

### **Today's Lecture**



- Code, codeword, binary code
- Error detecting and correcting codes
- Hamming distance and codes
- Parity prediction
  - Odd/even parity
  - Basic parity approaches

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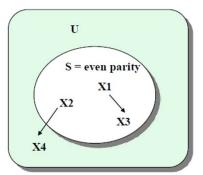
### **Error Detection through Encoding**



- At logic level, codes provide means of masking or detecting errors
- Formally, code is a subset S of universe U of possible vectors
- A noncode word is a vector in set U-S

X1 is a codeword <10010011> due to multiple bit error, becomes X3 = <10011100> not detectable

X2 is a codeword, becomes X4 noncode detectable



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#### **Basic Idea**



- Start with k-bit data word
- Add r check bits
- Total = n-bit codeword (n=k+r)
- Map 2<sup>k</sup> data words to 2<sup>n</sup> sized codeword space
- Overhead = r/n (sometimes computed as r/k)
  - E.g., for (single-bit) parity, the overhead is 1/n

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#### **Basic Concepts**



- Code, codeword, encoding, decoding error detection code, error correcting code
- Hamming distance properties:
  - The Hamming weight of a vector x (e.g., codeword), w(x), is number of nonzero elements of x.
  - Hamming distance between two vectors x and y, d(x,y) is number of bits in which they differ.
  - Distance of a code is a minimum of Hamming distances between all pairs of code words.
  - Example: x = (1011), y = (0110)w(x) = 3, w(y) = 2, d(x, y) = 3

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### **Hamming Distance**

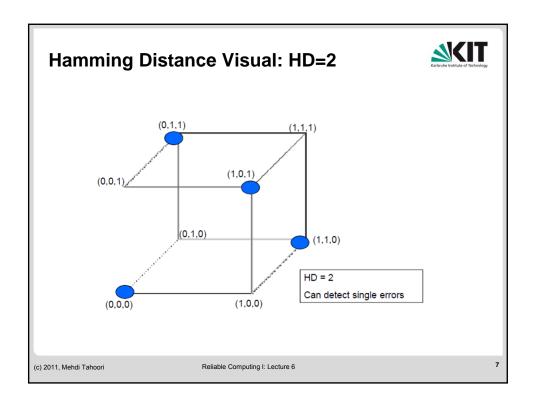


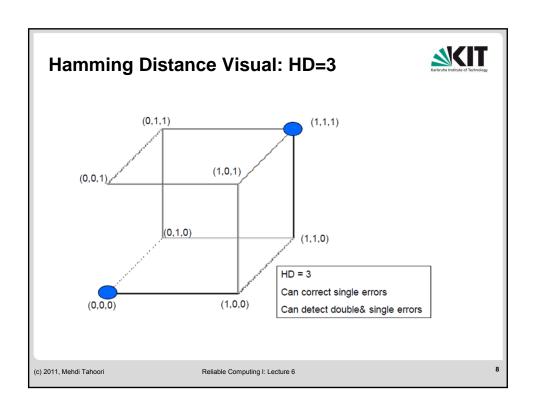
- Hamming distance (HD): number of bits in which two words differ from each other
  - E.g., 0010 and 1110 have a Hamming distance of ??
- For a group of codewords, the minimum HD between any two codewords determines the code's ability to detect and/or correct errors
  - This is a fundamental rule, not just some ad-hoc reasoning

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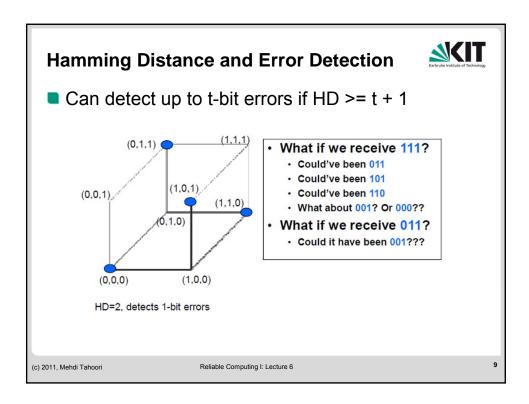
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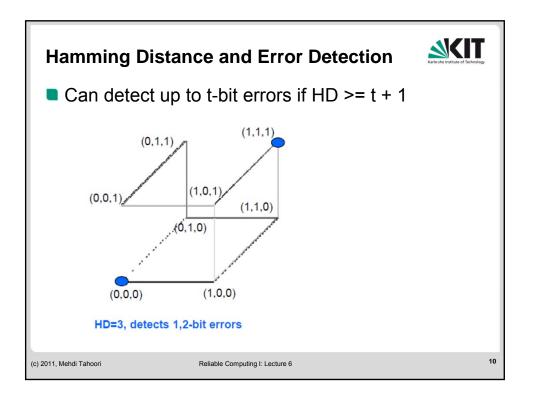




