

Implementation Of RS Decoder Using High-Speed UHD Architecture

Bhashipaka. Ashok, M. A. Himayath Shamshi

Abstract: Reed-Solomon (RS) codes are widely used as forward correction codes (FEC) in digital communication and storage systems. Correcting random errors of RS codes have been extensively studied in both academia and industry. However, for burst-error correction, the research is still quite limited due to its ultra high computation complexity. In this brief, starting from a recent theoretical work, a low-complexity reformulated inversionless burst-error correcting (RiBC) algorithm is developed for practical applications. Then, based on the proposed algorithm, a unified VLSI architecture that is capable of correcting burst errors, as well as random errors and erasures, is firstly presented for multi-mode decoding requirements. This new architecture is denoted as unified hybrid decoding (UHD) architecture. It will be shown that, being the first RS decoder owning enhanced burst error correcting capability, it can achieve significantly improved error correcting capability than traditional hard-decision decoding (HDD) design. A design of (7, 3) Reed Solomon encoder and Decoder are implemented using VHDL hardware description language (HDL) code, simulated and synthesized by XILINX ISE simulator.

General Terms : Burst errors, Reed-Solomon codes, RiBC algorithm and UHD architecture.

Keywords : Burst error correction, Hard decision decoding, unified VLSI architecture.

I. Introduction

Reed-Solomon (RS) codes have been widely employed for error correction in modern digital communication and data storage systems. Similar with other forward correction codes (FEC), when using RS codes as channel coding, the errors occurred in transmission procedure are typically divided into random errors and burst errors. During transmission error may happen for a number of reasons e.g. (scratches on CD, radio frequency interference with mobile phone reception, noise etc.) At the receiving side, the decoder detects and corrects limited predetermined number of errors occurred during transmission. A low-complexity high speed RS encoding and decoding architecture will improve the overall system performance significantly. In this a low complexity reformulated inverse free burst-error correcting (RiBC) algorithm is developed for practical applications. In this brief, developed from the above new algorithm, a high speed reformulated inversionless burst-error correcting (RiBC) algorithm is proposed, and a unified hybrid decoding (UHD) architecture that supports three decoding modes is presented for the first time. It will be shown that, compared with traditional RS decoder, the proposed UHD architecture can achieve significantly better burst-error correcting capability. In this paper, basics of Galois field theory and an efficient RS encoder in section II. Proposed Reformulated Inversionless-free Burst-Error correcting (RiBC) Algorithm explained in section III, RS decoder using UHD architecture are implemented in Section IV, and Section V covers the Hardware performance and Experimental results are showing the simulation results of proposed design. Final conclusion is drawn in Section VI.

II. GALOIS FIELD

Galois field theory plays main role in the Reed Solomon Encoding and Decoding process. A Galois field consists of a set of elements (numbers). The elements are based on a primitive element, usually denoted as α and take the values,

$$(0, 1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^{N-1})$$

to form a set of 2^m elements, where $N = 2^m - 1$. The field is then known as $GF(2^m)$. The value of α is usually chosen to be 2. The Reed-Solomon code is defined in the Galois field which contains a finite set of elements where any arithmetic operations on elements goes on such elements belonging to the same set. Burst errors are efficiently corrected by using cyclic codes. The Galois field or the Finite Fields are extensively used in the Error-Correcting Codes (ECC). In this section these finite fields are discussed. The Galois Field is a finite set of elements which has defined rules for arithmetic. These roots are not algebraically different from those used in the arithmetic with ordinary numbers but the only difference is that there is only a finite set of elements involved. They have been extensively used in Digital Signal Processing (DSP), Pseudo-Random Number Generation, Encryption and Decryption protocols in cryptography. A Finite Field is a field with a finite field order (i.e., number of elements), also called a Galois field. The order of a limited field is always a prime or a power of a prime. For every prime power, there exists exactly one finite field $GF(p^m)$. A field is said to be infinite if it consists of infinite numbers. The finite field or GF contains $(2^m - 1)$ non-zero elements. All finite fields contain a zero element and an element, called a generator or primitive element α , such that every non-zero element in the field can be expressed as a power of this element. Encoders and decoders for linear block codes over $GF(2^m)$, such as Reed-Solomon codes, require arithmetic operations in $GF(2^m)$. In $GF(2^m)$ addition and subtraction are simply bitwise exclusive-or. Multiplication can be performed by several approaches, including bit serial, bit parallel (combinational), and software. Division requires the reciprocal of the divisor, which can be computed in hardware using several methods, including Euclid's algorithm, lookup tables, exponentiation,

