

Forward Error Correction (FEC) techniques for optical communications

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Outline

- Why FEC ?
- Cyclic codes - Overview
- Algorithms and implementation
 - Encoder
 - Decoder
- Performance analysis
- Latency issues
- Summary

Why FEC ?

Why FEC ?

- ❑ FEC lowers BER by a great deal for low overhead
- ❑ E.g. for RS(255,239) overhead is 6%: For input BER= 10^{-4} , output BER= 10^{-14} !
- ❑ Very low overhead codes exist (less than 0.1%) and have been widely used in other optical communication applications
 - ❑ Possible trade-off between performance and overhead (illustrated in this talk)

- ❑ Overhead
 - ❑ increased rate -> slightly reduces the overall coding gain
 - ❑ electronics cost (MUX/DEMUX if line rate is increased)
 - ❑ adds FEC circuitry (encoder is simpler than decoder)

How to incorporate FEC in 10GbE ?



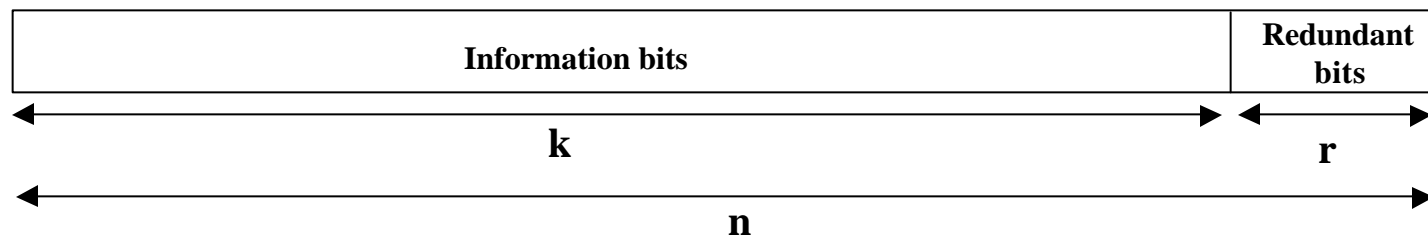
- ❑ WAN applications incorporate already FEC, solutions are currently proprietary. There is however an on-going effort to adopt an “in-band” FEC standard in 10G SONET (most likely based on a BCH-3 code)
- ❑ There may be ways to exploit already existing overhead in the Ethernet LAN (IPG?)
 - ❑ However available overhead may be limited
 - ❑ Ethernet packets are variable size -> decoding would be more complicated !
- ❑ For increased performance, line rate could be slightly increased
 - ❑ fixed length blocks are preferable
- ❑ FEC can be combined with constrained codes such as 8b/10b (or 16b/18b), or with zero-overhead scrambled codes.

Cyclic codes - overview

Some FEC definitions

□ Systematic block code

- An encoder accept k information symbols and appends separately a set of r redundant symbols (parity bits) derived from the information symbols. Note the information word is not disturbed in any way in the encoder. This code is called (n, k) code, where $n=k+r$.
- Since code space is enlarged and codewords are a constrained subset, error detection and correction is possible based on maximum likelihood decoding.



- Hamming distance of two codewords: number of non-zero elements in the codeword formed by their difference
- Hamming distance of a code = d (is the minimum distance between two codewords)
- Singleton bound: $d \leq n - k + 1$

Some FEC definitions - cont.

❑ Cyclic code

- ❑ An (n, k) code is cyclic if a cyclic shift of a codeword is also a codeword.
- ❑ Associated with a generating polynomial (usually implemented as LFSR)
- ❑ Two representations of a codeword $w = (w_0, w_1, \dots, w_{n-2}, w_{n-1}) \leftrightarrow$
$$W(x) = w_0 + w_1x + \dots + w_{n-2}x^{n-2} + w_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$

❑ Examples of popular systematic cyclic block codes: binary BCH, Reed-Solomon

- ❑ Reed-Solomon is famous for its ability to correct “bursty” errors.

