Rewritable Coset Coding for Flash Memories

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***Abstract*—Flash memory is a nonvolatile memory technology that suffers from errors due to charge leakage, can tolerate limited erasures, and where erasures have to be performed in large blocks. We show that using cosets of a linear code can provide correction against uniform charge leakage, and can enhance the rewritability of flash memory which leads to fewer erasures. We introduce two coset coding schemes that are generalizations of the scheme in Jacobvitz *et al.* (2013). For the same worst case rewrite cost, we show that coset codes can encode more information than rank modulation codes. The average case performance of coset codes is demonstrated via numerical simulations.**

1. Introduction

Flash memory is a nonvolatile memory technology that has become a dominant medium of storage over the past decade in both consumer and enterprise applications. In this memory technology charge is injected iteratively into a cell to bring the charge to a desired level, and the level of the charge encodes the bits that are to be recorded. Multilevel flash memory is used to increase the density of information stored, and also to improve the speed of reading and writing data to the memory. Despite being a fast medium, multilevel flash memory technology suffers from a couple of deficiencies that we describe below briefly (see [1] for details).

(i) Resetting the charge level of a cell to the lowest level corresponds to an *erase* operation. This erasure operation can not be performed on individual cells, and instead has to be performed on a block of about a million cells. Therefore, it is a slow operation. Additionally, the number of erasure operations that can be performed is limited to about 10^5 erasures in the lifetime of the device.

(ii) Aging effects in flash memory may result in a uniform drift of charge levels, which can lead to programming and read errors because of the shift in threshold levels.

(iii) Random errors can occur during reading or writing because of the device characteristics.

(iv) Overshooting problem can arise in writing to a multilevel flash memory, where the final programmed charge level exceeds the desired charge level, if the process of charge injection is not carefully controlled.

To overcome these limitations of flash memory, many different encoding techniques have been proposed over the past several decades. In particular, the problem of erasure is handled by modeling the flash memory as a write once memory (WOM) if each cell can represent only a single bit, and a write asymmetric memory (WAM) if each cell can represent more than one bit of information. There is long precedent for codes that have been studied for WOM and WAM type memories, starting with the work of Rivest and Shamir [2], Cohen *et al.* [3], and the more recent works by Jiang *et al.* [4], Yaakobi *et al.* [5], and Jacobvitz *et al.* [6], [7]. The objective of all these works is to maximize the number of rewrites that can be made; or equivalently maximize the amount of information that can be written if the number of times rewrites that can be performed is bounded.

The problem of uniform charge leakage due to aging can be addressed by using error correcting codes. In particular, the study of rank modulation codes was initiated in Jiang *et al.* [8], [9], and error scrubbing codes were studied in Jiang *et al.* [10] to address this problem. The problem of large nonuniform charge leakage was studied in Farnoud *et al.* [11].

Relatively fewer works are present which study codes that can correct both random errors and also ensure rewritability. We note a couple of works in this direction. The work of Cohen *et al.* [3] studied binary error correcting codes for WOM, Yaakobi *et al.* [5] studied WOM codes and their generalizations to WAM, Jiang *et al.* [4] uses nested polar codes, Haymaker [12] uses geometric constructions for WOM, Kurkoski [13] studies codes arising from lattice structures, and Jacobvitz *et al.* [6], [7] uses binary coset codes for error correction and rewrites. A specific construction by Jiang *et al.* [8] also uses rank modulation codes to address the problem of uniform charge leakage, errors due to overshooting, and rewritability.

