Chapter 3 BCH Codes and RS Codes

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3.1 Binary BCH Codes

- BCH codes are a large class of multiple random errorcorrecting codes, first discovered by A. Hocquenghem in 1959 and independently by R.C. Bose and D. K. Ray-Chaudhuri in 1960.
- The first decoding algorithm for binary BCH codes was devised by Peterson in 1960. Since then Peterson's algorithm has been refined by Berlekamp, Massey, Chien, Forney and many others.

• For any integer $m \ge 3$ and $t \le 2^{m-1}$, there exists a primitive BCH code with the following parameters :

$$n = 2^{m} \cdot 1 , \qquad n \cdot k \leq m t$$

$$d_{min} \geq 2 t + 1 \qquad (3.1)$$

This code can correct t oe fewer random errors over a span of 2^{m} -1 bit positions .

3.2 Generation of BCH Codes

The generator polynomial of a *t*-error-correcting BCH codes of length 2^m-1 is given by

 $g(\mathbf{x}) = \text{LCM} \{ \psi_1(\mathbf{x}), \psi_3(\mathbf{x}), \dots, \psi_{2t-1}(\mathbf{x}) \}$ (3.2)

where $\psi_i(x)$ is the minimum polynomial of the primitive element in GF(2^m).

Since the degree of $g(\mathbf{x})$ is *mt* or less, the number of paritycheck bits, *n-k*, of the code is at most *mt*. Example : m = 4, t = 3Then $n = 2^4 - 1 = 15$, n - k = m t = 12 thus k = 3The code is a (15,3) code. The primitive polynomial $p(x) = 1 + x + x^4$ $\Psi_1(x) = 1 + x + x^4$ $\Psi_3(x) = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4$ $\Psi_5(x) = 1 + x + x^2$ Thus $g(x) = LCM \{ \psi_1(x), \psi_3(x), \psi_5(x) \}$ $= \psi_1(x) \psi_3(x) \psi_5(x)$ = $1 + x + x^2 + x^4 + x^5 + x^8 + x^{10}$

Ele- ments	Conjugates	Minimal polynomials
α α ²	$\alpha^2, \alpha^4, \alpha^8$ $\alpha^4, \alpha^8, \alpha^{16} = \alpha$	$m_1(x) = 1 + x + x^4$ $m_2(x) = 1 + x + x^4$
α ³	$\alpha^6, \alpha^{12}, \alpha^{24} = \alpha^9$	$m_3(x) = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4$
α ⁴ α ⁵	$\alpha^8, \alpha^{16} = \alpha, \alpha^{32} = \alpha^2$ α^{10}	$m_4(x) = 1 + x + x^4$ $m_5(x) = 1 + x + x^2$
α ⁶ α ⁷	$\alpha^{12}, \alpha^{24} = \alpha^9, \alpha^{48} = \alpha^3$ $\alpha^{14}, \alpha^{28} = \alpha^{13}, \alpha^{56} = \alpha^{11}$	$m_6(x) = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4$ $m_7(x) = 1 + x^3 + x^4$
α ⁸	$\alpha^{16} = \alpha, \alpha^{32} = \alpha^2, \alpha^{64} = \alpha^4$	$m_8(x)=1+x+x^4$
α^9 α^{10}	$\alpha^{18} = \alpha^3, \alpha^{36} = \alpha^6, \alpha^{72} = \alpha^{12}$ $\alpha^{20} = \alpha^5$	$m_{9}(x) = 1 + x + x^{2} + x^{3} + x^{4}$ $m_{10}(x) = 1 + x + x^{2}$
α ¹¹ α ¹²	$\alpha^{22} = \alpha^7, \alpha^{44} = \alpha^{14}, \alpha^{88} = \alpha^{13}$ $\alpha^{24} = \alpha^9, \alpha^{48} = \alpha^3, \alpha^{96} = \alpha^6$	$m_{11}^{(x)} = 1 + x^3 + x^4$ $m_{12}(x) = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4$
α ¹³	$\alpha^{26} = \alpha^{11}, \alpha^{52} = \alpha^7, \alpha^{104} = \alpha^{14}$	$m_{13}(x) = 1 + x^3 + x^4$
α ¹⁴	$\alpha^{28} = \alpha^{13}, \alpha^{56} = \alpha^{11}, \alpha^{112} = \alpha^7$	$m_{14}(x) = 1 + x^3 + x^4$

Table 3.1 Minimal polynomials of the elements in GF(24)

Ele- ments	Conjugates	Minimal polynomials
α α ² α ³ α ⁴ α ⁵ α ⁶	$ \begin{array}{l} \alpha^{2}, \alpha^{4}, \alpha^{8} \\ \alpha^{4}, \alpha^{8}, \alpha^{16} = \alpha \\ \alpha^{6}, \alpha^{12}, \alpha^{24} = \alpha^{9} \\ \alpha^{8}, \alpha^{16} = \alpha, \alpha^{32} = \alpha^{2} \\ \alpha^{10} \\ \alpha^{12}, \alpha^{24} = \alpha^{9}, \alpha^{48} = \alpha^{3} \end{array} $	$m_{1}(x) = 1 + x + x^{4}$ $m_{2}(x) = 1 + x + x^{4}$ $m_{3}(x) = 1 + x + x^{2} + x^{3} + x^{4}$ $m_{4}(x) = 1 + x + x^{4}$ $m_{5}(x) = 1 + x + x^{2}$ $m_{6}(x) = 1 + x + x^{2} + x^{3} + x^{4}$
	$\alpha^{14}, \alpha^{28} = \alpha^{13}, \alpha^{56} = \alpha^{11}$ $\alpha^{16} = \alpha, \alpha^{32} = \alpha^{2}, \alpha^{64} = \alpha^{4}$ $\alpha^{18} = \alpha^{3}, \alpha^{36} = \alpha^{6}, \alpha^{72} = \alpha^{12}$ $\alpha^{20} = \alpha^{5}$ $\alpha^{22} = \alpha^{7}, \alpha^{44} = \alpha^{14}, \alpha^{88} = \alpha^{13}$ $\alpha^{24} = \alpha^{9}, \alpha^{48} = \alpha^{3}, \alpha^{96} = \alpha^{6}$ $\alpha^{26} = \alpha^{11}, \alpha^{52} = \alpha^{7}, \alpha^{104} = \alpha^{14}$ $\alpha^{28} = \alpha^{13}, \alpha^{56} = \alpha^{11}, \alpha^{112} = \alpha^{7}$	$m_{7}(x) = 1 + x^{3} + x^{4}$ $m_{8}(x) = 1 + x + x^{4}$ $m_{9}(x) = 1 + x + x^{2} + x^{3} + x^{4}$ $m_{10}(x) = 1 + x + x^{2}$ $m_{11}(x) = 1 + x^{3} + x^{4}$ $m_{12}(x) = 1 + x + x^{2} + x^{3} + x^{4}$ $m_{13}(x) = 1 + x^{3} + x^{4}$ $m_{14}(x) = 1 + x^{3} + x^{4}$

