

Error correction, - detection and cyphers

A.J. Han Vinck

University of Duisburg/Essen

June 29, 2013

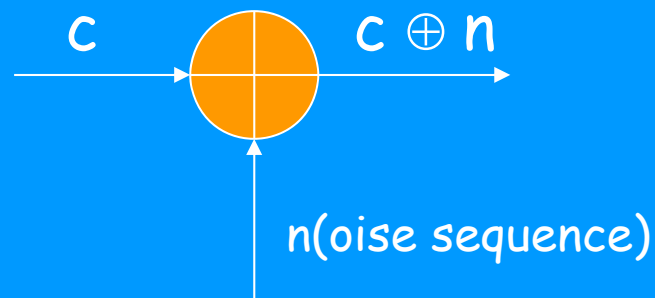
Vinck@iem.uni-due.de

content

- Influence of transmission errors

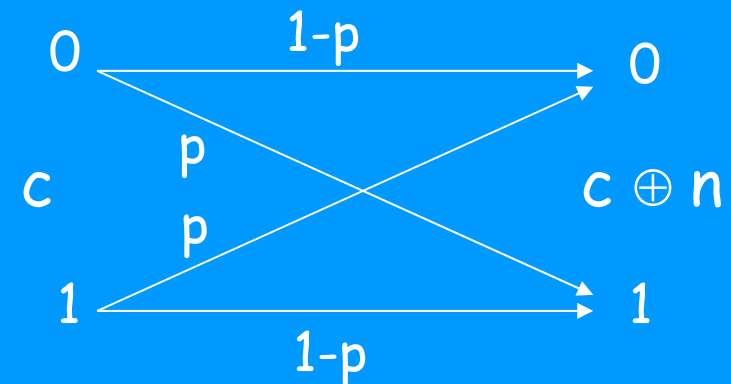
A model for transmission errors

We assume binary transmission, errors occur as inversion of data at the receiver

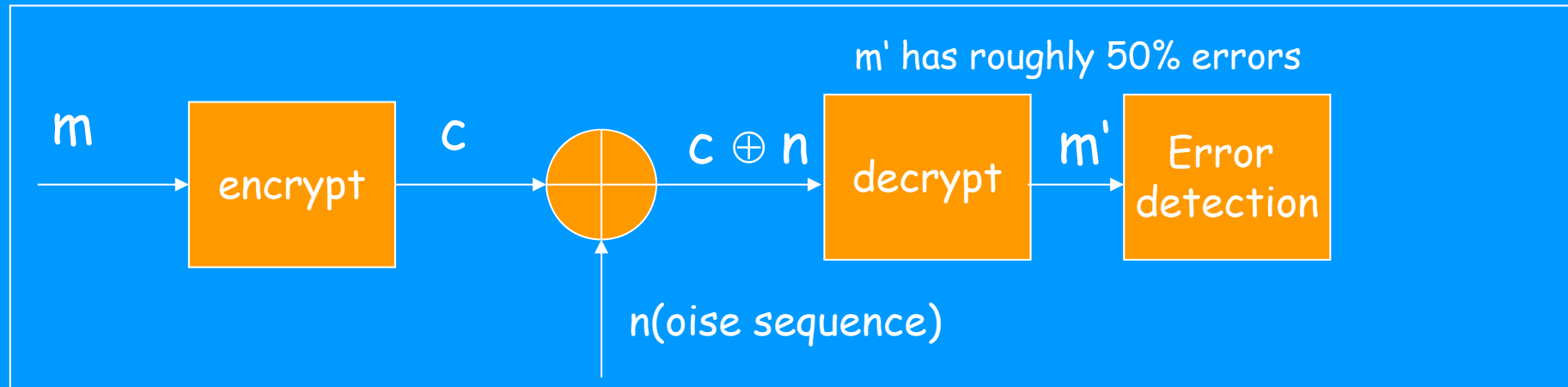


Example: $c = 0011; n = 0010$
then: $c \oplus n = 0001$

In a probabilistic description:
Probability ($n = 1$) = $1 - \text{Prob}(n = 0) = p$
the binary symmetric channel model (BSC)