- Bhashipaka. Ashok, M. A. Himayath Shamshi
- M.Tech VLSI System Design,
- ashokbhashipaka@gmail.com, himayathshamshi@gmail.com
- Assistant Professor(Sr.), ECE, Electronics and Communications Department, Vaagdevi College of Engineering, Bollikunta, Warangal-506005.

and subfield representations. With the exception of division, combinational circuits for Galois field arithmetic are straightforward. Fortunately, most decoding algorithms can be modified. In $GF(2^m)$ fields, there is always a primitive element α , such that you can express every element of $GF(2^m)$ except zero as a power of α . You can generate every field $GF(2^m)$ using a primitive polynomial over $GF(2^m)$ field is modulo arithmetic. The simplest example of a finite field is the binary field.

Properties of Galois Field

The main properties of a Galois fields are:

- A finite field or Galois field must be based on a prime number to ensure that each row and column of its addition and multiplication tables contains unique values.
- The primitive (root) of the field is used to derive all of the values in the field.
- A finite field or Galois field is indeed finite, but the field repeats an infinite number of times.
- The modulus of the field determines the values of its elements.
- Only addition and multiplication are required subtraction and division are performed using the additive and multiplicative inverses respectively.
- All elements of GF are defined on two operations, called addition and multiplication.
- The result of adding or multiplying two elements from the Galois field must be an element in the Galois field.
- Identity of addition "zero" must exist, such that $a + 0 = a$ for any element a in the field.
- Identity of multiplication "one" must exist such that $a * 1 = a$ for any element a in the field.
- For every element a in the Galois field, there is an inverse of addition element b such that $a+b = 0$. This allows the operation of subtraction to be defined as addition of the inverse.
- For every non-zero element b in the Galois field, there is an inverse of multiplication element b^{-1} such that $bb^{-1} = 1$. This allows the operation of division to be defined as multiplication by the inverse.
- Both addition and multiplication operations should satisfy the commutative, associative, and distributive law.

REED SOLOMON ENCODING

2.1 Reed- Solomon codes

Reed-Solomon code is a block code and can be specified as RS (n, k) as shown in Fig 1. The variable n is the size of the code word with the unit of symbols, k is the number of data symbols and 2t is the number of parity symbols. Each symbol consists of m number of bits. Reed Solomon codes work on Galois field.

$$n - k = 2t$$

is the number of parity symbols.

The relation between symbol size m, and code size n is given by

$$n = 2^m - 1,$$

The Reed Solomon code allows correct up to t number of symbol errors. Where t is given by

$$t = (n-k)/2.$$

Where t is the symbol-error correcting capability of the code,

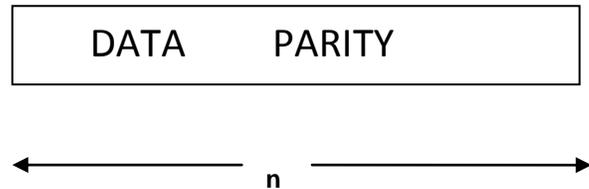


Fig 1 : The structure of RS Codeword .

2.2 Reed-Solomon Encoder

Reed-Solomon codes operate on the information by dividing the message stream into blocks of data, adding redundancy per block, dependent only on the current inputs. The symbols in Reed Solomon coding are elements of a Galois Field (finite field). Encoding procedure is done by dividing the message polynomial by generator polynomial, then it gives the Galois field remainder. The Galois field remainder is appended to the message [1]. This division is done by a Linear Feedback Shift Register (LFSR) implementation. Reed-Solomon Encoder using LFSR are shown in the Fig 2. The Linear Feedback Shift Register is the main computational element of the Reed-Solomon Encoder. The RS encoding procedure is based on Finite field operations. The generating polynomial for an RS code takes the form.

$$\varphi(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{2t} (\alpha^i x - \beta_i)$$

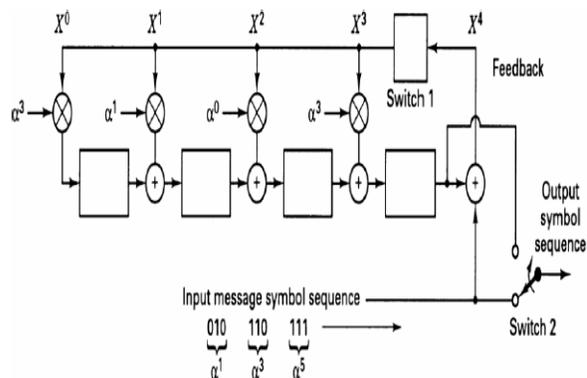


Fig 2 : The structure of RS Encoder.

