## Reliable Computing I

Lecture 7: Information Redundancy-2
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## Today's Lecture

Codes for storage and communication

- Cyclic codes
- Reed-Solomon codes

Arithmetic codes
Self-checking logic

## Codes for Storage and Communication

- Cyclic codes are parity check codes with additional property that cyclic shift of codeword is also a codeword
- if (Cn-1, Cn-2 ... C1, C0) is a codeword, (Cn-2, Cn-3, ... C0, Cn-1) is also a codeword
Cyclic codes are used in
- sequential storage devices, e.g. tapes, disks, and data links - communication applications
- An ( $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{k}$ ) cyclic code can detect single bit errors, multiple adjacent bit errors affecting fewer than (n-k) bits, and burst transient errors
- Cyclic codes require less hardware, in form of linear feedback shift registers
- parity check codes require complex encoding, decoding circuit using arrays of EX-OR gates, AND gates, etc.


## Cyclic Code and Polynomials

Cyclic codes depend on the representation of data by a polynomial

- If $\left(C_{n-1}, C_{n-2} \ldots C_{1}, C_{0}\right)$ is a codeword, its polynomial representation is $C(x)=C_{n-1} x^{n-1}+C_{n-2} x^{n-2}+\ldots C_{1} x+C_{0}$
Cyclic codes are characterized by their generator polynomial $\mathrm{g}(\mathrm{x})$
- $g(x)$ is a polynomial of degree ( $n-k$ ) for an ( $n, k$ ) code, with a unity coefficient in ( $\mathrm{n}-\mathrm{k}$ ) term
$g(x)$ is a factor of $x^{\mathrm{n}}$-1, i.e., it divides it with zero remainder
- if a polynomial with degree $n-k$ divides $x^{n}-1$, then $g(x)$ generates a cyclic code
- Example: for $(7,4)$ code, $g(x)=x^{3}+x+1$


## Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

Considers dataword and codeword to be polynomials

- E.g., $i_{0}, i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{n-1} \rightarrow i_{0}+i_{1} X+i_{2} X^{2}+\ldots+i_{n-1} X^{n-1}$

Codeword $=$ Dataword * Generator

- $C(X)=D(X){ }^{*} g(X)$
- $g(X)$ is pre-defined CRC polynomial
- depends on particular code
- Additions performed during multiplication are mod2
- $0+0=0,0+1=1+0=1,1+1=0$

At receiver, divide $n$-bit codeword by CRC polynomial
$D(X)=C(X) / g(X)$
If remainder is non-zero, we've detected an error

## Basic Operations on Polynomials

Can multiply or divide one polynomial by another, follow modulo 2 arithmetic, coefficients are 1 or 0 , and addition and subtraction are same

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Multiplication } \quad\left(x^{4}+x^{3}+x^{2}+1\right)\left(x^{3}+x\right) \quad \begin{aligned}
& x^{7}+x^{6}+x^{5}+x^{3} \\
+ & x^{5}+x^{4}+x^{3}+x
\end{aligned} \\
& = \\
& =x^{7}+x^{6}+x^{4}+x
\end{aligned}
$$



## Cyclic Code - Example

Consider generator polynomial $g(x)=x^{3}+x+1$ for $(7,4)$ code

- Can verify $g(x)$ divides $x^{7}-1$
- Given data word (1111), generate codeword
- $d(x)=x^{3}+x^{2}+x+1$

Then $c(x)=g(x) d(x)=\left(x^{3}+x^{2}+x+1\right)\left(x^{3}+x+1\right)$ $=x^{6}+x^{5}+x^{3}+1$
Hence code word is (1101001)

## CRC Properties and Varieties

An n-bit CRC check can detect all errors of less than $n$ bits and all but 1 in $2^{n}$ multi-bit errors

- Examples:
- CRC-12: $g(X)=X^{12}+X^{11}+X^{3}+X^{2}+X+1$
- CRC-16: $g(X)=X^{16}+X^{15}+X^{2}+1$

Ethernet uses CRC-32

- More bits $\rightarrow$ better error detection capability


## Circuit to Generate Cyclic Code

- Consider blocks labeled X as multipliers, and addition elements as modulo 2


Another representation is to replace multipliers by storage elements, adders by EX-OR gates


## Generation of Code Words

| Cyclic codes for 4-bit information words. |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Information | Code |
| $\left(\mathbf{d}_{0}, \mathbf{d}_{1}, \mathbf{d}_{2}, \mathbf{d}_{3},\right)$ | $\left(\mathrm{v}_{0}, \mathrm{v}_{1}, \mathrm{v}_{2}, \mathrm{v}_{3}, \mathrm{v}_{4}, \mathrm{v}_{5}, \mathrm{v}_{6}\right)$ |
| 0000 | 0000000 |
| 0001 | 0001101 |
| 0010 | 0011010 |
| 0011 | 0010111 |
| 0100 | 0110100 |
| 0101 | 0111001 |
| 0110 | 0101110 |
| 0111 | 0100011 |
| 1000 | 1101000 |
| 1001 | 1100101 |
| 1010 | 1110010 |
| 1011 | 1111111 |
| 1100 | 1011100 |
| 1101 | 1010001 |
| 1110 | 1000110 |
| 1111 | 1001011 |