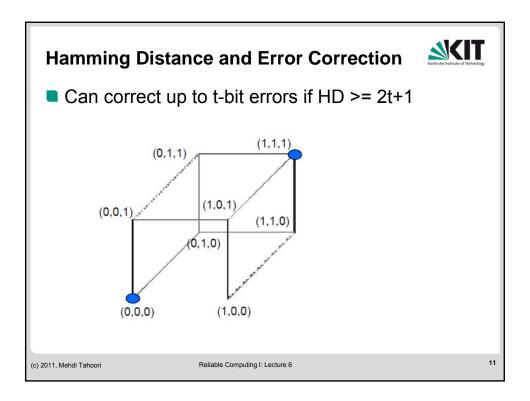


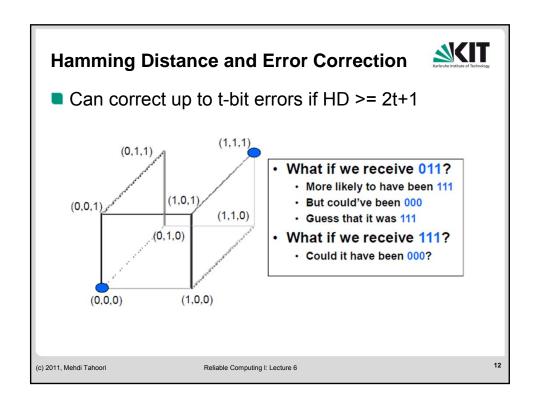














#### **Summary: Hamming Distance Properties**



- To detect all error patterns of Hamming distance ≤ d, code distance must be ≥ d+1
  - e.g., code with distance 2 can detect patterns with distance 1 (i.e., single bit errors)
- To correct all error patterns of Hamming distance ≤ c, code distance must be ≥ 2c + 1
- To correct all patterns of Hamming distance c and detect up to d additional errors ,

#### code distance must be ≥ 2c + d + 1

 e.g., code with distance 3 can detect and correct all single-bit errors

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#### **Single-bit Parity**

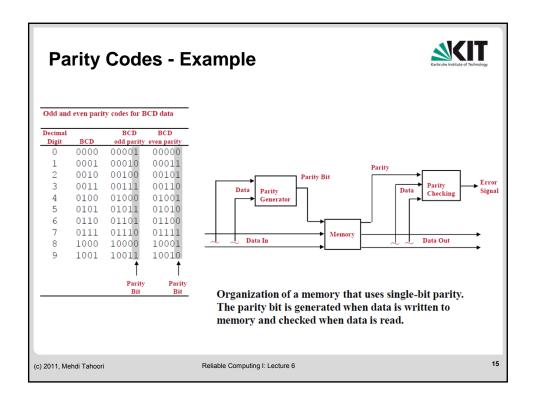


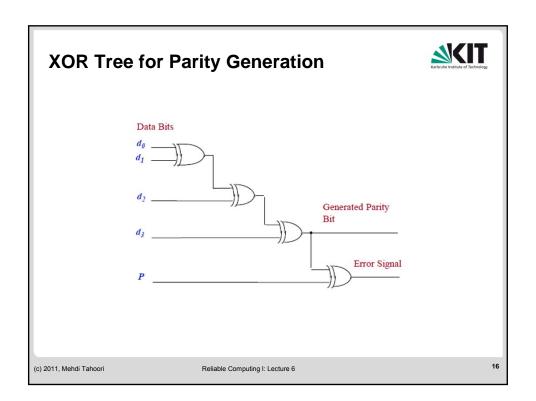
- Simplest error detection code
  - Adds one bit of redundancy to each data word
- Even (odd) parity: add bit such that total number of ones in codeword is even (odd)
  - E.g., 001010 gets a parity bit of 0 for even parity (1 for odd)
- Can detect all single-bit errors
  - Hamming distance ≥ 2
  - Could be greater than 2 if data words don't use all bit combinations
- Drawbacks:
  - Can't detect anything except single-bit errors