Galois fields

- ❑ Theory developed by french mathematician E. Galois
- ❑ Galois Fields: for a prime p , $GF(p)$ denote the integer ring (over $[+,x]$) modulo p
- ❑ Example: $GF(2)$: addition is modulo-2 addition / XOR-gate
multiplication is modulo-2 multiplication / AND-gate
Simple codes such as Hamming codes or binary BCH codes are built over $GF(2)$.
- ❑ Galois Fields definition can be generalized to $GF(p^m)$, for instance $GF(2^8)$, where words are **Bytes** and not bits (this is used in Reed-Solomon codes)

Hamming code

- ❑ The well-known $(2^n-1, 2^n-n-1)$ code with Hamming distance of 3 is capable of correcting 1 error
- ❑ Error syndrome gives the error location
 - ❑ Easy to decode, but only correct one error
- ❑ Are there codes able to correct more than one error and easy to decode?

RS code

- ❑ RS(n,k) consists of all polynomials of degree at most n that are multiples of the generator polynomial
 $g(x) = (x-1)(x-\alpha^1)\dots(x-\alpha^{2t-1})$, where α is a primitive element of $GF(2^m)$
- ❑ Minimum distance between codewords is $d=n-k=2t+1$, thus RS(n,k) can correct t symbols
- ❑ 2t Erasures can be corrected (an Erasure is an error with known position)

BCH codes

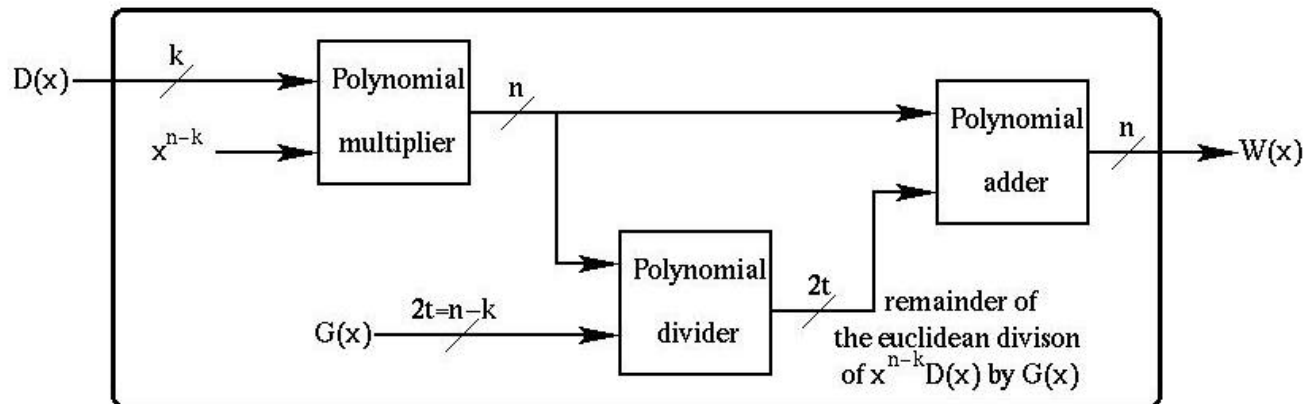
- ❑ The cyclic code of length n over $GF(q)$, n coprime with q , whose generator polynomial is $g(x)$. RS code is a subclass of BCH code
- ❑ Binary BCH code: a BCH code on $GF(2)$, i.e., $q=2$
- ❑ Binary BCH codes are most popular
- ❑ BCH codes usually correct few bits in a block (1-error correcting or Hamming, 2-error correcting, 3-error correcting, etc.)
- ❑ Encoding and decoding procedures are similar to those of RS code, except there is no need to compute error magnitude for binary BCH code

