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Architecture for VLSI Design of Reed-Solomon Encoders

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NASA

National Aeronautics and Space Administration

Jet Propulsion Laboratory California Institute of Technology Pasadena, California

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ABSTRACT

In this document, the logic structure of a universal VLSI chip called the symbol-slice Reed-Solomon (RS) encoder chip is presented. An RS encoder can be constructed by cascading and properly interconnecting a group of such VLSI chips. As a design example, it is shown that a (255,223) RS encoder requiring around 40 discrete CMOS IC's may be replaced by an RS encoder consisting of four identical interconnected VLSI RS encoder chips. Besides the size advantage, the VLSI RS encoder also has the potential advantages of requiring less power and having a higher reliability.

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SECTION I

INTRODUCTION

Reed-Solomon (RS) codes (Ref. 1) are nonbinary BCH codes. These codes can correct both random and burst errors over a communication channel. Recently concatenated coding systems using RS codes as the outer codes have been proposed for space communication to achieve very low error probabilities (Refs. 2 to 7). Several deep space flight projects such as the Voyager at Uranus encounter, the Galileo, and the International Solar Polar Mission (ISPM) have also considered using the concatenated RS/Viterbi channel coding scheme. Hence RS codes are quite important for space communications.

The complexity of an RS encoder is proportional to the errorcorrecting capability of the code, the speed of the encoding, and the interleaving
level used (Ref. 4). For reliable space communication there is a need to use RS
codes with large error-correcting capability and large interleaving level (Refs.
4, 5, 8, and 9. Hence one is especially interested in minimizing the complexity
of RS encoders for space communication applications. In a spacecraft the power,
size, and reliability requirements are usually quite severe. Thus there is considerable interest in a VLSI (Very Large Scale Integration) RS encoder which has
the potential for significant savings in size, weight, and power while at the
same time providing higher reliability over an RS encoder implemented in discrete
logic circuits.

This document introduces a symbol-sliced logic structure suitable for a VLSI implementation of RS encoders. By cascading and properly interconnecting a group of such VLSI chips, each consisting of a fixed portion of the encoder, it is possible to obtain an RS encoder with any desired error-correcting capability

and interleaving level. As a design example, it is shown that a (255,223) RS encoder requiring 40 discrete CMOS IC's may be replaced by an RS encoder consisting of four identical interconnected VLSI encoder chips. It is also shown that these VLSI RS encoder chips can be paralleled to improve the encoding speed.

SECTION II

BASIC CONCEPTS OF FINITE FIELDS

A field is a set of elements, including 0 and 1, any pair of which may be added or multiplied (denoted by + and *) to give a unique result in the field. The addition and multiplication are associative and commutative, and multiplication distributes over addition in the usual way, i.e.,

$$u * (v+w) = u*v+u*w$$

Every field element u has a unique negative element -u in the same field such that

$$u + (-u) = 0$$

Every nonzero field element u has a unique reciprocal field element l/u, such that

For every field element u

and

If the number of elements in a field is infinite, then it is called an infinite field. Examples of infinite fields are:

- (a) The rational number field.
- (b) The real number field.
- (c) The complex number field.

If the number of elements in a field is finite, then it is called a finite field or a Galios field GF(q), where q is the number of elements in the field. Two examples of finite fields are given as follows. The first example is the finite field GF(p) which is formed by integers modulo p, where p is a prime. If p=2, then the field is called GF(2). GF(2) contains only two elements, i.e., 0 and 1. The addition and multiplication tables of GF(2) are given as below:



$$\begin{array}{c|cc}
0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 1
\end{array}$$

Addition

Multiplication

The second example is the finite field formed by polynomials modulo and irreducible polynomial of degree m with coefficients in GF(p), where p is a prime. The definition of an irreducible polynomial is given as follows. A polynomial

$$p(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} a_i x^i$$

with $a_1 \in GF(p)$ is called irreducible over GF(p) if there exists no polynomials A(x) and B(x) with coefficients from GF(p) such that

$$p(x) = A(x) B(x)$$

where

 $1 \le Degree of A(x) \le m-1$

As an example, if p = 2, then the polynomials

$$x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + 1$$

and

$$x^4 + x + 1$$

are irreducible over GF(2).

Now the multiplicative structure of finite fields will be discussed. If a field contains an element α , then the least positive integer N for which $\alpha^N=1$ is called the order of α . In a finite field of q elements, GF(q), there is a primitive element α , i.e., an element of order q-1. Every nonzero element of GF(q) can be expressed as a power of α .

Next the vector space structure of finite fields will be presented. To do it, one needs the following definition of a primitive polynomial. An irreducible polynomial of degree m over GF(q) is called primitive if it has a primitive element of $GF(q^m)$ as a root. A finite field of q^m elements, $GF(q^m)$, can be considered as an m-dimensional vector space over GF(q). A choice for a basis of $GF(q^m)$ over GF(q) is the set

$$\left\{1, \alpha, \alpha^2, ---, \alpha^{m-1}\right\}$$

which is called the canonical basis, where α is a root of a primitive polynomial of degree m over GF(q). In vector form

$$\left\{1, \alpha, \alpha^2, ---, \alpha^{m-1}\right\}$$

is represented as

$$1 \leftrightarrow (0, 0, ---, 0, 0, 1)$$

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

$$\alpha^{m-1} \leftrightarrow (1, 0, ---, 0, 0, 0)$$

whereas 0 is mapped to (0, 0, ---, 0). Thus all elements in $GF(q^m)$ except 0 can be formed by linear combinations of the canonical basis

1,
$$\alpha$$
, α^2 , ---, α^{m-1}

As an example, the Galois field of 2^4 elements, $GF(2^4)$, may be formed as the field of polynomials over GF(2) modules $(x^4 + x + 1)$, which is a primitive polynomial of degree 4. Let α be a root of $x^4 + x + 1$, i.e.,

$$\alpha^4 + \alpha + 1 = 0$$

Then by the definition of the primitive polynomial, all elements of $GF(2^4)$ except 0 are powers of α . The representation of α^i for $4 \le i \le 15$ can be determined by the primitive polynomial. In this example α is a root of $x^4 + x + 1$ over GF(2). Thus

$$\alpha^4 + \alpha + 1 = 0$$

It follows that

$$\alpha^4 = -\alpha - 1$$

Since -1 = 1 in GF(2), one has

$$\alpha^4 = \alpha + 1$$

The rest of the element α^{i} for $5 \le i \le 15$ can be obtained likewise. The 15 nonzero field elements of $GF(2^4)$ are shown below in both multiplicative and vector space forms.

