1 \times x^3 + 1 \times x^2 + 0 \times x^1 + 1 \times x^0$)

N = 4 (because Generator polynomial has 4 terms, or bits in "1101")

Input message: $x^4 + 1$

Input message in bit string: **10001**

Computing the **CRC (check sum)** for the message **10001** using Gen Polyn **1101**:

1. Add **N-1 (= 3)** **ZERO's bits** to message:

Message + 3 ZEROS = **10001000**

2. Compute CRC by dividing "message + 3 zeros" by generator polynomial:

```

      00011
      -----
1101 / 10001000
      1101  <----- **** see Note below !! ****
      ---- (XOR)
        1011
        1101
        ---- (XOR)
          1100
          1101
          ---- (XOR)
            000100 <----- remainder = 100
  
```

CRC = 100

3. CRC protected message = **10001100**

- **Note:** *how to perform* the "division"

- Whenever the **leading bit** of the **divident** = **1**, you get a **1** in the **quotient**.

Example:

```
      1
      -----
1101 / 10001000    // Even when 1000 < 1101 !!!
      1101
      ---- XOR
      0101
```

- The **division** uses the **XOR operation** as *subtraction*

• A longer example....

◦ Example:

CRC generator polynomial: 11011 (N = 5)
Message: 11100110

1. Add 4 0-bits to the message:

11100110 --> 111001100000

2. Divide:

```
      10101110
      -----
11011 / 111001100000
      11011 | | | | |
      -----v| | | | |
        1111 | | | | |
        0000 | | | | |
      -----v| | | | |
        11111 | | | | |
        11011 | | | | |
      -----v| | | | |
          1000 | | | | |
          0000 | | | | |
      -----v| | | | |
          10000 | | | | |
          11011 | | | | |
      -----v| | | | |
            10110 | | | | |
            11011 | | | | |
      -----v| | | | |
              11010 | | | | |
              11011 | | | | |
      -----v| | | | |
                00010 | | | | |
                00000 | | | | |
```

0010

3. CRC protected message = 111001100010

- **Property of a CRC protected message**

- **Recall:** **how** is the **CRC code** computed

CRC-polynomial / -----
Original-Message + 000..000

....

CRC-code

- A **CRC protected message** consists of:

Original-Message + CRC-code

- **Property** of every **CRC protect message**:

- The **remainder** of a **CRC protected message** divided by the **CRC polynomial** (used in the **encoding**) is:

- **Always** equal to **ZERO !!!**

In formula:

(Original-Message + CRC-code) % CRC-polynomial == 0 !!!

Reason:

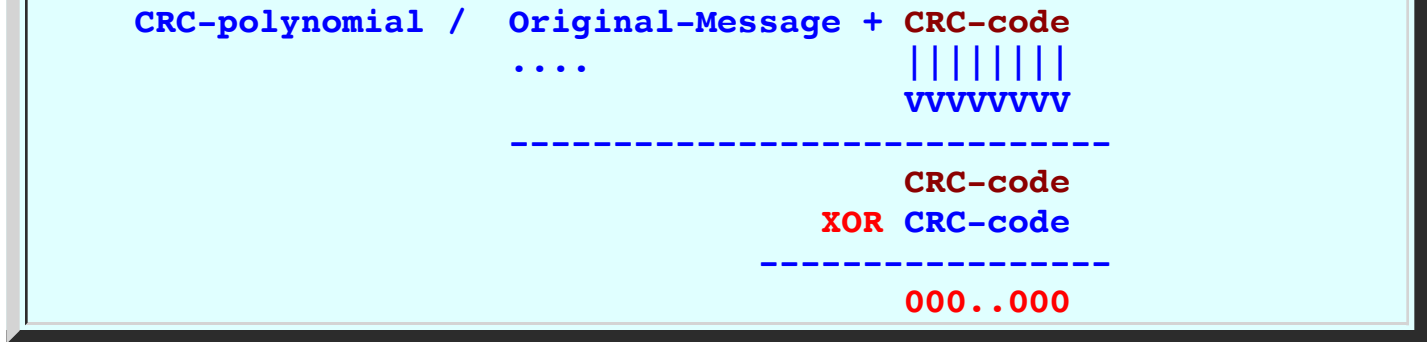
Since:

CRC-polynomial / -----
Original-Message + 000..000

....