III. Proposed Reformulated Inverse-free Burst-Error Correcting (RiBC) Algorithm

A.Original Burst - Error Correcting (BC) Algorithm

Wu proposed a new approach to track the position of burst of errors. By introducing a new polynomial that is a special linear function of syndromes, Wu proved that the desired single burst of errors can be acquired by tracking the longest consecutive roots of new polynomial. Furthermore, that

approach was extended to BC algorithm for correcting a long burst of errors with length up to $2t-1-2\beta$ plus a maximum of β random errors. In the BC algorithm, β is a pre-chosen parameter that determines the specific error correcting capability. It indicates the decoder is capable of correcting a f -length ($f < (2t-2\beta)$) burst of errors plus a maximum of β random errors. In this case, the miscorrection probability is upper bounded by $(n-2f)(n-f)2^{m(\beta+f-2t)}$. Although BC algorithm has reduced computation complexity, some disadvantages impede its efficient VLSI design: 1) the inversion operation exists, computation and contains long data path and data dependency for calculating extra cycles or another copy of original circuitry are required.

B. Proposed Reformulated Inversionless Burst-Error Correcting (RiBC)

Algorithm.

In the original burst error correcting algorithm consists of inversion operation and some computational steps contains long data dependency and long data path. To resolve these problems by applying a similar arithmetic transformation presented, we reformulate BC algorithm to the proposed reformulated inverse free burst error correction algorithm (RiBC). The (RiBC) i.e., Reformulated inverse free burst error correction algorithm is a kind of list decoding algorithm. In this proposed RiBC algorithm eight polynomials are updated simultaneously in each iteration. After every 2β inner iterations, $\Lambda^{(2\beta)}(x)$, as the candidate of the error locator polynomial of the random errors is computed for current l th outer iteration. When l reaches n , we track the $\Lambda^{(2\beta)}(x)$, that is identical for longest consecutive l , and record the last element l^* of the consecutive l 's. Then the corresponding $\Lambda^{(2\beta)}(x)$ and $\Lambda^{(2\beta)}(x)$ at the l^* -th loop are marked as overall error locator polynomial $\Lambda^*(x)$ and $\Omega^*(z)$ and error evaluator polynomial $\Omega^*(z)$ respectively. Finally Forney algorithm is used to calculate the error value in each error position with the miscorrection probability up to $(n-2f)(n-f)2^{m(\beta+f-2t)}$. The proposed RiBC algorithm is targeted for correcting burst error plus some random errors. If the channel condition guarantees that only single long burst of errors occurs, Wu [6] presented a low complexity single long burst of errors correcting (sLBC) algorithm for that case. The (sLBC) algorithm is a special version of RiBC algorithm, and its miscorrection probability is upper bounded by $(n-2f)2^{m(f-2t)}$. In next section, a unified hybrid decoding architecture that can implement RiBC, sLBC and classical random errors and erasures correcting (rEEC) algorithm [2] will be presented. Hence at the end of this section, for reader's convenience, we introduce the rEEC algorithm. In next section, a unified hybrid decoding architecture that can implement RiBC, sLBC and classical random errors and erasures correcting (rEEC) algorithm [2] will be presented.

Algorithm for Reformulated Inverse-free Burst-Error Correction (RiBC)

A1: Compute

A2: For $l=0$ step 1 until $n-1$ do

f -length ($f < 2t-2\beta$) burst of errors plus maximum β random errors

:

input :syndromes $s_0, s_1, s_2, \dots, s_{2t-1}$;

B1: compute $\Xi(x) = (1-\alpha^{1-(2t-2\beta)}x)_{(1-\alpha)}^{2-(2t-2\beta)}x, \dots$

$$(1-\alpha^{-1}x)_{(1-x)} = 1 + \xi_1 x + \xi_2 x^2 + \dots + \xi_{2t-2\beta} x^{2t-2\beta};$$

B2: For $l=0$ step 1 until $n-1$ do

B2.1: compute

$$\Phi(x) = \Xi(\alpha^l x) = 1 + \Phi_1 x + \Phi_2 x^2 + \dots + \Phi_{2t-2\beta} x^{2t-2\beta};$$

B2.2: compute $\Psi(x) = \psi_0 + \psi_1 x + \psi_2 x^2 + \dots + \psi_{2t-1} x^{2t-1}$,
 when $\psi_i = \sum_{j=0}^{2t-2\beta} \phi_j s_{i+2t-2\beta-j}$;