In this work, we use cosets of linear codes for handling uniform charge leakage, for ensuring rewritability, and for error correction in flash memory. We do not address the problem of overshooting in this work. We assume that the process of careful charge injection can mitigate the overshooting problem. We assume that the flash memory has discrete charge levels. This is a reasonable assumption since the charge is injected in discrete quantities and the detection of different charge levels requires a minimum separation between consecutive charge levels. Our initial construction uses cosets formed from the subspace generated by the all-one vector to capture the phenomenon of uniform charge leakage due to aging. Further errors due to random charge leakage, or programming errors in individual cells can be corrected by the linear code. The second coding scheme builds up on this construction by dividing the total number of levels into parts of size q each, and optimizing the charge level of each cell individually. This scheme can be considered as a generalization of the method in Jacobvitz *et al.* [7] to q-ary codes. As noted in [7], the use of cosets implies that the same information can be represented by a set of codewords. Hence, we can optimize over this set of codewords so that the "cost" of a rewrite is minimized. On the other hand, if we choose the coset from a linear error-correcting code, the error-correcting

capability of the coset code follows from that of the linear code. Both these constructions differs from WOM and WAM codes studied in [4], [5] in that the number of levels is not restricted to the alphabet size of the code. Since our code is designed to correct uniform charge leakage, we compare the average number of rewrites with the average number of rewrites in rank modulation. It is observed that using coset codes results in larger number of rewrites on average, as compared to rank modulation codes.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. The next section introduces some basic notations and definitions. Section 3 gives the two coset coding schemes. Section 4 compares the two constructions from Section 3. In this section we also compare the properties of the code with that of a rank modulation code. To compare the average number of rewrites we simulate the performance of the rank modulation code and the coset codes.

2. Preliminaries and Notations

Throughout this paper, we let L, n, k and q denote positive integers. In particular, q is assumed to be a prime or a power of a prime. The set $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ is denoted by $[n]$ while the integers modulo q and the finite field of order q are denoted by $\mathbb{Z}_q$ and $\mathbb{F}_q$ respectively. In this paper, we sometimes map integers to elements in $\mathbb{F}_q$. When q is prime, taking integers modulo q clearly suffices. When q is not prime, we can consider any bijective mapping $\phi : \mathbb{Z}_q \to \mathbb{F}_q$ and abuse our notation by writing $s \bmod q$ to mean $\phi(s \bmod q)$ for all integers s. Extend this to vectors $\mathsf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ and we have $\mathsf{s} \bmod q \triangleq (\mathsf{s}_i \bmod q)_{i\in[n]}$ to belong to $\mathbb{F}_q^n$. We denote the span of vectors $\mathsf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathsf{v}_M$ by the notation $\langle \mathsf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathsf{v}_M \rangle$.

We consider the *Write Asymmetric Memory* (WAM) model for storage where we consider that the charge levels can only increase. The WAM consists of a block of n cells, where each cell has L discrete levels, viz. states $0, \ldots, L-1$. These levels in a cell may correspond to the charge levels that can be distinguished. In particular, we assume that two consecutive charge levels l, l' in a cell are separated by a *safety margin*, say Δ such that if $|l - l'| > \Delta$, then we can distinguish between the two levels (see [6], [14]). A *state vector* is an element in $\{0, \ldots, L-1\}^n$. We define a *partial ordering* on $\{0, \ldots, L-1\}^n$ via the relation $\mathsf{s} \le \mathsf{s}'$, for $\mathsf{s}, \mathsf{s}' \in \{0, \ldots, L-1\}^n$, if $\mathsf{s}_j \le \mathsf{s}'_j$ for all $j \in [n]$. Hence, a transition from s to s' is *valid* if and only if $\mathsf{s} \le \mathsf{s}'$.

Let C be a finite set of messages and let $S \subseteq \{0, \ldots, L-1\}^n$ be a set of *encoded states*. The quadruple (C, S, α, β) is a *coding scheme* for WAM if for all $\mathsf{c}' \in C$ and $\mathsf{s} \in S$, the following hold.

(i) $\alpha : S \times C \to S$ is an *encoding* function such that $\alpha(\mathsf{s}, \mathsf{c}') \ge \mathsf{s}$,
(ii) $\beta : S \to C$ is a *decoding* function, where $\beta(\alpha(\mathsf{s}, \mathsf{c}')) = \mathsf{c}'$.

