

# Architectural Level Fault-Tolerance Techniques

EECE 513: Design of Fault-tolerant  
Digital Systems

# Learning Objectives

- List the techniques for improving the reliability of commodity & high end processors
- Design coding techniques for memory soft errors and evaluate their trade-offs
- Understand the benefits of chipkill ECC, sparing and scrubbing
- List the techniques used in the I/O sub-system

# High-Availability Systems

- **IBM G5 Mainframes**

- Duplicated execution units on each core
- Redundant CPU logic
- Inline checking in I/O subsystem
- ECC in memory and registers

- Error Recovery is accomplished using instruction retry
  - Transparent to the S/W

- **Tandem Non-Stop**

- Duplicated processors running in lock-step
- Process pairs for checking
- End-to-end disk checksums, CRC
- ECC in memory only

- Error recovery is achieved by swapping in backup processes
  - S/W needs to be involved in the failover

# Commodity Micro-processors

Source: **Recent Advances and New Avenues in Hardware-Level Reliability Support**, by Iyer, Nakka, Kalbarczyk and Mitra, IEEE Micro 2005.

Feature	Intel P6 family	AMD Hammer	Intel Itanium
Internal registers	Parity	No protection	No protection
L1 Data	Parity	L1 cache: parity; D cache: ECC	Parity
L2 Tag	Parity	Parity	Parity
L2 Data	ECC	ECC	8-bit ECC/ 64 data bits
L3 Tag	Parity	ECC	Parity
L3 Data	N/A	N/A	8-bit ECC/ 64 data bits
TLBs	N/A	N/A	3 parity bits
Buses	Parity ECC on CPU-L2 bus	Parity No protection	Parity No protection
Other features	Machine check architecture (MCA) to detect and correct errors in processor logic	MCA	Multilevel MCA; local and global MCA, hardware bus reset
Unique features	Functional redundancy checking using master/slave processors	Chipkill memory controller to support memory scrubbing; NX virus protection for Windows XP SP2	Multilevel error containment; watchdog timer; error logging and corrected error notification; NX virus protection

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# Memory Errors: History

- Memory elements have long been the target of soft-errors since the late 70's
  - In 1978 May and Woods reported "A New Physical Mechanism for Soft Errors in Dynamic Memories"
  - In 1979, "Alpha-Particle-Induced Soft Errors in Dynamic Memories."
  - SRAMs saw problems approximately 2 years later

# Soft Errors Today

Baumann, R.; , "The impact of technology scaling on soft error rate performance and limits to the efficacy of error correction," *Electron Devices Meeting, 2002*.

## DRAMs

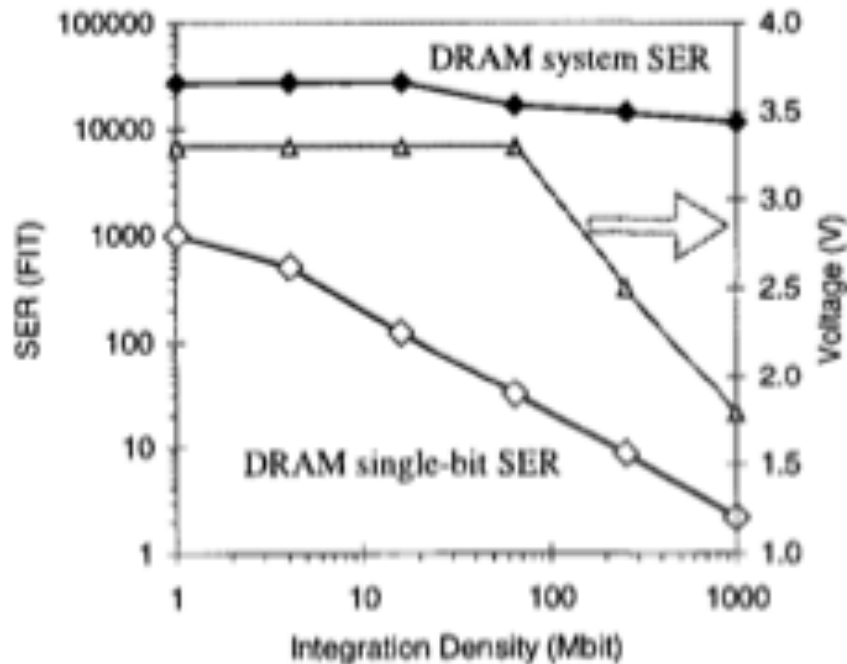


Figure 2. The single bit (white diamonds) and system (black diamonds) SER trends for DRAM as a function of technology node. The operating voltage at each node is represented by the curve with gray triangles.