B2.3: Initialize

$$\begin{aligned} \Lambda^{(0)}(x) &= \lambda_0^{(0)} + \lambda_1^{(0)} x + \dots + \lambda_{2t-2}^{(0)} x^{2t-2} = \Phi(x); \\ B^{(0)}(x) &= b_0^{(0)} + b_1^{(0)} x + \dots + b_{2t-2}^{(0)} x^{2t-2} = \Phi(x); \\ \Lambda^{(1)}(x) &= \lambda_0^{(1)} + \lambda_1^{(1)} + \dots + \lambda_{2t-2}^{(1)} x^{2t-2} = 1; \\ B^{(1)}(x) &= b_0^{(1)} + b_1^{(1)} x + \dots + b_{2t-2}^{(1)} x^{2t-2} = 1; \\ \Delta^{(0)}(x) &= \delta_0^{(0)} + \delta_1^{(0)} x + \dots + \delta_{2t-1}^{(0)} x^{2t-1} = \Psi(x); \\ \Theta^{(0)}(x) &= \theta_0^{(0)} + \theta_1^{(0)} x + \dots + \theta_{2t-1}^{(0)} x^{2t-1} = \Psi(x); \quad \Delta^{*(0)}(x) = \\ &= S(x); \quad \Theta^{*(0)}(x) = \theta_0^{*(0)} + \theta_1^{*(0)} x + \dots + \theta_{2t-1}^{*(0)} x^{2t-1} \\ &= S(x); \quad \gamma^{(0)} = 1, \quad k^{(0)} = 0; \end{aligned}$$

B2.4: for $r=0$ step 1 Until $2\beta-1$ do B2.4.1: compute

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_1^{(r+1)} &= \gamma^{(r)} \delta_{i+1}^{(r)} - \delta_0^{(r)} \theta_1^{(r)}, \\ \delta_i^{(r+1)} &= \gamma^{(r)} \delta_{i+1}^{(r)} - \delta_0^{(r)} \theta_i^{(r)}, \\ \lambda_i^{(r+1)} &= \gamma^{(r)} \lambda_i^{(r)} - \delta_0^{(r)} b_{i-1}^{(r)}, \\ \lambda_i^{(r+1)} &= \gamma^{(r)} \lambda_i^{(r)} - \delta_0^{(r)} b_{i-1}^{(r)}, \end{aligned}$$

B2.4.2: if $\delta_0^{(r)} \neq 0$ and $k^{(r)} \geq 0$ then $a=1$; else $a=0$;

$$\begin{pmatrix} b_i^{(r+1)} \\ b_i^{(r+1)} \\ \theta_i^{(r+1)} \\ \theta_i^{(r+1)} \\ \gamma^{(r+1)} \\ k^{(r+1)} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_i^{(r)} & b_{i-1}^{(r)} \\ \lambda_i^{(r)} & b_{i-1}^{(r)} \\ \delta_{i+1}^{(r)} & \theta_i^{(r)} \\ \delta_{i+1}^{(r)} & \theta_i^{(r)} \\ \delta_0^{(r)} & \gamma^{(r)} \\ -k^{(r)} - 1 & k^{(r)} + 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ \bar{a} \end{pmatrix}$$

B3: Track the longest consecutive $\Lambda^{(2\beta)}(x)$ that are identical, recorded the last element l^* of the consecutive l 's, then the overall error locator polynomial $\Lambda^*(x) = \Lambda^{(2\beta)}(x)$ at the l^* th outer loop. The overall evaluator polynomial $\Omega^*(x)$ is corresponding $\Delta^{(2\beta)}(x)$ at the l^* th outer loop.

OUTPUT : $\Lambda^*(x), \Omega^*(x)$.

IV. Proposed Unified Hybrid Decoding Architecture.

The proposed RiBC algorithm is very effective for correcting combination of burst errors and random errors (mode-1), while sLBC and rEEC algorithms are well-suited for single burst (mode-2) and random errors and erasures (mode-3) correction. By observing the three algorithms, it can be founded that they share many common or similar com-

putation steps. Based on this interesting similarity, a unified hybrid de-coding (UHD) architecture that is capable of correcting these three different types of errors pattern (or called as three work modes) will be given in this section. Fig. 3 shows the overall architecture of UHD decoder. Three types of lines illustrate data flows for different work modes: solid line for mode-1, dashed line for mode-2 and dotted line for mode-3. Different blocks are used to process different steps. Since SC and CSEE block have been discussed in previous literatures, their architectures are not discussed in this brief. The above three algorithms share many similar computation steps. Based on this interesting similarity, a UHD architecture is designed. Figure 3 shows the overall architecture of Unified Hybrid Decoding decoder. Three types of lines illustrate the data flows for different work modes: solid line for mode-1 for burst combined with random error correction RiBC algorithm, dashed line for mode-2 for only burst error correction and dashed line for mode-3 for only random error correction. Different blocks are used to process different steps in the algorithm.