transmission errors destroy the crypto-system



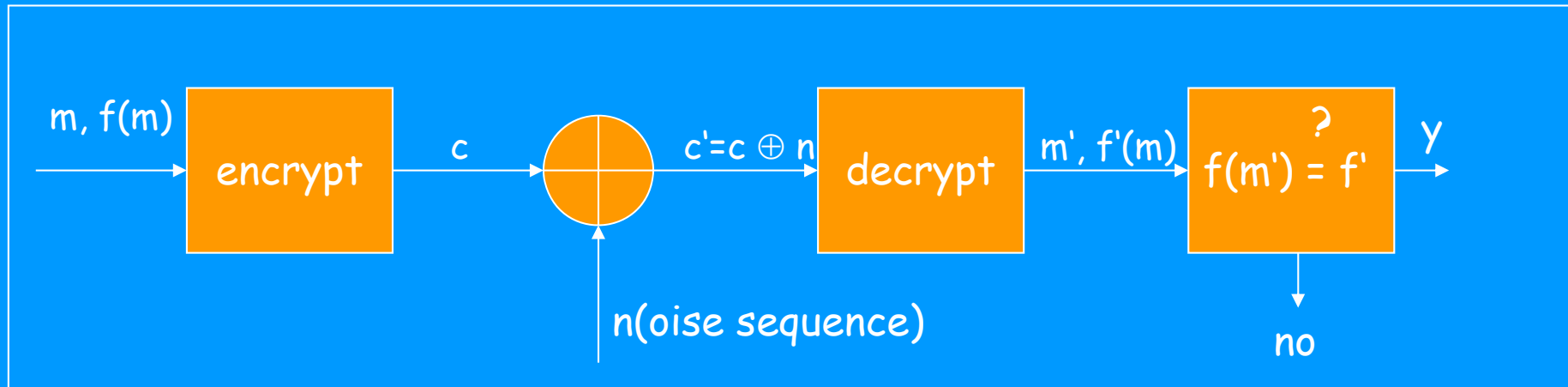
Note:

Error detection can be based on the property that m is a redundant input, like text.

However, this is not a good input to any crypto-system to obtain high security.

Q. What to do when m is a „random“ type of input?

We use redundancy to detect errors



Note: f has to be specified, but assume it depends on all information digits in some way

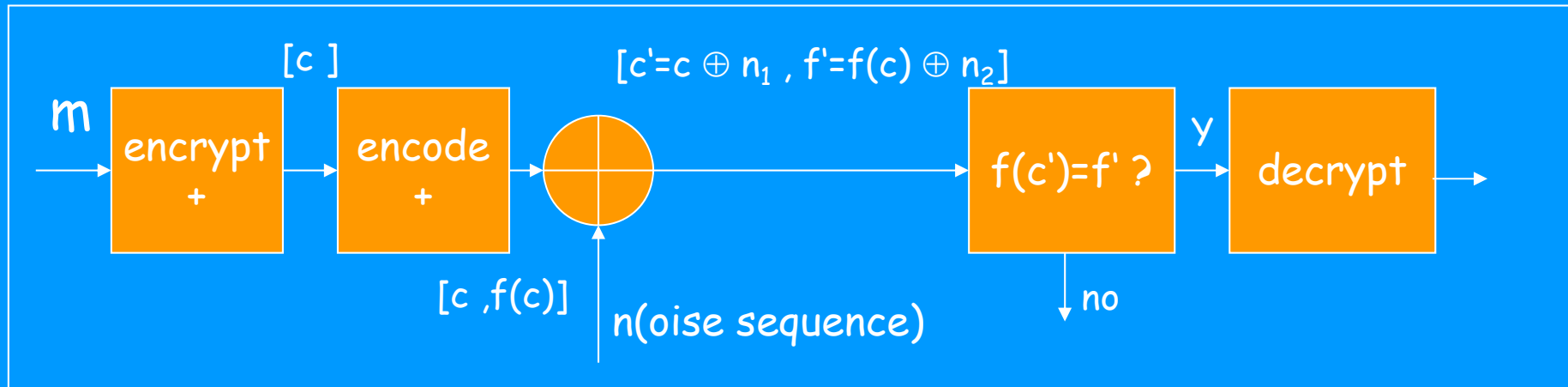
Then:

with high probability, errors will be detected since m' and f' each have about 50% errors.