Another example is the finite field $\mathrm{GF}(2^8)$ generated by the primitive polynomial

$$x^{8} + x^{4} + x^{3} + x^{2} + 1$$

The exponents versus elements and elements versus exponents tables for this ${\tt GF(2^8)}$ are shown in Table 1 and Table 2, respectively.

Exponents versus elements in a finite field GF(2⁸) generated by the primitive polynomial $x^8+x^4+x^3+x^2+1$. Table 1.

महाराज्य	м																																										
EXPONENT	255																																										
ध्यया	133	26	218	158	132	78	7.	164	73	114	61	203	138	126	215	246	227	75	86	55	165	65	S.	141	28	224	60	162	121	239	43	69	18	144	777	243	203	22	176	233	27	216	142
EXPONENT	128	131	134	137	140	143	146	149	152	155	158	161	164	167	170	173	176	179	182	185	188	191	194	197	200	203	276	503	2172	215	218	221	777	227	230	233	236	239	242	245	248	251	254
ELENCAT	707	97	103	79	Z	77	7.7	82	170	57	213	230	66	63	229	123	255	171	67	149	220	174	25	200	77	112	167	81	178	249	155	172	ወ	72	122	247	235	#	88	250	131	108	71
EXPONENT	127	130	133	136	139	142	145	148	151	154	157	160	163	166	169	172	175	178	181	184	187	190	193	156	199	202	205	8 02	111	214	217	220	223	226	525	232	235	238	241	777	247	250	253
ELEMENT	102	23	184	169	33	21	168	77	85	146	228	115	191	145	252	179	241	219	150	196	110	87	130	100	7	56	221	166	68	242	195	86	138	36	61	245	25.	139	77	125	207	24	173
EXPONENT	126	129	132	135	138	141	177	147	150	153	156	159	162	165	168	171	174	177	180	183	186	189	192	195	198	201	707	207	210	213	216	219	222	225	228	231	234	237	240	243	246	249	252
EL ENENT	-4	32	29	232	19	152	180	201	S	87	157	156	148	212	238	35	\$	64	93	210	222	190	153	188	137	3	253	187	111	225	16	226	<i>L</i> 9	ጟ	13	104	103	31	248	147	236	2 .	
EXPORENT	7	S	00	11	77	17	20	23	26	52	32	35	38	41	77	47	20	53	56	59	62	65	38	71	77	77	80	83	86	89	92	95	98	101	104	107	110	113	116	119	122	125	
ELEVENT	7	16	128	116	135	76	96	23.	(*1	14	192	9	7.7	106	119	159	140	20	160	105	111	95	194	96	202	30	240	211	214	254	163	113	175	17	136	52	189	129	124	199	118	151	
EXPONENT	П	4	7	16	13	16	19	22	25	28	31	75	37	07	73	95	67	52	55	28	61	Z	19	70	7.3	92	79	82	85	88	91	76	16	100	103	106	109	112	115	118	121	124	
ELEMENT	-	œ)	3	58	205	38	45	117	143	77	96	39	37	53	181	193	70	10	80	186	185	161	97	47	101	15	120	231	107	127	223	182	217	134	88	76	208	206	62	237	59	197	
EXPONENT	0	m	9	6	12	15	18	21	57	27	30	33	36	39	42	45	87	51	25	57	09	63	99	69	72	75	78	81	84	87	90	93	96	66	102	105	108	111	114	117	120	123	

Tab

nial	EXPONENT	112	140	13	222	197	227	119	180	89	35	97	509	188	747	178	190	98	20	158	27	109	31	216	164	23	127	246	9C .	25.	177	62	88	156	81	22	117 <u>.</u>	6/ 6	553	1/3	168	175
e polynomial	ELEMENT	129	132	135	138	141	144	147	150	153	156	159	162	165	168	171	174	177	180	183	186	789	192	195	198	201	204	20/	210	217	219	222	225	228	231	234	237	240	243	246	243	255
primitive	EXPONENT	7	247	66	74	67	77	153	184	17	217	137	63	149	205	151	252	242	171	93	09	71	162	67	123	196	236	111	191	170	134	204	203	176	160	245	122	215	213	231	237	88
ed by the	ELEMENT	128	131	134	137	140	143	146	149	152	155	158	191	164	167	170	173	176	179	182	185	188	191	194	197	200	203	206	607	212	218	221	224	227	230	233	720	239	242	245	251	254
generated	EXPONENT	87	192	128	103	237	254	165	38	124	146	32	55	91	207	135	220	26	211	42	132	83	65	4.5	183	$\frac{118}{1}$	73	12	80T	85 85	96	187	90	95	169	11	235	747	174	230	777	80
1d GF(2 ⁰)	ELEMENT	127	130	133	136	139	142	145	148	151	154	157	160	163	166	169	172	175	178	181	184	187	190	193	196	199	202	205	20g	211	217	220	223	226	229	232	235	238	241	244	747	253
finite field	EXPONENT	25	26	223	27	7.5	224	141	28	248	9/	138	225	33	142	18	29	125	546	154	77	166	139	221	226	179	34	208	143	109	13 56	30	163	126	28	250	61	155	21	78	7/7	707
in a	ELEMENT	m	9	6	12	15	18	21	77	27	30	33	36	39	42	45	48	51	54	57	09	63	99	69	72	75	78	81	84	000) E	96	66	102	105	108	111	114	117	120	123	971
s exponents $x^2 + 1$.	EXPONENT	, -1	20	٣	238	199	100	52	129	105	60	S	47	15	147	240	69	194	39	201	120	114	191	102	253	37	145	, , ,	206	917	131	79	182	72	107	84	186	76	10	43	67.7	243
versus	ELEMENT	2	S	œ	11	14	17	07	23	26	29	32	35	38	41	77	7.7	20	53	26	59	62	65	89	7.1	74	7.7	80	83	0 0	93	95	86	101	104	107	110	113	116	119	122	571
Elements $x^8 + x^4 +$	EXPONENT	0	7	198	51	104	7	14	239	193	200	113	101	36	53	218	130	181	106	185	6	228	9	86	84	152	16	136	148	057	74T	70	99	195	110	40	133	202	159	121	212	CT
Table 2.	ELEMENT	-	77	7	10	13	16	19	22	25	28	31	34	37	70	43	97	67	52	55	58	61	79	57	70	73	9/	79	82	۵ د د	0 F	96	97	100	103	106	109	112	115	118	121	†7T

