A photograph of the University College London (UCL) main building, a large neoclassical structure with a prominent portico of columns and a dome. The building is set against a blue sky with light clouds. In the foreground, there are trees, a paved plaza with people walking and sitting on benches, and a white van parked on the left.

**COMP2011 -- Networks,  
Databases and Graphics**

# **Dealing Errors at Bit Level**

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# Errors

- Errors are inevitable.
  - Delivery of a message which has been corrupted in some way, i.e. the bits received are not the same as the bits sent.
  - Non-delivery of a message that was submitted.
- Their occurrence can only be reduced not eliminated.

# Errors and error rates

- Bit Error Rate (BER)
  - e.g.  $10^{-12}$  is one error in  $10^{12}$  bits (on average)
    - For 64Kbps, a BER of  $10^{-12}$  gives one bit error every 6 months - negligible
- **Signalled error rate (SER):**
  - detected errors
- **Residual error rate (RER):**
  - errors that are not detected
- Error correction:
  - if either SER or RER is unacceptable
- Error detection:
  - if RER is unacceptable

# Redundancy

- Here is a **srelling** mistake
- Not all combinations of letters make legal words:
  - if they did how would we detect error?
- Redundancy:
  - information that is not essential
  - helps in detecting errors
- To detect/correct errors, we need redundancy:
  - how much do we need?
  - what is the cost?

# Error detection

## -- Hamming distance

- **Codewords:** size  $c = m + r$ 
  - $m$  is size of message
  - $r$  is number of error control bits
- **Example: 8-bit ASCII**
  - 7-bits data, 1-bit even parity
  - 12.5% redundancy
- **Hamming distance**
  - Prof. Richard Hamming (1915-1998)
  - The number of bits in which two codewords differ
- To detect  $h$ -bit errors:  
(minimum) **Hamming distance**  $> h$

even parity  
bit

**A**    **0** 100 0001

**B**    **0** 100 0010

**C**    **1** 100 0011

Min. Hamming distance = 2

1-bit error: **0**100 0101    **x**

**0**000 0010    **x**

**1**000 0011    **x**

2-bit errors: **1**100 0011    **?**

**0**110 0011    **?**

**0**100 0001    **?**

# Error detection

## -- Residual error rate

- Example: Transmission of 8-bit bytes
  - Raw BER of channel =  $p = 10^{-4}$
  - $P(\text{a bit is in error}) = p$ ;  $P(\text{a bit is not in error}) = 1-p$
- No parity (eight bits)
  - $P(\text{no bit errors in a byte}) = (1-p)^8$
  - $P(\text{at least one bit error in byte}) = 1 - (1-p)^8 = 8 \times 10^{-4}$
- Single-bit parity (nine bits in all)
  - $P(\text{exactly two bits in error}) = {}^9C_2 p^2 (1-p)^7 = 3.6 \times 10^{-7}$ 
    - ${}^9C_2$  is number of ways 2 bits can be chosen
    - $p^2(1-p)^7$  is probability of any of these occurring
- Single-bit parity reduces the undetected error rate by three orders of magnitude!

# Error correction

## -- Hamming distance

- Can we correct h-bit errors?
- Yes, if
  - enough redundancy and
  - enough Hamming distance between codewords
    - what is “enough”?
- To correct h-bit errors:  
**Hamming distance  $\geq 2h + 1$**

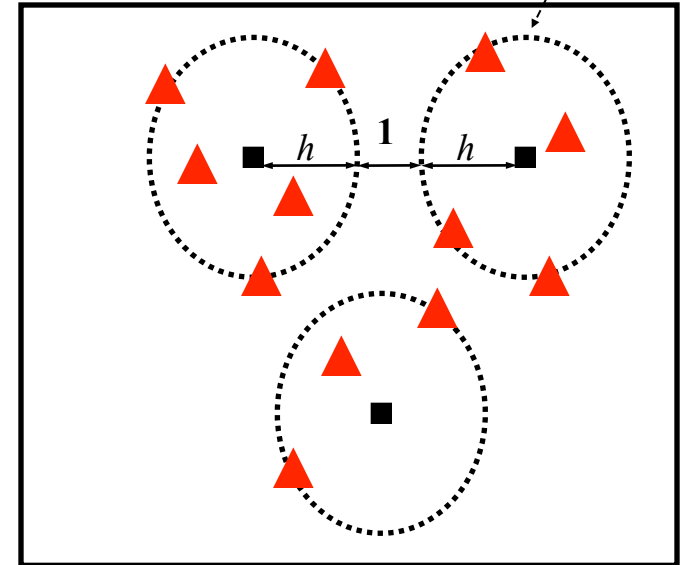
00000 00000      00000 10001      00000 10001  
 00000 11111      00000 10001      00000 10001  
 11111 00000  
 11111 11111