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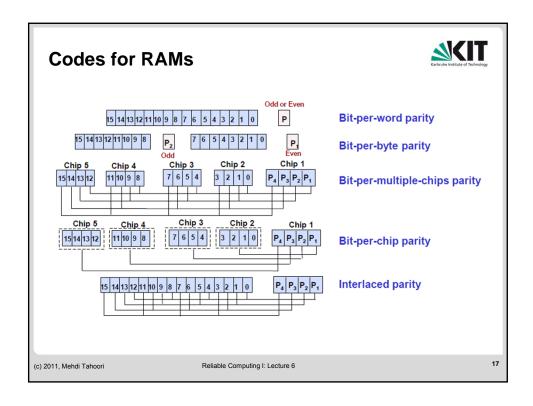
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#### **Parity Codes for Memory - Comparison Parity Code Advantages** Disadvantages Bit-per-word: one parity bit per data Detects all single-Certain errors undetected, e.g., bit errors a word, including parity bit becomes all 1s, due to a failure of a bus or a set of data buffers. Bit-per-byte: each data portion (e.g., a Detects all-1s and Ineffective for multiple errors, e.g., the whole-chip failure byte) is protected by a separate parity all-0s conditions bit; the parity of one group should be even and the parity of the other group should be odd Bit-per-multiple-chips: one bit from each Detects failure of Cannot locate failure of chip is associated with a single parity bit entire chip complete chip Bit-per-chip: each parity bit is associated Detects single-bit Susceptible to whole-chip with one chip of the memory errors and failure, i.e., a single chip error identifies chip with can result in multiple bits to be erroneous bit corrupted and this may go undetected. Parity groups are not based on Interlaced: similar to the bit-per-Detects errors in multiple-chips; must ensure that no two adjacent bits physical organization of the adjacent bits are from the same parity memory group Reliable Computing I: Lecture 6 (c) 2011, Mehdi Tahoori



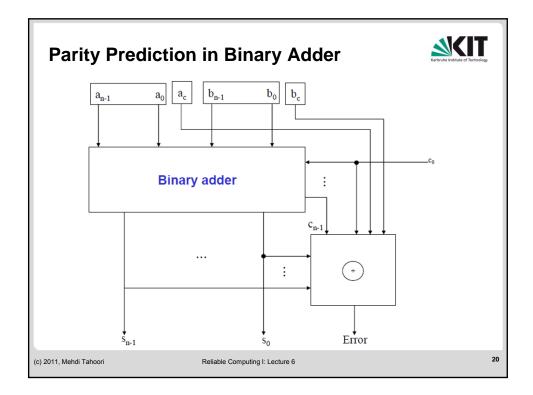
#### **Parity Prediction in Arithmetic Circuits**



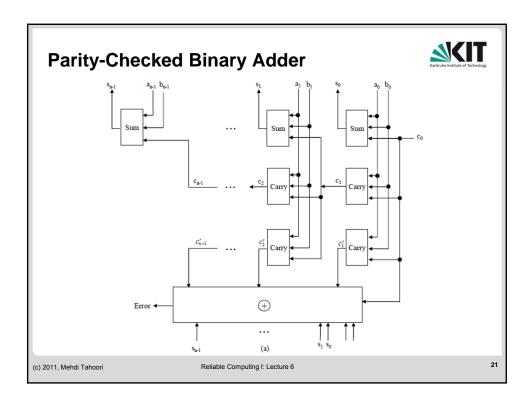
- Binary Adder
  - Two inputs:  $a = (a_{n-1} ... a_0 a_c)$  and  $b = (b_{n-1} ... b_0 b_c)$
  - Two operands to be added: (a<sub>n-1</sub> ... a<sub>0</sub>) and (b<sub>n-1</sub> ... b<sub>0</sub>)
  - a<sub>c</sub> and b<sub>c</sub> are check bits of a and b respectively
  - Encoded output will be  $s = (s_{n-1} \dots s_0 s_c)$  where  $(s_{n-1} \dots s_0)$  are determined by the ordinary binary addition of  $(a_{n-1} \dots a_0)$  to  $(b_{n-1} \dots b_0)$  and  $s_c$  is the check bit for  $(s_{n-1} \dots s_0)$
  - Then  $s_c = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} s_i = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i \oplus \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_i \oplus \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_i$
  - Reduces to  $s_c = a_c \oplus b_c \oplus \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_i$