However, $f(m)$ introduces (additional) redundancy into the encryption input!

Remark: Change $f(m)$ into an all zero string. Give your comment on the idea?

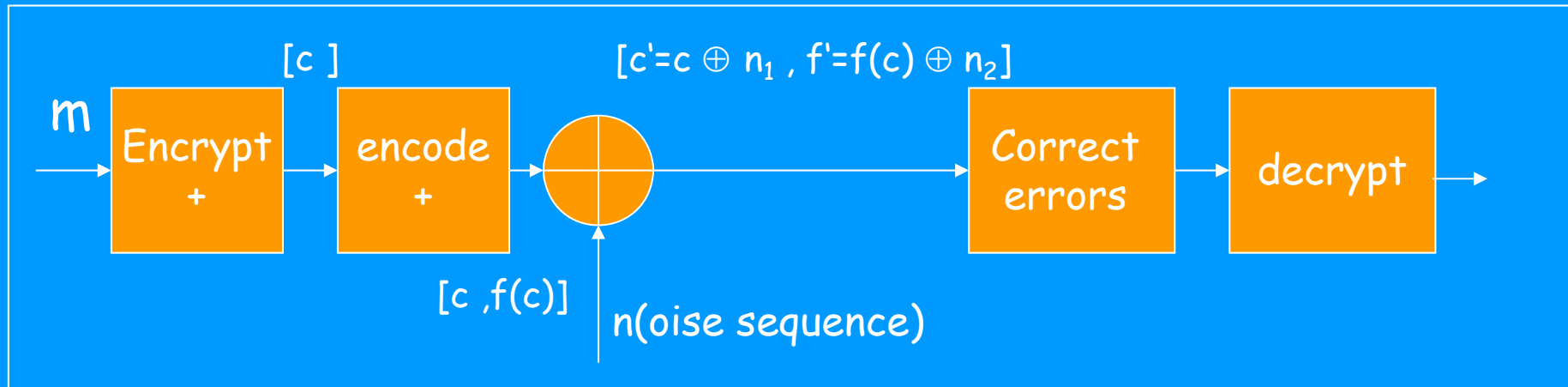
Make redundancy dependent on the ciphertext



Note: f' can be used to detect errors in c' .

Depending on the redundancy, this can be very efficient and with low undetected error probability

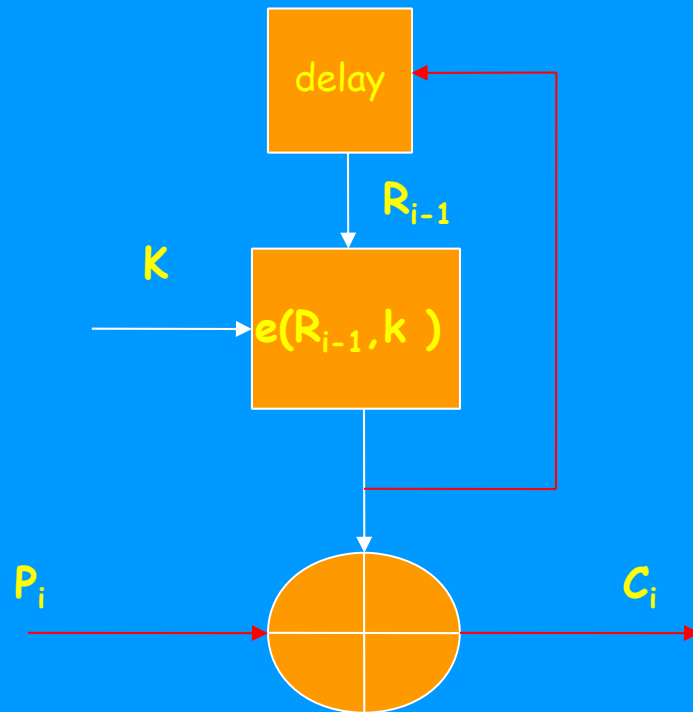
Errors can also be corrected



Note: f' can be used to correct errors in c' .