In other words, given the current state s, the function α encodes a new codeword c' to a state s' such that the transition from s to s' is valid. On the hand, the function β decodes a state vector s' back to its original codeword c'.

Suppose we transition from state s to state s'. The *cost of rewrite* $\gamma(\mathsf{s} \to \mathsf{s}')$ is defined as the difference of the maximum of the two states, i.e.,

$$\gamma(\mathsf{s} \to \mathsf{s}') \triangleq \max_{i\in[n]} \mathsf{s}'_i - \max_{j\in[n]} \mathsf{s}_j.$$

This notion of the cost is used in [8], [9], [14], and as we discuss below, it provides an analysis of the work in [6], [7].

3. Coset Coding for WAM

In this section we describe our coset coding scheme for WAM that enables us to provide error correction, rewritability, and address the problem of uniform charge leakage in flash memory. To compare our schemes with existing schemes we briefly discuss the schemes in Jacobvitz *et al.* [6], [7] and Jiang *et al.* [8]. Consider codes of block length n. We formally define the encoding function, provided the decoding function is $\beta(\mathsf{s})$ for s in the set of encoded states S. Assume that the current state is s and that we want to add a codeword c'. Then the encoding function $\alpha(\mathsf{s}, \mathsf{c}')$ outputs a state s' with the minimum possible cost $\gamma(\mathsf{s} \to \mathsf{s}')$, and minimum cell changes.

$$\mathcal{A}(\mathsf{s}, \mathsf{c}') = \arg\min_{\mathsf{s}'\in S} \left(\max_{i\in[n]} \mathsf{s}'_i \right) \quad \text{s.t. } \beta(\mathsf{s}') = \mathsf{c}', \mathsf{s}' \ge \mathsf{s},$$
$$\alpha(\mathsf{s}, \mathsf{c}') \in \arg\min_{\mathsf{s}'\in\mathcal{A}(\mathsf{s},\mathsf{c}')} \sum_{i\in[n]} \mathsf{s}'_i - \mathsf{s}_i. \tag{1}$$

The problems of rewritability and error correction was addressed in [6], [7] by using *binary* linear coset codes to represent the data. We rephrase their construction in our own words. One possible realization of their scheme, called **FlipMin**, is by considering a linear code $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbb{F}_2^n$ containing the all-one vector j, and by defining

$$\beta(\mathsf{s}) = \mathsf{s} \bmod 2 + \mathcal{D},$$
$$\alpha(\mathsf{s}, \mathsf{c}') \in \arg\min_{\mathsf{s}'\in S} |\{\mathsf{s}'_i \ne \mathsf{s}_i : i \in [n]\}| \quad \text{s.t. } \beta(\mathsf{s}') = \mathsf{c}',$$

where $\mathcal{D}$ is a subspace of $\mathcal{C}$ containing j. Larger subspace $\mathcal{D}$ potentially increases the average number of rewrites. Given a new codeword c' that is a representative of the *coset* $\mathsf{c}' + \mathcal{D}$, the encoded word is determined by the following steps. Let c be the previously written codeword. First, we determine the *translate set* $\mathcal{T} = \{\mathsf{c} + y : y \in \mathsf{c}' + \mathcal{D}\}$. Next, the translate that is used to add the coset representative c' into memory is determined by picking any coset leader (of minimum weight) in the translate set $\mathcal{T}$. Hence, in this scheme, the set of possible codewords is given by the set of the coset representatives, or equivalently, the *quotient space* $\mathcal{C}/\mathcal{D}$.

Jacobvitz *et al.* showed that this procedure minimizes the number of bit flips that occur in writing [7]. In the following example, we illustrate the difference with the minimization objective defined in (1).