Algorithms and implementation

- Encoder -

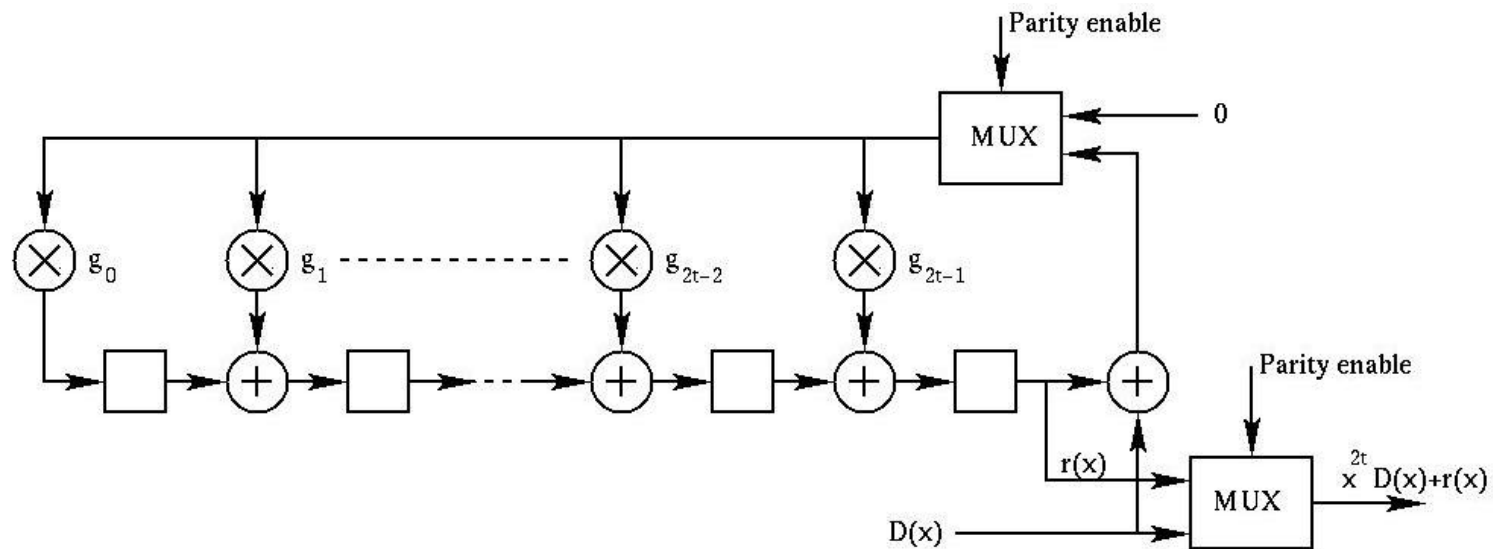
RS encoding

- Send $W(x) = x^{n-k}D(x) - r(x)$, where $D(x)$ is the information symbols, and $r(x)$ is the remainder of $x^{n-k}D(x)$ divided by the generating polynomial $G(x)$
 - $W(x)$ is a codeword, because $G(x)$ divides $W(x)$
 - $W(x)$ is systematic, i.e., redundant symbols are added after information symbols



RS encoding (2)

- RS is a cyclic code and often implemented as a LFSR with $GF(2^m)$ operators



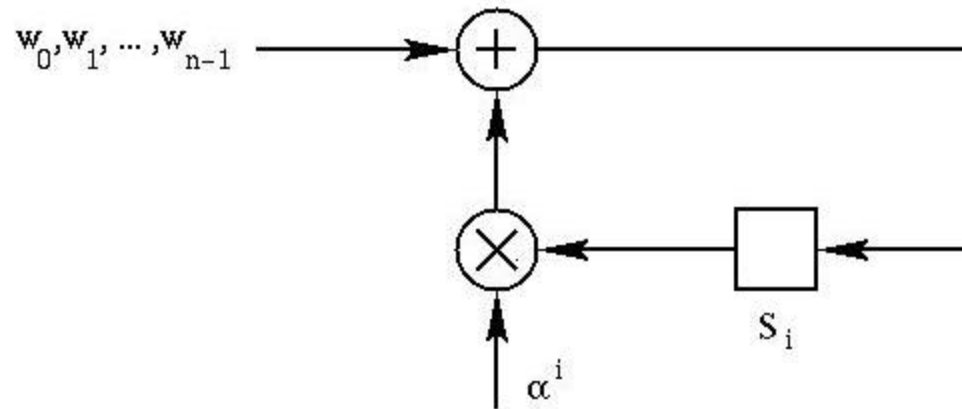
Algorithms and implementation

- Decoder -

RS decoding

First some more definitions:

- ❑ Error word polynomial $e(x) = e_0 + e_1x + \dots + e_{n-1}x^{n-1}$
- ❑ The received word polynomial is given by $w(x) = c(x) + e(x)$
- ❑ Syndromes
$$S_j = w(\alpha^j) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} e_i \alpha^{ij} \text{ for } j = 0, \dots, 2t-1$$
- ❑ Syndromes can be computed using the Horner algorithm:



RS decoding - cont.

