

Study of Different Types of Error Detection and Correction Code in Wireless Communication

Sudha Kumari¹, Dr. Laxminarayan Gahalod², Dr. Soni Changlani³

^{*1}M. Tech. Scholar, Department of ECE, LNCT, Bhopal, India ²Associate Professor, Department of ECE, LNCT, Bhopal, India ³Professor & Head, Department of ECE, LNCT, Bhopal, India

ABSTRACT

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Accepted : 10 June 2022 Published: 22 June 2022 The integrity of received data is a critical consideration in the design of digital communications and storage systems. The technique involved in attaining data reliability while transmission over a wireless channel is to use Channel Coding. These coding methods involve the use of Error Control Codes and there are two basic ways of controlling errors. They are Automatic Repeat Request and Forward Error Correction. This thesis concentrates on Forward error correction that deals with error detection and error correction. There are two types of error control codes: Block Codes and Convolutional Codes. The extent to which the errors are detected is a measure of the success of the code. The main trade-off in the error correction/detection technique lies in the key parameters involved in evaluating a coding system. Various block codes are analyzed using the performance metrics, namely, Improvement ratio and Error Resilience. It is observed that Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC) codes showed better performance, and hence, they are chosen for further study. **Keywords :** Error Detection, Error Correction, CRC

I. INTRODUCTION

Channel coding facilitates recovery of useful signal from a corrupted signal from the wireless communication channel. Channel coding refers to the class of signal transformations designed to improve communication performance by enabling the transmitted signals to better withstand the effects of channel impairments, such as noise, interference, and fading [1, 2]. These signal processing techniques can be thought of as vehicles for accomplishing desirable system tradeoffs (e.g., error performance versus bandwidth, power versus bandwidth).

A system's noise environment can cause errors in the received message. Properties of these errors depend upon the noise characteristics of the channel. Errors which are usually encountered fall into three broad categories [3].

Random Errors: Additive noise typically causes random errors. They occur in the channel when individual bits in the transmitted message are

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corrupted by noise. These are generally caused by thermal noise in communication channels and the radiations picked up by the receiving antenna. Further, in majority situations, the power spectral density of the Gaussian noise at the receiver input is white. The transmission errors introduced by this noise are such that the error during a particular signaling interval does not affect the performance of the system during the subsequent intervals. The discrete channel, in this case, can be modeled by a binary symmetric channel. These transmission errors due to Gaussian noise are referred to as 'Independent errors'.

Burst Errors: The bit errors occur sequentially in time and as groups. These errors happen in channel when errors occur continuously. These are caused by fading in a communication channel or by mechanical defects in a storage system.

Impulse Errors: Large blocks of the data are full of errors. Lightning strikes and major system failures typically cause impulse errors. These occur due to catastrophic failures in the communication systems that are so severe, they may be unrecognizable by forward error correction using present day coding schemes. In general, all coding systems fail to reconstruct message in the presence of catastrophic errors. However, certain codes like the Reed-Solomon codes can detect the presence of catastrophic error by examining the received message [4].

In most communication channels a certain level of noise and interference is unavoidable. Even after the design of the digital transmission system has been optimized, bit errors in transmission will occur with some small but non-zero probability. Wireless transmission systems can experience error rates as high as 10-3 or worse [5]. The acceptability of a given level of bit error rate depends on the particular application. Error control techniques are used for improving the error rate performance in situations where the inherent error rate of a digital transmission system is unacceptable. There are two basic approaches to error control. The first approach involves the detection of errors and an Automatic retransmission request (ARQ) when errors are detected. Error detection and retransmission, utilises parity bits to detect the occurrence of an error. The receiving terminal does not attempt to correct the error; it simply requests the transmitter to retransmit the data [6]. A two-way link is required for such transmission between the transmitter and receiver. The second type of error control, Forward error correction (FEC), requires a one way link only, since in this case the parity bits are designed for both the detection and correction of errors. Thus, error control coding deals with error detection and correction and is usually implemented by adding Redundancy [7]. Error correcting codes are classified according to their error correcting capabilities and are basically of two types - Block codes and Convolutional Codes, which can take care of any type of errors mentioned.

