

Generating Burst-error Correcting Codes from Orthogonal Latin Square Codes – a Graph Theoretic Approach

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Abstract

The paper proposes a scheme by which an Orthogonal Latin Square code (OLS) can be modified to correct burst-errors of specific length. The method discussed in this paper models it as a graph coloring problem where the goal is to resolve conflicts in the existing OLS code in order for it to correct burst-errors. Conflicts are resolved by reordering and/or reorganizing existing parity relations by inclusion of extra check bits. The graph coloring approach tries to minimize the number of additional check bits required. The final OLS code after reordering and/or reorganizing would be capable of correcting burst-errors of specific length in addition to its original error correction capabilities.

Keywords: graph coloring; burst error; Orthogonal Latin Square

1. Introduction

Single event upsets (SEU) and soft errors generated by ionizing particles or neutron interactions with semiconductor devices have been identified as a critical and possibly dominant failure mechanism in modern CMOS circuits. Error detection and correction schemes in memories and microprocessor caches are common and drastically reduce the externally observable error rate.

A key consideration for these protection schemes is the treatment of multiple bit errors that can be generated when adjacent bits fail as a result of a single strike. Studies have shown that 1-5% of single event upsets (SEUs) can cause multiple-bit errors (MBUs) [Sato00], [Makihara00], [Kawakami04]. Most MBUs will affect nearby cells.

These events can prevent the detection of an error in parity protected circuits, or make an error uncorrectable in spite of the use of Error Correction Codes (ECC). Bit interleaving is commonly used to minimize the error rate contribution of multi-bit errors. It refers to a memory layout architecture in which physically adjacent bits belong to different logic words. The result is that from an error detection and correction standpoint, two adjacent failing bits appear as two single bit errors rather than as a double bit error in the logic word. Bit interleaving rules are often defined as the minimum physical distance separating two bits belonging to the same logic word. The quantification of their effectiveness requires a detailed understanding of the multi-bit failure probabilities and operating parameter sensitivities which are generally not available in the open literature [Maiz03]. However bit interleaving would be limited by the width of the memory bus.

Moreover with continuous voltage scaling multiple-bit errors pose an important challenge, especially for memory sub-systems. A dramatic increase in MCU rates relative to SBU is projected for geosynchronous orbits, where direct ionization by heavy-ions dominates [Seifert08].

In the non-volatile memory space, multilevel cell (MLC) NAND flash memories, which are widely used in mobile and wireless systems, have inferior data retention times compared to single bit cell (SLC) NAND flash. Although multi-leveling cell (MLC) improves memory density and performance of memory storage systems in general, they would also be prone to a greater number of errors caused due to shift of threshold voltage during cell programming operations [Micheloni06] [Chen08]. Such systems would require stronger ECC than traditional single error correction codes. Therefore, the data reliability has become an important issue in most communication and storage systems for high speed operation and mass data process.

In this paper, a novel method is proposed for designing a multiple error correcting code specifically targeted towards correcting burst errors. This paper shows how, given an Orthogonal Latin Square code, it can be converted into a code capable of correcting burst errors of a specific length in addition to its original capacity with minimal overhead.

The paper is organized as follows, section two talks about other known methods of multi-bit error detection., section three explains OLS codes, section four explains our proposed methodology followed by the results in section five. Finally section six concludes the paper along with experimental results.

2. Related Work

For high defect rates, memory repair schemes based on spare rows and columns are not effective. Much higher levels of redundancy are required that can tolerate multi-bit errors. The two-dimensional ECC proposed by [Kim 07] tolerates multiple bit errors due to non-persistent faults, but is slow and complicated to decode.

Conventional SEC-DED codes can only detect, but not correct, double-bit errors. In [Dutta 07], it was shown that by carefully selecting and ordering the columns in the H-matrix for an SEC-DED code, it is possible to correct all adjacent double-bit errors in addition to correcting all single bit errors thereby creating an SEC-DAEC code. Since the most likely double-bit errors will be adjacent, this is very useful. The limitation of SEC-DAEC codes is that they may not detect all non-adjacent double-bit errors. While scaling up conventional parity check code for correcting multi-bit errors requires less check bits, the additional number of syndromes that needs to be stored for correction purposes makes parity check matrices an unattractive solution for multi-bit errors.