CRC-code

We will have:



(The **division** will **now** bring down the **value "CRC-code"** which will be **subtracted** from the **remaining value "CRC-code"** --- therefore **producing** the **final remainder 0**)

◦ **Example:**

- **Previously**, we have **computed** the **CRC code** for a **message**

CRC generator polynomial:	11011	(N = 5)
Message:	11100110	
CRC code =	0010	
CRC protected message	= 111001100010	

- **CRC check:**

Divide:		
by	Received message	111001100010
	CRC polynomial	11011
(don't care about the quotient)		

11011 /	111001100010	
	11011	

	11111	
	11011	

	10000	
	11011	

	10110	
	11011	

	11011	
	11011	

	000000	<--- Remainder = 0 !!

CRC decoding procedure

- Decoding a CRC protected message
 - CRC *decoding* procedure:

▪ "Divide" the *entire received message* by the *generator polynomial*

Note:

▪ The receiver *does not* append any **ZERO (0) bits** to the received message !!!

▪ There are *2 possible outcomes* of the "division":

▪ The *remainder* of the "division" is *equal* to 0000..**000**:

▪ The *message* will *assumed* to be *free of errors*

▪ **Otherwise** (remainder is *not equal* to 000..**00**):

▪ The *message* is *assumed* to *contain* some *bit errors*

- Example 1: received message has **no errors**

Generator polynomial: 1101 (Math. notation: $1 \times x^3 + 1 \times x^2 + 0 \times x^1 + + 1 \times x^0$)

N = 4 (Generator polynomial has 4 terms, or bits in "1001")

Sender: (from a previous example)

Message:10001

CRC protected message:10001100

1. Received message = 10001100 (error free !!!)

2. Check CRC by dividing "received message" by generator polynomial:

00011

```

      1101 / 10001100
            1101
            ---- (XOR)
            1011
            1101
            ---- (XOR)
            1101
            1101
            ---- (XOR)
            000 <----- remainder = 000

```

3. Received message is assumed to be correct

Actual message = 10001 (with the CRC bits removed)

- **Example 2:** received message has **two bits in error**

Generator polynomial: 1101 (Math. notation: $1 \times x^3 + 1 \times x^2 + 0 \times x^1 + + 1 \times x^0$)

N = 4 (Generator polynomial has 4 terms, or bits in "1001")

Sender: (from a previous example)

```

Message:          10001
CRC protected message: 10001100

```

1. Received message = 11101100

2. Check CRC by dividing "received message" by generator polynomial:

```

      00011
      -----
1101 / 11101100
      1101
      ---- (XOR)
      01111
      1101
      ---- (XOR)
      1000
      1101
      ---- (XOR)
      0101 <----- remainder = 101 ≠ 000 !!!

```

3. Received message is assumed to be corrupted

Bit errors have been detected !!!

The effect of errors on a CRC message

- Preliminaries

- Recall from the CRC decoding procedure:

■ Let M be CRC protected message

■ Let G be the generator polynomial

■ If the message M is received with no error, then:

G / M

.....

Remainder = 0000...000

- The error polynomial

- Error polynomial:

■ Error polynomial = the polynomial that represents the bit errors in the received message

■ If a bit is received correctly:

■ The corresponding bit in the error polynomial = 0

■ If a bit is received incorrectly:

■ The corresponding bit in the error polynomial = 1

- Example:

Transmitted message = 10001100

Received message = 11101100

|||||

VVVVVVV

Error polynomial = 01100000

- How to determine the error polynomial:

$$\text{Error} = \text{ReceivedMsg} \text{ XOR } \text{TransmittedMsg}$$

- The CRC computation and the error polynomial

- Claim:

- The **CRC remainder** computed using:

$$\text{Received Message} / \text{generator polynomial}$$

is equal to the **CRC remainder** computed using:

$$\text{Error} / \text{generator polynomial}$$

- Proof:

$$\text{Error} = \text{ReceivedMsg} \text{ XOR } \text{TransmittedMsg}$$

Therefore:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Error} \% \text{ GP} &= (\text{ReceivedMsg} \text{ XOR } \text{TransmittedMsg}) \% \text{ GP} \quad (\text{GP} = \text{Gen Poly}) \\ &= (\text{ReceivedMsg} \% \text{ GP}) \text{ XOR } (\text{TransmittedMsg} \% \text{ GP}) \quad // \text{ TransmittedMsg} \% \text{ GP} = 0 !!! \\ &= (\text{ReceivedMsg} \% \text{ GP}) \text{ XOR } 0 \\ &= \text{ReceivedMsg} \% \text{ GP} \end{aligned}$$

- Example: (previous example)

- Message with bit errors:

Generator polynomial: 1101 (Math. notation: $1 \times x^3 + 1 \times x^2 + 0 \times x^1 + 1 \times x^0$)

N = 4 (Generator polynomial has 4 terms, or bits in "1001")

Sender: (from a previous example)

Message: 10001
CRC protected message: 10001100

1. Received message = 11101100

2. Check CRC by dividing "received message" by generator polynomial:

$$\begin{array}{r} 00011 \\ \text{-----} \\ 1101 \text{ / } 11101100 \\ 1101 \\ \text{---- (XOR)} \\ 01111 \\ 1101 \\ \text{---- (XOR)} \\ 1000 \\ 1101 \end{array}$$

----- (XOR)
0101 <----- remainder = 101 ≠ 000 !!!