Depending on the redundancy, this can be very efficient and with low decoding error probability

No error propagation in Output Feedback Mode



$$C_i = P_i \oplus e(R_{i-1}, k)$$

$$P_i = C_i \oplus e(R_{i-1}, k)$$

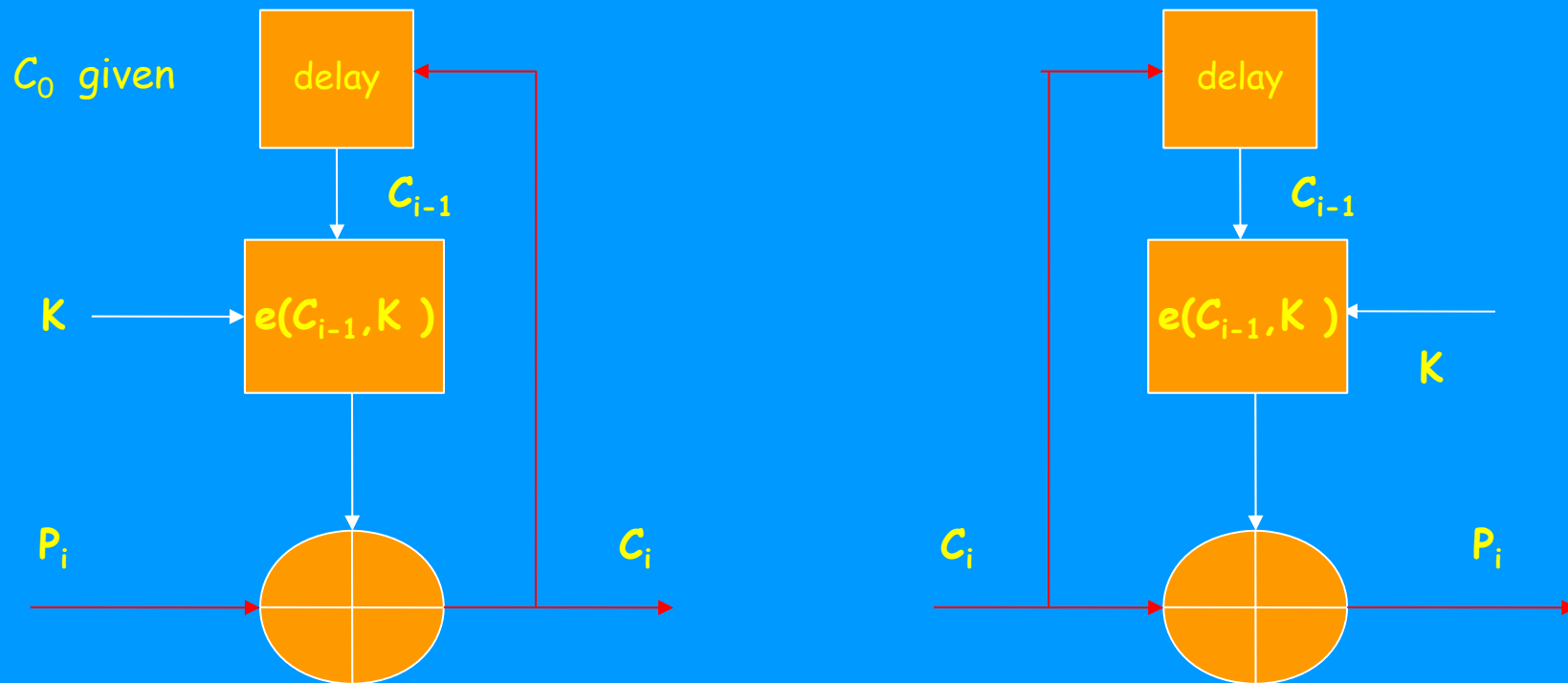
R_0 given

Advantage: no error propagation; easy to start decryption (using the encryption function) when time is known

Disadvantage: manipulation possible when parts of plaintext are known by using the XOR to replace P_i

Can you show this?