Table 3.1 Minimal polynomials of the elements in $GF(2^4)$

3.3 Reed-Solomon Codes

3.3.1 RS Codes over GF(2^m)

- The Reed-Solomon codes (RS codes) are nonbinary cyclic codes with code symbols from a Galois field. They were discovered in 1960 by I.Reed and G. Solomon at MIT .
- In the decades since their discovery, RS codes have enjoyed countless applications from compact disc and digital TV in living room to spacecraft and satellite in outer space.
- The RS codes with symbols from GF(2^m) are the most important codes in application.
- Let be a primitive symbol in GF(2^m).
 For any positive integer t ≤ 2^{m-1}, there exists a *t*-symbol error- correcting RS code with symbols from GF(2^m) and the following parameters :

$$n = 2^{m} - 1$$

$$n - k = 2 t$$

$$k = 2^{m} - 1 - 2 t$$

$$d_{min} = 2 t + 1 = n - k + 1$$
(3.3)

Example :

m = 8, t = 16 n = 255, k = n - 2t = 223 $d_{min} = 32$

It is a (255, 223) RS code. The code is NASA standard code for satellite and space application.

3.3.2 Generation and Encoding of RS Codes

The generator polynomial of RS codes are given by

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{x} + \alpha) (\mathbf{x} + \alpha^{2}) \dots (\mathbf{x} + \alpha^{2t})$$

= $g_{0} + g_{1}\mathbf{x} + g_{2}\mathbf{x}^{2} + \dots + g_{2t-1}\mathbf{x}^{2t-1} + \mathbf{x}^{2t}$ (3.4)
where $g_{i} \in \operatorname{GF}(2^{m})$.

It is noted that $g(\mathbf{x})$ has $\alpha, \alpha^2, \ldots, \alpha^{2t}$ as roots.

• The encoding of RS codes can be done as follows.

Let $m(\mathbf{x}) = m_0 + m_1 \mathbf{x} + m_2 \mathbf{x}^2 + \dots + m_{k-1} \mathbf{x}^{k-1}$ be the message polynomial.

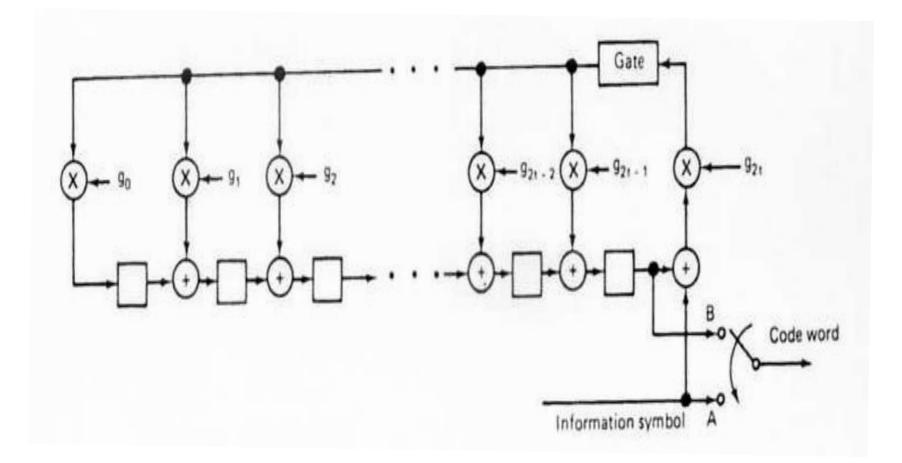
Dividing $x^{2t} m(\mathbf{x})$ by $g(\mathbf{x})$, we have

$$x^{2t} m(\mathbf{x}) = a(\mathbf{x}) g(\mathbf{x}) + b(\mathbf{x})$$
 (3.5)

where $b(x) = b_0 + b_1 x + b_2 x^2 + ... + b_{2t-1} x^{2t-1}$ (3.6) is the remainder.

• The encoding circuit is shown in Fig. 3.1

Fig.3.1 RS code encoder



3.3.3 RS Codes for Binary Data

- Every symbol in GF(2^m) can be represented by a binary m-tuple, called m-bit byte..
- Suppose an (*n,k*) RS code is used for encoding mk bits of message sequence .This message sequence is first divided into k m-bit bytes. Each m-bit byte is regarded as a symbol in GF(2^m).

The k-byte message is then encoded into n-byte codeword based on the RS encoding rule.

By doing this, we actually expand a RS code with symbols from $GF(2^m)$ into a binary (nm, km) linear, called a binary RS code.

 Binary RS codes are very effective in correcting bursts of bit errors as long as no more than t bytes are affected. A popular RS code is the (255, 223) code over GF (2⁸). This code has a minimum distance of d_{min} = 255-223+1
 =33 and is capable of correcting 16 symbol errors.

Example # 1: RS(15,9) code

Let $n = 2^4 - 1 = 15$, Construct a primitive three-error correcting RS code over the Galois field **GF** (2⁴) using the primitive polynomial

 $p(x) = x^4 + x + 1.$

The code generator has α , α^2 , α^3 , α^4 , α^5 , α^6 as roots.

The generator of the (15,9) code is

 $g\left(x\right)=\left(x+\alpha\right)\left(x+\alpha^{2}\right)\left(x+\alpha^{3}\right)\left(x+\alpha^{4}\right)\left(x+\alpha^{5}\right)\left(x+\alpha^{6}\right)$

 $= \alpha^{6} + \alpha^{9} x + \alpha^{6} x^{2} + \alpha^{4} x^{3} + \alpha^{14} x^{4} + \alpha^{10} x^{5} + x^{6}$

If the 4-bit data stream 5,2,1,6,8,3,10,15,4 are to be encoded. Find the systematically encoded code polynomial.