The addition of two field elements in $GF(2^n)$ is performed by component-wise addition in the vector representations of the two elements. For example in $GF(2^8)$, $\alpha^{26}+\alpha^{238}$ is given by

$$6 = (0,0,0,0,0,1,1,0) \leftrightarrow \alpha^{26}$$

$$+ 11 = (0,0,0,0,1,0,1,1) \leftrightarrow \alpha^{238}$$

$$13 = (0,0,0,0,1,0,1) \leftrightarrow \alpha^{104}$$

The multiplication of two field elements in $\mathrm{GF(2}^n)$ is performed by a modulo (2^n-1) addition on the exponents of the two elements. For example in $\mathrm{GF(2}^8)$, $\alpha^{26}*\alpha^{238}$ is given by

$$6 = (0,0,0,0,0,1,1,0) \qquad \Rightarrow \quad \alpha^{26}$$
*) $11 = (0,0,0,0,1,0,1,1) \qquad \Rightarrow \quad \alpha^{238}$

$$58 = (0,0,1,1,1,0,1,0) \qquad \Rightarrow \quad \alpha^{(26} + 238) \text{ MOD } 255$$

$$= \alpha^{9}$$

SECTION III

REED-SOLOMON ENCODING PROCEDURES

An RS code word has (2^J-1) symbols, where each symbol has J bits. Of the (2^J-1) symbols there are (2^J-1-2E) information symbols and 2E parity-check symbols, where E is the number of symbols an RS code is able to correct. If one treats the (2^J-1-2E) information symbols as the coefficients of the polynomial

$$f(x) = x^{2E} \left(s_{2^{J}-1-2E} + s_{2^{J}-2-2E} + s_{2^{X^{J}-2-2E}} + s_{1^{X^{2^{J}-1-2E}}} \right)$$

where \mathbf{s}_{i} is the ith transmitted symbol, then the 2E parity-check symbols can be obtained as the coefficients of the remainder of

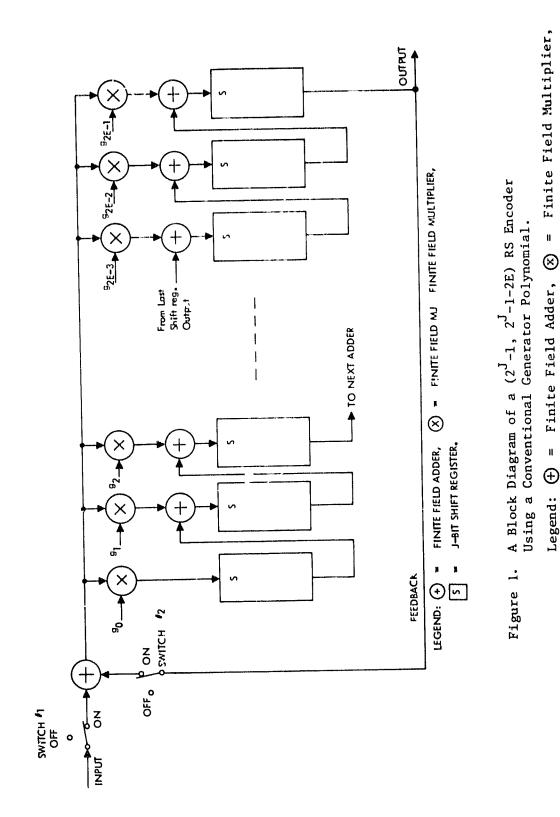
where g(x) is the generator polynomial (Ref. 9) of the code. Usually g(x) is defined as

$$g(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{2E} (x-\alpha^i) = \sum_{j=0}^{2E} g_j x^j$$

where α is a primitive element of the Galois field $GF(2^J)$, and g_j 's are the coefficients of g(x) with $g_{2E}=1$. The generator polynomial defined above does not have symmetrical coefficients, i.e.,

$$g_{i} \neq g_{2E-i}$$
 for $j = 0, 1, 2, ---, 2E$.

A block diagram of an RS encoder which generates the remainder of f(x)/g(x) is given in Fig. 1. The switches in Fig. 1 are normally in the "ON" position until the last information symbol gets into the encoder. At this



J-bit Shift Register.

11

S

moment all switches are switched to the "OFF" position and the encoder is behaving like a long shift register. The output of the encoder is then taken from the output of the last shift register. Note that in Fig. 1, 2E multipliers are needed in the encoder.

To reduce the number of multipliers needed, a special class of the generator polynomial which has symmetrical coefficients was proposed by Berlekamp (Ref. 10). This generator polynomial is defined as

$$g(x) = \prod_{i=2}^{2^{J-1}+E-1} (x-\alpha^i) = \sum_{j=0}^{2E} g_j x^j$$

where

$$g_j = g_{2E-j}$$
 and $g_o = g_{2E} = 1$.

Note that since $g_0 = 1$, only E multipliers are needed (see Fig. 2). Thus using this new generator polynominal will reduce the number of multipliers required by one-half. As an example, the coefficients of all generator polynomials of the form

$$g(x) = \prod_{i=112}^{143} (x - \alpha^{ij})$$

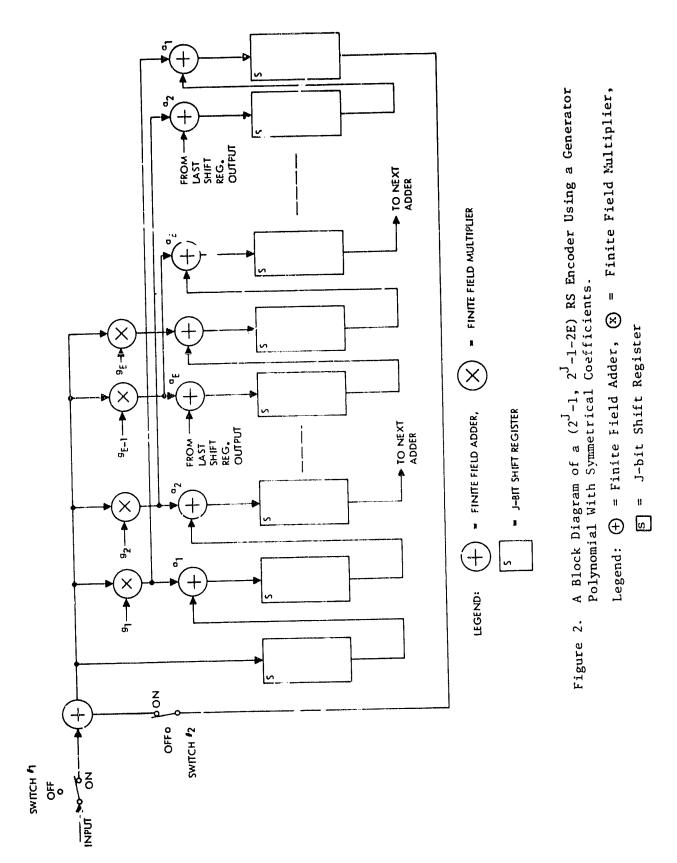
for a 16-error-correcting RS code with 8-bit per symbol are shown in Table 3 for α = 2, 128, 232, 135, 201, 90, 74, 119, respectively.