Data polynomial $=\mathrm{d}_{0}+\mathrm{d}_{1} \mathrm{x}+\mathrm{d}_{2} \mathrm{x}^{2}+\mathrm{d}_{3} \mathrm{x}^{3}$
Generator polynomial $=1+x+x$
Code polynomial $=v_{0}+v_{1} x+v_{2} x^{2}+v_{3} x^{3}+v_{4} x^{4}$
$+v_{5} x^{5}+v_{6}{ }^{x} 6$

| The encoding process |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Register values |  |  |  |  |  |
| Clock period | $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{2}$ | $\mathbf{3}$ | $\mathbf{D}(\mathbf{x})$ | $\mathrm{V}(\mathbf{x})$ |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  |  |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 3 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 4 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 5 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |

## Decoding of Cyclic Codes

Determine if code word $\left(r_{n-1}, r_{n-2}, \ldots ., r_{1}, r_{0}\right)$ is valid
Code polynomial $r(x)=r_{n-1} x^{n-1}+r_{n-2} x^{n-2}+\ldots r_{1} x+r_{0}$

- If $r(x)$ is a valid code polynomial, it should be a multiple generator polynomial $g(x)$
- $\mathrm{r}(\mathrm{x})=\mathrm{d}(\mathrm{x}) \mathrm{g}(\mathrm{x})+\mathrm{s}(\mathrm{x})$, where $\mathrm{s}(\mathrm{x})$ the syndrome polynomial should be zero
Hence, divide $r(x)$ by $g(x)$ and check the remainder whether equal to 0


## Circuits for Decoding



Another representation is to replace multipliers by storage elements and adders by EX-OR gates



## Systematic Cyclic Codes

Previous cyclic codes were not systematic, i.e. data not part of code word
To generate ( $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{k}$ ) systematic cyclic code, do the following:

Multiply $\mathrm{d}(\mathrm{x})$ by $\mathrm{x}^{\mathrm{n}-\mathrm{k}}$, this is accomplished by shifting $\mathrm{d}(\mathrm{x})$ n-k bits

- The code polynomial is $c(x)=r(x)+x^{n-k} d(x)$
- Hence $x^{n-k} d(x)+r(x)=g(x) q(x)$, which is code word $c(x)$ since it is a multiple of $g(x)$


## Example of Systematic Cyclic Code

Generator polynomial $g(x)=x^{4}+x^{3}+x^{2}+1$ of $(7,3)$ code

- Data is 3 bits, $n-k=4$ bits

| Message Bits |  |  | Code Word $\mathrm{x}^{4} \mathrm{M}(\mathrm{x})-\mathrm{C}(\mathrm{x})$$\qquad$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{m}_{2} \mathrm{~m}_{1} \mathrm{~m}_{0}$ | $\mathrm{x}^{4} \mathrm{M}(\mathrm{x})$ | $C(x)=\operatorname{Rem}\left[x^{4} M(x) \div G(x)\right]$ |  |
| 000 | 0 | 0 | 0000000 |
| 001 | $\mathrm{x}^{4}$ | $\mathrm{x}^{3}+\mathrm{x}^{2}+1$ | 0011101 |
| 010 | $\mathrm{x}^{5}$ | $\mathrm{x}^{2}+\mathrm{x}+1$ | 0100111 |
| 011 | $\mathrm{x}^{5}+\mathrm{x}^{4}$ | $\mathrm{x}^{3}+\mathrm{x}$ | 0111010 |
| 100 | $\mathrm{x}^{6}$ | $\mathrm{x}^{3}+\mathrm{x}^{2}+\mathrm{x}$ | 1001110 |
| 101 | $\mathrm{x}^{6}+\mathrm{x}^{4}$ | $\mathrm{x}+1$ | 1010011 |
| 110 | $\mathrm{x}^{6}+\mathrm{x}^{5}$ | $\mathrm{x}^{3}+1$ | 1101001 |
| 111 | $\mathrm{x}^{6}+\mathrm{x}^{5}$ | $\mathrm{x}^{4} \quad \mathrm{x}^{2}$ | 1110100 |

$d(x) x^{n-k}$

## Reed-Solomon Codes

- Popular ECC for CDs, DVDs, wireless communications, etc.
- $k$ data symbols, each of which is s bits
- r parity symbols, each of which is also s bits
- Can correct up to r/2 symbols that contain errors
- Or can correct up to $r$ symbol erasures
- Erasure = error in a known symbol
- Denoted by RS(n,k)
- Common example: RS $(255,223)$ with $s=8$
- $\mathrm{n}=255 \rightarrow 255$ codeword bytes
- $\mathrm{k}=223 \rightarrow 223$ dataword bytes
- r=32 $\rightarrow$ can correct errors in $\leq 16$ bytes