- Suppose that there are r errors, $r \leq t$, occurred
 - at locations i_1, \dots, i_r (let $X_i = \alpha^{i_1}$)
 - with values e_{i_1}, \dots, e_{i_r} (let $Y_i = e_{i_1} \alpha^{i_1} = e_{i_1} X_i$)

- Reformulate $S_j = \sum_{i=1}^r e_i a^{i_j}$ \implies

$$\begin{bmatrix} S_0 \\ S_1 \\ \dots \\ S_{2t-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X_1^0 & X_2^0 & \dots & X_r^0 \\ X_1^1 & X_2^1 & \dots & X_r^1 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ X_1^{2t-1} & X_2^{2t-1} & \dots & X_r^{2t-1} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} Y_0 \\ Y_1 \\ \dots \\ Y_r \end{bmatrix}$$

2t equations for 2r unknowns, $r \leq t$

RS decoding - cont.

- Define error locator polynomial

$$s(x) = (1-xX_1)(1-xX_2)\dots(1-xX_r) = s_r x^r + \dots + s_1 x + 1$$

- Inverse of zeros of $s(x)$ gives error locations

- Multiplying both sides with $Y_i X_i^{j+r}$ and letting $x=X_i^{-1} \Rightarrow s(X_i^{-1})=0$, for all i,j , we get

$$\begin{pmatrix} S_1 & S_2 & \dots & S_r \\ S_2 & S_3 & \dots & S_{r+1} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ S_r & S_{r+1} & \dots & S_{2r-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} s_r \\ s_{r-1} \\ \dots \\ s_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -S_{r+1} \\ -S_{r+2} \\ \dots \\ -S_{2r} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$M \equiv$$

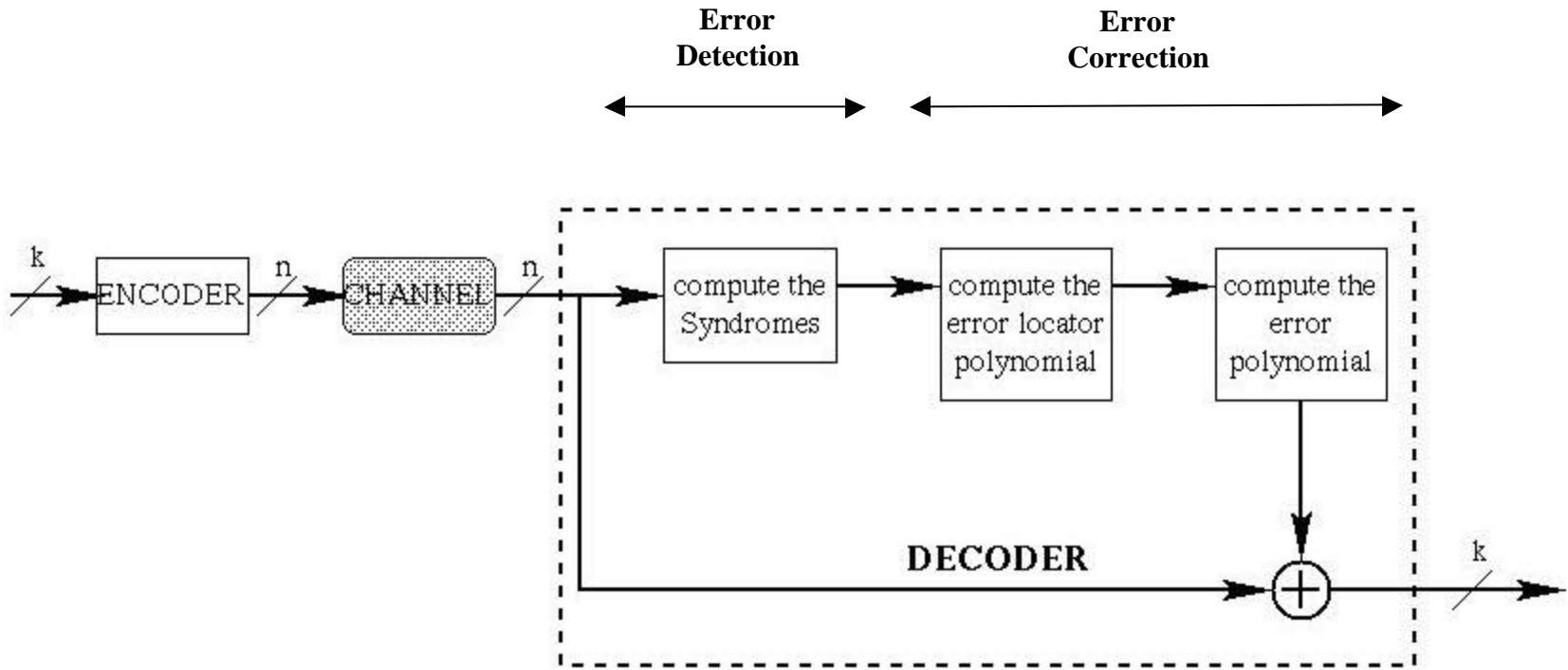
- M is singular if $m > r$!