In some cases, check bits are used along with spare rows and columns to get combined fault-tolerance. In [Stapper 92], interleaved words with redundant word lines and bit lines are used in addition to the check bits on each word. [Su 05] proposes an approach where the hard errors are mitigated by mapping to redundant elements and ECC is used for the soft errors. Such approaches will not be able to provide requisite fault tolerance under high bit error rates when there are not enough redundant elements to map all the hard errors.

[Michelsoni 06] proposed a scheme that uses Bose- Chaudhuri-Hocquenghem (BCH) codes to correct multiple errors in NAND flash. However, NAND flash memory systems process with a large size of data such as a page or a block unit. Hence, BCH codes may not be appropriate for a NAND flash controller [Chen 08]. [Kim 10] proposed a product code using a Reed-Solomon code scheme for NAND flash memories, capable of correcting multiple bit errors. Although Reed-Solomon codes are good for burst errors, the decoding time would be enormous (> 500 clock cycles) [Kim 10].

The application of OLS codes for handling the high defect rates in low power caches as described in [Christi 09] provides a more attractive solution. While OLS codes require more redundancy than conventional ECC, the one-step majority encoding and decoding process is very fast and can be scaled up for handling large numbers of errors as opposed to BCH codes, which while providing the desired level of reliability requires multi-cycles for decoding [Lin 83].

Since most multi-bit errors are likely to result in adjacent bit failures, a burst error code seems like an optimal solution. In this paper we show how a regular OLS code can be converted to correct burst errors of specific lengths. This way we can combine the single-step decodable facet of OLS codes along with its high error correction capability. The capability of OLS codes to correct multiple errors in a single cycle is synergistic with a high performance memory system, in particular MLC NAND. This way even in the presence of multiple errors, a likely scenario in MLC NAND systems [Michelsoni 06], the error detection and correction step would not be a bottleneck in the way of improved memory performance. Our proposed solution preserves this property of OLS codes while enabling it to correct burst errors with minimal overhead.

3. Orthogonal Latin Square Codes

A Latin square [Hsiao 70] of order (size) m is an $m \times m$ square array of the digits $0, 1, \dots, m - 1$, with each row and column a permutation of the digits $0, 1, \dots, m - 1$. Two Latin squares are orthogonal if, when one Latin square is superimposed on the other, every ordered pair of elements appears only once.

In general, a t -error correcting majority decodable code works on the principle that $2t + 1$ copies of each information bit are generated from $2t + 1$ independent sources. One copy is the bit itself received from memory or any transmitting device. The other $2t$ copies are generated from $2t$ parity relations involving the bit. By choosing a set of h Latin squares that are pair-wise orthogonal, one can construct a parity check matrix such that the number of 1's in each column is $2t = h + 2$. The orthogonality condition ensures that for any bit d_i , there exists a set of $2t$ parity check equations orthogonal on d_i , and thus makes the code self-orthogonal and one-step majority decodable. One-step majority decoding is the fastest parallel decoding method. The t -error correcting codes generated by OLS codes [Hsiao 70] have m^2 data bits and $2tm$ check bits per word.

Let the m^2 data bits be denoted by a vector:

$$D = [d_0, d_1, \dots, d_{m^2-1}] \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Then the $2tm$ check-bit equations for t -error correcting are obtained from the following parity check matrix H :

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} M_1 & \vdots & I_{2tm} & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ M_2 & \vdots & & & & \\ M_3 & \vdots & & & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & & \\ M_{2t} & \vdots & & & & \end{bmatrix} \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

I_{2tm} is an identity matrix of order $2tm$ and M_1, \dots, M_{2t} are submatrices of size $m \times m^2$. These submatrices M_1, \dots, M_{2t} have the form

$$M_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 11\dots 1 & \dots & & & \\ \vdots & 11\dots 1 & \vdots & & \\ \vdots & \dots & 11\dots 1 & & \end{bmatrix}_{m \times m^2} \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

$$M_2 = [I_m \quad I_m \quad \dots \quad \dots \quad \dots \quad I_m]_{m \times m^2} \dots \dots (4)$$