3. Received message is assumed to be corrupted

Bit errors have been detected !!!

- We can obtain the *same CRC remainder* as follows:

```
1. Received message = 11101100
                   = 10001100 + 01100000
                               ^
                               |
                        "error polynomial"

2. Check CRC by dividing the error polynomial by generator polynomial:

                1001
            -----
1101 / 01100000
      1101
      ----
        1000
        1101
        ----
          101 <----- same remainder = 101 !!!
```

- When can the CRC method detect error ?

- Recall that:

- The CRC method has detect (some) bit errors if:

- The *remainder* of the check procedure ≠ 0000..0000

- In other words:

```
if ( ReceivedMsg % GenPolynome ≠ 0000...0000 )
  then: bit errors has been detected
```

- From above:

```
ReceivedMsg % GenPolynome = Error % GenPolynome !!!
```

Therefore:

```
if ( Error % GenPolynome ≠ 0000...0000 )
  then: bit errors has been detected
```

In other words:

- If the **error polynomial** is *not* divisible by the **generator polynomial**, then:

- The **bit error(s)** will be **detected** by the **CRC method**
(Because the *remainder* of the division is $\neq 000...0000$!!!)

Otherwise:

- The **bit error(s)** will **not** be **detected** by the **CRC method**
(Because the *remainder* of the division is $= 000...0000$!!!)

○ **Example:**

Generator polynomial: 1101 (Math. notation: $1 \times x^3 + 1 \times x^2 + 0 \times x^1 + + 1 \times x^0$)

N = 4 (Generator polynomial has 4 terms, or bits in "1001")

Sender: (from a previous example)

Message: 10001
CRC protected message: 10001100

1. Received message = 11100100
= 10001100 XOR 01101000

2. Check CRC by dividing "received message" by generator polynomial:

```

          00011
          -----
1101 / 11100100
      1101 |||
      ----v||
        01101||
         1101||
         ----vv
           0000
```

3. Received message is assumed to be **CORRECT**

Bit errors have NOT been detected !!!

Designing *good* CRC generating polynomials

- Designing CRC *good* polynomials

- There is a **rich Mathematical theory** on **how to design** CRC polynomials with **certain desirable properties**

- It's **beyond the scope** of this *Networking course* to go into the **Mathematical details**.
- I will only show you **2 results**

1. **How to** design a **generator polynomial** that can **detect** an *even number* of **bit errors**
2. **How to** design a **generator polynomial** that can **detect** *n* consecutive bits in **error**

- Preliminary: polynomial factoring and *primitive* polynomial

- **Factors** of a **polynomial**

- **When** a **polynomial** can be **obtained** by **multiplying** 2 **polynomials**:

$$\text{polynomial} = \text{polynomial}_1 \times \text{polynomial}_2$$

we **say** that:

- The **polynomial** can be *factored*
- Polynomials **polynomial₁** and **polynomial₂** are the *factors* of the polynomial **polynomial**

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} (x^2 + x + 1) \times (x + 1) &= (x^3 + x^2 + x) + (x^2 + x + 1) \\ &= x^3 + 2x^2 + 2x + 1 \\ &= x^3 + 1 \qquad (\text{mod } 2) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore:

$$x^2 + x + 1 \quad \text{and} \quad x + 1 \quad \text{are factors of} \quad x^3 + 1$$

because:

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

- **Primitive polynomial:**

- **Primitive polynomial** = a polynomial that **cannot** be **factored**

I.e., A **primitive polynomial** cannot be written as a **product** of **2 different polynomials**:

$$\text{polynomial}_1 \times \text{polynomial}_2$$

- **Generator polynomial that can detect all odd number of bit errors**

- **Parity Property:**

- A **generator polynomial** that **contains** the **factor $x+1$ (= 11)** can **detect all errors** that affect an **odd number of bits**

- This property is **called** the **Parity property**

Example:

Generator polynomial: 1001 has the factor 11

How to check if gen. polyn. contains the factor "x+1" (= 11):