- So we can determine how many errors have occurred

RS decoding steps

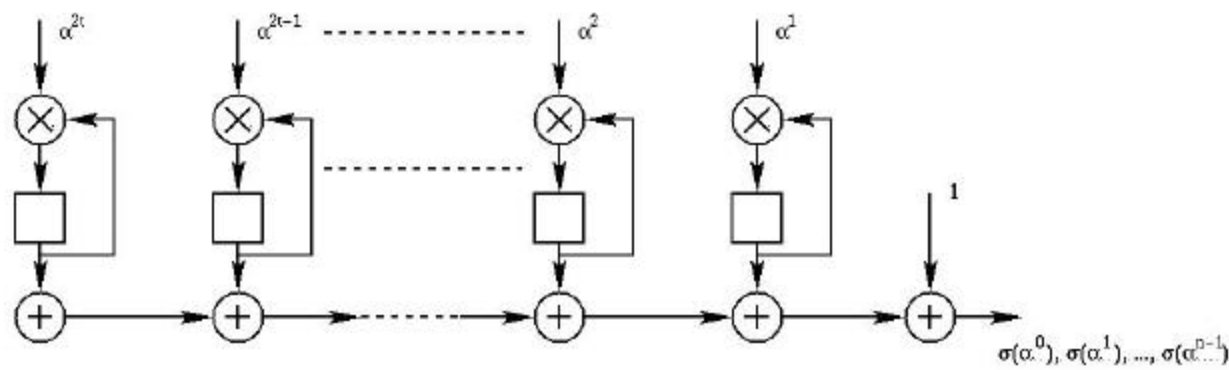
1. Compute Syndromes $S_i = w(\alpha^i)$, for $i=1, \dots, 2t$
2. Determine the maximum number r so that M is nonsingular.
 r is then the number of errors occurred.
3. Find the coefficients of the error-locator polynomial (solving the key equation) by computing
$$M^{-1} \times \begin{bmatrix} S_{r+1} \\ S_{r+2} \\ \dots \\ S_{2r} \end{bmatrix}$$
4. Solve $s(x)=0$
5. Find error locations
6. Compute error magnitude at error locations and correct the errors