DES cipher feedback mode



Decypher mode

$$\begin{aligned} C_i &= P_i \oplus e(C_{i-1}, K) \\ P_i &= C_i \oplus e(C_{i-1}, K) \end{aligned}$$

DES cipher feedback mode

$$C_i = P_i \oplus e(C_{i-1}, k)$$

$$\text{Receive: } C_i^* = C_i \oplus N_i$$

$$\begin{aligned} P_i^* &= C_i^* \oplus e(C_{i-1}, k) \\ &= C_i \oplus N_i \oplus e(C_{i-1}, k) \\ &= P_i \oplus N_i \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P_{i+1}^* &= C_{i+1} \oplus e(C_i^*, k) \\ &\neq P_{i+1} \end{aligned}$$

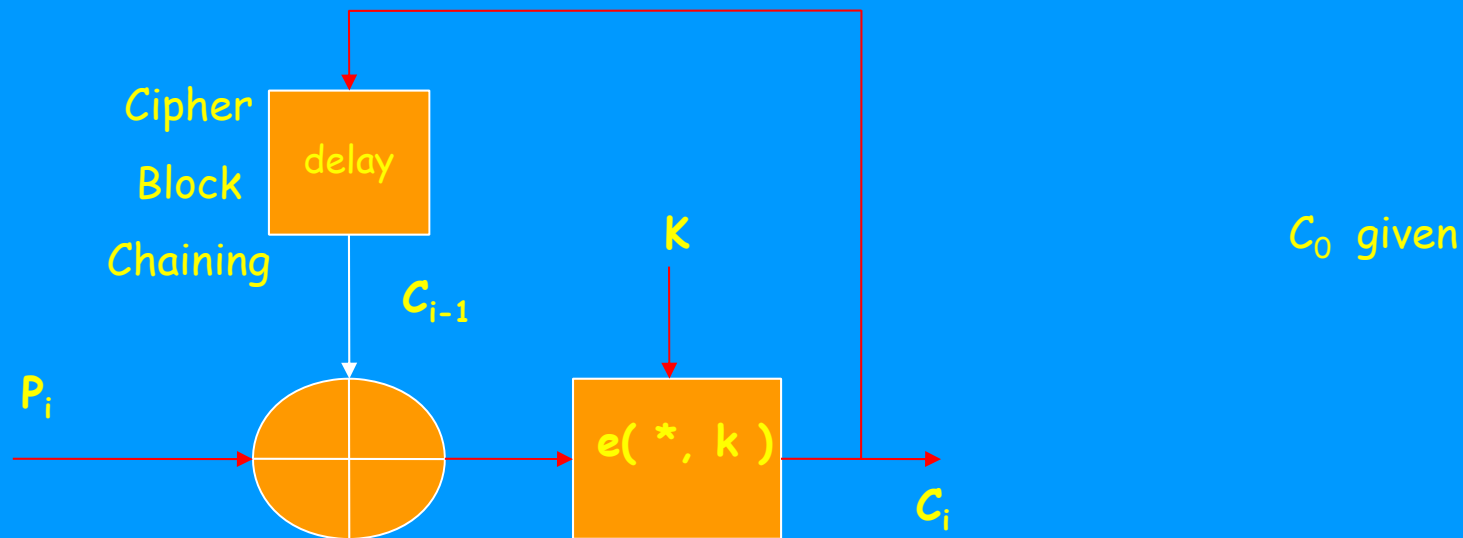
$$P_{i+2} = C_{i+2} \oplus e(C_{i+1}, k) \quad \text{OK}$$

Advantage: Scalable feedback, easy to synchronize

disadvantage:

replacement of P_i gives unpredictable decryption of P_{i+1}
error propagation over two blocks

Cipher block chaining



$$C_i = e(P_i \oplus C_{i-1}, k)$$

$$P_i = C_{i-1} \oplus d(C_i, k)$$

Ciphertext depends on whole message

Advantage: identical blocks of plaintext will encrypt to different blocks of ciphertext.