Divide by 11:

$$\begin{array}{r} 111 \\ \text{---} \\ 11 \, / \, 1001 \\ 11 \\ \text{---} \\ 10 \\ 11 \\ \text{---} \\ 11 \\ 11 \\ \text{---} \\ 0 \end{array} \quad \text{<---- That means: } 1001 = 11 \times 111$$

in other words: 1001 contains the factor "x+1"

• **Property of polynomials that contains "x+1" (= 11) as a factor**

- **Property** of **polynomial** with **(x+1)** as a **factor**:

- **Every message** that is **CRC protected** by a **polynomial** with **(x+1)** as a **factor** has this **property**:
 - The *number* of **1 bits** in the **CRC protected message** has an *even number* of **1 bits**

- **Example:**

```
Message:      10011      (has an odd # 1 bits)

CRC polynomial: 1001      (1001 has 11 as factor)

Compute CRC code:

      1001 / 10011000
              1001
              ---
              01000
                1001
                ---
                001    <---- Remainder

CRC protected message:

      10011001    (has an even number 1 bits !!!)
```

• **Why a polynomial containing "x+1" (= 11) can detect an even number of bit errors**

- **Why** a **polynomial** containing **"x+1" (= 11)** can **detect** an *odd number* of **bit errors**:

- An *odd number* of **bit errors** will **result** in a *received message* containing an *odd number* of **1 bits**

Reason:

- The **CRC protected message** has an *even number* of **1 bits** (see previous claim)
- There are **2 possible bit errors**

Bit error type	Effect
0 bit sent --> 1 bit received	# 1 bits increased by 1
1 bit sent --> 0 bit received	# 1 bits decreased by 1

■ Therefore:

- If there are 0 bit errors: the received message has an even number of 1 bits
- If there is 1 bit error: the received message has an odd number of 1 bits
- If there are 2 bit errors: the received message has an even number of 1 bits
- If there are 3 bit errors: the received message has an odd number of 1 bits
- And so on

○ Fact:

- When a received message containing an odd number of 1 bits is divided by the generator polynomial:

- The remainder of the division will not be equal to 000...000 !!!

This makes sense, because:

- A correctly received CRC protected message will always contain an even number of 1 bits !!

Therefore:

- A received message with an odd number of 1 bits can never be assumed correct !!!

● Generator polynomial that can detect k consecutive bit errors

○ Property of a primitive polynomial of degree n :

- If $x^n + \dots + 1$ is a primitive polynomial of degree n , then:

- The CRC code can detect any n or less consecutive bit errors

○ Reason:

Error polynomial representing k -consecutive errors: 1111..1
<----->

k bits

$$\frac{1 \dots 1}{\text{<----->}} \quad / \quad \frac{1111 \dots 1}{\text{<----->}}$$

n+1 bits k bits

$$k \leq n$$

- A **generator polynomial** containing an **primitive polynomial** of **degree n** can detect **k consecutive bit errors** ---- for any **$k \leq n$**).

- **Some commonly used CRC generator polynomials:**

- More **CRC** polynomials at **Wikipedia** page: [click here](#)

Implementing the CRC scheme in *hardware*

- Implementing the CRC division algorithm with *hardware*

- An **important advantage** of **CRC** codes is:

- The "**divide**" algorithm used in the **CRC** can be *easily* implemented with *cheap hardware*:

- Shift-register** (actually: **D-flipflops**) and
 - XOR** circuits

- Shift registers

- Shift-register circuit:

- 1 bit shift register** = a **circuit** with that **copies** the **input value** to its **output** during the time that the **clock signal** changes from **0 \Rightarrow 1** (or from **1 \Rightarrow 0**)

- You can see the **behavior** of a serie of **shift-register** in this demo:

`/home/cs455001/demo/Logic-Sim/shift-register`

- XOR circuit

- XOR circuit:

- XOR circuit** = a **circuit** with **2 inputs** and **one output**
- The **XOR** function is as follows:

0	XOR	0	=	0
0	XOR	1	=	1
1	XOR	0	=	1
1	XOR	1	=	0

- You can see the **behavior** of the **XOR** circuit in this demo:

`/home/cs455001/demo/Logic-Sim/xor`

- **Hardware CRC implementation**

- **How to create a circuit** that compute the **CRC code** for a given **generator polynomial**:

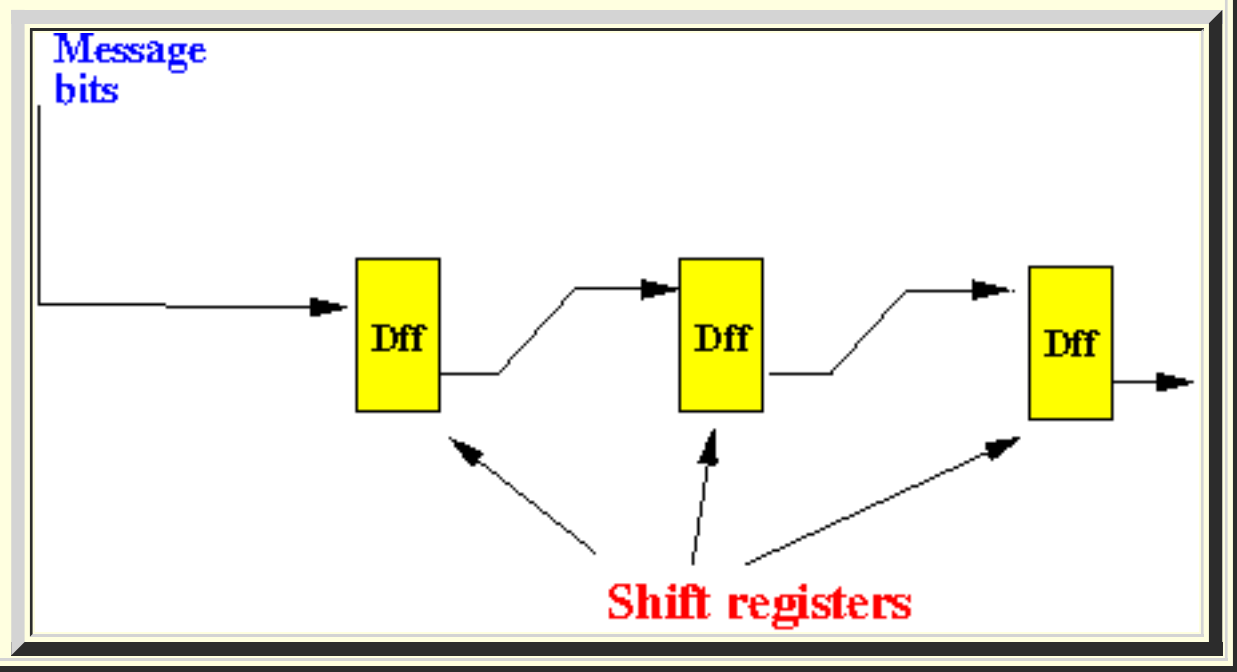
- *Let*

- **N** = length of the **generator polynomial**

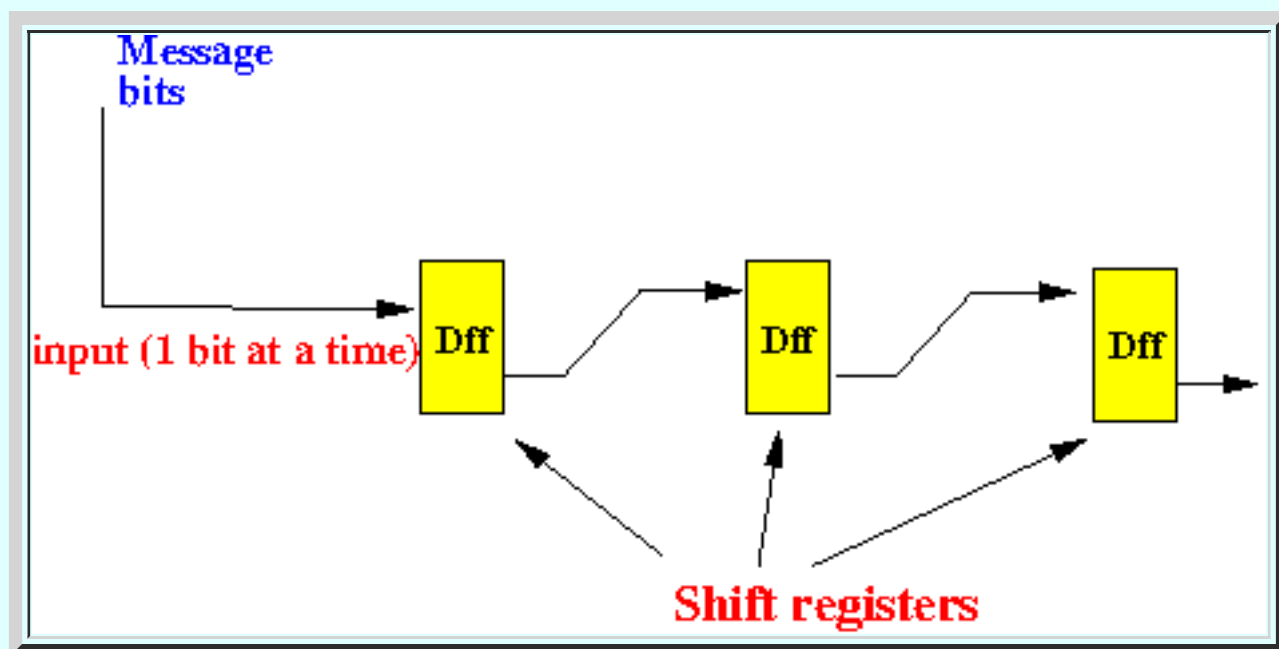
- Use **$(N-1)$ D-flipflops (= shift registers)** to **store** the **remainder of the division**.
- **Start by**