There are several schemes for interleaving the RS codes (Ref. 5). One scheme illustrated in Fig. 3 as "Interleave B" requires memory only for the parity-check symbols in the encoder is described as follows. In this scheme the input bits are grouped into J-bit symbols and transmitted in their natural order. However every Ith symbol belongs to the same code word, where I is the interleaving

ORIGINAL PACE 13 OF POOR QUALITY

		2=119	7	73	192	158	246	160	76	159	171	Ŋ	240	129	124	188	242	173	80	173	242	188	124	129	240	Ŋ	171	159	94	160	246	158	192	73	· =
	(x-3 ¹)	3=74	Т	∞	135	138	187	65	130	123	198	77	102	117	7.7	138	214	106	125	106	214	138	77	117	102	77	198	123	130	65	187	138	135	∞	H
143	[] i = 112	α=90	٦	169	247	73	171	80	53	59	129	106	103	18	7.7	184	64	83	168	83	7 9	184	47	18	103	106	129	59	53	80	177	73	247	169	H
	s for g(x) =	$\alpha = 201$	1	139	11	140	63	43	223	26	236	41	88	156	102	145	86	31	220	31	86	145	102	156	88	41	236	26	223	43	63	140	11	139	- I
	Coefficients	a=135	н	174	158	204	153	68	77	91	154	158	188	234	191	72	226	59	78	59	226	72	191	254	188	158	154	91	77	89	153	204	158	174	
	r Polynomial Coefficients for g(x)	y=232	1	213	184	106	132	36	144	194	6	59	67	81	56	158	204	74	135	7.4	204	158	56	81	29	59	6	194	144	36	132	106	184	213	П
	3. Generator	.=128	н	227	151	109	47	104	26	184	213	•	1.53	1.74	238	25	157	232	9	232	157	26	238	174	133	7	213	184	26	104	74	109	151	227	щ
	Table 3	α=2	Н	236	244	220	133	238	137	201	7	141	11	226	34	252	209	22	78	22	209	252	34	226	11	141	7	201	137	238	133	220	244	236	1
		DEG(x)	0	Т	2	٣	4	5	9	7	80	6	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32

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2E PARITY-CHECK SYMBOLS	P ₁ , P ₂ ,	p ₁ ² p ₂ ² , ————— p ₂ ²
(2 ^J -1-2E) INFORMATION S'MBOLS	1, 191, 2141, ———————— , (2 ^J -2-2E) 191	2, H2, 2H2, —————, (2 ^J -2-2E) H2
	CODEWORD 11	CODEWORD #2

ORDER OF SYMBOL TRANSMISSION

1, 2, — — — , I, ₱1, — — — , 2I, 2₱1, — — — , (2^J-2-2E) ₱·1 , (2^J-2-2E) ₱·2,

 $----, (2^{J_{-1}-2E)}L_{-p_1}^{-1}, p_1^{-2}, ---, p_1^{-1}, p_2^{-1}, ---, p_2^{-1}, ---,$

P_{2E}', P_{2E}', ———, P_{2I}

Code Array Structure and Order of Symbol Transmission For Type B Interleaving, Where Interleaving Level = I $\,$ Figure 3.

depth used. Thus I code words make up such an interleaved code block. After the information symbols are transmitted, the parity-check symbols of each interleaved code word are then transmitted.

If interleaving is used, then the encoder logic structure is the same as shown in Fig. 1, except now each J-bit shift register is replaced by an I x J-bit shift register. As an example, a block diagram of a (255,223) RS encoder with interleaving level I and generator polynomial

$$g(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{143} (x-\alpha^{i})$$

where $\alpha = 2$ in GF(2⁸), which is generated by the primitive polynomial

$$x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + 1$$
,

is shown in Figure 4. Note that a generator polynomial with symmetrical coefficients is used here to save multipliers.

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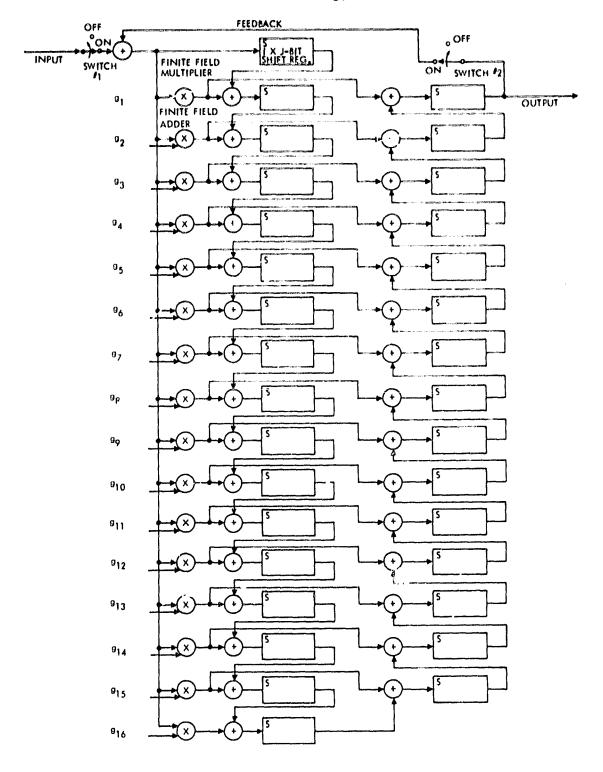


Figure 4. A Block Diagram of a (255,223) RS Encoder With Interleaving Level I and

$$g(x) = \prod_{i=112}^{143} (x-a^i)$$

SECTION IV

SYMBOL-SLICE VLSI RS ENCODER ARCHITECTURE

A finite field multiplication is a quite complicated operation. There are basically three techniques for implementing a finite field multiplication.

The first technique is to use log and antilog tables stored in read-only memories (ROM's) (Ref. 4). The second technique is to use a linear feedback shift register type of approach (Ref. 10). The third technique is to use the property of the trace in a finite field to form a smaller ROM look-up table (Ref. 11). Due to the advent of LSI ROM technology, techniques 1 and 3 are usually used in an RS encoder design optimized for discrete IC's. As an example a 400 KHZ (255,233) RS encoder using the Berlekamp's approach (Ref. 11) requires only around 40 CMOS IC's.