The last cipher block can be used as a signature

Disadvantage: error propagation over two blocks

Cipher block chaining

$$C_i = e(P_i \oplus C_{i-1}, k)$$

$$P_i = C_{i-1} \oplus d(C_i, k)$$

$$\text{Receive: } C_i^* = C_i \oplus N_i$$

$$P_i = C_{i-1} \oplus d(C_i^*, k)$$

$$P_{i+1} = C_i^* \oplus d(C_{i+1}, k)$$

$$P_{i+2} = C_{i+1} \oplus d(C_{i+2}, k)$$

Advantage: identical blocks of plaintext will encrypt to different blocks of ciphertext.

The last cipher block can be used as a signature

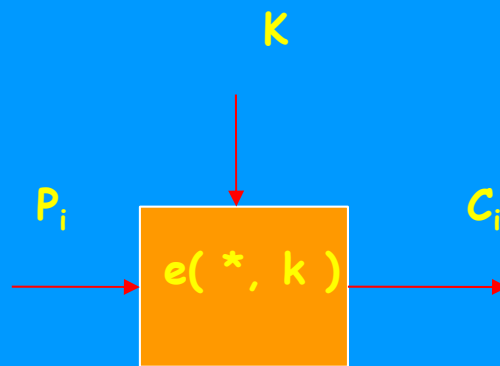
Disadvantage: error propagation over two blocks

Note: the errors in the second block are the same as the channel errors. The first block has about 50% errors., due to the decryption of an erroneous block

Cipher block chaining is much the most **widely used mode**.

- IPsec specifies it as the only permitted mode.
- PGP and TLS use it as well.

Electronic Codebook Mode



Advantage:

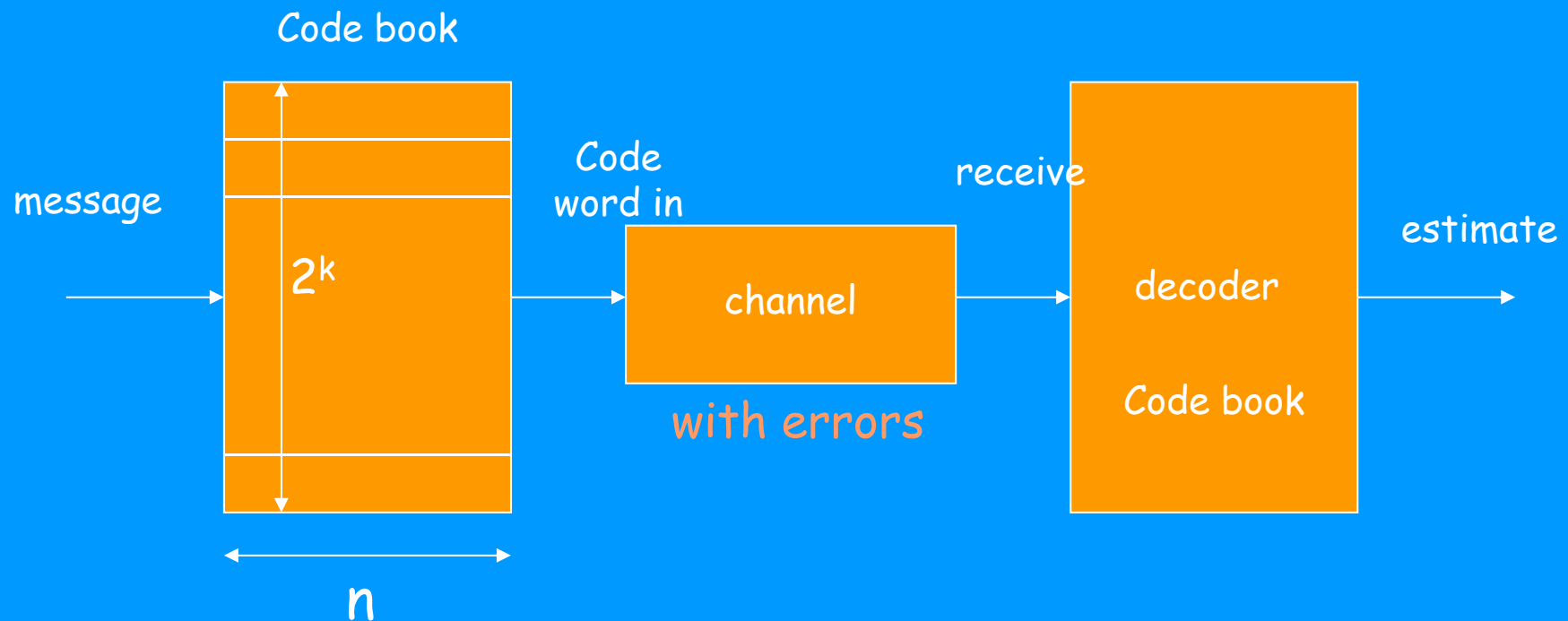
any block decrypted independently of the others.
lost data blocks do not affect the decryption of other blocks.