- Putting **$(N-1)$ Dffs** in a row.
- Connect the **output** of the i^{th} Dff to the **input** of the $i+1^{th}$ Dff

Example: (**$N = 4$** or **$N-1 = 3$**)



- The **input** of the **first Dff** will receive the message **one bit at a time**:



- We must **modify** the **circuit** as follows:

- Read the **CRC generator polynomial** in the **reverse order**.

- In this step, you will only use $N-1$ bits of the CRC generator polynomial

- For bit i in the (reversed ordered) CRC generator polynomial do:

- if bit $i = 1$, then:

- Change the *direct* connection to the input of the Dff (shift register) to an XOR gate

- I.e.: insert an XOR circuit before the i^{th} Dff

- Connect the output of the last Dff as the second input of the new XOR circuit

- I.e.: the output of the last Dff is fed back into the i^{th} Dff)

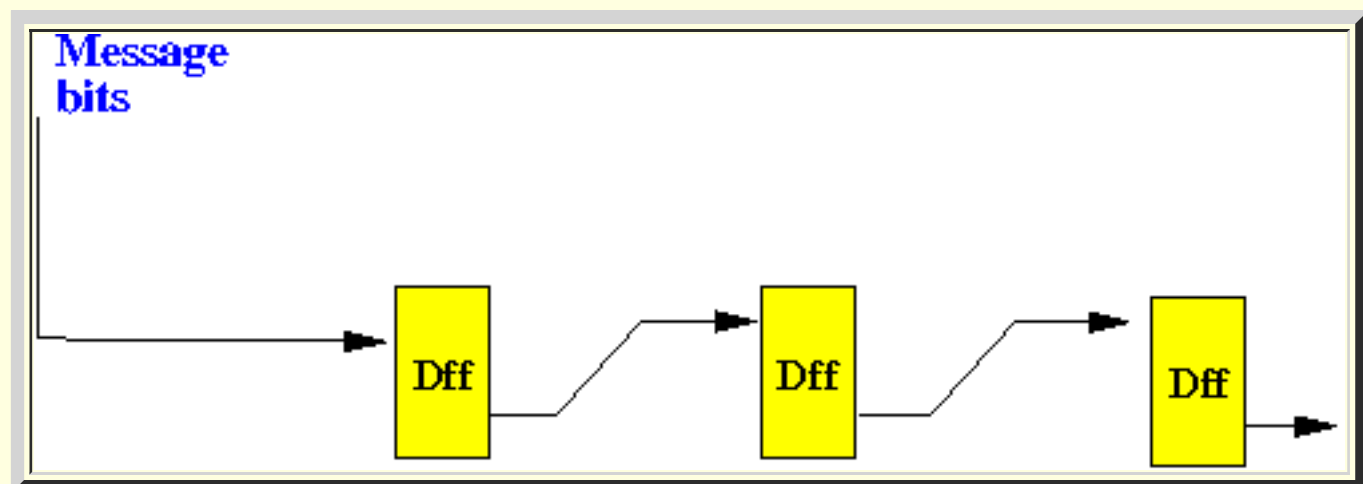
It's much easier to see and example (I'll do it in class)