When one is interested in further drastic reduction of the power and size of an RS encoder for high speed applications, one has to consider VLSI implementations. An RS encoder design optimized for discrete IC's usually does not have a modular structure. Hence when one uses such an architecture for VLSI layout, one has the following problems:

- (1) The design is too big to be put on one chip.
- (2) If a multichip approach is used, then one needs several chip designs, where each chip has an impractical number of input/ output pins.
- (3) The design is not modular. Therefore the design is not easy to adapt to other RS code parameters.

Hence there is a need to find a VLSI logic structure which can alleviate the above problems.

The repetitive architecture of the RS encoders shown in Figs. 1, 2, and 4, suggested that a symbol-slice type of VLSI chips, each one consisting of a fixed portion of the encoder, may be cascaded to form a complete RS encoder. Also to reduce the VLSI chip size, RS encoders using generator polynomials with symmetrical coefficients are preferred. Hence we will put emphasis on this type of VLSI RS encoder.

As an example, we will design a VLSI encoder chip for a 255-symbol, 8-bit per symbol, 16-error-correcting, RS code with an interleaving level of 5. The primitive polynomial used is

$$x^{8} + x^{4} + x^{3} + x^{2} + 1$$

The generator polynomial for this RS code is

$$g(x) = \prod_{i=112}^{143} (x-\alpha^{i})$$

where $\alpha = 2$. The coefficients of this g(x) are given in the first column of Table 3. The encoder logic structure for the above RS code parameter is identical to the one shown in Fig. 4, except now I = 5. There are several ways of partitioning the RS encoder into four sections. One way which requires a minimum of input/output pins is to include four rows of logic shown in Fig. 4 into one section. Each section is then realized by a universal VLSI RS encoder chip. Another way to partition the RS encoder shown in Fig. 4 into four sections is to include 8 rows of logic in each column into one section. Each section is then realized by

a universal VLSI RS encoder chip. These VLSI RS encoder configurations are described as follows.

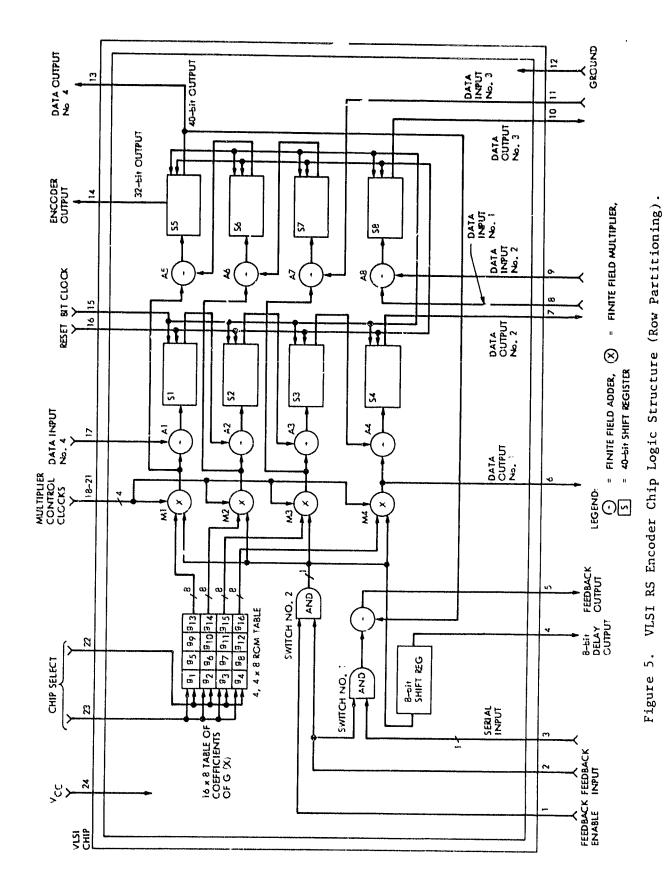
4.1 VLS1 RS ENCODER USING THE ROW PARTITIONING TECHNIQUE

The logic structure of the universal VLS1 RS encoder chip using the row partitioning technique is shown in Fig. 5. The entire VLSI encoder system, which consists of four identical VLS1 RS encoder chips cascaded and properly interconnected together is shown in Fig. 6. Each VLS1 RS encoder chip has 24 pins. A detailed description of the VLS1 RS encoder chip and the entire VLS1 RS encoder system is describe as follows:

4.1.1 Generator Polynomial Coefficients Table

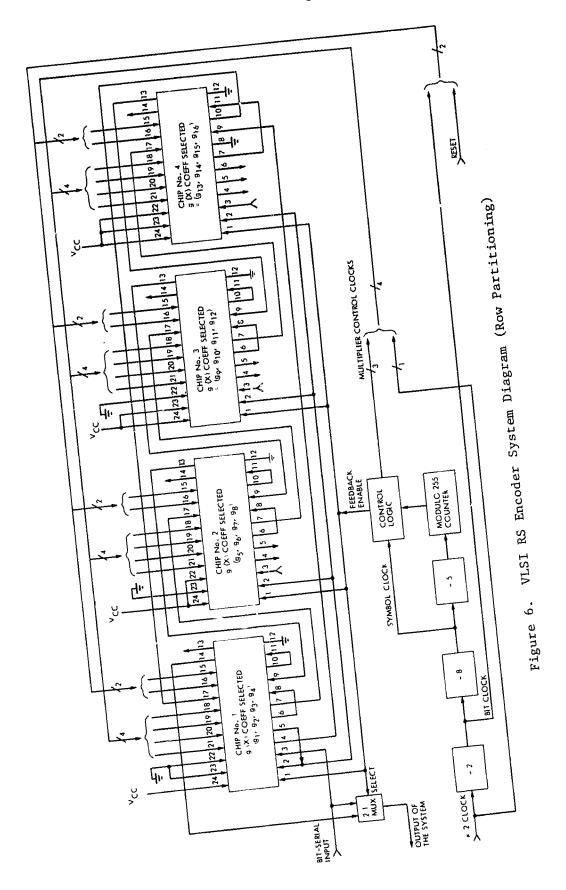
Since a generator polynomial g(x) with symmetrical coefficients is used, the coefficients of x^0 is always 1. Hence there is no need for a multiplier to operate on this coefficient (see Fig. 4). Consequently if the new generator polynomial is used, then one only needs E/N multipliers on each VLS1 chip, where E is the error correcting capability of the code and N is the total number of chips required in a VLS1 encoder system. In the design example, E=16 and N=4. Hence 4 multipliers are used on each VLS1 RS encoder chip. To make the VLS1 chip universal, all distinct coefficients except 1 of the generator polynomial are stored in a read-only memory on the chip. In general, an ExJ-bit table is needed. In the design example E=16, J=8. Hence a 16×8 -bit table is selected. The outputs of an ExJ-bit table is ted into N, E/N-to-one multiplexors. The outputs of the multiplexors are selected by $\log_2 N$ input pins called the "chip select" or "G select" pins. These outputs are then fed into the inputs of the E/N multipliers. In the design example two "G select" pins (pins 22 and 23) and four, four-to-one multiplexors are used. The 16×8 table and the multiplexors can easily be

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implemented by four, 4×8 ROM, with G select signals as the address control lines of each ROM. The coefficients of g(x) selected on each chip are shown in Fig. 6.