Example 3.1. Let the current state be $\mathsf{s} = (2, 3, 3, 2)$ and the codeword corresponding to it is $\mathsf{c} = 0110$. The cosets

$$S_1 = \{0000, 0101, 1010, 1111\}, S_2 = \{0001, 0100, 1011, 1110\},$$
$$S_3 = \{0010, 0111, 1000, 1101\}, S_4 = \{0011, 0110, 1001, 1100\}.$$

partition the linear space $\mathbb{F}_2^4$ into four equal parts. In other words, the sets $\{S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4\}$ form the quotient space $\mathbb{F}_2^4/S_1$.

Suppose that the new codeword belongs to S_2. Then the translate set is $\mathsf{c} + S_2 = \{0111, 0010, 1101, 1000\}$. There are two representatives of minimum weight, namely, $0010, 1000$, both of which minimize the number of flipped bits. However, as illustrated by Fig. 1, using 0010 increases the maximum charge level by one to the new state $\mathsf{s}' = (2, 3, 4, 2)$, or to $\mathsf{s}' = (4, 3, 4, 4)$. On the other hand, using the translate coset leader 1000 implies that the maximum charge level stays the same to give the new level $\mathsf{s}' = (3, 3, 3, 2)$.

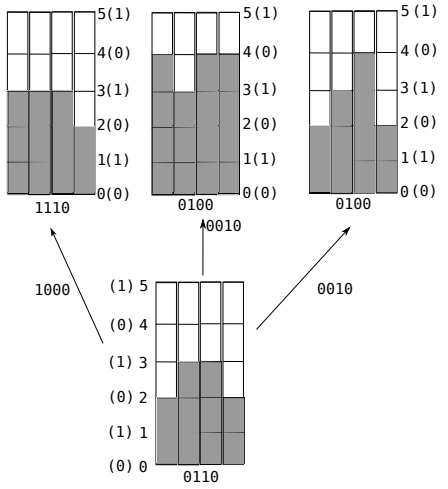

Fig. 1. Levels when encoding using (1) in contrast to minimum bit flip

In *Scheme A*, described below, we generalize the method to q-ary linear coset codes that are encoded using (1).

Scheme A: Let j be the all-one vector of length n. Consider a linear code $\mathcal{C}[n, k+1, d]$ of length n, dimension $k+1$ and mimimum distance d in $\mathbb{F}_q^n$, containing the all-one vector j. We encode vectors from the coset code $C = \mathcal{C}/\langle \mathsf{j} \rangle$ of size q^k by using (1). Let $s_{\min} = \min_{i \in [n]} \mathsf{s}_i$. Then the decoding function is given by

$$\beta(\mathsf{s}) = \phi\big((\mathsf{s}_i - s_{\min})_{i \in [n]}\big) + \langle \mathsf{j} \rangle.$$

Many well-known families of linear codes contain j, including the primitive narrow-sense Bose-Chaudhuri-Hocquenghem codes, the extended Golay code, the Reed-Müller codes, and the Reed-Solomon codes [15]. Uniform charge leakage in flash memory translates all the elements of the coset by a constant value and hence the codeword that is encoded is unchanged, and efficient decoding and error correction is immediate because of the use of linear codes.

The rewritability of the scheme can be determined from the worst-case and average case analysis of the encoding operation. It can be readily seen that the cost of increase is bounded by $q-1$, i.e., $\gamma(\mathsf{s} \to \mathsf{s}') \leq q-1$. This determines the least number of times we can rewrite a single cell.

Lemma 3.1. Using Scheme A, the number of rewrites is lower bounded by $\left\lfloor \frac{L-1}{q-1} \right\rfloor$.