Sol. *t* =3

 $m(\mathbf{x}) = 5 + 2\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}^2 + 6\mathbf{x}^3 + 8\mathbf{x}^4 + 3\mathbf{x}^5 + 10\mathbf{x}^6 + 15\mathbf{x}^7 + 4\mathbf{x}^8$

Using the vector -to -power conversion

 $5 = 0101 \iff \alpha^8$, $2 = 0010 \iff \alpha$, $1 = 0001 \iff 1$,

The message polynomial (expressed in power form) is the expressed as

$$m(x) = \alpha^{8} + \alpha x + x^{2} + \alpha^{5} x^{3} + \alpha^{3} x^{4} + \alpha^{4} x^{5} + \alpha^{9} x^{6} + \alpha^{12} x^{7} + \alpha^{2} x^{8}$$

Dividing $x^6 m(x)$ by g(x) to obtain the remainder

 $b(x) = \alpha^{8} + \alpha^{2} x + \alpha^{14}x^{2} + \alpha^{3}x^{3} + \alpha^{5}x^{4} + \alpha x^{5}$

then we obtain

$$c(x) = \alpha^{8} + \alpha^{2} x + \alpha^{14}x^{2} + \alpha^{3} x^{3} + \alpha^{5} x^{4} + \alpha x^{5} + \alpha^{8} x^{6} + \alpha x^{7} + x^{8} + \alpha^{5} x^{9} + \alpha^{3} x^{10} + \alpha^{4} x^{11} + \alpha^{9} x^{12} + \alpha^{12} x^{13} + \alpha^{2} x^{14}$$

Example # : RS (255,223) RS code $p(x) = x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + 1.$ $g(x) = \Pi_{j=1}^{32} (x - \alpha^j)$ or $p(x) = x^8 + x^7 + x^2 + x + 1.$ $g(x) = \Pi_{j=112}^{143} (x - (\alpha^{11})^j)$

3.4 Decoding of BCH Codes and RS Codes

- There are many algorithms which have been developed for decoding BCH codes. In general, the algebraic decoding binary BCH codes have the following steps :

 (i) Computation of the syndrome
 - (ii) Determination of an error-location polynomial whose roots provide an indication of the error-locations. The Berlekamp-Massey algorithm is an efficient algorithm for determining the error-locator polynomial.
 - (iii) Finding the roots of the error-location polynomial . This is usually done using the Chien search , which is an exhaustive search over all the elements in the finite field.

3.4.1 Decoding of RS Codes

- Decoding of a RS code is similar to the decoding of a BCH code except an additional step is needed.
 The additional step is evaluating the error vales .
- The Berlekamp-Massey algorithm is also an efficient algorithm for determining the error-locator polynomial for decoding RS codes.

A typical approach to find the error values is using Forney's Algorithm developed by J.D. Fornry in 1965.

 In 1965, E. Berlekamp presented an extremely efficient algorithm for both BCH and RS codes.

Berlekamp's algorithm allowed for the first time the possibility of a quick and efficient decoding of dozens of symbol errors in some powerful RS codes. The algorithm was modified by J.L. Massey in 1969.

- Chien,R.T.," Cyclic Decoding Procedure for the Bose Chaudhuri- Hocquenghem Codes," IEEE Trans. Inf. Theory, vol. IT-10, pp.357-363, October 1964
- Forney, G.D., 'On Decoding BCH Codes," IEEE Trans. Inf. Theory, vol. IT-11, pp.549-557, October 1965,
- Berlekamp, E.R., "On Decoding Bose Chaudhuri- Hocquenghem Codes, " IEEE Trans. Inf. Theory, vol. IT-11, pp.577-579 ,October 1965

Berlrkamp, E.R. Algebraic Coding Theory, McGraw0Hill, 1968

Massey, J.L.," Shift Register Synthesis and BCH Decoding, "IEEE Trans. Inf. Theory, vol. IT-15, pp. 122-127 Jan. 1969.

3.4.2 Computation of the Syndrome

 Consider a code with codeword polynomial c(x) and generator polynomial g(x).

Since $g(\alpha) = g(\alpha^2) = \dots = g(\alpha^{2t}) = 0$ we have $c(\alpha) = c(\alpha^2) = \dots = c(\alpha^{2t}) = 0$

If the received polynomial r(x) is expressed as

$$r(\mathbf{x}) = c(\mathbf{x}) + e(\mathbf{x}) \tag{3.7}$$

then the syndrome $S = (S_1, S_2, ..., S_{2t})$ can be obtained by

$$S_{j} = r (\alpha^{j}) = c(\alpha^{j}) + e(\alpha^{j})$$

= $e(\alpha^{j}) \quad j = 1, 2, ..., 2 t$ (3.8)

This gives a relationship between the syndrome and the error pattern .

- 3.4.3 Syndrome and Error- Location Polynomial
- Suppose e(x) has v errors , $v \leq t$, at the locations specified by

$$\mathbf{x}^{j_1}, \mathbf{x}^{j_2}, ..., \mathbf{x}^{j_v}$$
.
i.e. $\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^{j_1} + \mathbf{x}^{j_2} + ... + \mathbf{x}^{j_v}$ (3.9)
where $0 \leq j_1 < j_2 < ... < j_v$

From equations (3.8) & (3.9), we have the following relation between syndrome components and error location:

$$S_1 = \mathbf{e}(\mathbf{\alpha}) = \mathbf{\alpha}^{j_1} + \mathbf{\alpha}^{j_2} + \dots + \mathbf{\alpha}^{j_v}$$

$$S_2 = \mathbf{e}(\mathbf{\alpha}^2) = (\mathbf{\alpha}^{j_1})^2 + (\mathbf{\alpha}^{j_2})^2 + \dots + (\mathbf{\alpha}^{j_v})^2$$

$$S_{2t} = e(\alpha^{2t}) = (\alpha^{j_1})^{2t} + (\alpha^{j_2})^{2t} + \dots + (\alpha^{j_v})^{2t}$$
(3.10)

If we can solve the 2*t* equations, we can determine

$$\mathbf{Q}^{j_1}, \mathbf{Q}^{j_2}, \ldots, \mathbf{Q}^{j_v}$$

- The unknown parameter $\beta_{\kappa} = \alpha^{j_{\kappa}}$ for $\kappa = 1, 2, ..., \nu$ are called the "error location numbers".
- When, $\alpha^{j_{\kappa}}$, $1 \leq \kappa \leq v$, are found, the powers, j_{κ} give us the error locations in $e(\mathbf{x})$.

These 2*t* equations of (3.10) are known as power-sum symmetric function.

• Eq.(3.8) can be written as

$$S_{1} = \beta_{1} + \beta_{2} + \dots + \beta_{v}$$

$$S_{2} = \beta_{1}^{2} + \beta_{2}^{2} + \dots + \beta_{v}^{2}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$S_{2t} = \beta_1^{2t} + \beta_2^{2t} + \dots + \beta_v^{2t}$$
 (3.11)

• Suppose that $v \leq t$ errors actually occur .Define the errorlocation polynomial $\sigma(x)$ as

$$\sigma(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{1} + \beta_1 \mathbf{x}) (\mathbf{1} + \beta_2 \mathbf{x}) \dots (\mathbf{1} + \beta_v \mathbf{x})$$
$$= \sigma_0 + \sigma_1 \mathbf{x} + \sigma_2 \mathbf{x}^2 + \dots + \sigma_v \mathbf{x}^v \qquad (3.12)$$

 $\sigma(\mathbf{x})$ has β_1^{-1} , β_2^{-1} , ..., β_v^{-1} as roots and $\sigma_0 = 1$ Note that $\beta_{\kappa} = \alpha^{j_{\kappa}}$.