4.1.2 Finite Field Multiplier

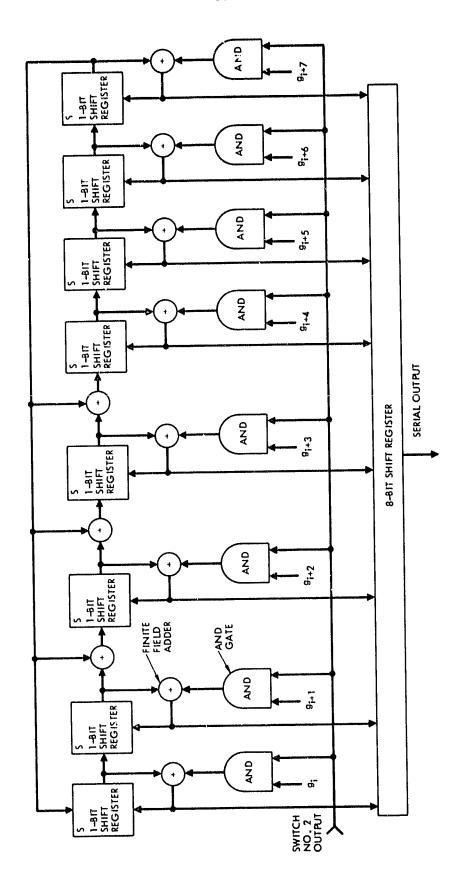
Next we will discuss the architecture of the finite field multiplier. To connect the multiplier properly between chips and at the same time minimize the number of input/output pins used, a linear feedback shift register type of multiplier (Ref. 9) rather than a ROM table look up type of multiplier (Ref. 4) is adopted. The multiplier used is of a serial-parallel type. The logic structure of the multiplier is shown in Fig. 7. The J-bit generator polynomial coefficient is read out from the ExJ-bit ROM table and fed into the multiplier J-bit in parallel whereas the other input, generated by the feedback input (pin 2) "ANDed" with the feedback enable (pin 1), is fed into the multiplier bit-by-bit in serial.

The output of the multiplier is loaded into an 8-bit shift register in parallel at the end of every 8th bit clock (1 symbol clock time). The parallel data is serialized by this shift register. The most significant bit (MSB) output of this shift register is added with the MSB of the 40-bit shift register, which is either on the same chip or on a different chip, and the resulting data is shifted into the least significant bit (LSB) of the next 40-bit shift register. The adder is implemented by a two-input EXCLUSIVE-OR gate (there are eight EXCLUSIVE-OR gates on each chip). Each adder takes an input from a multiplier output which is either on the same chip or on a different chip, depending on the coefficients of the generator polynomial.

4.1.3 Input and Feedback Control Switches

The switch #1 shown in Fig. 4 is implemented by an AND gate on the chip with the bit-serial data input (pin 3) and the feedback enable signal as the

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Logic Structure of a Serial-Parallel Finite Field Multiplier Which Performs $\alpha^i+\alpha^j$ modulo $\alpha^a+\alpha^4+\alpha^3+\alpha^2+1$ Figure 7.

two inputs. The feedback enable signal is provided by an external modulo 255 counter which is driven by a clock equal to the bit clock divided by 40 (see Fig. 6). This signal is true when the counter is counting from 1 to 223; otherwise it is talse. The output of switch #1 is added with the MSB of the 40-bit shift register S5 output on the same chip to generate the feedback output signal (pin 5). This signal is redundant in all but the first chip (see Fig. 6).

The switch #2 shown in Fig. 4 is implemented by an AND gate on the chip with the feedback enable and feedback input signals as the two inputs. The teedback input signals on all chips (pin 2) are connected to the feedback output signal (pin 5) on the first VLSI chip. The output of switch #2 is fed into all multipliers on the chip bit-by-bit in serial.

4.1.4 Input/Output Data Connections

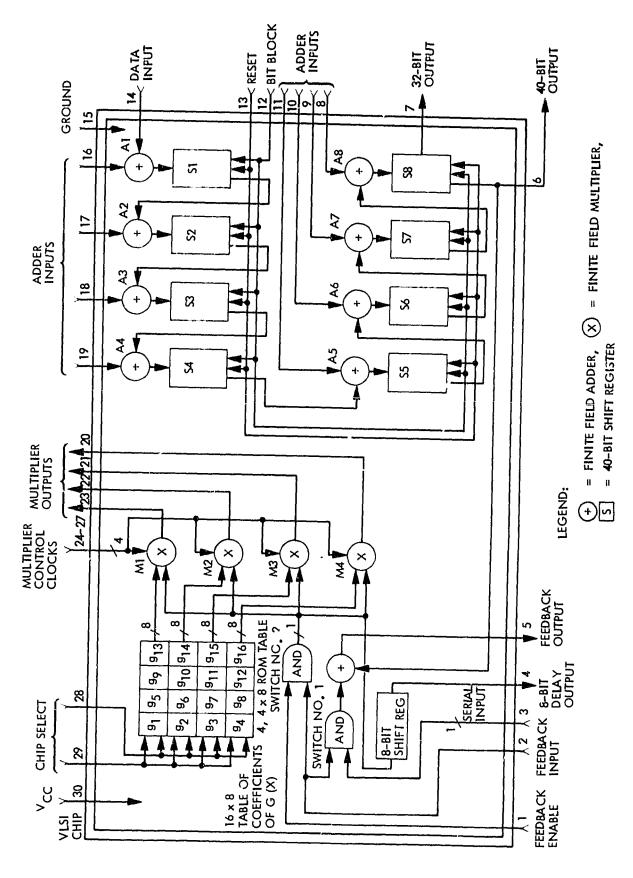
There are eight input/output lines on each chip. Of these eight lines, four lines (pins 8, 9, 11, 17) are input lines and the remaining are output lines (pins 6, 7, 10, 13). Pin 8 is normally connected to pin 6 on the same chip except for the last chip, where pin 8 is grounded. Pins 7 and 9 are normally connected to pins 17 and 13, respectively on the next chip except for the last chip, where pin 7 is connected to pin 11 on the same chip and pin 9 is connected to pin 4 on the first chip. Thus one has a railroad type of data connections between chips. The reason for connecting pin 4 on the first chip to pin 9 on the last chip is a consequence of an inherent 8-bit multiplier delay. To replace the multiplier on the x position by the switch #1 output, one needs to delay this output also by 8 bits to line up the bits. For other chips besides the first chip, the 8-bit register outputs are not used.