We determine an upper bound to the average cost that can be numerically computed for small alphabet sizes. To determine this, we first establish a sequence of lemmas. Define

$$\Phi(\mathsf{c}) \triangleq \{\phi^{-1}(\mathsf{c}_i) : i \in [n]\}.$$

Lemma 3.2. Suppose we add a vector c' that has the smallest cost out of all the possible vectors $\mathsf{c}' + \langle \mathsf{j} \rangle$, and the previous state was s. Let 0_n be the all-zero vector. Then,

$$\gamma(\mathsf{s} \to \alpha(\mathsf{s}, c')) \leq \gamma(0_n \to \alpha(0_n, \mathsf{c}')) = \max\{i : i \in \Phi(\mathsf{c}')\}.$$

Define the average cost as the average over all possible states s and cosets $\mathsf{c}' + \langle \mathsf{j} \rangle$. By Lemma 3.2, this is upper bounded by the average over all possible cosets $\mathsf{c}' + \langle \mathsf{j} \rangle$, i.e.,

$$\frac{1}{L^n q^{n-1}} \sum_{\mathsf{s}, \mathsf{c}'} \gamma(\mathsf{s} \to \alpha(\mathsf{s}, \mathsf{c}')) \leq \frac{1}{q^{n-1}} \sum_{\mathsf{c}' \in \mathbb{F}_q^n / \langle \mathsf{j} \rangle} \gamma(0_n \to \alpha(0_n, \mathsf{c}')).$$

The cost $\gamma(0_n \to \alpha(0_n, \mathsf{c}'))$ is determined by the alphabets that occur in $\widetilde{\mathsf{c}}' \in \mathsf{c}' + \mathcal{D}$, as described in the lemma below.

Lemma 3.3. If $\gamma(0_n \to \alpha(0_n, \mathsf{c}')) = q - 1 - \ell$, then a vector $\widetilde{\mathsf{c}}' \in \mathsf{c}' + \langle \mathsf{j} \rangle$ with minimum cost satisfies

$$\Phi(\widetilde{\mathsf{c}}') = \{i_0 = 0, i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_p, i_{p+1} = q - 1 - \ell\}, \quad (2)$$

where $0 < i_j - i_{j-1} \leq \ell + 1$, $\forall j = 1, \ldots, p+1$.

Conversely, if $\mathsf{c}' \in \mathbb{F}_q^n$ satisfies (2) then the minimum cost is $\gamma(0_n \to \alpha(0_n, \mathsf{c}')) = q - 1 - \ell$.

Given $\ell \in \{0, \ldots, q-1\}$, we next determine the distribution of the alphabet elements in any vector c' which satisfy the above lemma. The answer stems from the count of vectors which are *run-length limited* [16]. Let $\mathcal{N}_\ell(m)$ be the set of ℓ-sequences of length m which do not have more than ℓ zeros between two consecutive ones, and let $N_\ell(m) = |\mathcal{N}_\ell(m)|$ Then, $N_\ell(m)$ satisfies a generalized Fibonacci sequence,

$$N_\ell(m) = \begin{cases} 2^m, & \text{for } 0 < m \leq \ell, \\ \sum_{i=1}^{\ell+1} N_\ell(m-i), & \text{for } \ell < m, \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

and an explicit construction can also be determined from a recursive construction of the so-called *cross-bifix-free codes* (see [16], [17]). Consider indicator vectors $v = (v_0, \ldots, v_{q-1})$ of length q where $v_0 = 1 = v_{q-1-\ell}$, and $v_i = 0$, $i = q-\ell, \ldots, q-1$, and $(v_1, \ldots, v_{q-2-\ell})$ is an ℓ-sequence. Then, $\mathcal{N}_\ell(q-2-\ell)$ is the set of such ℓ-sequences, with the cardinality given by (3). We first illustrate the lemmas by an example.

Example 3.2. Consider the vector $\mathsf{u} = 1147 \in \mathbb{Z}_8^4$. We get $\Phi(\mathsf{u}) = \{1, 4, 7\}$, and so it requires $\max \Phi(\mathsf{u}) = 7$ levels when writing. The coset $\mathsf{u} + \langle \mathsf{j} \rangle$ contains $\mathsf{u}' = 2250$ and $\mathsf{u}'' = 5503$. The vectors u' and u'' require only five levels since $\max \Phi(\mathsf{u}') = 5 = \max \Phi(\mathsf{u}'')$. It can be verified that this is the minimum possible cost of rewrite. The indicator vectors of the alphabets that occur in $\mathsf{u}, \mathsf{u}', \mathsf{u}''$ are respectively, $01001001, 10100100, 10010100$. Here, $\ell = 2$.