If we can determine $\sigma(x)$ from the syndrome $S = \{S_1, S_2, ..., S_{2t}\}$, then the roots of $\sigma(x)$ give us the error-location numbers β_{κ} .

 An efficient procedure, known as Chien search, to find these roots, and hence the error-locations, was given by R.T. Chien in 1964. • Coefficients of the location polynomial Eq. (3.12) can be expressed as in the following manner :

$$\sigma_0 = 1$$

$$\sigma_1 = \beta_1 + \beta_2 + \dots + \beta_v$$

$$\sigma_2 = \beta_1 \beta_2 + \beta_2 \beta_3 + \dots + \beta_{v-1} \beta_v$$

 $\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{v} = \boldsymbol{\beta}_{1} \boldsymbol{\beta}_{2} \boldsymbol{\beta}_{3} \quad \dots \boldsymbol{\beta}_{v-1} \boldsymbol{\beta}_{v}$

This set of equations is known as the elementary symmetric functions and is related to the system of equations (3.11) as follows .

$$S_1 + \sigma_1 = 0$$

$$S_2 + \sigma_1 S_1 = 0$$

$$S_3 + \sigma_1 S_2 + \sigma_2 S_1 = 0$$

 $S_{2t} + \sigma_1 S_{2t-1} + \dots + \sigma_{v-1} S_{2t-v+1} + \sigma_v S_{2t-v} = 0 \quad (3.13)$

These equations are called generalized Newton identities .

Special cases : Decoding BCH Codes with Small *t*

The σ_i can be solved directly as follows.

For
$$t = 1$$
, $\sigma_1 = S_1$
For $t = 2$, $\sigma_1 = S_1$, $\sigma_2 = (S_3 + S_1^3) / S_1$
For $t = 3$, $\sigma_1 = S_1$, $\sigma_2 = (S_1^2 S_3 + S_5) / (S_3 + S_1^3)$
 $\sigma_3 = (S_1^3 + S_3) + S_1 \sigma_2)$

For
$$t = 4$$
, $\sigma_1 = S_1$
 $\sigma_2 = \{ S_1(S_1^7 + S_7) + S_3(S_5 + S_1^5) \} / \{ S_3(S_1^3 + S_3) + S_1(S_5 + S_1^5) \}$
 $\sigma_3 = (S_1^3 + S_3) + S_1 \sigma_2)$
 $\sigma_4 = \{ (S_1^2 S_3 + S_5) + (S_1^3 + S_3) \sigma_2 \} / S_1$

- **3.4.4 Berlekamp-Massey Iterative Algorithm for Finding the Error-Location Polynomial**
- The B-M algorithm basically consists of finding the coefficient of the error-location polynomial, $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, ..., \sigma_v$.
- The algorithm proceeds as follows . The first step is to determine a minimum -degree polynomial $\sigma^{(1)}(x)$ that satisfies the first Newton identity described in Eq. (3.13).
- Then the second Newton identity is tested.
 If the polynomial σ⁽¹⁾(x) satisfies the second Newton identity in Eq. (3.13) ,

then $\sigma^{(2)}(x) = \sigma^{(1)}(x)$.

Otherwise the decoding procedure adds a correction term to $\sigma^{(1)}(x)$ in order to form the polynomial $\sigma^{(2)}(x)$, which is able to satisfies the first two Newton identities.

- This procedure is subsequently applied to find σ⁽³⁾(x), and the following polynomials, until determination of the polynomial σ^(2t)(x) is complete.
- This algorithm can be implemented in iterative form. Let the minimum-degree polynomial obtained in the μ- th iteration, denoted by σ^(μ)(x), be of the form σ^(μ)(x) = 1 + σ₁ ^(μ) x + σ₂^(μ) x² + ... + σ_{Lμ} ^(μ) x ^{Lμ}

(3.14)

- where L_{μ} is the degree of the polynomial $\sigma^{(\mu)}(\mathbf{x})$.
- This minimum-degree polynomial $\sigma^{(\mu)}(x)$ satisfies the first
 - *i* Newton identities in Eq.(3.13)

- To find σ^(µ+1)(x), we first check whether the coefficients of σ^(µ)(x) satisfy the next generalized Newton identity; that is, S_{µ+1} + Σ_{k=1}^{Lµ}σ_k^(µ) S_{µ+1-k} = 0 ? (3.15)
 If yes, σ^(µ+1)(x) = σ^(µ)(x) is the minimum-degree polynomial whose coefficients satisfy the generalized Newton identities.
 - If not ,a correction term is added to $\sigma^{(i)}(x)$ to obtain $\sigma^{(i+1)}(x)$.
- To test the equality of Eq. (3.15) ,we calculate the discrepancy

$$d_{\mu} = S_{\mu+1} + \sigma_{1}^{(\mu)} S_{\mu} + \sigma_{2}^{(\mu)} S_{\mu-1} + \dots + \sigma_{L^{\mu}}^{(\mu)} S_{\mu+1 - L^{\mu}}$$
(3.16)
If $d_{\mu} = 0$, we set $\sigma^{(\mu+1)}(\mathbf{x}) = \sigma^{(\mu)}(\mathbf{x})$

If $d_{\mu} \neq 0$, we need to add a correction term to $\sigma^{(\mu)}(\mathbf{x})$ to obtain $\sigma^{(\mu+1)}(\mathbf{x})$ In the calculation of the correction term , the algorithm resorts to a previous step ρ such that $d_{\rho} \neq 0$ and $(\rho - L_{\rho})$ is a maximum , where L_{ρ} is the degree of of $\sigma^{(\rho)}(\mathbf{x})$.

Massey demonstrated that , when $d_{\rho} \neq 0$, one must have

$$L_{\mu+1} = max [L_{\mu}, L_{\rho} + \mu - \rho]$$

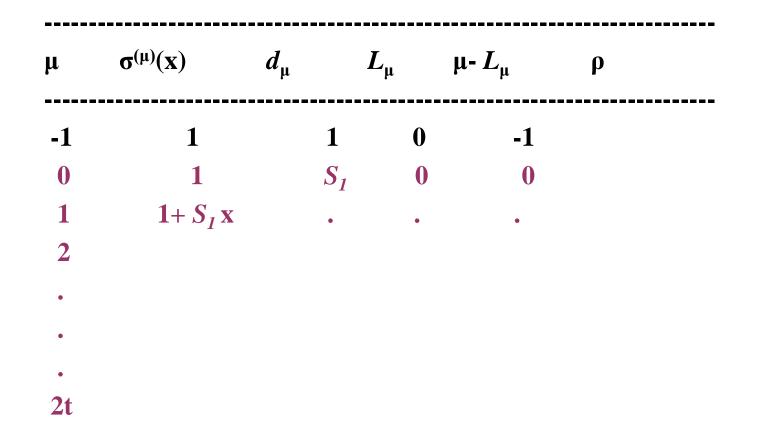
Then

$$\sigma^{(\mu+1)}(\mathbf{x}) = \sigma^{(\mu)}(\mathbf{x}) + d_{\mu}d_{\rho}^{-1} \mathbf{x}^{(\mu-\rho)} \sigma^{(\rho)}(\mathbf{x})$$
(3.17)

The B-M algorithm can be implemented in the form of a table, as shown below.