II. ERROR DETECTION AND CORRECTION

Error-Detecting codes

Whenever a message is transmitted, it may get scrambled by noise or data may get corrupted. To avoid this, we use error-detecting codes which are additional data added to a given digital message to help us detect if an error occurred during transmission of the message. A simple example of error-detecting code is parity check [8].



Figure 1: Block Diagram of Error Detecting Codes

Error-Correcting codes:-

Along with error-detecting code, we can also pass some data to figure out the original message from the corrupt message that we received. This type of code is called an error-correcting code. Error-correcting codes also deploy the same strategy as error-detecting codes but additionally, such codes also detect the exact location of the corrupt bit [6].

In error-correcting codes, parity check has a simple way to detect errors along with a sophisticated mechanism to determine the corrupt bit location. Once the corrupt bit is located, its value is reverted (from 0 to 1 or 1 to 0) to get the original message [7].

Voltage levels of the received signal at each sampling instant are shown in the figure. The soft decision block calculates the Euclidean distance between the received signal and the all possible code words [8].



Figure 2 : Block Diagram of Error Correction Code

The minimum Euclidean distance is "0.49" corresponding to "0 1 1" code word (which is what we transmitted). The decoder selects this code word as the output. Even though the parity encoder cannot correct errors, the soft decision scheme helped in recovering the data in this case. This fact delineates the improvement that will be seen when this soft decision scheme is used in combination with forward error correcting (FEC) schemes like convolution codes, Goley Code etc.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

Nandivada Sridevi et al. [1], as the technology scales down, various soft errors in SRAM memories occurs due to which the single cell and multiple cell upsets are formed. Error correction codes such as the first technique (7,4) hamming code, where 7 denotes total code word, four refers to data bits and 3 parity bits were implemented and verified its encoding and decoding process. But it is only useful for single bit error detection and also correction, which has been the main drawback of this hamming code. So, the second technique implemented was the extended hamming code (8,4) or SECDED code ("Single Error Correction-Double Error Detection"). This code has an extra bit and used for correction of single error and also detection of double error. But correction of double error doesn't happen in S EC-DED code. So, the extension of (8,4) SEC-DED code was (14,8) SEC-DED-DAEC ("Single Error Correction-Double Error Detection-Double Adjacent Error Correction") code where 14 denotes total code word, 8 data bits, six parity bits which can be used for correction of single error, detection of double error and also correction of double adjacent error was proposed in this work. These techniques related Encoding and Decoding processes were studied and all the simulation results were verified and implemented by using Verilog Coding in Xilinx ISE 14.7 tool. This proposed SEC-DEDDAEC method was also implemented in memory application and its output is verified. The double error detection was adjacently corrected by using this method and the complexity was decreased. The advantage of the proposed technique is it has the ability to detect and correct errors adjacently up to 2 bits.

Kristjane Koleci et al. [2], depicts a productive execution of the iterative decoder that is the primary piece of the unscrambling stage in the LEDAcrypt cryptosystem, as of late proposed for post-quantum cryptography in light of low-thickness equality check (LDPC) codes. The execution we present endeavors the construction of the factors to speed up the disentangling system while keeping the region limited. Specifically, our attention is on the plan of an effective multiplier, the last option being a basic part likewise taking into account considering various upsides of the cryptosystem's boundaries, as it very well may be needed in later applications. We expect to give an engineering reasonable to minimal expense execution



on both Field Programmable Gate Array (FPGA) and Application Specific Integrated Circuit (ASIC) executions. Concerning the FPGA, the complete execution time is 0.6 ms on the Artix-7 200 stage, utilizing all things considered 30% of the all out accessible memory, 15% of the absolute accessible Look-up Tables and 3% of the Flip-Flops. The ASIC blend has been performed for both STM FDSOI 28 nm and UMC CMOS 65 nm advancements. After rationale blend with the STM FDSOI 28 nm, the proposed decoder accomplishes a complete inactivity of 0.15 ms and a region control of 0.09 mm 2. The post-Place & Route execution results for the UMC 65 nm show a complete execution season of 0.3 ms, with an area control of 0.42 mm 2 and a power utilization of at most 10.5 mW.