Using the count of the number of vectors whose alphabet elements satisfy that their indicator vectors are ℓ-sequences in the first $q-1-\ell$ coordinates (with the first and last coordinates fixed to 1), we can derive an upper bound on the average cost. This is shown by the next Proposition.

Proposition 3.1. Let $\mathbf{n}_\ell = (n_1, \ldots, n_{q-2-\ell})$, $1(x)$ be an indicator function, and $\mathbf{1}(\mathbf{n}_\ell) = (1(n_i > 0))_{i=1,\ldots,q-2-\ell}$. Let

$$B(\ell) \triangleq \sum_{\substack{(n_0, \mathbf{n}_\ell, n_{q-1-\ell}) \\ n_0, n_{q-1-\ell} > 0,\, \mathbf{1}(\mathbf{n}_\ell) \in \mathcal{N}_\ell(q-2-\ell)}} \binom{n}{n_0, \mathbf{n}_\ell, n_{q-1-\ell}}.$$

Then, for $\ell \geq \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor$, $B(\ell) = (q-\ell)^n - 2(q-\ell-1)^n + (q-\ell-2)^n$, and

$$\frac{1}{q^{n-1}} \sum_{\mathsf{c}'} \gamma(0_n \to \alpha(0_n, \mathsf{c}')) \leq \frac{(q-1)B(0)}{q^{n-1}q} + \sum_{\ell=1}^{q-2} \frac{q-1-\ell}{q^{n-1}} B(\ell).$$

Proof: An outline of the proof goes as follows. The term $B(0)$ counts all words with $\Phi(\mathsf{c}') = \{0, \ldots, q-1\}$. The normalization by $1/q$ removes words in the same coset. This normalization is not performed for $\ell > 0$, and so we get an upper bound. The cost of writing a vector that is present in the count of $B(\ell)$ is $(q-\ell-1)$. ∎

The dominant term above is $\frac{(q-1)B(0)}{q^n}$. For large n, the upper bound converges to the worst case cost $q-1$. Scheme A can be generalized to a different scheme that we call Scheme B. This new scheme is based on the observation that given a codeword we can change the charge level of any individual cell independently of the other cells; thus we can potentially increase the average number of rewrites that can be performed. This construction can also be viewed as a generalization of the construction in [7] from binary to q-ary.

Scheme B: Consider $\mathcal{C}[n, k+\delta, d]$ as a subspace of $\mathbb{F}_q^n$ containing the all-one vector j, and let $\mathcal{D}$ be a subcode of $\mathcal{C}$ of dimension δ such that $\mathsf{j} \in \mathcal{D}$. We encode the coset code $C = \mathcal{C}/\mathcal{D}$ of size q^k by using the encoding function in (1) and the decoding function is given by

$$\beta(\mathsf{s}) = \mathsf{s} \bmod q + \mathcal{D}.$$

Intuitively, Scheme B divides the total number of discrete charge levels L into L/q parts, each part representing q distinct levels, and each individual cell is increased to the next higher part independently of the other cells. In particular, for $q = 2$ all the even levels in Fig. 1 represent bit 0, and all the odd levels represent bit 1. If $q = 3$, then the levels 0 and 3 represent 0, levels 1 and 4 represent 1, and levels 2 and 5 correspond to 2. This is a generalization of the method in [7] where the number of levels is divided into distinct sets of size two. It differs from the same work in the encoding because we do not minimize only bit flips. The maximum increase in the level happens when the cell transitions from level $0 \bmod q$ to $(q-1) \bmod q$, or $i \bmod q$ to $(i-1) \bmod q$, $i = 1, \ldots, q-1$, which incurs a cost of $q-1$. Thus, Lemma 3.1 holds for Scheme B. On the other hand, the average number of rewrites of Scheme B is potentially better than Scheme A. This is illustrated in Section 4-B.