Note that

$$\sigma^{(-1)}(\mathbf{x}) = \sigma^{(0)}(\mathbf{x}) = 1$$
, $d_1 = S_1$
 $\sigma^{(1)}(\mathbf{x}) = 1 + S_1 \mathbf{x}$



Berlrkamp-Massey Algorithm

1. Set the initial conditions before taking the iterative step.

$$\sigma^{(-1)}(\mathbf{x}) = 1 \qquad L_{-1} = 0 \qquad d_{-1} = 1$$

$$\sigma^{(0)}(\mathbf{x}) = 1 \qquad L_0 = 0 \qquad d_0 = s_1$$

If d_μ = 0, then set σ^(μ+1)(x) = σ^(μ)(x) and L_{μ+1} = L_μ
 If d_μ ≠ 0, , then find σ^(ρ)(x) prior to σ^(μ)(x) such that d_ρ≠ 0, ρ ≤ μ, and the number (ρ - L_μ) has the largest number. Then

$$\begin{split} \sigma^{(\mu+1)}(\mathbf{x}) &= \sigma^{(\mu)}(\mathbf{x}) + d_{\mu}d_{\rho}^{-1} \mathbf{x}^{(\mu-\rho)} \sigma^{(\rho)}(\mathbf{x}) \\ L_{\mu+1} &= max \left[L_{\mu} , L_{\rho} + \mu - \rho \right] \\ \text{and} \quad d_{\mu+1} &= S_{\mu+2} + \sigma_{I}^{(\mu+1)} S_{\mu+1} + \sigma_{2}^{(\mu+1)} S_{\mu-I} + \dots + \\ \sigma_{L^{(\mu+1)}}^{(\mu+1)} S_{\mu+2} - L^{(\mu+1)} \\ \text{where} \quad \sigma_{i}^{(\mu+1)} , 1 \leq i \leq L_{\mu+1} , \text{ are the coefficients of} \\ \sigma^{(\mu+1)}(\mathbf{x}) . \end{split}$$

Example:

• For the (15, 9) RS code over GF(2⁴)

Use the Berlekamp-Massey algorithm to find the error-locator polynomial. The received polynomial is

 $r(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^8 + \alpha^{11} \mathbf{x}^7 + \alpha^8 \mathbf{x}^5 + \alpha^{10} \mathbf{x}^4 + \alpha^4 \mathbf{x}^3 + \alpha^3 \mathbf{x}^2 + \alpha^8 \mathbf{x} + \alpha^{12}$

Solution: n - k = 6

$$m = 4, \quad \alpha^{15} = 1$$

$$r(x) = x^{8} + \alpha^{11}x^{7} + \alpha^{8}x^{5} + \alpha^{10}x^{4} + \alpha^{4}x^{3} + \alpha^{3}x^{2} + \alpha^{8}x + \alpha^{12}$$

$$S_{1} = 1$$

$$S_{2} = 1$$

$$S_{3} = \alpha^{5}$$

$$S_{4} = 1$$

$$S_{5} = 0$$

$$S_{6} = \alpha^{10}$$

Solution

$$\sigma^{(\mu+1)}(\mathbf{x}) = \sigma^{(\mu)}(\mathbf{x}) + d_{\mu}d_{\rho}^{-1} \mathbf{x}^{(\mu-\rho)} \sigma^{(\rho)}(\mathbf{x})$$

$$L_{\mu+1} = max [L_{\mu}, L_{\rho} + \mu - \rho]$$

$$d_{\mu+1} = S_{\mu+2} + \sigma_{I}^{(\mu+1)} S_{\mu+1} + \sigma_{2}^{(\mu+1)} S_{\mu-I} + \dots +$$

$$\sigma_{L(\mu+1)}^{(\mu+1)} S_{\mu+2} - L^{(\mu+1)}$$

1.
$$\mu=0$$
, Choose $\rho=-1$
 $\sigma^{(1)}(x) = \sigma^{(0)}(x) + d_0 d_{-1}^{-1} x \sigma^{(-1)}(x) = 1-x = 1+x$
 $d_1 = S_2 + \sigma_1^{(1)} S_1 = 1 + 1 = 0$
 $L_1 = max [L_0, L_{-1} + 0 + 1] = 1$
2. $\mu=1$
Since $d_1 = 0$,
we have $\sigma^{(2)}(x) = \sigma^{(1)}(x) = 1+x$ and $L_2 = L_1 = 1$
 $d_2 = S_3 + \sigma_1^{(2)} S_2 + \sigma_2^{(2)} S_1 = 1 + \alpha^5 = \alpha^{10}$

- 3. $\mu = 2$, Since $d_2 \neq 0$, ρ must be chosen such that (ρL_{μ}) has the largest value. We choose $\rho = 0$ $\sigma^{(3)}(\mathbf{x}) = \sigma^{(2)}(\mathbf{x}) - d_2 d_0^{-1} \mathbf{x}^2 \sigma^{(0)}(\mathbf{x})$ $= 1 + \mathbf{x} + \alpha^{10} \mathbf{x}^2$ $d_3 = S_4 + \sigma_1^{(3)} S_3 + \sigma_2^{(3)} S_2 + \sigma_3^{(3)} S_1$ $= 1 + \alpha^5 + \alpha^{10} = 0$
 - Finally , we obtain $\sigma(x) = 1 + x + \alpha^{10} x^2$

3.4.5 Chien Search

 After the determination of the error-location polynomial, the roots of this polynomial are calculated by applying the Chien search. The roots of σ(x) in GF(2^m) can be determined by substituting the elements of GF(2^m) in σ(x).

If $\sigma(\alpha^i) = 0$, then α^i is the root of $\sigma(x)$.