P. Santini et al. [3], iterative decoders utilized for unraveling low-thickness equality check (LDPC) and moderate-thickness equality check (MDPC) codes are not portrayed by a deterministic deciphering range and their blunder rate execution is generally surveyed through escalated Monte Carlo recreations. In any case, a few applications, similar to code-based cryptography, need ensured low upsides of the blunder rate, which are infeasible to evaluate through recreations, accordingly requiring the advancement of hypothetical models for the mistake pace of these codes. A few models of this sort as of now exist, however become computationally unmanageable for boundaries of commonsense interest. Different methodologies inexact the code gathering conduct through presumptions, which may not remain constant for a particular code. We propose a hypothetical examination of the blunder amendment ability of LDPC and MDPC codes that permits inferring tight limits on the mistake rate at the result of equal piece flipping decoders. Unique consideration is given to the situation of codes with little bigness. Single-cycle disentangling is researched through a thorough methodology, which doesn't need any presumption and results in a dependable blunder

remedy capacity for any single code. We show an illustration of use of the new bound to the setting of code-based cryptography, where ensured mistake rates are expected to accomplish solid security levels.

J. Hu et al. [4], present a lightweight equipment plan for an as of late proposed quantum-safe key embodiment system in view of QC-LDPC codes called LEDAkem, which has been conceded as a cycle 2 contender to the NIST post-quantum normalization project. Existing executions center around fast while not many of them consider region or power productivity, which are especially unequivocal for minimal expense or power compelled IoT applications. The arrangement we propose targets augmenting the measurement of region proficiency by pivoting the QC-LDPC code portrayals among the square RAMs in digit level. In addition, upgraded parallelized processing strategies, languid gathering and square parcel are taken advantage of to work on key decapsulation as far as region and timing effectiveness. We show for example that our region streamlined execution for 128-digit security requires 6.82 x 105 cycles and 2.26 x 106 cycles to epitomize and decapsulate a common mystery, individually. The region improved plan utilizes just 39 cuts (3 percent of the accessible rationale) and 809 cuts (39 percent of the accessible rationale) for key epitome and key decapsulation individually, on a little size low-end Xilinx Spartan-6 FPGA.

D. Zoni et al. [5], considering code-based cryptography, semi cyclic low-thickness equality check (QC-LDPC) codes are predicted as one of a handful of the answers for configuration post-quantum cryptosystems. The digit flipping calculation is at the center of the unraveling system of such codes when used to plan cryptosystems. A compelling plan should represent the computational intricacy of the deciphering and the code size needed to guarantee the security edge against assaults drove by quantum PCs. To this end, it is of foremost significance to convey productive and



adaptable equipment executions to help quantum-safe accessible public-key cryptosystems, since programming arrangements can't adapt to the necessary exhibition. This original copy proposes a productive and adaptable engineering for the execution of the piece flipping methodology focusing QC-LDPC codes for post-quantum huge on cryptography. To exhibit the adequacy of our answer, we utilized the nine designs of the LEDAcrypt cryptosystem as delegate use cases for QC-LDPC codes appropriate for post-quantum cryptography. For every arrangement, our format engineering can convey an exhibition enhanced decoder execution for all the FPGAs of the Xilinx Artix-7 mid-range family. The test results exhibit that our upgraded design permits the execution of enormous QC-LDPC codes even on the littlest FPGA of the Xilinx Artix-7 family. Considering the execution of our decoder on the Xilinx Artix-7 200 FPGA, the test results show a normal exhibition speedup of multiple times across all the LEDAcrypt setups, contrasted with the authority enhanced programming execution of the decoder that utilizes the Intel AVX2 augmentation.