4. Comparison of Coding Schemes

In this section we compare the coding schemes Scheme A and Scheme B against the rank modulation scheme of [8, Construction 18]. In particular, we analyze the information rate for the worst case cost, and the average number of rewrites between the different schemes.

A. Comparison of Worst Case Behavior

To compare the worst case behavior of Scheme A and Scheme B with the previous work that addresses the problem of uniform discharge, we first briefly introduce the rank modulation scheme. The rank modulation coding scheme in [8] considers permutation vectors as the codewords. Every permutation word of length n corresponds to n distinct charge levels. In [8, Construction 18] the following scheme is proposed for ensuring that the code is optimal in minimizing the *worst case rewrite cost.*

Construction 18: (see [8]) Let S_n denote the set of all permutations of the set $[n]$, and let ${}^{[n]}P_m$ denote the set of all m-permutations of the set $[n]$. If $\gamma(\mathsf{s} \to \mathsf{s}') \leq m$, then ${}^nP_m = n!/(n-m)!$ words are uniquely represented by all the words in ${}^{[n]}P_m$. Let $a = (a_1, \ldots, a_m) \in {}^{[n]}P_m$. Define the *prefix set* $P_m(a)$ as the set of all permutations in S_n which have a as a prefix. Then a vector $a \in {}^{[n]}P_m$ is encoded to a permutation vector in the prefix set $P_m(a)$ by choosing the permutation which minimizes the maximum level in the new state vector. Thus the rank modulation scheme encodes $\log_2 {}^nP_m \leq m \log_2 n$ bits of information as state vectors.

In comparison, for $q - 1 = m$, and for m a constant, a coset code $C = \mathbb{F}_q^n/\mathcal{D}$, where $\mathcal{D}$ has constant dimension δ (independent of n) has the same worst case rewrite cost. However the size of the coset code is $q^{n-\delta}$, and so it encodes $(n-\delta)\log_2 q$ bits of information on every write. The ratio of the number of encoded bits is lower bounded as

$$\frac{\log_2 |C|}{\log_2 {}^nP_m} \geq \frac{(n-\delta)\log_2 q}{m \log_2 n} = \frac{(n-\delta)\log_2 q}{(q-1)\log_2 n} \to \infty,$$

when $n \to \infty$. Thus, the coset coding scheme can encode asymptotically more information than the rank modulation scheme for same maximum rewrite cost. Note that this scheme uses the "entire space" in both the linear space and the permutation space and so provides no correction of random errors. Both the schemes can provide error correction in case of uniform charge leakage.

B. Comparison of Average Behavior

To compare the coset code constructions in Scheme B with Construction 18, we first ensure that the total number of discrete levels L are the same. Next, we ensure that the worst case cost of both the schemes are the same. Therefore, we fix $m = q-1$ and consider the optimal rank modulation code with this worst case cost. Finally, we consider linear codes and permutation codes of the same block length n. Given these constraints, we determine the average number of times we are able to rewrite by randomly choosing the next vector from the respective spaces. In the case of rank modulation code, this random vector is chosen by picking the best vector from the set $P_m(a)$ where $a \in {}^{[n]}P_m$ is randomly selected. For the linear code, a random coset in $\mathbb{F}_q^n/\mathcal{D}$ is chosen, where $\mathsf{j} \in \mathcal{D}$.