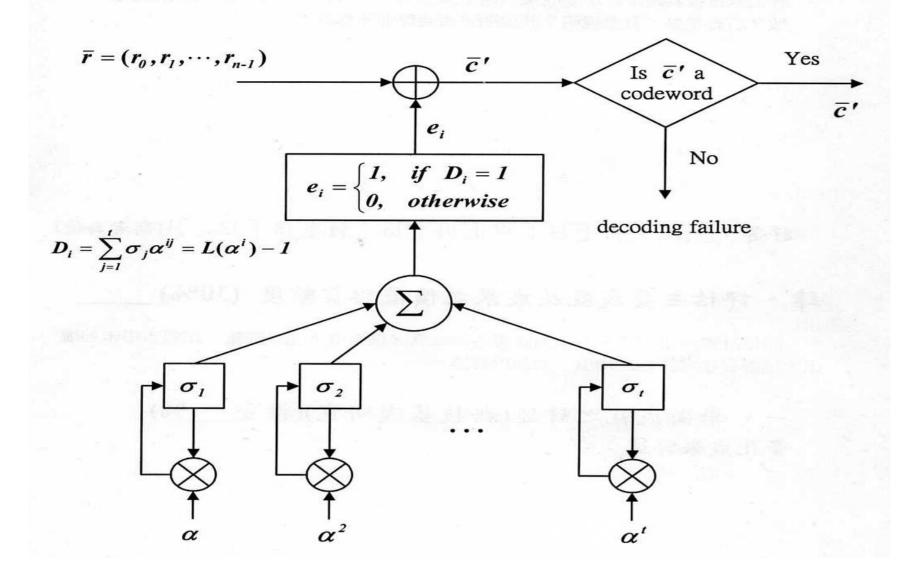
Thus, $\alpha^{-i} = \alpha^{n-1}$ is an error-location number.

• To decode the first received digit r_{n-1} , we check whether α is a root of $\sigma(x)$.

If $\sigma(\alpha) = 0$, then is erroneous and must be corrected. If $\sigma(\alpha) \neq 0$, then r_{n-1} is error-free.

- To decode r_{n-i} , we test whether $\sigma(\alpha^i) = 0$ or not. If $\sigma(\alpha^i) = 0$, r_{n-i} is erroneous and must be corrected, otherwise r_{n-i} is error-free.
- A Chien-search circuit is shown in Fig.3. 2

Fig.3.2 Chien-search circuit



3.4.6 Error-Value Calculation

• The generator polynomial of (*n*, *k*) RS codes can be expressed by

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = (x + \alpha) (x + \alpha^{2}) \dots (x + \alpha^{2t})$$

= $g_{0} + g_{1} \mathbf{x} + g_{2} \mathbf{x}^{2} + \dots + g_{2t-1} \mathbf{x}^{2t-1} + \mathbf{x}^{2t}$ (3.18)
where $g_{i} \in \mathbf{GF}(2^{m})$.

If c(x) is the transmitted codeword and r(x) is the corresponding received word, then the error pattern caused by the channel impairments is given by

$$e(\mathbf{x}) = r(\mathbf{x}) + c(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} e_i \mathbf{x}^i$$
(3.19)
In order to determine $e(\mathbf{x})$, we need to find the location $x^{j_{\mathcal{K}}}$

and the error values $e_{j_{k}}$.

The error locator polynomial for a ν-error-correcting RS code is expressed as

$$\sigma (\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{\kappa=1}^{\nu} (\mathbf{1} + \beta_{\kappa} \mathbf{x})$$

= $(\mathbf{1} + \beta_{1} \mathbf{x}) (\mathbf{1} + \beta_{2} \mathbf{x}) \dots (\mathbf{1} + \beta_{\nu} \mathbf{x})$
= $\mathbf{1} + \sigma_{1} \mathbf{x} + \sigma_{2} \mathbf{x}^{2} + \dots + \sigma_{\nu} \mathbf{x}^{\nu}$ (3.20)

where $\beta_{\kappa} = \alpha^{j} \kappa$.

The error locations can be determined by the Berlekamp-Massey algorithm.

• Let the syndrome polynomial be $\mathbf{s}(\mathbf{x}) = S_1 \mathbf{x} + S_2 \mathbf{x}^2 + \dots + S_{\nu} \mathbf{x}^{\nu} = \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} S_i \mathbf{x}^i \quad (3.21)$

and define the error-evaluator polynomial as

$$\Omega(\mathbf{x}) = \sigma(\mathbf{x}) \, \mathbf{s}(\mathbf{x}) = 1 + (S_1 + \sigma_1) \, \mathbf{x} + (S_2 + (\sigma_1 S_1 + \sigma_2) \, \mathbf{x}^2 + \dots + (S_{\nu} + \sigma_1 S_{\nu-1} + \dots + \sigma_{\nu}) \, \mathbf{x}^{\nu}$$
(3.22)

• Suppose that ν errors have occurred in locations corresponding to the indices $j_1 < j_2 < ... < j_{\nu}$ Then, the syndrome components can be expressed as

$$S_q = \sum_{\kappa=1}^{\nu} Y_{\kappa} \beta_{\kappa}^{q} \qquad 1 \leq q \leq 2t \qquad (3.23)$$

where $Y_{\kappa} = e^{j\kappa}$ is the error value at location j_{κ} and $\beta_{\kappa} = \alpha^{j_{\kappa}}$

 For convenience sake, let us consider the syndrome polynomial of infinite degree such that

 $\mathbf{s}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{q=0}^{\infty} S_q \mathbf{x}^q$

Then, from , we obtain

$$\mathbf{s} (\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{q=1}^{\infty} \sum_{\kappa=1}^{\nu} Y_{\kappa} \beta_{\kappa}^{q} \mathbf{x}^{q}$$
$$= \sum_{\kappa=1}^{\nu} Y_{\kappa} \sum_{q=1}^{\nu} \beta_{\kappa}^{q} \mathbf{x}^{q}$$

Note that

$$\Sigma_{q=1} \stackrel{\infty}{\longrightarrow} \stackrel{q}{\beta_{\kappa}} \stackrel{q}{x} \stackrel{q}{x} = 1 + \stackrel{\beta_{\kappa}}{\times} \frac{x + \stackrel{\beta_{\kappa}}{\times} x^2 + \dots}{= 1 / (1 - \stackrel{\beta_{\kappa}}{\times} x) = 1 / (1 + \stackrel{\beta_{\kappa}}{\times} x)}$$

Then we have

$$\mathbf{s}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\kappa=1}^{\nu} Y_{\kappa} / (1 + \beta_{\kappa} \mathbf{x})$$

Using the above equations , the error-evaluator polynomial $Z(\mathbf{x})$ of degree less than v can be written as

$$Z(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\kappa=1}^{\nu} Y_{\kappa} \prod_{p=1}^{\nu} (1+\beta_{p}\mathbf{x})$$

Thus, the error-value at location $x = \beta_m$ is easily obtained as

$$Y_m = Z(\beta_m^{-1}) / \prod_{\substack{p=1 \\ p \neq m}} (1 + \beta_p \beta_m^{-1})$$

and then

$$\boldsymbol{e}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \Sigma \boldsymbol{Y}_m \, \mathbf{x}^m$$