RS decoder architecture



More on RS decoding algorithms

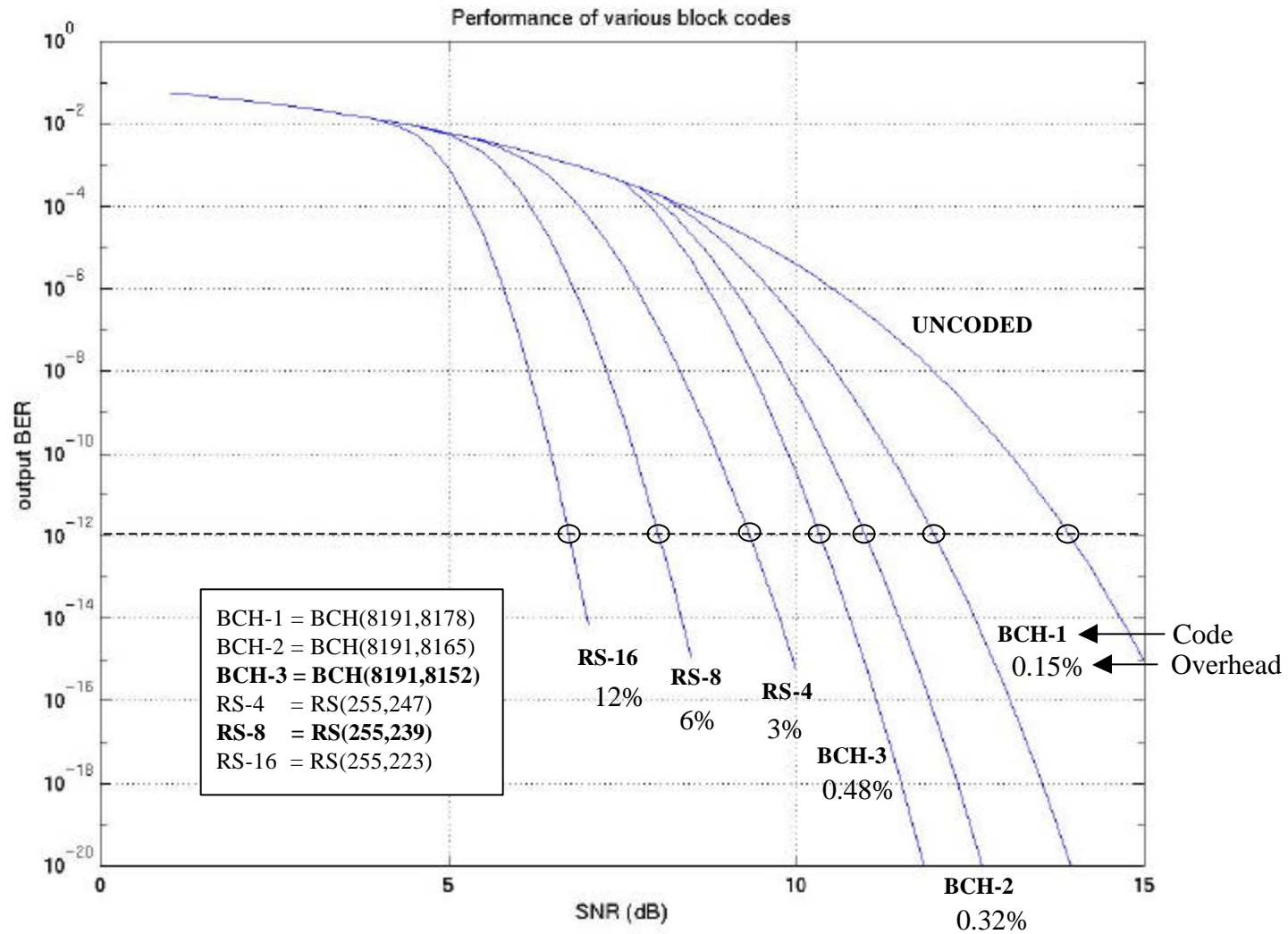
- ❑ Clearly finding $|M|$ and M^{-1} is not easy for large t
- ❑ Fortunately, RS has been researched and widely used in many applications for a long time, therefore there are more efficient algorithms for each task.
- ❑ E.g.,
 - ❑ to solve the key equation ----> Euclidean algorithm, Berlekamp algorithm, Berlekamp-Massey algorithm
 - ❑ to find roots of $s(x)$ ----> Chien Search algorithm