Fig. 2 shows the performance of the different schemes for $L = 16$, $n = 8$, $q = 3$, $m = 2$. Table I compares the parameters of the codes that are being simulated. The number of rewrites is averaged over 1000 trials. In each trial, we select words at

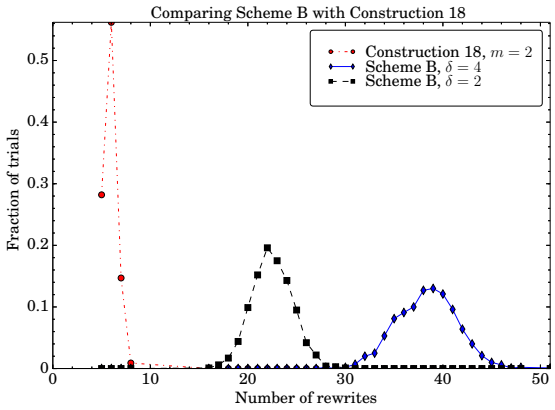

Fig. 2. Comparing Rank Modulation with Scheme B, $L = 16, n = 8, q = 3$

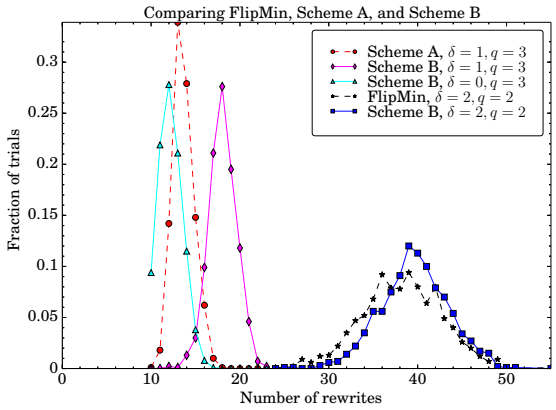

Fig. 3. Comparing Schemes A, B and FlipMin for $L = 16, n = 8$

random and we count the number of times we can rewrite until the level exceeds L. The horizontal axis shows the number of rewrites and the vertical axis shows the frequency of that number. The average number of rewrites of the rank modulation codes is 6, which is significantly lower than the average number of rewrites of the coset codes, viz. 22 for Scheme B with cosets of $\mathcal{D} = \langle 11110000, 00001111 \rangle$ and 38 for Scheme B with cosets of $\mathcal{D} = \langle 11000000, 00110000, 00001100, 00000011 \rangle$, even though the codes have the same worst case cost of rewrites.

To compare the performance of Scheme A with Scheme B, we consider the same coset code $C = \mathbb{F}_3^8/\mathcal{D}$, with $\mathcal{D} = \langle \mathrm{j}_8 \rangle$. The average number of rewrites in Scheme B is 18 which is larger than the average of 14 in Scheme A, and 12 for $\mathbb{F}_3^8$; see Fig. 3. We also compare the performance of Scheme B with the FlipMin scheme in Fig. 3, for $q = 2, \mathcal{D} = \langle \mathrm{j}_8, (\mathrm{j}_4, 0_4) \rangle$. FlipMin achieves an average of 38.2 rewrites, while Scheme B achieves 39.6 rewrites on average. Note that we increase the charge level in each cell individually in FlipMin. The figure also shows the effect of using different alphabets and cosets on the rewrite performance of Scheme A and Scheme B.

TABLE I
TABLE COMPARING THE SIZES AND INFORMATION BITS OF THE CODES USED IN THE DIFFERENT SCHEMES FOR $n = 8$

Scheme	Coset dim./Prefix len.	q	Size	Bits encoded
Construction 18	2	3	56	< 6
Scheme B	2	3	729	> 9
Scheme B	4	3	81	> 6
Scheme A/B	1	3	2187	> 11
Scheme B	0	3	6561	> 12
FlipMin/Scheme B	2	2	64	6

5. CONCLUSION

We introduce coset codes of linear codes to correct uniform charge leakage, improve rewritability, and to correct random errors in flash memory storage. It will be interesting to combine and study coset codes which can also address the problem of overshooting if we relax the requirement of careful charge injection during writing in flash memory.

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