2-bit error (indicated by a dashed orange arrow from 00000 00000 to 00000 10001)  
 3-bit error (indicated by a dashed blue arrow from 00000 00000 to 00000 10001)

Example: code words with  
min Hamming distance of 5

Circles encompasses all codewords derivable from legal codeword by changing up to h-bits

Hamming space of codewords

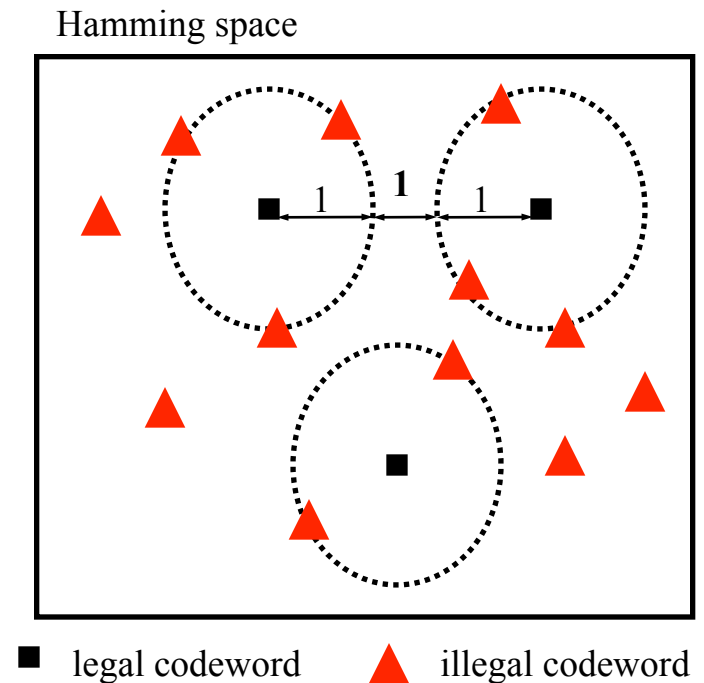


■ legal codeword      ▲ illegal codeword

# Error correction

## -- Redundancy

- $c = m + r$ 
  - Absolute total number of codewords is  $2^c$
- Suppose we want to correct all 1-bit errors
  - There are  $2^m$  circles
  - Each circle has  $1+c$  codewords
  - Total number of codewords in the circles:  $(1+c)2^m$
- We should have  $(1+c)2^m \leq 2^c$ 
  - $1+m+r \leq 2^r$ , e.g.  $m = 7$ ,  $r = 4$
  - 36% redundancy





# Error correction -- Hamming code

- Detection and correction of 1-bit errors
- 7 databits + 4 check bits

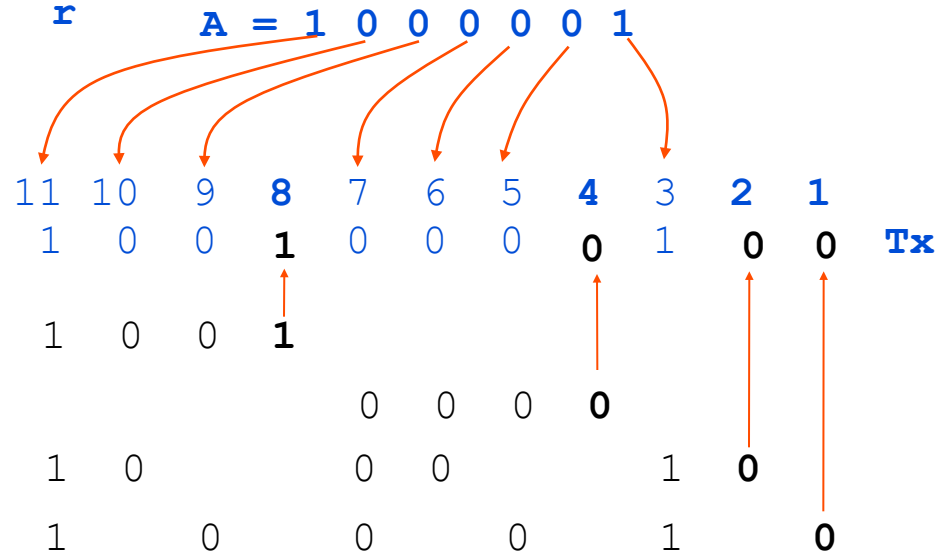
11 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1  
m m m **r** m m m **r** m **r** **r**