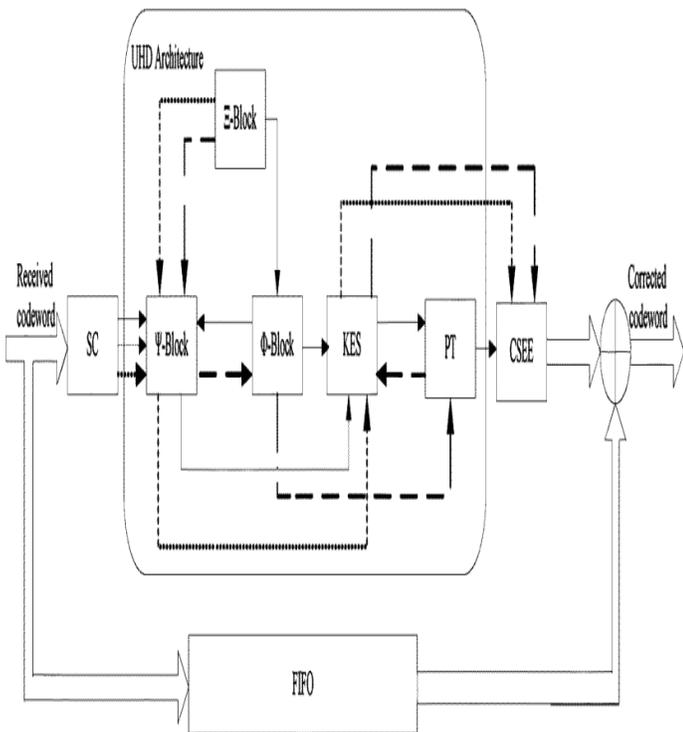


Fig.3: Overall architecture of proposed UHD decoder.

PROPOSED UNIFIED HYBRID DE-CODING ARCHITECTURE.

The proposed RiBC algorithm is very effective for correcting combination of burst errors and random errors (mode-1), while sLBC and rEEC algorithms are well-suited for single burst (mode-2) and random errors and erasures (mode-3) correction. By observing the three algorithms, it can be founded that they share many common or similar computation steps. Based on this interesting similarity, a unified hybrid decoding (UHD) architecture that is capable of correcting these three different types of errors pattern (or called as three work modes) will be given in this section. Fig. 1 shows the overall architecture of UHD decoder. Three types of lines illustrate data flows for different work modes:

solid line for mode-1, dashed line for mode-2 and dotted line for mode-3. Different blocks are used to process different steps. Since SC and CSEE block have been widely discussed in previous literatures, their architectures are not discussed in this brief.

A Reed-Solomon decoder consists of mainly four blocks:

- => The syndrome computation (SC) block.
- => The key Equation solver (KES) block.
- => Position tracking (PT) block.
- => The Chien search and error evaluator (CSEE) block.

Syndrome Calculation

The first step in decoding process is the received symbol is to determine the data syndrome. The syndrome calculation block is used to check whether the received polynomial contains errors or not. The syndrome generation block evaluates the received codeword polynomial. If the received codeword consists an error then the syndrome polynomial is non zero. If received codeword contains an error, it indicates that the received syndrome polynomial is zero, and the data is passed through the decoder without any error correction. The syndromes can then be calculated by substituting the 2t roots of the generator polynomial G(x) into R(x). The syndrome polynomial is generally represented as, Where α is the primitive element.

A. $\Xi(x)$ -Block Architecture

$\Xi(x)$ -block is used to process steps B1, C1, or D1 in different work modes. No matter which work mode is selected, the computation of $\Xi(x)$ is always carried out as follows. But here the steps C1, D1 are contained in the Algorithm for single long Burst of Errors Correction (sLBC) and Algorithm for Random Burst Error and Erasure Correction (rEEC) respectively. here these are not mentioned.

$$\Xi(x) = \prod_{i=1}^c (1 - A_i x) = 1 + \xi_1 x + \xi_2 x^2 + \dots + \xi_{2t-2\beta} x^{2t-2\beta}.$$

Where A_i denotes $\alpha^{i-(2t-2\beta)}$, $\alpha^{1-(2t-1)}$ and c denotes $2t-2\beta$, $2t-1$, or p.