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### **Binary Multiplier**

$$p_0 = a_0 b_0$$

$$p_1 = a_0 b_1 \oplus a_1 b_0$$

$$p_2 = a_0 b_2 \oplus a_1 b_1 \oplus a_2 b_0 \oplus c_{1,1}$$

$$p_3 = a_0 b_3 \oplus a_1 b_2 \oplus a_2 b_1 \oplus a_3 b_0 \oplus c_{2,1} \oplus c_{1,2}$$

$$p_4 = a_1b_3 \oplus a_2b_2 \oplus a_3b_1 \oplus c_{3,1} \oplus c_{2,2} \oplus c_{1,3}$$

$$p_5 = a_2b_3 \oplus a_3b_2 \oplus c_{3,2} \oplus c_{2,3} \oplus c_{1,4}$$

$$p_6 = a_3 b_3 \oplus c_{3,3} \oplus c_{2,4}$$

$$p_7 = c_{3,4}$$

■ Therefore, denoting the check bit for (p<sub>7</sub> ...p<sub>0</sub> ) by p<sub>c</sub>

$$p_{c} = \sum_{i=0}^{7} p_{i}$$

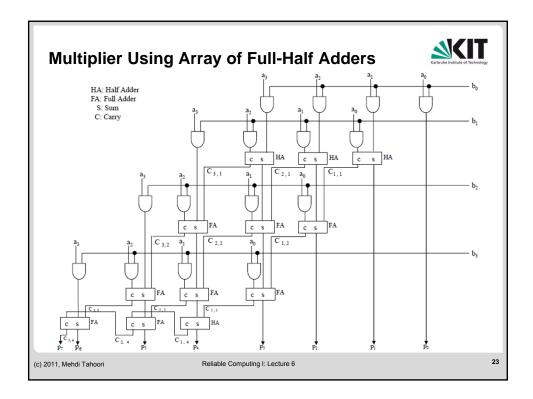
$$= (\sum_{i=0}^{3} a_{1})(\sum_{i=0}^{3} b_{1}) \oplus \sum_{i=1}^{3} \sum_{j=1}^{4} c_{i,j}$$

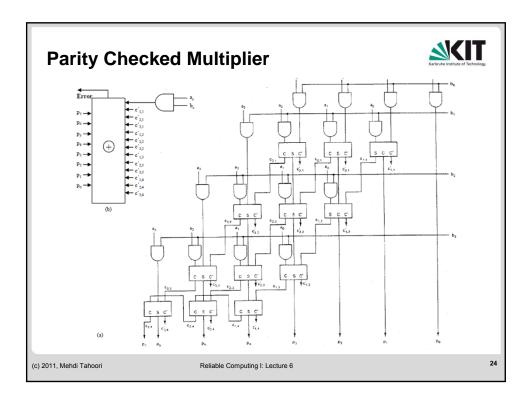
$$= a_{c}b_{c} \oplus \sum_{i=1}^{3} \sum_{j=1}^{4} c_{i,j}$$

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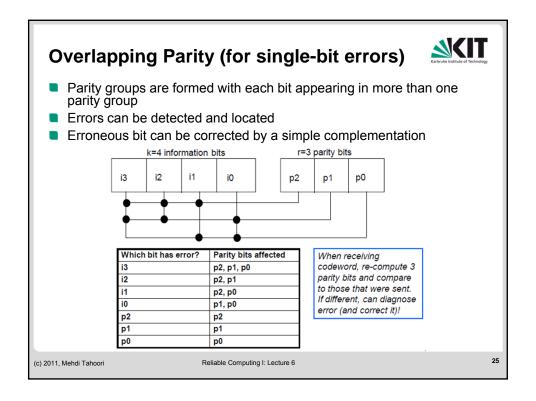
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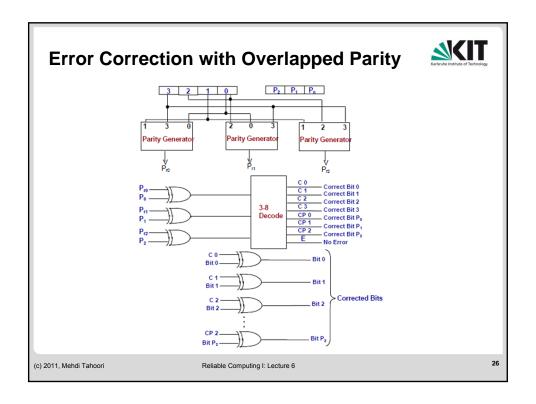