Disadvantage:

easy for known-plaintext attacks.
same block of plaintext results in same blocks of ciphertext
easy to substitute, rearrange, delete or insert old blocks

Error correction

Practical communication system design



There are 2^k code words of length n

k is the number of information bits transmitted in n channel uses

error protection

- Obtained by Error Control Codes (ECC)
 - Forward Error Correction (FEC)
 - Error Detection and feedback (ARQ)
- Performance depends on error statistics!
 - Error models are very important

example

code words: 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 0

received: 0 0 0 1 1

difference: 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 1 0 1

best guess: 0 1 0 1 1
only 1 difference

Definitions

- Hamming distance between \underline{x} and \underline{y} is

$d_H := d(\underline{x}, \underline{y})$ is the # of positions where $x_i \neq y_i$

- The minimum distance of a code C is

– $d_{\min} = \min \{ d(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) \mid \underline{x} \in C, \underline{y} \in C, \underline{x} \neq \underline{y} \}$

- Hamming weight of a vector \underline{x} is

– $w(\underline{x}) := d(\underline{x}, \underline{0})$ is the # of positions where $x_i \neq 0$

Performance

A code with minimum distance d_{\min} is capable of correcting t errors if

$$d_{\min} \geq 2t + 1.$$

Proof: If $\leq t$ errors occur, then since $d_{\min} \geq 2t + 1$ an incorrect code word has at least $t+1$ differences with the received word.

LINEAR CODE GENERATOR

The code words are

- linear combinations of the rows of a binary generator matrix G with dimensions k, n
- G must have rank k !

Example: Consider $k = 3, n = 6$.

generator matrix $G =$

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

$$(1,0,1)G = (0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1)$$

Example (optimum)

- Single Parity check code $d_{\min} = 2, k = n-1$

$$G = [I_{n-1} \ P]$$

100	...	0	1
0100	...	0	1
...			
00	...	01	1

All codewords have even weight!

Example (optimum)

- Repetition code: $d_{\min} = n$, $k = 1$
- $G = [1 \ 1 \ \dots \ 1]$

Property

The set of distances

from all code words to the all zero code word
is the same as to any other code word.

Proof:

$$d(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) = d(\underline{x} \oplus \underline{x}, \underline{z} = \underline{y} \oplus \underline{x}) = d(\underline{0}, \underline{z}),$$

by linearity \underline{z} is also a code word.

Thus!

the **determination** of the minimum distance of a code is equivalent to

the **determination** of the minimum Hamming weight of the code words.