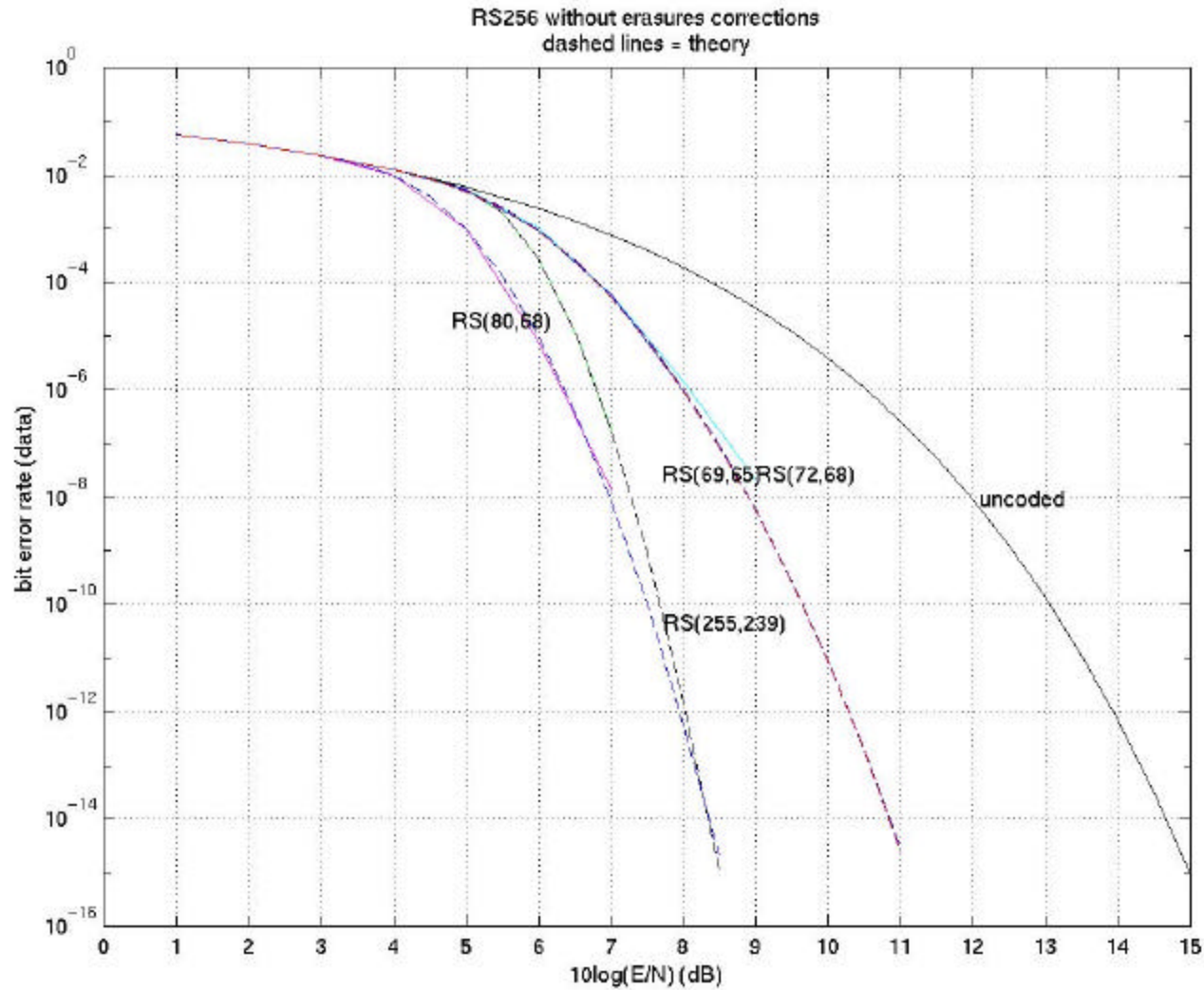
- ❑ to compute error magnitude -----> Forney algorithm