#### **Generalized Overlapping Parity Codes**



- The previous slide showed how to use overlapping parity to detect and diagnose single-bit errors
- For single-bit errors, there are k+r possible errors
  - Therefore, we need 2<sup>r</sup> ≥ k + r + 1 to uniquely diagnose errors
- In general, can extend this scheme to detect and diagnose more than single-bit errors
  - General approach called "Hamming Codes"

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#### **Hamming Error-Correcting Code**



- Require from 10% to 40% redundancy
- Best thought of as overlapping parity
- The Hamming single-error correcting code uses c parity check bits to protect k bits of information:
  - $2^{c} \ge c + k + 1$
- Example:
  - suppose four information bits (d3, d2, d1, d0) and as a result three parity bits (p1, p2, p3)
  - the bits are partitioned into groups as (d3, d1, d0, p1), (d3, d2, d0, p2) and (d3, d2, d1, p3)
    - the grouping of bits can be determine from a list of binary numbers from 0 to 2<sup>k</sup> 1.
  - each check bit is specified to set the parity, either even or odd, of its respective group

7 6 5 4 3 2 1 d<sub>3</sub> d<sub>2</sub> d<sub>1</sub> p<sub>3</sub> d<sub>0</sub> p<sub>2</sub> p<sub>4</sub>

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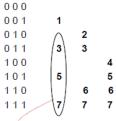
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#### **Hamming Error-Correcting Code**



Determining the bit groups (three parity bits)



Parity bits calculation

p1 = XOR of bits (3, 5, 7) p2 = XOR of bits (3, 6, 7) p3 = XOR of bits (5, 6, 7)

#### Parity checking

c1 = XOR of bits (1,3, 5, 7) c2 = XOR of bits (2,3, 6, 7) c3 = XOR of bits (4,5, 6, 7)

Observe that each group of bits for parity checking starts with a number that is a power of 2, e.g., 1, 2, 4.

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### (7,4) Hamming Code



- Class of (n,k) Hamming codes, e.g., (7,4) [r= n-k =3]
- Let i1, i2, i3, i4 be the information bits
- Let p1, p2, p4 be the check bits
- p1 = i1 xor i2 xor i4
- p2 = i1 xor i3 xor i4
- p4 = i2 xor i3 xor i4
- Let <u>H</u> be the Parity Check Matrix
- If  $\underline{C}$  is a codeword, then  $\underline{H}$   $\underline{C}$  =  $\underline{0}$  (mult modulo 2!)
- Else,  $\underline{H}$   $\underline{C}$  =  $\underline{S}$ , where  $\underline{S}$  is the syndrome
  - Syndrome identifies where error occurred (i.e., which bit)
  - This works out like magic because of some cute math

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## (7,4) Hamming Code



<u>H</u> =

p1	p2	i1	p4	i2	i3	i4
1	0	1	0	1	0	1
0	1	1	0	0	1	1
0	0	0	1	1	1	1

- Info word: 0101: p1 = 0, p2 = 1, p4 = 0
  - codeword is 0100101
- Example1:
  - received error-free codeword R = 0100101
  - Compute syndrome:  $\underline{S} = \underline{H} \underline{R} = \underline{0} = [0 \ 0 \ 0]$
- Example 2:
  - received R =0110101 (i.e., error in bit position 3)
  - Compute syndrome: S = H R = [1 1 0]
    - Read backwards this is 011 = 3

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# **Check Bits and Syndromes for Single-Bit Errors**



- The original data is encoded by generating a set C<sub>g</sub>, of parity bits.
- To check correctness, the encoding process is repeated and a set C<sub>c</sub>, of parity bits is generated.
- If C<sub>g</sub> and C<sub>c</sub> agree, the information is correct.
- If C<sub>g</sub> and C<sub>c</sub> disagree, the information is incorrect and must be corrected.
- To aid the correction, a syndrome is defined:
  - The syndrome is a binary word that has 1 in each bit position in which C<sub>g</sub> and C<sub>c</sub> disagree; the syndrome points directly to the erroneous bit.

Erroneous bits	Check bits affected	Syndromes
$d_0$	p <sub>1</sub> , p <sub>2</sub>	110
d <sub>1</sub>	p <sub>1</sub> , p <sub>3</sub>	101
d <sub>2</sub>	p <sub>2</sub> , p <sub>3</sub>	011
$d_3$	p <sub>1</sub> , p <sub>2</sub> , p <sub>3</sub>	111
P <sub>1</sub>	P <sub>1</sub>	100
$p_2$	$p_2$	010
$p_3$	p <sub>3</sub>	001

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