The complexity of this operation is proportional to # of code words

Some remarks

- Generators for different k and n
 - are constructed using mathematics
 - listed in many text books

What remains is the decoding!

Example $k = 4, n = 7, m = 3$

$$G = \begin{pmatrix} 1000 & 110 \\ 0100 & 101 \\ 0010 & 011 \\ 0001 & 111 \end{pmatrix} \quad k = 2^3 - 3 - 1 = 4$$

In Bluetooth we have a shortened (10,15) Hamming Code

Famous codes

- Famous codes are BCH code specified by the first row of the encoding matrix
All following rows are cyclic shifts of this

Normally, BCH codes are specified for lengths $2^m - 1$

Example: length 127, $k = 120, d_{\min} = 3$ correcting 1 error
 $k = 113, d_{\min} = 5$ correcting 2 errors

We can shorten the code to $k = 64$ and $n = 71$, to correct 1 error in a DES word

How do we shorten? Can you give a list of length 63 codes?

Error detection with the function f

We do all operations modulo 2 (XOR).

A packet has the form $C(X) = A(X) F(X)$

where

$$F(X) = 1 + \dots + X^{n-k}$$

check polynomial

$$A(X) = a_0 + a_1X + \dots + a_{k-1}X^{k-1}$$

information packet of length k.

$$C(X) = c_0 + c_1X + \dots + c_{n-1}X^{n-1}$$

code word

detection procedure

Assume that we receive the polynomial $R(X) = C(X) + E(X)$

where $E(X)$ is a binary error polynomial
i.e. an error vector $(0,0,0,1,0) \rightarrow C(X) = X^3$

the decoder calculates $R(X) \bmod F(X)$

- if the result $= 0$ no error detected
- if the result $\neq 0$, then an error is detected.

The polynomial $R(X) \bmod F(X) = 0$ iff $E(X)$ is a multiple of $F(X)$.

performance

ASSUME: the polynomial $F(X)$ has the form $F(X) = 1 + \dots + X^{n-k}$

- degree $n-k$; - and a nonzero constant term,

THEN: any error burst of length $\leq n-k$ has a polynomial

representation that looks like $E(X) = X^i (1 + \dots + X^{n-k-1})$

and can thus never be a multiple of $F(X)$.

$F(X)$ is capable of detecting any burst of length $\leq n-k$!

Some examples

- All coefficient operations are modulo-2

$$\begin{aligned} - (1 + X + X^3)(X + X^2) &= X + X^2 + X^4 + X^2 + X^3 + X^5 \\ &= X + X^3 + X^4 + X^5 \end{aligned}$$

- errors change $0 \Rightarrow 1$ and $1 \Rightarrow 0$

- Ex: $(X + X^4 + X^5) \text{ modulo-}(1 + X^2) = 1$
 - Subtract as often as possible $(1 + X^2)$, but keep calculating mod-2

CRC standard polynomials

- CRC-8: $x^8+x^2+x^1+1$
 - CRC-10: $x^{10}+x^9+x^5+x^4+x^1+1$
 - CRC-12: $x^{12}+x^{11}+x^3+x^2+1$
 - CRC-16: $x^{16}+x^{15}+x^2+1$
 - CRC-CCITT: $x^{16}+x^{12}+x^5+1$
 - CRC-32: $x^{32}+x^{26}+x^{23}+x^{22}+ x^{16}+x^{12}+x^{11}+x^{10}+x^8 x^7+x^5+x^4+x^2+1$
-
- Ethernet uses CRC-32
 - HDLC: CRC-CCITT
 - ATM: CRC-8, CRC-10, and CRC-32

Why these polynomials (CRC-16 and CRC-CCITT) ?

- 1st property: Multiples of these polynomials have even weight

Hence: error vectors of odd weight cannot be a multiple!

- 2nd property: error vectors of the form $E(X) = (1 + X^i)$
are not divisible by $F(X)$ for $i < L$,
L larger than word length

Try to check this property!

- Conclusion: 1, 2 and 3 errors are detectable. CHECK!