The encoder output is taken 8 bits earlier from the MSB of the last 40-bit shift register on the first chip. This is because when the last bit of the last symbol in the information part of the code is shifted into the encoder, the contents of each multiplier are loaded into the 8-bit output shift registers waiting to be added with the MSB of the 40-bit shift registers. These 8-bit symbols in the multiplier output registers actually belong to the fifth code word in the interleaved code array. However the parity-check symbol of the first code word is already being computed and now sitting 8 bits from the MSBs of each 40-bit shift registers. Hence the 32-bit output (pin 14) of the Past 40-bit shift register on the last chip is the output of the VLSI RS encoder system. This output is taken when the external modulo 255 counter is counting from 224 to 255. Since at these times switches #1 and #2 are turned off, the entire VLSI encoder system is behaving like an lx2ExJ-bit (e.g., 5 x 32 x 8-bit in the design example) shift register. Thus the 5 x 32, 8-bit parity-check symbols are read out from the VLSI RS encoder bit-by-bit in serial and appended to the 5 x 223, 8-bit information symbols.

4.2 VLSI RS ENCODER USING THE COLUMN PARTITIONING TECHNIQUE

The logic structure of the universal VLSI RS encoder chip using the column partitioning technique is shown in Fig. 8. Note that this chip is very similar to the one shown in Fig. 5 except now one has to provide output pins to all multipliers and input pins to all adders on the chip. Hence this chip uses 6 more input/output pins than the one shown in Fig. 5. The entire VLSI RS encoder system using this logic structure is similar to the one shown in Fig. 6 except now the interchip connections between adders and multipliers are of the pyramid type shown in Fig. 9.

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VLSI RS Encoder Chip Logic Structure (Column Partitioning). Figure 8.

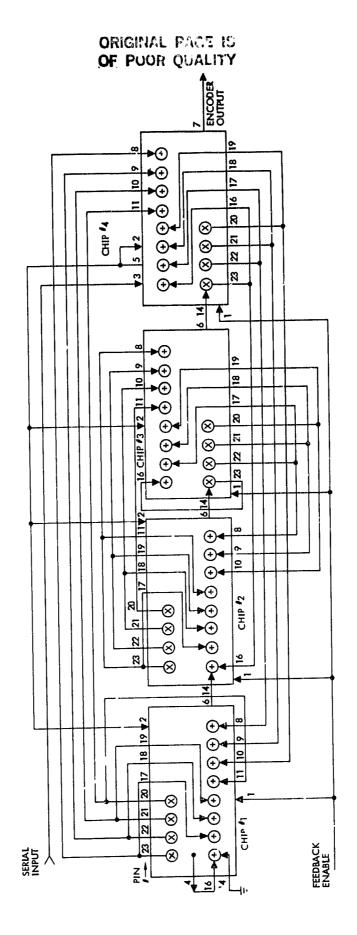


Figure 9. Inter-Chip Connection Diagram (Column Partitioning).

The 40-bit shift registers in the above two versions of the VLSI RS encoder chips can be replaced by random access memories (RAMs). In this case, a write-after-read operation should be performed during each bit time from the same location just read out from the RAM to simulate the shift register operation. Consequently, this version will not operate as fast as the shift register version. The first advantage of using the RAM approach is that interleaving level control can easily be incorporated into the RAM address control logic. Of course, input pins must be provided to select the interleaving level. Hence a more flexible VLSI RS encoder chip can be obtained using the RAM approach.

The second advantage of using the RAM approach is that a RAM cell usually occupies a smaller chip area than that of a static shift register. Hence a smaller VLSI RS encoder chip size can be obtained using the RAM approach. It is estimated that it is impossible to put the entire shift register version of the VLSI RS encoder chip design on a 235x235 mils CMOS/bulk VLSI chip using a 7 µm standard cell approach on all logic. However, if one uses custom RAM and ROM cells design to implement the 40-bit static shift registers and the 16x8 table and 7 µm standard cell design for the rest of the logic, then it is possible to have a one-chip design. Of course, the entire RS encoder chip design can easily be put on a smaller chip if a VLSI technology (say 3 µm standard cell approach) is used.

SECTION V

PERFORMANCE OF THE VLSI RS

ENCODER SYSTEM

For design verification, both the shift register version and the RAM version of the VLSI RS encoder chip and VLSI RS encoder system are implemented using discrete CMOS IC's and are now operational. The throughputs of these two versions are 800K bits/sec for the shift register version and 200K bits/sec for the RAM version. These throughputs are expected to go much higher if the actual VLSI encoder chips are used.

One technique to improve the VLSI RS encoding speed is to multiplex the RS encoder chips. One type of multiplexing is to set the RS encoder chip interleaving level selection in the RAM approach to 1 (no interleaving) such that for a N-level of interleaving, a N-fold parallelism can be achieved. This scheme is illustrated in Fig. 10. Note that each row of the RS encoder chips in Fig. 10 are used to encode a RS code word corresponding to the one shown in each row of the code array structure in Fig. 3.