Example :

Consider the triple-error-correcting (31,25) RS code. The received polynomial is

 $r(x) = \alpha^8 x^2 + \alpha^2 x^5 + \alpha x^{10}$

$$s_{1} = r(\alpha) = \alpha^{10} + \alpha^{7} + \alpha^{11} = \alpha$$

$$s_{2} = r(\alpha^{2}) = \alpha^{12} + \alpha^{12} + \alpha^{21} = \alpha^{21}$$

$$s_{3} = r(\alpha^{3}) = \alpha^{14} + \alpha^{17} + \alpha^{31} = \alpha^{23}$$

$$s_{4} = r(\alpha^{4}) = \alpha^{16} + \alpha^{22} + \alpha^{20} = \alpha^{15}$$

$$s_{5} = r(\alpha^{5}) = \alpha^{18} + \alpha^{27} + \alpha^{20} = \alpha^{2}$$

$$s_{6} = r(\alpha^{6}) = \alpha^{20} + \alpha + \alpha^{30} = \alpha^{13}$$

The error locator polynomial $\sigma(x)$ can be found by applying the iterative algorithm as follows :

1.
$$\mu = 0$$
, Choose $\rho = -1$

$$\sigma^{(I)}(\mathbf{x}) = \sigma^{(0)}(\mathbf{x}) + d_0 d_{-I}^{-1} \mathbf{x} \sigma^{(-1)}(\mathbf{x}) = 1 + \alpha \mathbf{x}$$
$$d_1 = S_2 + \sigma_I^{(1)} S_1 = \alpha^{21} + \alpha^2 = \alpha^{13}$$

$$L_{1} = \max [L_{0}, L_{-1} + 0 + 1]$$
2. $\mu = 1 \quad \rho = 0$

$$\sigma^{(2)}(x) = \sigma^{(1)}(x) + d_{1}d_{0}^{-1} \times \sigma^{(-1)}(x) = 1 + \alpha \times + \alpha^{13}\alpha^{-1} \times = 1 + \alpha^{20} \times \alpha^{13}$$
and $L_{2} = L_{1} = 1$

$$d_{2} = S_{3} + \sigma_{1}^{(2)} S_{2} = \alpha^{23} + \alpha^{10} = \alpha^{24}$$

Note : $L_{\mu+1} = max [L_{\mu}, L_{\rho} + \mu - \rho]$ The number $(\rho - L_{\mu})$ has the largest number.

3.
$$\mu = 2 \quad \rho = 0$$

$$\sigma^{(3)}(\mathbf{x}) = \sigma^{(2)}(\mathbf{x}) + d_2 d_0^{-1} \mathbf{x}^2 \sigma^{(0)}(\mathbf{x})$$

$$= 1 + \alpha^{20} \mathbf{x} + \alpha^{24} \alpha^{-1} \mathbf{x}^2$$

$$= 1 + \alpha^{20} \mathbf{x} + \alpha^{23} \mathbf{x}^2$$

$$d_3 = S_4 + \sigma_1^{(3)} S_3 + \sigma_2^{(3)} S_2 = \alpha^{15} + \alpha^{12} + \alpha^{13} = \alpha^8$$

4.
$$\mu = 3$$
 $\rho = 2$
 $\sigma^{(4)}(\mathbf{x}) = \sigma^{(3)}(\mathbf{x}) + d_3 d_2^{-1} \mathbf{x}^2 \sigma^{(2)}(\mathbf{x})$
 $= 1 + \alpha^{20} \mathbf{x} + \alpha^{23} \mathbf{x}^2 + \alpha^{15} \mathbf{x} + \alpha^4 \mathbf{x}^2$
 $= 1 + \alpha^{17} \mathbf{x} + \alpha^{15} \mathbf{x}^2$

$$d_4 = S_5 + \sigma_1^{(4)} S_4 + \sigma_2^{(4)} S_3 = \alpha^{15} + \alpha^{12} + \alpha^{13} = \alpha^8$$

= \alpha^2 + \alpha + \alpha^7 = \alpha^{30}

5.
$$\mu = 4$$
 $\rho = 2$
 $\sigma^{(5)}(\mathbf{x}) = \sigma^{(4)}(\mathbf{x}) + d_4 d_2^{-1} \mathbf{x}^2 \sigma^{(2)}(\mathbf{x})$
 $= 1 + \alpha^{17} \mathbf{x} + \alpha^{22} \mathbf{x}^2 + \alpha^{26} \mathbf{x}^3$

$$\begin{aligned} d_5 &= S_6 + \sigma_1^{(5)} S_5 + \sigma_2^{(5)} S_4 + \sigma_3^{(5)} S_3 = \alpha^{15} + \alpha^{12} + \alpha^{13} = \alpha^8 \\ &= \alpha^{13} + \alpha^{19} + \alpha^6 + \alpha^{18} = \alpha^{17} \end{aligned}$$

6.
$$\mu = 5$$
 $\rho = 4$
 $\sigma^{(6)}(\mathbf{x}) = \sigma^{(5)}(\mathbf{x}) + d_5 d_4^{-1} \mathbf{x} \sigma^{(4)}(\mathbf{x})$
 $= 1 + \alpha^4 \mathbf{x} + \alpha^5 \mathbf{x}^2 + \alpha^{17} \mathbf{x}^3$

Since $\sigma(x) = \sigma^{(6)}$, the error –locator polynomial is

$$\sigma(x) = 1 + \alpha^4 x + \alpha^5 x^2 + \alpha^{17} x^3$$

By the Chien search method, we can easily find that α^{21} , α^{26} and α^{29} roots of $\sigma(x)$. The reciprocals of these roots are to be the error-location number of e(x). These numbers are calculated as α^{10} , α^5 and α^2 .

Thus, the triple errors occurs at positions x^{10} , x^5 and x^2 .