K. Koleci et al. [6], this paper is based on cyclic redundancy check based encoding scheme. High throughput and high speed hardware for Golay code encoder and decoder could be useful in digital communication system. In this paper, a new algorithm has been proposed for CRC based encoding scheme, which devoid of any linear feedback shift registers (LFSR). In addition, efficient architectures have been proposed for both Golay encoder and decoder, which outperform the existing architectures in terms of speed and throughput. The proposed architecture implemented in virtex-4 Xilinx power estimator. Although the CRC encoder and decoder is intuitive and easy to implement, and to reduce the huge hardware complexity required. The proposed method it improve the transmission system performance level. In this architecture our work is to design a Golay code based on encoder and decoder architecture using CRC generation technique. This technique is used to reduce the circuit complexity for data transmission and reception process.

D. Zoni et al. [7], Memories that operate in harsh environments, like for example space, suffer a significant number of errors. The error correction codes (ECCs) are routinely used to ensure that those errors do not cause data corruption. However, ECCs introduces overheads both in terms of memory bits and decoding time that limit speed. In particular, this is an issue for applications that require strong error correction capabilities. A number of recent works have proposed advanced ECCs, such as orthogonal Latin squares or difference set codes that can be decoded with relatively low delay. The price paid for the low decoding time is that in most cases, the codes are not optimal in terms of memory overhead and require more parity check bits. On the other hand, codes like the (24,12) Golay code that minimize the number of parity check bits have a more complex decoding. A compromise solution has been recently explored for Bose-Chaudhuri-Hocquenghem codes.

M. Baldi et al. [8], this brief lays out cyclic redundancy check-based encoding scheme and presents an efficient implementation of the encoding algorithm in field programmable gate array (FPGA) prototype for both the binary Golay code (G23) and extended binary Golay code (G24). High speed with low-latency architecture has been designed and implemented in Virtex-4 FPGA for Golay encoder without incorporating linear feedback shift register. This brief also presents an optimized and low-complexity decoding architecture for extended binary Golay code (24, 12, 8) based on an incomplete maximum likelihood decoding scheme. The proposed architecture for decoder occupies less area and has lower latency than some of the recent work published in this area. The encoder module runs at 238.575 MHz, while the proposed architecture for decoder has an operating clock frequency of 195.028 MHz. The



proposed hardware modules may be a good candidate for forward error correction in communication link, which demands a high-speed system.

IV. BINARY CODE

Block codes are referred to as (n, k) codes. A block of k information bits are coded to become a block of n bits. n=k + r, where r is the number of parity bits and k is the number of information bits.

The more commonly employed Block codes are:

- 1. Single Parity-Check Bit Code
- 2. Repeated Codes
- 3. Hadamard Code
- 4. Hamming Code
- 5. Convolution Code Codes
- 6. Cyclic Codes
- 7. Golay Code
- 8. Extended Golay Codes

Marcel Golay was born in Neuchatel, Switzerland in 1902. He was a successful mathematician and information theorist who was better known for his contribution to real world applications of mathematics than any theoretical work he may have done [9, 10]. Golay's sought the perfect code. Perfect codes are considered the best codes and are of much interest to mathematicians. They play an important role in coding theory for theoretical and practical reasons. The following is a definition of a perfect code:

A code C consisting of N codewords of length N containing letters from an alphabet of length q, where the minimum distance d=2e+1 is said to be perfect if:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{e} {n \choose i} (q-1)^{i} = \frac{q^{n}}{N}$$
(1)