The matrices M_1, \dots, M_{2t} are derived from the existing set of orthogonal Latin squares $L_1, L_2, \dots, L_{2t-2}$ of size $m \times m$. Denote the set of Latin squares as,

$$\begin{aligned} L_1 &= [l_{ij}^1]_{m \times m} \\ L_2 &= [l_{ij}^2]_{m \times m} \\ &\vdots \\ &\vdots \\ L_{2t-2} &= [l_{ij}^{2t-2}]_{m \times m} \end{aligned}$$

where $l_{ij} \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$

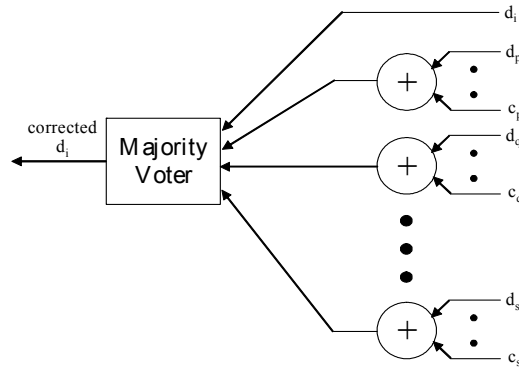


Figure 1. Decoding Data Bit d_i with Majority Voter

Once the H -matrix is constructed, the decoding for each data bit is done using a majority voter as illustrated in Fig. 1. When decoding data bit d_i , the set of bits in each of the $2t$ H -matrix rows that d_i is present in are XORed together and serve as an input to a majority voter along with d_i itself giving a total of $2t+1$ inputs. Since the set of inputs to the XOR gates are orthogonal, the OLS code will provide the correct output as long as the number of errors is less than half the number of inputs to each voter, i.e., t or less. Note that OLS coding does not need to generate a syndrome, but can “correct” errors directly from majority voting.

As an example, a single error correcting OLS code for 16 data bits is shown below. For 16 data bits, $m = 4$. Also, since this is a single error correcting code, $t = 1$. Therefore the total number of check bits will be $2*t*m = 8$. The H -matrix for the resulting (24, 16) code is shown below.

capable of $2t$ errors has $2tm$ check bits and m^2 data bits, identifying all conflicting pair of nodes requires $O(m^3)$ time. Once all the conflicting pair of nodes has been recognized, the edges are determined following the rules listed below,

- i) if any two nodes u, v of the graph appear in a row of the OLS matrix which produced neither u nor v , then (u, v) is an edge of G .
 - ii) if any two nodes u, v of the graph are separated by a distance less than or equal to b , then (u, v) is an edge of G .
- This takes $O(n^2)$, n being the number of nodes in the graph [Cormen 01].

Once the graph G has been created, there are two separate problems which need to be solved in order. First we need to trim the graph, choosing one node from each conflicting pair. While choosing any one from the conflicting pair would preserve the functionality of our goal, choosing the node with fewer edges incident upon it helps us in the next step, where we do the coloring. Since two nodes sharing an edge between them needs to be colored differently, fewer edges would allow us to achieve our coloring goals using fewer colors which translate to fewer extra check bits. The argument rings true intuitively as well, since fewer edges mean less constraints and subsequently more freedom in coloring the graph.

Once the set of nodes, V , and the set of edges, E , has been trimmed, we are left with the final step in our problem i.e. to color G . It has been shown that k -coloring, for $k > 2$ is a NP complete problem [Kleinberg 06]. In this paper we try solving the graph coloring problem using an underlying Breadth First Search (BFS) structure. In order to adapt the traditional BFS algorithm for the purposes of graph coloring we needed to use some additional data structures. Each node maintains an array listing what are the forbidden colors for that node. Thereafter the BFS algorithm is applied as follows,

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i) start with a source node,  $s$ 
ii) add  $s$  to the processing queue  $Q$ 
iii) while  $Q \neq \emptyset$ ,
    a)  $u \leftarrow dequeue(Q)$ 
    b) make a single pass through the array listing forbidden colors, selecting the first color, say  $c_u$  not listed as forbidden for  $u$ 
    c) for each node  $v \in Adj(u)$ 
        1) set  $c_u$  as a forbidden color
        2)  $enqueue(v)$ 
    d) set  $u.visited \leftarrow 1$ 
iv) go through set of nodes, if  $u.visited \neq 1$ , run steps i)-iii) on it (after traversing the queue  $Q$ , if any node has  $u.visited \neq 1$ , it would mean that node is disconnected from the rest of the graph, hence a separate modified BFS algorithm needs to be run on that node to ensure that all nodes of the graph are covered)

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In addition to traversing each node and each edge of the graph as part of our coloring algorithm, one has to go through an array for each node to determine what should be the correct color for that node. The cost for that traversal is of $O(k)$, for an array of size k . Hence, using our chosen adjacency-matrix representation of the graph, the complexity of the algorithm described above is bounded by $O(n^2k)$.