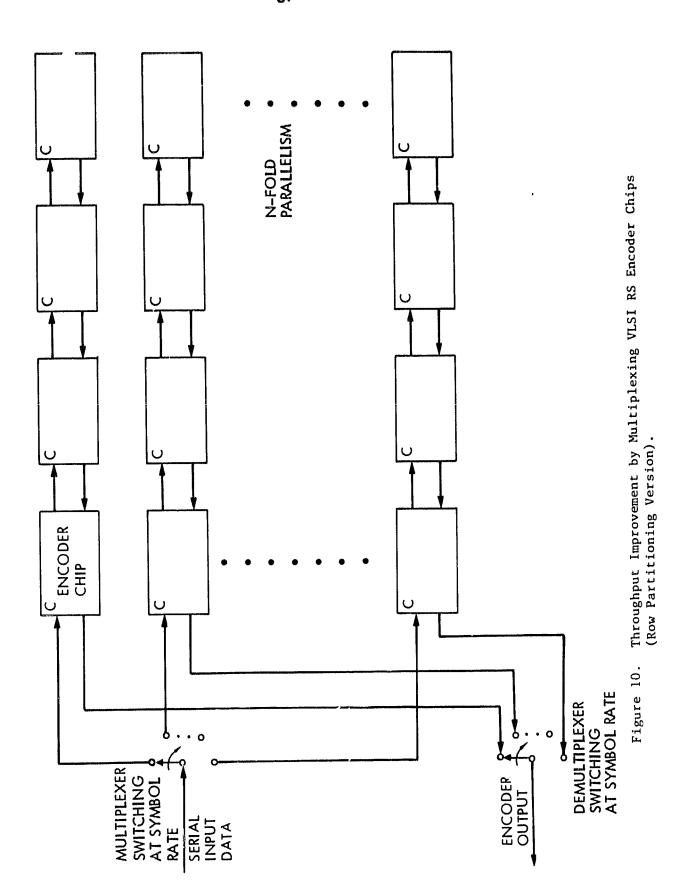
Another type of multiplexing is to use the relationship that if

$$f(x) = f_1(x) + f_2(x) + --- + f_N(x)$$

then

$$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f_1(x)}{g(x)} + \frac{f_2(x)}{g(x)} + --- + \frac{f_N(x)}{g(x)}$$

can be realized by implementing $f_i(x)/g(x)$ for i=1, 2, ---, N in parallel and then summing the results from these parallel operations. Thus if one treats each



 $f_i(x)$ as a polynomial, whose coefficients are selected from every N^{th} incoming symbols starting from the i^{th} symbol, where i=1, 2, ---, N, then one can select the encoder chip interleaving level to 1 and use the logic structure similar to the one shown in Fig. 10 to realize the $f_i(x)/g(x)$ operation. The output of each row of encoder chips in this case needs to be properly delayed and summed to generate the encoder output f(x)/g(x).

Another technique to improve the VLSI RS encoding speed is to process the J-bit incoming symbols in parallel. Parallel adders and multipliers are needed in this configuration. A throughput improvement of J times can be achieved using this approach. The disadvantages of this technique are:

- (1) A lot of input/output pine are needed for the parallel data paths.
- (2) A larger chip size is required to implement the VLSI RS encoder.

SECTION VI

CONCLUSIONS

We have just shown the logic structure of a symbolic-slice VLSI RS encoder chip and the VLSI RS encoder system built by these chips. A design example has been given for a (255,223) VLSI RS encoder chip and VLSI RS encoder system. It has been shown that an RS encoder consisting of four identical CMOS VLSI RS encoder chips connected together may replace around 40 CMOS IC's required by an encoder design optimized for discrete IC's. Besides the size advantage, the VLSI kS encoder also has the potential advantages of requiring less power and having a higher reliability. Finally, it is shown that such chips can easily be multiplexed to improve the encoding speed. The symbol-sliced logic structure presented in the report could also be applied to design VLSI RS decoders [12]. A separate report on this subject will be provided.

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APPENDIX

VLS1 REED-SOLOMON ENCODER FOR THE PROPOSED NASA/ESA
TELEMETRY CHANNEL CODING STANDARD

After the completion of the VLSI RS encoder project, the following set of RS code parameters have been proposed in the NASA/ESA telemetry channel coding standard (Ref. Al):

(1) primitive polynomial

$$x^8 + x^7 + x^2 + x + 1$$
.

(2) generator polynomial

$$g(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{143} \left[x - (x^{11})^i \right]$$

where α satisfies the equation

$$x^8 + x^7 + x^2 + x + 1 = 0.$$

- (3) Number of bits per symbol (J) = 8.
- (4) Number of symbols per code word (N) = 255.
- (5) Number of correctable symbol errors (E) = 16.
- (6) Interleaving depth (I) = 5.

Note that the foregoing RS code parameters are those used in the design example in Section IV with two exceptions. These are the primitive polynomial (i.e., the field generator polynomial over GF(2) and the code generator polynomial. These polynomials were selected by Berlekamp in an architecture which minimizes the discrete ICs. Reference A2 provides a detailed description of such an architecture. To adapt to this new set of PS code parameters, one

needs to use a new field element table as well as a new table of generator polynomial coefficients. These are given in Tables Al and A2 respectively.

Thus, to design a VLSI RS encoder for the new code parameters, one only needs to replace the generator polynomial coefficients ROM table shown in Figure 5 by the coefficients given in Table A2 under the heading α^{11} . Also one needs to replace the finite field multiplier shown in Figure 7 by the multiplier shown in Figure A1.

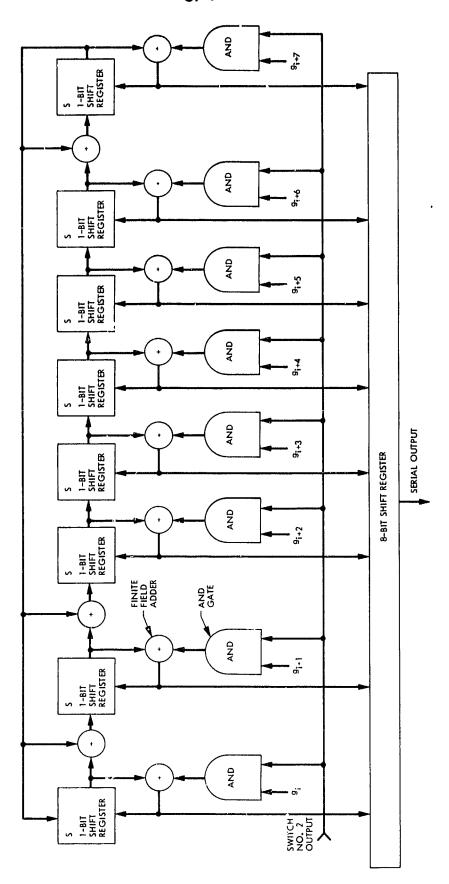
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a finite field $\mathrm{GF(2}^8$) generated by the primitive polynomial EXPONENT ELEMENT EXPONENT EXPONENT Elements versus exponents in ELEMENT EXPONENT × + **ELEMENT** × + EXPONENT A1. Table ELEMENT

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135 135 135 135 135 135 137 137 137 137 137 138 139 139 139 139 139 Generator Polynomial Coefficients for Table A2.

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Logic structure of a serial-parallel finite field multiplier which performs $i^{-1} * x^{-1} \mod \log x + x^{-1} + x^{-2} + x + 1$. ı' modulo Figure Al.

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