There are two closely related binary Golay codes. The extended binary Golay code G24 encodes 12 bits of data in a 24-bit word in such a way that any 3-bit errors

can be corrected or any 7-bit errors can be detected. The other, the perfect binary Golay code G23 has codewords of length 23 and is obtained from the extended binary Golay code by deleting one coordinate position. In standard code notation the codes have parameters [24, 12, 8] and [23, 12, 7] corresponding to the length of the codewords, the dimension of the code and the minimum Hamming distance between two codewords respectively. In mathematical terms, the extended binary Golay code, G24 consists of a 12-dimensional subspace W of the space V=F224 of 24-bit words such that any two distinct elements of W differ in at least eight coordinates. By linearity, the distance statement is equivalent to any non-zero element of W having at least eight non-zero coordinates. The possible sets of non-zero coordinates as w ranges over W are called code words. In the extended binary Golay code, all code words have the Hamming weights of 0, 8, 12, 16, or 24. Up to relabeling coordinates, W is unique. The perfect binary Golay code, G23 is a perfect code. That is the spheres of radius three around code words form a partition of the vector space.

Codeword Structure: A code word is formed by taking 12 information bits and appending 11 check bits which are derived from a modulo-2 division, as with the CRC. Golay [23, 12] Code word. The common notation for this structure is Golay [23, 12], indicating that the code has 23 total bits, 12 information bits, and 23- 12=11 check bits. Since each codeword is 23 bits long, there are 223, or 8,388,608 possible binary values. However, since each of the 12-bit information fields has only one corresponding set of 11 check bits, there are only 212, or 4096, valid Golay code words.

Check bits	Information bits				
xxx xxxx xxxx	xxxx xxxx xxxx				

Golay [24, 12] Codeword

Parity	Check bits	Information bits		
bit				
×	xxx xxxx xxxx	×××× ×××× ××××		

Figure 3 : Block Diagram of Golay Code

The binary Golay code leads us to the extended Golay code. Codes can be easily extended by adding an overall parity check to the end of each code word. This extended Golay Code can be generated by the 12 \times 24 matrix G = [I₁₂ | A], where I₁₂ is the 12 \times 12 identity matrix and A is the 12 \times 12 matrix

	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1]
	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0
	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1
	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0
4	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1
A =	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1
	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1
	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0
	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0
	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
	_1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1
(4)												

The binary linear code with generator matrix G is called the extended binary Golay code and will be denoted by G24.

The extended Golay code has a minimum distance of 8. Unlike the (23, 12) code, the extended Golay code is not perfect, but simply quasi perfect.

Properties of the extended binary Golay code

- \circ The length of G24 is 24 and its dimension is 12.
- \circ A parity-check matrix for G24 is the 12 \times 24 matrix H = [A | I12].
- \circ The code G24 is self-dual, i.e., G⊥ 24 = G24.
- \circ Another parity-check matrix for G24 is the 12 \times 24 matrix H0 = [I12 | A] (= G).

- \circ Another generator matrix for G24 is the 12 \times 24 matrix G0 = [A | I12] (= H).
- $\circ\,$ The weight of every codeword in G24 is a multiple of 4.
- \circ The code G24 has no codeword of weight 4, so the minimum distance of G24 is d = 8.
- The code G24 is an exactly three-error-correcting code.

Table 1: Comparison Result of Different Types of Binary Code

Binary	Error	Error	Efficien	Distan
Code	Detecti	Correcti	cy	ce
	on	on		
Single	1	1	80-85%	low
Parity-				
Check Bit				
Code				
Hadamar	2	1	50%	Low
d Code				
Hamming	2	1	85-90%	low
Code				
Convoluti	2	2	85-90%	Mediu
on Code				m
Cyclic	3	2	75-80%	Mediu
Codes				m
Golay	7	3	70-75%	Large
Codes				
Extended	8	3	80-85%	Very
Golay				Large
Codes				

V. CONCLUSION

An error correction/detection scheme can be evaluated by three important properties; the reliability of the scheme, the complexity of the scheme, and the efficiency of the scheme. The reliability of the scheme stands for the reliability of the decoded words in the receiver, which can be measured by Bit Error Rate



(BER) or Frame Error Rate (FER). The complexity of the scheme is measured by the number of operations that is required by the system and the complexity of these operations. The efficiency of the scheme is measured by the ratio of the information sent for error correction/detection and the information sent from the source. The purpose of coding is to detect errors. The extent to which such errors are detected is a measure of the success of the code.

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