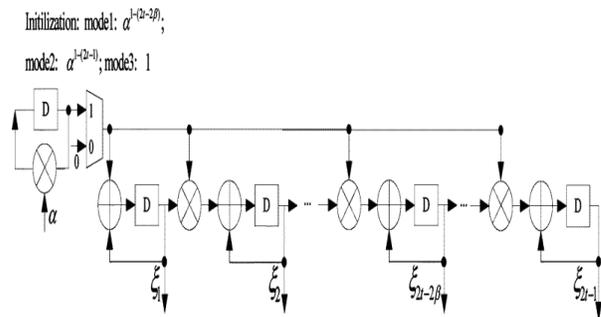


Fig. 4. Block diagram of $\Xi(x)$ -Block.

B. Φ-Block Architecture

Steps B2.1 and C3.1 are implemented in 8-block (Fig. 3). For these steps, the common operation is multiply-accumulate for each coefficient of the polynomial. Only a slight difference exists in step C3.1: it is a Chien Search-like step, hence an extra adder tree is required Ψ-received symbol. Notice that Φ-block will be idle in mode-3.

- 1) In mode-1, ξ_i as the coefficients of $\Xi(x)$, are inputted into each multiply accumulate unit for iterated multiplication. For each l in step B2.1, since $\Phi(x) = \Xi(\alpha^l x) = 1 + \Phi_1 x + \Phi_2 x^2 + \dots + \Phi_{2t-2\beta} x^{2t-2\beta}$,

should be maintained within $2t+3$ cycles, 3:1 multiplexers are introduced to help the lower registers keep the coefficients of current $\Phi(x)$ during the above time interval. The value of l will increase by 1 every $2t+3$ cycles. Once l increases by 1, after 1 cycle, the lower registers will output Φ_l to the Ψ-block.

C. Ψ-Block Architecture

Ψ-block is used to execute steps B2.2, C2, and D2. Actually, the inherent nature of steps B2.2, C2, and D2 is the multiplication of two polynomials

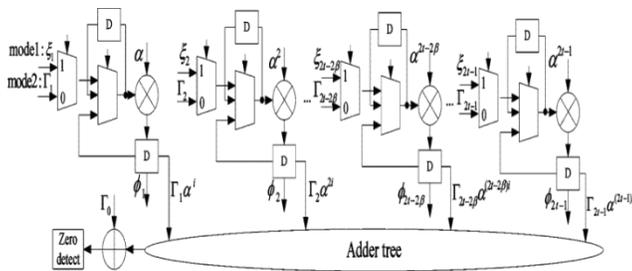


Fig. 5. Block diagram of Φ-block.

D. Key Equation Solver (KES) Block Architecture

In UHD decoder, KES block is employed to carry out steps B2.4, C4, C5, and D4. And presents the overall architecture of KES block and the internal structure of its two types of processing elements (PE). This KES Block heart of the Reed-Solomon Decoder. This KES block generates the Error locator polynomial $\Lambda(x)$. After the Error Locator polynomial has been found, it is used to determine the Error Evaluator polynomial $\Omega(x)$. The KES block consists of $2t-1$ PE0's and $2t$ PE1's. The detailed operating scheme is presented as follows.

- 1) For mode-1 (step B2.4), in the r th iteration, each register in PE0/PE1i stores the corresponding coefficients of different polynomials. For each outer iteration, it takes 2β cycles to compute $\lambda_i^{(2\beta)}$ and $\bar{\delta}_i^{(2\beta)}$ as the coefficients of $\Lambda^{(2\beta)}(x)$ and $\bar{\Lambda}^{(2\beta)}(x)$. Meanwhile, $\lambda_i^{(2\beta)}$ will also be computed and outputted into PT block to track the longest consecutive $\Lambda^{(2\beta)}(x)$ that are identical.
- 2) For mode-2, as a forementioned, KES block is arranged to carry out steps C4 and C5. Accordingly, both of the initial values in registers and input signals are different from those in mode-1, and they are operated based on the following schedule:

- i. First, $2t-1$ PE0's compute step C4 ($\bar{\Lambda}^*(x) = \Xi(\alpha^{s+2t-2}x)$). In each PE0_i, the second uppermost register (denoted as group A) is initialized with ξ_{i+1} in addition, $Ctrl1$ and $\bar{\delta}_0^{(r)}$ are always set to 1 and 0, respectively. Then after $s+2t-2$ cycles, these registers in group A just store the coefficients of polynomial $\bar{\Lambda}(x)$.