To find the error-values , we first calculate the error-evaluator polynomial Z(x) by using eq. (3.22).

$$Z(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\kappa=1}^{v} Y_{\kappa} \prod_{p=1}^{v} (1+\beta_{p}\mathbf{x})$$

$$\stackrel{p \neq \kappa}{=} 1 + (\alpha + \alpha^{4}) \mathbf{x} + (\alpha^{21} + \alpha^{4} \alpha + \alpha^{5}) \mathbf{x}^{2}$$

$$+ (\alpha^{23} + \alpha^{4} \alpha^{21} + \alpha^{5} \alpha + \alpha^{17}) \mathbf{x}^{3}$$

$$= 1 + \alpha^{30} \mathbf{x} + \alpha^{21} \mathbf{x}^{2} + \alpha^{23} \mathbf{x}^{3}$$

$$\begin{split} Y_2 &= Z \left(\alpha^{-2} \right) / \left(1 + \alpha^5 \alpha^{-2} \right) \left(1 + \alpha^{10} \alpha^{-2} \right) \\ &= \alpha^{26} / \alpha^{18} = \alpha^8 \\ Y_5 &= Z \left(\alpha^{-5} \right) / \left(1 + \alpha^2 \alpha^{-5} \right) \left(1 + \alpha^{10} \alpha^{-10} \right) \\ &= \alpha^{30} / \alpha^{28} = \alpha^2 \\ Y_{10} &= Z \left(\alpha^{-10} \right) / \left(1 + \alpha^2 \alpha^{-10} \right) \left(1 + \alpha_5 \alpha^{-10} \right) \\ &= \alpha^{10} / \alpha^9 = \alpha \end{split}$$

Thus , the error-pattern polynomial is easily found as e (x) = $Y_2 x^2 + Y_5 x^5 + Y_{10} x^{10}$ = $\alpha^8 x^2 + \alpha^2 x^5 + \alpha x^{10}$

3.5 Shortened RS Codes

- In system design, if a code of natural length or suitable number of information digits can not be found, it may be desirable to shorten the code to meet the requirement.
- Given an (n,k) cyclic code C, consider the set of codewords for which the *L* leading high-order message digits are identical to zero .There are 2^{k-L} such codewords and they form a linear subcode of C. If we delete the L zero message digits from each of these codewords, we obtain a set of 2^{k-L} words of length n-L. These 2^{k-L} shortened words form an (*n-L*, *k-L*) linear code. This code is called a shortened cyclic code. The shortened code has the same error-correcting capability as the original code but is not cyclic is not cyclic in general.

- The (255, 251) RS code is designed over the Galois field GF (2^8) with error-correcting capability t = 2. Shortened RS codes $C_{RS}(32,28)$ and $C_{RS}(28, 24)$ are obtained from the original RS code $C_{RS}(255, 251)$ by deleting 227 digits and 223 digits, respectively, from the 255 codewords.
 - These two codes are the constituent codes of the compact disc (CD) error-control coding system.
 - Both shortened RS codes and the original RS code have the same generator polynomial.

The generator polynomial is given by

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{x} + \alpha) (\mathbf{x} + \alpha^2) (\mathbf{x} + \alpha^3) (\mathbf{x} + \alpha^4)$$

= $\mathbf{x}^4 + \alpha^{76} \mathbf{x}^3 + \alpha^{251} \mathbf{x}^2 + \alpha^{81} \mathbf{x} + \alpha^{10}$

All operations performed in te calculation of this generator polynomial are done in $GF(2^8)$.

Table 3.2 Minimal polynomials of the elements of GF(2⁶)

Elements	Minimal polynomials
$\alpha, \alpha^2, \alpha^4, \alpha^{16}, \alpha^{32}$	$1 + X + X^6$
$\alpha^3, \alpha^6, \alpha^{12}\alpha^{24}, \alpha^{48}\alpha^{33}$	$1 + X + X^2 + X^4 + X^6$
$\alpha^{5}, \alpha^{10}, \alpha^{20}, \alpha^{40}, \alpha^{17}, \alpha^{34}$	$1 + X + X^2 + X^5 + X^6$
$\alpha^{7}, \alpha^{14}, \alpha^{28}, \alpha^{56}, \alpha^{49}, \alpha^{35}$	$1 + X^3 + X^6$
$\alpha^9, \alpha^{18}, \alpha^{36}$	$1 + X^2 + X^3$
$\alpha^{9}, \alpha^{18}, \alpha^{36}$ $\alpha^{11}, \alpha^{22}, \alpha^{44}, \alpha^{25}, \alpha^{50}, \alpha^{37}$	$1 + X^2 + X^3 + X^5 + X^6$
$\alpha^{13}, \alpha^{26}, \alpha^{52}, \alpha^{41}, \alpha^{19}, \alpha^{38}$	$1 + X + X^3 + X^4 + X^6$
$\alpha^{15}, \alpha^{30}, \alpha^{60}, \alpha^{57}, \alpha^{51}, \alpha^{39}$	$1 + X^2 + X^4 + X^5 + X^6$
α^{21}, α^{42}	$1 + X + X^2$
$\alpha^{23}, \alpha^{46}, \alpha^{29}, \alpha^{58}, \alpha^{53}, \alpha^{43}$ $\alpha^{27}, \alpha^{54}, \alpha^{45}$	$1 + X + X^4 + X^5 + X^6$
$\alpha^{27}, \alpha^{54}, \alpha^{45}$	$1 + X + X^3$
$\alpha^{31}, \alpha^{62}, \alpha^{61}, \alpha^{59}, \alpha^{55}, \alpha^{47}$	$1 + X^5 + X^6$

Table 3.3

Generator polynomials of all the BCH codes of length 63

n	k	t	$\mathbf{g}(X)$
63	57	1	$\mathbf{g}_1(X) = 1 + X + X^6$
	51	2	$\mathbf{g}_2(X) = (1 + X + X^6)(1 + X + X^2 + X^4 + X^6)$
	45	3	$\mathbf{g}_3(X) = (1 + X + X^2 + X^5 + X^6)\mathbf{g}_2(X)$
	39	4	$\mathbf{g}_4(X) = (1 + X^3 + X^6)\mathbf{g}_3(X)$
	36	5	$\mathbf{g}_5(X) = (1 + X^2 + X^3)\mathbf{g}_4(X)$
	30	6	$\mathbf{g}_6(X) = (1 + X^2 + X^3 + X^5 + X^6)\mathbf{g}_5(X)$
	24	7	$\mathbf{g}_7(X) = (1 + X + X^3 + X^4 + X^6)\mathbf{g}_6(X)$
	18	10	$\mathbf{g}_{10}(X) = (1 + X^2 + X^4 + X^5 + X^6)\mathbf{g}_7(X)$
	16	11	$\mathbf{g}_{11}(X) = (1 + X + X^2)\mathbf{g}_{10}(X)$
	10	13	$\mathbf{g}_{13}(X) = (1 + X + X^4 + X^5 + X^6)\mathbf{g}_{11}(X)$
	7	15	$\mathbf{g}_{15}(X) = (1 + X + X^3)\mathbf{g}_{13}(X)$

Appen.: Division circuit for dividing X(D) by G(D)

$$X(D) = x_0 + x_1 D + x_2 D^2 + \dots + x_{n-1} D^{n-1}$$

 $G(D) = g_0 + g_1 D + g_2 D^2 + \dots + g_{n-k} D^{n-k}$

Note: 1. The high-order coefficients are input first.

- **2.** First output is coefficient of D^{n-1} of quotient
- 3. Shift register contains coefficients of remainder

 $r(D) = r_{a} + r_{a}D + r_{a}D^{2} + ... + r_{a} + 2D^{n-k-1}$