Performance analysis

Performance analysis



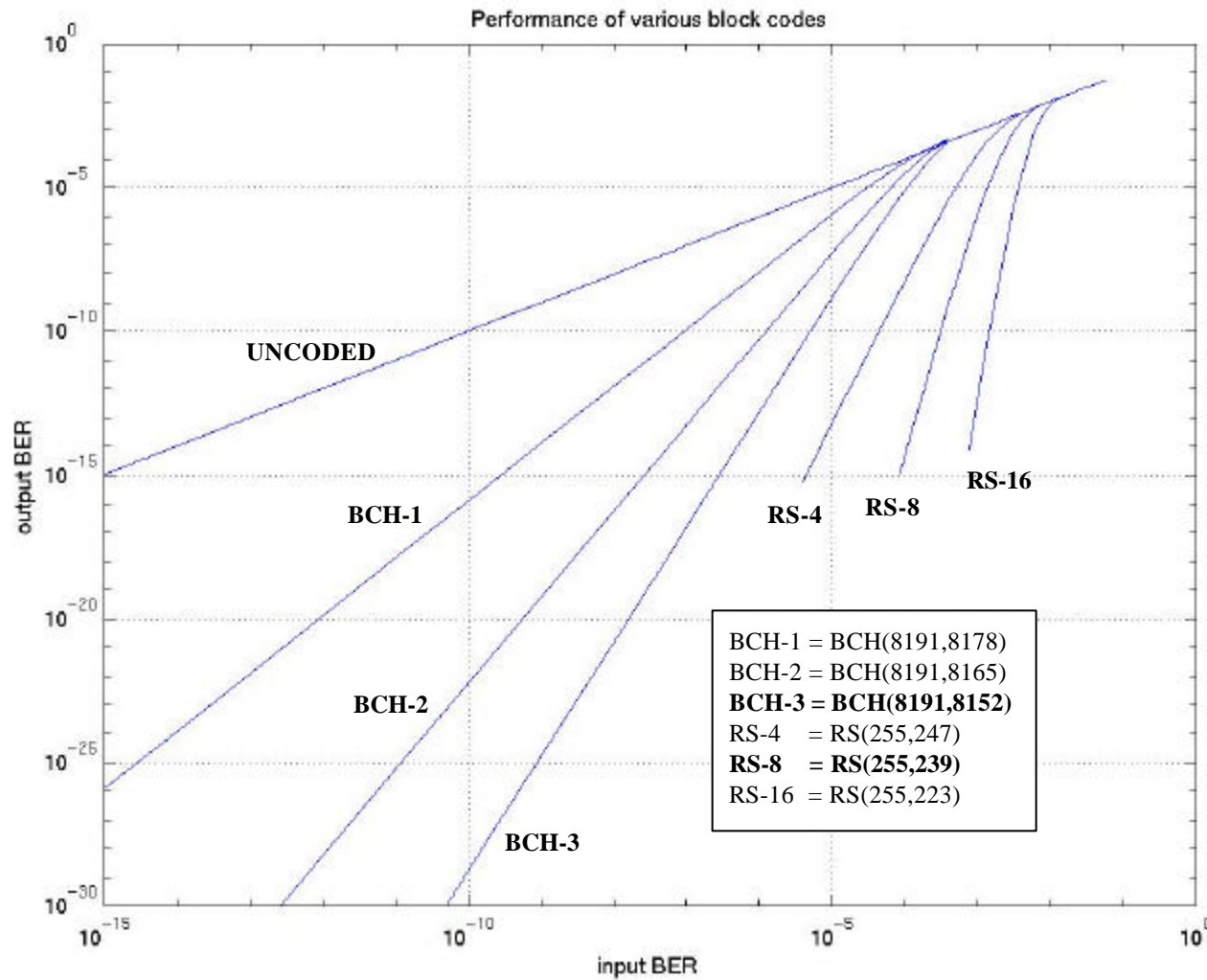
RS codes: simulated results



An alternative representation

- ❑ The above coding gains (in dB) do not map directly in optical gain (in dBm)
- ❑ Optical gain depends on channel and receiver response
- ❑ Usually optical power is proportional to detector current, and not to electrical power !
- ❑ Input BER versus output BER is a **unique representation** of the performance of a given code. It does not depend on optical response. It is very useful for comparing the performance of different codes with variable size / overhead.

Input BER versus Output BER



Latency issues

Latency issues

- ❑ Latency is obviously implementation dependant
- ❑ In many cases, total latency of encoding + decoding can be on the order of $2n-3n$ (n block size)
- ❑ For instance for RS(255,239) total latency could potentially be $\sim 3 \times 255 \times 8 \times 100 \text{ps} < 1 \mu\text{s}$
- ❑ Some existing FEC chips used in WAN have $30 \mu\text{s}$ total latency (longer blocks, lower overhead)
- ❑ Propagation time in fiber:
 - ❑ 300m $\rightarrow 1 \mu\text{s}$
 - ❑ 3km $\rightarrow 10 \mu\text{s}$
 - ❑ 30km $\rightarrow 100 \mu\text{s}$
- ❑ In LAN applications, smaller block sizes are preferable (to minimize buffer size).

Summary

Summary

- ❑ Conventional FEC schemes can achieve 6dB coding gain or more without need for “soft decisions”
- ❑ Error correction on the decode side is up to implementers
- ❑ Parity check could be used to perform bit alignment (in a serial approach) or de-skewing (in a WDM approach)
- ❑ Parity check could be used to indicate link quality
- ❑ Clear trade-off between FEC performance on one hand and [complexity,latency,overhead] on the other hand
- ❑ Simple FEC codes exist (Hamming, binary BCH)
- ❑ BCH & RS codes can be (are) implemented in generic CMOS technology