## SRAMs

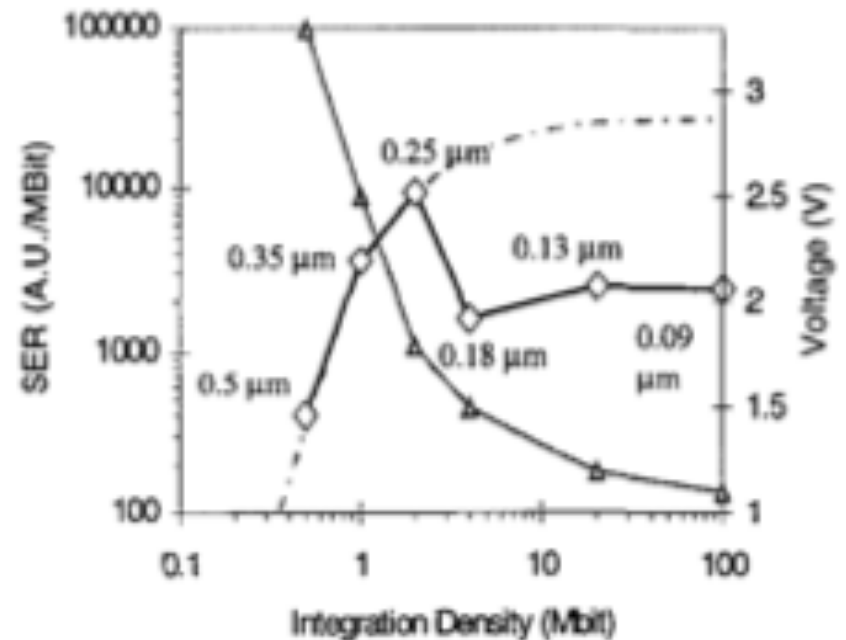


Figure 3. The single bit SER trend (white diamonds) in SRAM devices as a function of technology node. The rapid scaling down of operating voltages is evident shown by the curve with gray triangles. The  $\sim 10\times$  reduction in SER after the  $0.25\ \mu\text{m}$  node is the effect of removing BPSG.

# Error Trends in today's memories

- DRAM reliability has remained relatively constant over many years
  - Thanks to improvement in fabrication
  - May be different in eDRAMs and mobile DRAM
- SRAM reliability becoming an increasing concern with shrinking cell sizes and voltage
- DRAM hard errors are emerging as a problem [Schroeder'09][Dell'08]



# Parity Protection - 1

- Single bit added to each memory byte/word to detect a single error
  - Cannot detect multiple errors
  - Cannot correct the error
  - Affordable alternative to ECC memory



$$x_p = x_0 \wedge x_1 \wedge x_2 \wedge x_3 \wedge x_4 \wedge x_5 \wedge x_6 \wedge x_7$$

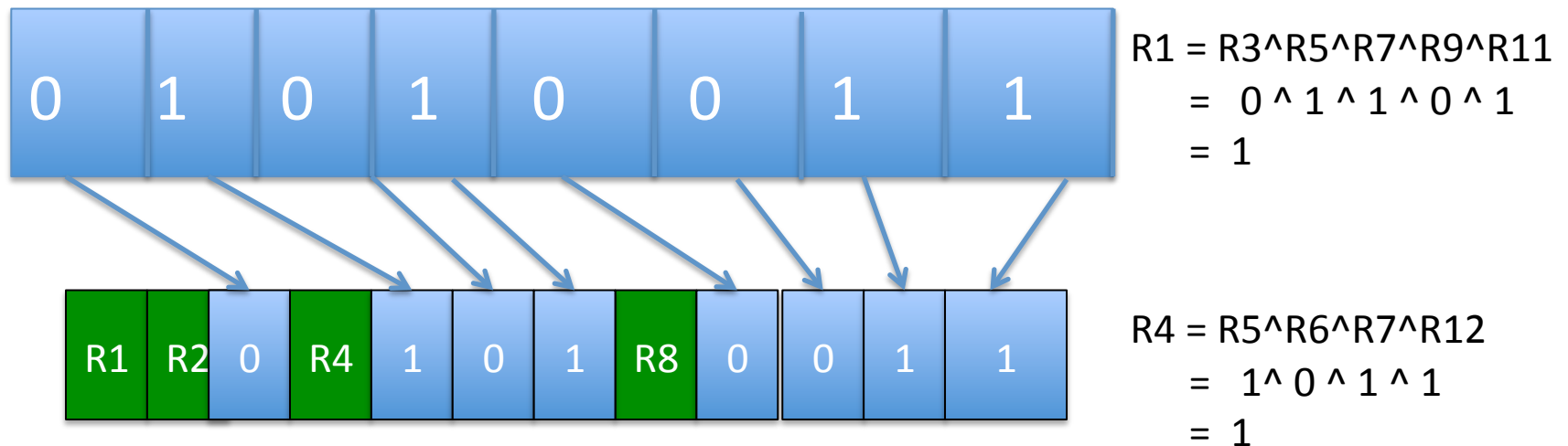
Parity bit – even parity

# Parity Protection - 2

- Requires an additional operation on reads/writes to memory → extra access latency
- Circuitry to compute parity bit is simple, but requires additional area and power
- Used mainly in SRAM structures where error rates were low and access times are important
- For DRAMs, no added benefit of using parity over ECC when the memory data width is greater than 8 bytes