Position Track (PT) Block Architecture

PT block is used to track the longest consecutive polynomials that are identical (step B3) or positions of roots (steps C3.2 and C3.3). In mode-1, the inputted $\lambda_i^{(2\beta)}$, $\lambda_i^{(2\beta)}$, $\bar{\delta}_i^{(2\beta)}$ from KES block at the l th outer iteration are denoted as $\lambda_i(l)$, $\lambda_i(l)$, and $\bar{\delta}_i(l)$. In addition, $\lambda_i(\text{temp})$ represents $\lambda_i(l-1)$, while $\lambda_i(\text{store})$ are the coefficients of current continuously identical $\bar{\Lambda}^{(2\beta)}(x)$. Moreover, $\lambda_i(\text{longest})$ stores the coefficients of current longest continuously identical $\bar{\Lambda}^{(2\beta)}(x)$. Control signals *shift* and *equal* are generated from Schedule A. After l reaches n , $\lambda_i(\text{longest})$ and $\bar{\delta}_i(\text{longest})$ are outputted as the coefficients of overall error locator polynomial $\bar{\Lambda}^*(x)$ and overall error evaluator polynomial $\bar{\Omega}^*(x)$. For mode-2, Schedule B is proposed to calculate the single burst's starting position s and its length f in sLBC algorithm. Notice that since finding roots of $\Gamma(x)$ has been implemented in Φ-block there is no need for PT block to carry out this function any more, but just receiving the signal outputted from Φ-block which indicates whether $\Gamma(\alpha^l)$ or not. Then it is feasible for PT block to implement Schedule B with a simple control unit. Hence the extra architecture of PT block for executing Schedule B is omitted in this section.

Chien Search and Error Correction

In this approach error locator polynomial and error value polynomial values are passed to the Chien search and Forney algorithm blocks. To find the error location, Chien search is the very good efficient method. Chien search method is used for finding error positions. The basic Chien search block. Error correction block is shown. Its basic idea is simple but efficient: If $\bar{\Lambda}(\alpha^i) = 0$ for current i , it indicates that the i th symbol of the received code-word is wrong and needs to be corrected. After obtaining the error positions, the following Forney algorithm is applied to determine the error value.

$$Y_i = \bar{\Omega}(X_i^{-1}) / \bar{\Lambda}(X_i^{-1})$$

Where Y_i indicates error magnitude for the i th erroneous symbol.

V. HARDWARE PERFORMANCE

In this section, the hardware and error correction performance of the proposed UHD decoder for an example RS (255, 239) code will be given. Here for the employed RS (255, 239) code, $n=255, t=8$, and $m=8$. The hardware complexity is estimated based on the work and the throughput has been scaled properly. Although the area requirement of the UHD decoder is about 1.7 times of that of the RiBM decoder, the UHD decoder can achieve significantly enhanced burst-error correcting capability with multiple work modes. In the channel environments that likely generate long burst of errors ($f > 8$) such as high-density storage systems, the traditional RiBM decoder fails to decode the code words for its limited error correcting

capability, while UHD decoder can be still effective (mode-1 and mode-2). For random error-and-erasure correction (mode-3), the proposed UHD design has lower throughput than RiBM. However considering only half resource of KES block is utilized, if one additional copy of SC, CSEE, FIFO, and Ξ blocks are employed, its throughput can be approximately doubled by inputting two independent codewords into the decoder, which will outperform RiBM architecture significantly. Being the first RS decoder that is capable of correcting both of burst errors and random errors, the proposed UHD design provides an efficient and attractive unified solution for multi-mode RS decoding in practical applications. The proposed three work modes cover different applications: mode-1 can be used for applications of low or moderate data rates (e.g., ADSL and DVB-T etc.); mode-2 is suitable for the medium to high speed (e.g., 1–2 Gbps) systems, and mode-3 is a good choice for very high-speed optical communication.

Applications

Reed Solomon codes are error correcting codes that have found wide ranging applications throughout the fields of digital communication and storage. Some of which include:

- Storage Devices (hard disks, compact disks, DVD, barcodes)
- Wireless Communication (mobile phones, microwave links)
- Digital Television networks.
- Broadband Modems (ADSL, xDSL, etc).
- Deep Space and Satellite Communications Networks (CCSDS).