Msg bit	Check bit			
	08	04	02	01
11	1	0	1	1
10	1	0	1	0
09	1	0	0	1
07	0	1	1	1
06	0	1	1	0
05	0	1	0	1
03	0	0	1	1

A check bit is set by an parity calculation on the msg bits identified by 1s in the column under the check bit, e.g.

bit 02 = parity(11, 10, 07, 06, 03)

i.e parity(02, 11, 10, 07, 06, 03) = 0



*Assume bit 6 changed during transmission*

11 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 **Rx**

1 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0

Check by repeating parity calculation

08 04 02 01  
0 1 1 0 => bit 06

# Note

- Hamming code is designed to detect 1 or 2-bit errors in codewords, and correct 1-bit errors.
  - All right for small data items.
- Modern communication networks, copper and (optical) fibre, have low error rates.
  - When errors occur, they are usually multiple bit errors in a small region of data
  - Error correction is not feasible, only error detection.
- Need some simple and fast test to detect the small number of blocks that have errors
  - Then deal with them by getting retransmission from Tx (not by correction at Rx)

# Error detection in modern communication networks

- Add check bits at end of data block
  - They are easily calculated at both Tx and Rx
  - They tell Rx about errors in data block of even 10000s of bits in length.
- Check bits are produced by a division process
  - e.g.  $12345678912345 / 54321 \Rightarrow$  remainder 42312
  - Errors in the transmission of the message will give a different remainder
- Need a division process that can be done quickly in hardware!

# Error detection based on CRC

- Cyclic redundancy check (CRC), also known as **Polynomial codes**
  - Based on solid math theory, cheap to implement in hardware
- General form of a polynomial:  $a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0$ 
  - Degree n is the power of its highest term
  - When  $x=10$ , decimal number; when  $x=2$ , binary number

$$\begin{array}{r} 24 \\ 123 \overline{) 3071} \\ \underline{246} \phantom{00} \\ 611 \phantom{00} \\ \underline{492} \phantom{00} \\ 119 \end{array}$$

so:  $3071/123 = 24 \text{ r } 119$   
 or:  $3071 - 119 = (24 \times 123)$

$$\begin{array}{r} 3 \cdot 10^3 + 6 \cdot 10^2 + 9 \cdot 10^1 + 1 \cdot 10^0 \\ \underline{3 \cdot 10^3 + 6 \cdot 10^2 + 9 \cdot 10^1 + 1 \cdot 10^0} \\ - 6 \cdot 10^2 - 2 \cdot 10^1 + 1 \cdot 10^0 \\ \underline{- 6 \cdot 10^2 - 12 \cdot 10 - 18} \\ 10 \cdot 10 + 19 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 8x^4 - 5x^2 + 6 \\ x^2 + 1 \overline{) 8x^6 + 3x^4 + x^2 + 1} \\ \underline{8x^6 + 8x^4} \phantom{+ 1} \\ -5x^4 + x^2 \phantom{+ 1} \\ \underline{-5x^4 + -5x^2} \phantom{+ 1} \\ 6x^2 + 1 \phantom{+ 1} \\ \underline{6x^2 + 6} \\ -5 \end{array}$$

so:  $8x^6 + 3x^4 + x^2 + 1 / x^2 + 1 = 8x^4 - 5x^2 + 6, \text{ r } -5$   
 or:  $8x^6 + 3x^4 + x^2 + 1 - (-5) = (8x^4 - 5x^2 + 6)(x^2 + 1)$

# Polynomial codes [1]

- Use remainder (R) as check bits
- Sender “subtracts” remainder from message (M)
- Receiver re-computes remainder:
  - If non-zero  $\Rightarrow$  error
- Must chose “good” divisor, the **generator polynomial (G)**
- **R always has fewer bits than G**
- Based on mod 2 arithmetic - simple in hardware

$$\begin{array}{r|rr}
 + & 1 & 0 \\
 \hline
 1 & 0 & 1 \\
 0 & 1 & 0
 \end{array}
 \quad
 \begin{array}{r|rr}
 - & 1 & 0 \\
 \hline
 1 & 0 & 1 \\
 0 & 1 & 0
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \phantom{1101|} \underline{1100100} \\
 1101 | 1011010110 \Rightarrow 1100100 \text{ r } 10 \\
 \phantom{1101|} \underline{1101} \phantom{000000} \\
 \phantom{1101|} 1100 \phantom{000000} \\
 \phantom{1101|} \underline{1101} \phantom{000000} \\
 \phantom{1101|} 1101 \phantom{000000} \\
 \phantom{1101|} \underline{1101} \phantom{000000} \\
 \phantom{1101|} 10
 \end{array}$$