## Reed-Solomon Codes,

There exist many flavors of RS codes, each of which is tailored to specific purpose

- Cross-Interleaved Reed-Solomon Coding (CIRC) used in CDs can correct error burst of up to 4000 bits!
- 4000 bits is roughly equivalent to 2.5 mm on the CD surface
RS codes are best for bursty error model
Just as good at handling 1 error in symbol or s errors in symbol
Codewords created by multiplying datawords with generator polynomial (like CRC)


## Checksum Codes - Basic Concepts

- The checksum is appended to block data when such blocks are transferred



## Single Precision Checksums



A single-precision checksum is formed by adding the data words and ignoring any overflow

Original Data

| $d_{3} d_{2} d_{1} d_{0}$ |
| :---: |
| 0111 |
| 0001 |
| 01110 |
| 0000 |
| Checksum |
| 1110 |



The single-precision checksum is unable to detect certain types of errors.
Original Data The received checksum and the checksum of the received data are equal, so no error is detected.

## Double Precision Checksums

Compute 2 n -bit checksum for a block of n -bit words

- Overflow is still a concern, but it is now overflow from a $2 n-$ bits

Original Data
Received Data
$\mathrm{d}_{3} \mathrm{~d}_{2} \mathrm{~d}_{1} \mathrm{~d}_{0}$
0111


0000

Checksum |  | 000 | 1110 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

$d_{3} d_{2} d_{1} d_{0}$


Checksum of Received Data

| 0010 | 1110 |
| :---: | :---: | | Received Checksum |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| 1000 | 1110 |

The received checksum and the checksum of the received data are not equal, so the error is detected

## Honeywell Checksums

Concatenate consecutive words to form double words to create $\mathrm{k} / 2$ words of 2 n bits; checksum formed over newly structured data


## Residue Checksums

- The same concept as the single-precision checksum except that the carry bit is not ignored and is added to checksum in an end-around carry fashion



## Arithmetic Codes

- Useful to check arithmetic operations
- Parity codes are not preserved under addition, subtraction
- Arithmetic codes can be

Separate: check symbols disjoint from data symbols

- Non-separate: combined check and data

Several Arithmetic codes
AN codes, Residue codes, Bi-residue codes
Arithmetic codes have been used in STAR fault tolerant computer for space applications

## AN codes

Data X is multiplied by check base A to form A.X

- Addition of code words performed modulo M where A divides M
- $A\left(X+{ }_{M} Y\right)=A X+{ }_{M} A Y$
- Check operation by dividing the result by $A$
- If result = 0, no error, else error




## Residue Codes

- Separate code (X, X Mod A)
- Created by appending the residue of a number to that number



## Berger Codes

- Used in Control units as systematic codes
- The k check bits are the binary encoding of the number of zeros in the d-bit dataword
- Berger codes are formed by appending $\mathrm{k}=\left\lceil\log _{2}(\mathrm{~d}+1)\right\rceil$ check bits and $\mathrm{n}=\mathrm{d}+\mathrm{k}$
- Example:
- $X=10010001$ => $k=\left\lceil\log _{2}(8+1)\right\rceil=4$
- the number of 1 s in this data is 3 (0011)
- the complement of (0011) is (1100)
- the resulting code word is: 100100011100


## Berger Codes

Can detect all single-bit errors and all unidirectional multi-bit errors

- Unidirectional: all bit errors are either from $0 \rightarrow 1$ or from $1 \rightarrow 0$


## Good for detecting coupling faults

- Change in one bit erroneously causes change(s) in other bit(s)
- Models short circuits (including bridging faults)


## Self-Checking Circuits

- What properties/invariants can we build into circuits such that codeword inputs do not lead to codeword outputs in the presence of faults?
- Self-testing circuit
- for every fault from a prescribed set there exists at least one valid input code word that will produce an invalid output code word when a single fault is present in the circuit
Fault secure circuit
- any single fault from a prescribed set results in the circuit either producing the correct code word or producing a non-code word, for any valid input code word
Totally self-checking circuit (TSC)
- the circuit is both fault secure and self-testing
- all single faults are detectable by at least one valid code word input, and when a given input combination does not detect the fault, the output is the correct code word output



## Implementing EDC/ECC in Hardware

- Where does EDC/ECC get used?
- Disk, CD-ROM
- Memory (DRAM, SRAM)

Buses

- Network
- Tradeoff between EDC and ECC
- ECC: Forward error recovery
- Often on critical path, so can slow down even fault-free system
- EDC: Backward error recovery
- Detecting error leads to recovery (can be slow)
- So would you use ECC or EDC in your L1 cache?
- How about in DRAM?