Future Work

The Future work is being directed toward integrated circuit implementations (like ASIC or FPGA implementations) of the proposed architectures and their incorporation into broadband communication systems such as those for very high-speed digital subscriber loops and wireless systems.

EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The Simulation results of proposed architecture are carried out using Xilinx ISE simulator.



Fig10: Simulation result of encoder



Fig12: Simulation result for decoder

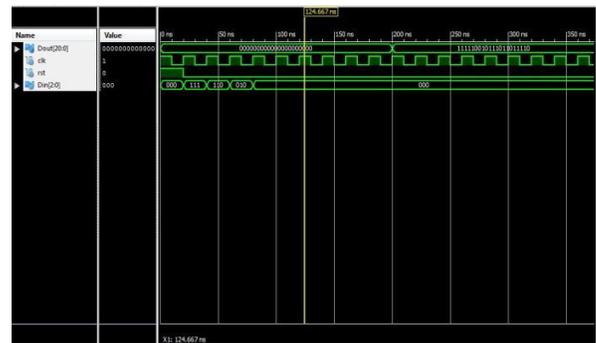


Fig 15: Final output for proposed Architecture

VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper, a high-speed RiBC algorithm for RS codes for burst-error correcting, and a UHD architecture that can support three different decoding modes are developed. The UHD decoder can achieve enhanced capability of correcting long burst of errors with good hardware efficiency. The UHD architecture that can support three decoding modes is presented for the first time. Compare to traditional RS decoder the proposed architecture can achieve efficient burst error correcting capability.

REFERENCES

- [1]. D. V. Sarwate and N. R. Shanbhag, "High-speed architectures for "Reed-Solomon decoders," IEEE Trans. Very Large Scale Integr.(VLSI) syst. , vol. 9, no. 5, pp. 641–655, Oct. 2001.
- [2]. T. Zhang and K. K. Parhi, "On the high-speed VLSI implementation of errors-and-erasures correcting Reed-Solomon decoders," in Proc. ACM Great Lake Symp. VLSI (GLVLSI), 2002, PP . 89–93.
- [3]. Z. Wang and J. Ma, "High-speed interpolation architecture for soft-decision decoding of Reed-Solomon codes, " IEEE Trans. Very Large Scale

- Integr. (VLSI) Syst., vol. 14, no. 9, pp. 937–950, Sep.2006.
- [4]. E. Dawson and A. Khodkar, “Burst error correcting algorithm for Reed-Solomon codes,” *Electron. Lett.*, vol. 31, pp. 848–849, 1995.
- [5]. L. Yin, J. Lu, K. B. Letaief, and Y. Wu, “Burst-error-correcting algorithm for Reed Solomon codes,” *Electron. Lett.*, vol. 37, no. 11, pp.695 –697, May 2001.
- [6]. Y. Wu, “Novel burst error correcting algorithms for Reed-Solomon codes,” in *Proc. IEEE Allerton Conf. Commun., Control, Comput.*,2009, pp. 1047–1052.
- [7]. S. Shamshiri and K.-T. Cheng, “Error locality aware linear coding to correct multi-bit upsets in SRAMs,” in *Proc. IEEE Int. Test Conf.*, 2009.
- [8]. B.Sklar, “*Digital Communication Fundamentals and Application*” Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, 2001.p.1104.
- [9]. S.B.Wicker and V.K. Bhargava, eds “*Reed-Solomon codes and their applications*” New york: IEEE press 1994.
- [10]. Amina, P. Chio, I.A. Sahagun and D. J. Sabido IX “VLSI Implementation of A (255,223) Reed-Solomon Error-Correction Codes ,” *Proc. Of Second National ECE Conference*.
- [11]. Li Li, Bo Yuan “Unified Architecture for Reed-Solomon decoder combined with burst error correction”, *IEEE transaction on VLSI systems*,JULY 2012.
- [12]. J.H. van Lint, “*Introduction to Coding Theory*.”Springer, New York 3rd Edition,1999.
- [13]. W. Cary Hu-man; Vera Pless, “*Fundamentals of Error-Correcting Codes*” . Cambridge University Press; Cambridge, UK 1st Edition, 2010.
- [14]. J.L. Massey, “Shift-register synthesis and BCH decoding,” *IEEE Trans. Inform. Theory* IT-15 (1969).
- [15]. K.A.S. Immink, “Reed-Solomon codes and the compact disc,” in *Reed-Solomon Codes and Their Applications*, eds. S.B. Wicker and V.K. Bhargava. New York: IEEE Press, 1994, pp.41-59