# Polynomial codes [2] - example

**M** 11011100      **message**, 8 bits, degree 7  
**G** 1100          **generator polynomial**, 4 bits, degree 3,  $x^3 + x^2$   
**M'** 11011100000 **extended message** by max size of remainder,  
    i.e. 8 bits message + 3 bits remainder  
**M<sub>t</sub>** 11011100100 **transmitted message**: remainder subtracted  
    from extended message M'

Sender: divide  $M'$  by  $G$ :

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \phantom{1100|} \underline{10010111} \\
 1100 | 11011100 \mathbf{000} \\
 \underline{1100} \phantom{000} \\
 1110 \phantom{000} \\
 \underline{1100} \phantom{000} \\
 1000 \phantom{000} \\
 \underline{1100} \phantom{000} \\
 1000 \phantom{000} \\
 \underline{1100} \phantom{000} \\
 1000 \phantom{000} \\
 \underline{1100} \phantom{000} \\
 100 \phantom{000}
 \end{array}$$



$$\begin{array}{r}
 M' \quad 11011100 \mathbf{000} \\
 R \quad \quad \quad \underline{\mathbf{100}} \quad - \\
 M_t \quad 11011100 \mathbf{100}
 \end{array}$$



Receiver: divide  $M_t$  by  $G$ :

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \phantom{1100|} \underline{10010111} \\
 1100 | 11011100 \mathbf{100} \\
 \underline{1100} \phantom{000} \\
 1110 \phantom{000} \\
 \underline{1100} \phantom{000} \\
 1001 \phantom{000} \\
 \underline{1100} \phantom{000} \\
 1010 \phantom{000} \\
 \underline{1100} \phantom{000} \\
 1100 \phantom{000} \\
 \underline{1100} \phantom{000} \\
 0 \phantom{000}
 \end{array}$$



$R$  **100**,      degree 2, 3 bits

# Polynomial codes [3]

- Polynomial codes are able to detect burst errors.
- Burst errors is equivalent to adding (mod 2) some random number to the transmitted message.

$M_t$  transmitted message, divisible by  $G$   
 $M_E$  received message including error  $E$

$$\begin{aligned}M_E &= M_t + E \\ \frac{M_E}{G} &= \frac{M_t + E}{G} \\ &= \frac{M_t}{G} + \frac{E}{G}\end{aligned}$$

$E/G$  must give a non-zero remainder  
if  $E$  is non-zero.

4-bit message 1101

Received message 1001, Error is 0100  $\rightarrow E = x^2$

Received message 1111, Error is 0010  $\rightarrow E = x^1$

For an 1-bit error, i.e.  $E = x^n$

What form of  $G$  will detect all 1-bit errors?

Suppose  $G$  ends in a 1, then

$$\frac{E}{G} = \frac{x^n}{x^k + L + 1}$$

will always have a remainder.

All 1-bit errors will be detected.

**Rule 1:  $G$  should not have trailing zeros.**

# Polynomial codes [4]

**Rule 2: if  $G$  has  $(x+1)$  as a factor it will detect all errors affecting an odd number of bits.**

1. Assume  $E(x)$  has odd number of non-zero coefficients. Using mod 2 arithmetic, we have  $E(1) = 1$ .

2. If  $E(x)$  have  $(x + 1)$  as a factor, then we can write  $E(x) = (x + 1)F(x)$ , so  $E(1) = (1+1)F(1)=0$ .

**1 and 2 are contradictory!**

Therefore we do not get a zero remainder when  $E$  has an odd number of bit errors and  $G$  has a factor  $(x + 1)$ .

So,  $G(x) = (x + 1)(x^k + \dots + 1)$   
will detect:

- all single bit errors
- all odd-number bit errors

Lots of other properties possible ...

Two standard polynomials:

CRC-16  $x^{16} + x^{15} + x^2 + 1$

CRC-CCITT  $x^{16} + x^{12} + x^5 + 1$

Both give 16-bit checksums which will detect:

- all 1 and 2 bit errors
- all error bursts of up to 16 bits in length
- all bursts affecting an odd number of bits
- 99.997% of 17 bit error bursts
- 99.998% of 18 and longer bursts



# Notes

- When errors are detected at Rx, Rx can arrange for Tx to re-transmit the message
  - Using automatic repeat request (ARQ) protocols
  - We have discussed ARQ in the last lecture.

# Other error correction techniques

- Forward error correction (FEC)
  - Correct error(s) at Rx
  - Computationally expensive
  - Require additional redundancy
  - May be useful for real-time communication or for channels with high end-to-end delays
  - Example technique: Convolutional codes
  - We do not examine these in this course

# The End