- Example: compute circuit for generator polynomial 1001

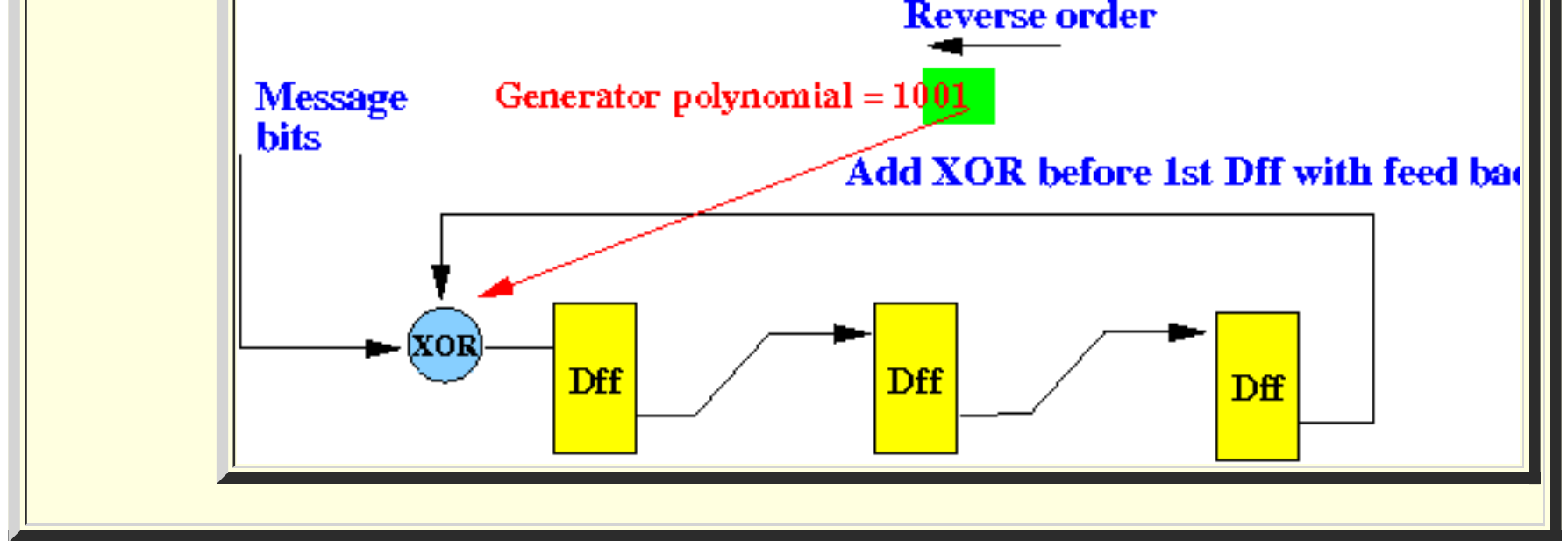
- $N = 4$

Put the 3 Dffs in a row.

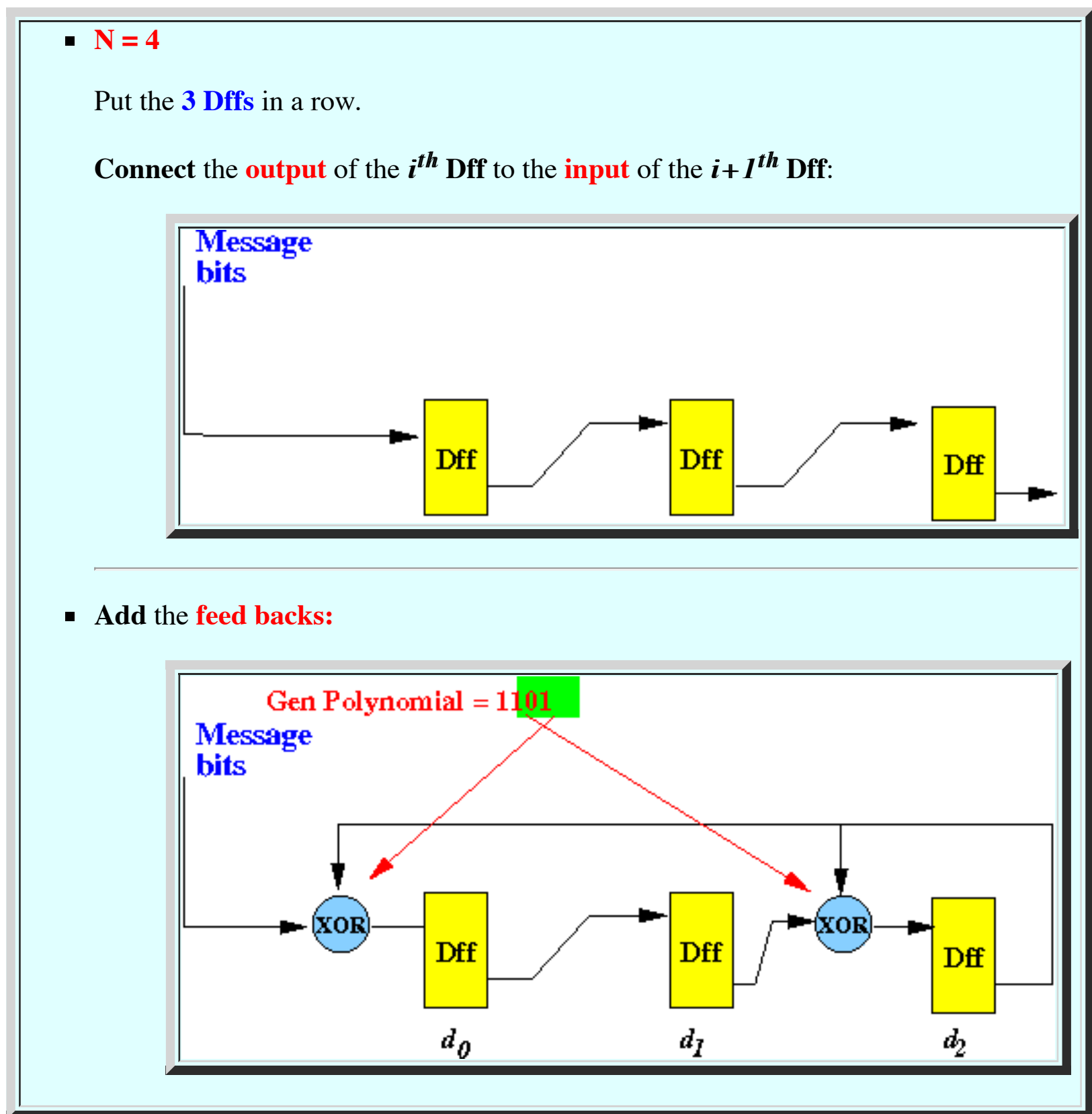
Connect the output of the i^{th} Dff to the input of the $i+1^{th}$ Dff:



- Add the feed backs:



- Example: **compute circuit** for generator polynomial **1101**



- **Computing the CRC with the hardware implementation**

- **How to** compute the **CRC** for an **input message**:

- **Reset** all the **Dffs (memory elements)** to **ZERO**

- Toggle key 'a' to **ONE** to **clear** the **shift registers**
- Toggle key 'a' back to **ZERO (blank cell)** so you can **run** the **circuit**

- **Present** the **first bit** of the message

- Use **key 0** to set it to the **value** of the **first bit** (**0** or **1**)
- The **input bits** are presented from **left to right**:

Message: 101010

Present the bits as follows: 1 0 1 0 1 0

- Give the **compute circuit** a **clock signal**

- You must **toggle** the key **1** *twice*

- Present the **second bit** of the message (see above)
- Give the **compute circuit** another **clock signal** (see above)
- And so on, until **all bits** in the message are processed

Note:

- **Remember** that the **sender** must **append $N-1$ ZERO (0) bits** to the **input message**
- These **$N-1$ ZERO (0) bits** must be **processed also !!**

- After processing **all bits**:

- **Sender:**

- **Remainder** of the "**division**" = values of the **shift registers** *read* in the *reverse order*

- **Receiver:**

- If **remainder** of the "**division**" = all 0's, then **accept** the message
- **Otherwise**, **reject** the message

◦ **Example Program:** (Circuit for generator polynomial **1101**)

- Prog file: [click here](#)

How to use it:

- Run: **/home/cs455001/demo/Logic-Sim/CRC1**
- Make **a = 0 (blank)** to run circuit
- Toggle **0:Input** to the next bit in input
- Press **1:Clk** to give circuit a clock signal (2 toggles per input bit).

This is a **logic-sim** program from my **CS355** class...

Example:

```

                                00011
                                -----
1101 / 10001000
        1101
        ---- (XOR)
        1011
        1101
        ---- (XOR)
        1100
        1101
        ---- (XOR)
        000100 <---- remainder = 100

```

Do this:

- Toggle 2 to run circuit
- Toggle 0 (input) to **1**, then toggle 1 (clock **twice**)
- Toggle 0 (input) to **0**, then toggle 1 (clock **twice**)
- Toggle 0 (input) to **0**, then toggle 1 (clock **twice**)
- Toggle 0 (input) to **0**, then toggle 1 (clock **twice**)
- Toggle 0 (input) to **1**, then toggle 1 (clock **twice**)
- Toggle 0 (input) to **0**, then toggle 1 (clock **twice**)
- Toggle 0 (input) to **0**, then toggle 1 (clock **twice**)
- Toggle 0 (input) to **0**, then toggle 1 (clock **twice**)
- **Read** the bits **backwards**: **100**