The number of colors used, k , signifies the number of extra check bits required to convert the original OLS code into a code capable of correcting all burst errors of length b or less. For our experiments, the array in each node keeping track of forbidden colors would be initialized to size k . If at any node, all k colors are designated as forbidden, that would mean the graph cannot be colored using k colors. Subsequent calls to the coloring function would be made with increasing values of k unless a valid solution was obtained. The next section lists some of the experimental results we obtained as proof of concept for our proposed scheme.

5. Results

Table 1 shows experimental results where OLS codes that were originally double error correcting were converted to double error correcting and 3-bit burst error correcting code. Experiments were performed for different sizes of m . Although a double error correcting OLS code would include the sub-matrices M_1, M_2, M_3 and M_4 , the structure of M_1 is such that there would be too many conflicts due to bit adjacency. Hence without any loss of generalization, a

double error correcting OLS code was formed out of sub-matrices M_2 , M_3 , M_4 and M_5 . This ensured a minimal number of conflicts and subsequently a better solution.

As shown in Table 1, the overhead of extra check-bits diminish with increasing size of code. This can be explained by virtue of the fact that for a larger m there is more freedom in the placement of bits giving rise to fewer conflicts.

Table 1. Check-bit overhead for 3-bit burst-error protection and Double Error Correcting OLS code

m	Original check-bits	Data Bits	Extra added check-bits	Percentage Overhead
4	16	16	4	25%
8	32	64	4	12.50%
16	64	256	3	4.69%

In Table 2, we show how attempting to build a code capable of handling longer burst errors affects check bit overhead. As expected we see that a larger number of check bits is necessary for stronger codes. We see from Fig. 1 that the increase in the number of extra check-bits follows a piecewise linear relationship with the length of burst-errors to be corrected.

Table 2. Check-bit overhead for DEC OLS code with $m=16$ while burst-error length is varied

Burst Error Length	Extra added check-bits	Percentage Overhead
3	3	4.69%
5	3	4.69%
7	4	6.25%
9	5	7.81%
11	5	7.81%

6. Concluding Remarks

In this paper we have presented a scheme for generating one-step decodable burst-error correction codes. Our experimental results show that the check-bit overhead is a decreasing function for increasing code size, which makes it this an attractive solution to counter the worsening problem of multiple-bit errors in memory systems.

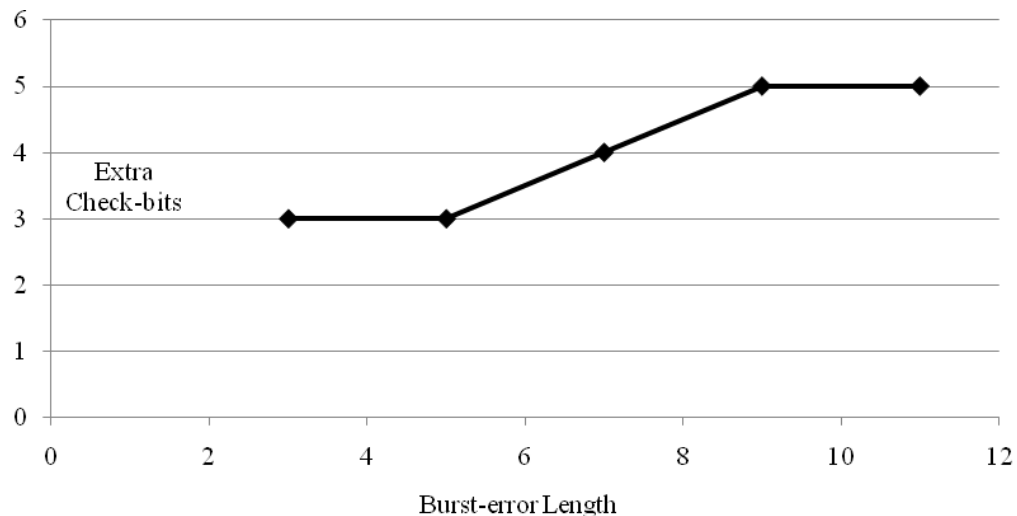


Figure 2. Burst-error length vs check-bit overhead

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