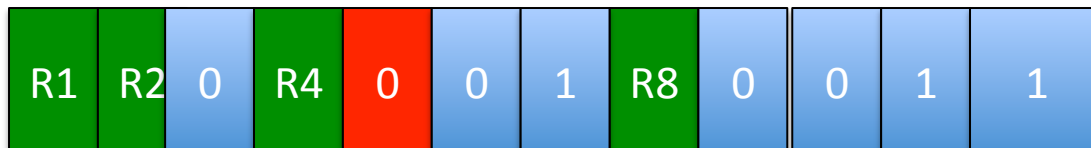
# ECC Memory - 1

- For every memory word of size 'n' bits, we need at least  $\log_2(n)$  bits of ECC memory
  - For 64 bit memory, we need at least 6 bits of ECC
  - The check bits are distributed throughout word
  - Each bit is protected by multiple checkbits given by the index (the sum of the checkbits matches index)



# ECC Memory - 2

- Let's say you had a single bit error in R5 (1→0)



Check Bits are recomputed and compared.

$$R1 = R3 \wedge R5 \wedge R7 \wedge R9 \wedge R11 = 0 \wedge 0 \wedge 1 \wedge 0 \wedge 1 = 0$$

$$R4 = R5 \wedge R6 \wedge R7 \wedge R12 = 0 \wedge 0 \wedge 1 \wedge 1 = 0$$

Both check-bits R1 and R4 differ from their computed values. These are called the syndromes. So we can infer that the bit R5 had an error in it, and can correct the error.

# ECC Memory - 3

- Let's say you errors in bits R5 and R7 (double-error)



Let's compute check-bits R1, R2 and R4

$$R1 = R3 \wedge R5 \wedge R7 \wedge R9 \wedge R11 = 0 \wedge 0 \wedge 0 \wedge 0 \wedge 1 = 1 \quad (\text{Same as prior value})$$

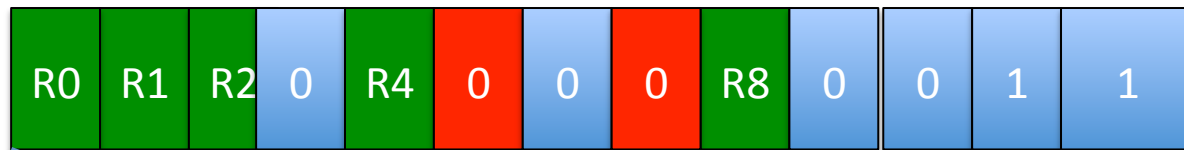
$$R2 = R3 \wedge R6 \wedge R7 \wedge R10 \wedge R11 = 0 \wedge 0 \wedge 0 \wedge 0 \wedge 1 = 1 \quad (\text{Differs from prior value})$$

$$R4 = R5 \wedge R6 \wedge R7 \wedge R12 = 0 \wedge 0 \wedge 0 \wedge 1 = 1 \quad (\text{Same as prior value})$$

**How do we distinguish this case from the one where bit R2 is corrupted ?**

# ECC Memory - 4

- Add an extra parity bit R0 for the entire word



Extra parity bit for the word is added

- In the case of a single bit error, both syndrome bit(s) and R0 bit will differ → can be corrected
- In case of a double error, only syndrome bit(s) differs → can be detected but not corrected

# ECC: Implementation Trade-offs

- ECC memory is not free !
  - Performance overheads for read/write operations
    - 3 to 4 % more for **PC133 CAS2 ECC SDRAM**
    - Up to 33 % for high-speed SRAMs
  - Area overhead for error-detection/correction ckts
    - 20 % die overheads
  - Additional costs as chipset support is needed
    - 10 to 25 % more for entire chip
  - Effectiveness: Corrects more than 90% of errors

Above nos. are from the Terazzon white paper.

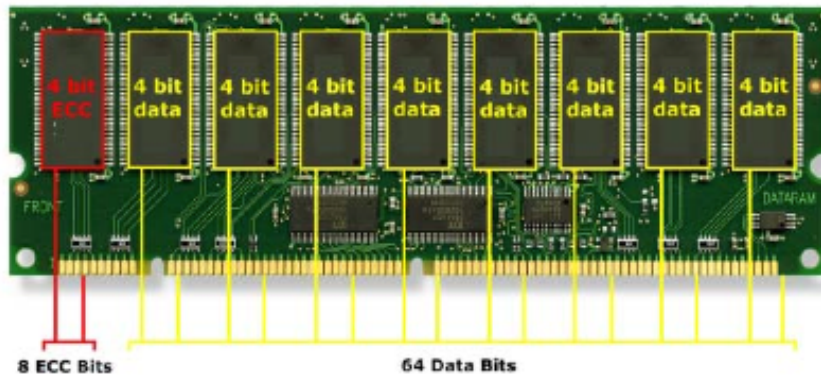
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# ChipKill ECC - 1

- ECC can detect 2 bit and correct 1 bit errors
  - Provided the entire memory chip does not fail
  - Chip failure can lead to data loss even with ECC



Traditional SEC/DED ECC  
for a 64-bit word with  
eight check-bits of ECC

# ChipKill ECC - 2

- Solution: Use Chip-kill ECC™ (IBM S/390)
  - Spread the ECC check bits over multiple chips
  - Bit-steering → Steer the checkbits of adjacent bits in a memory word to different words in the ECC

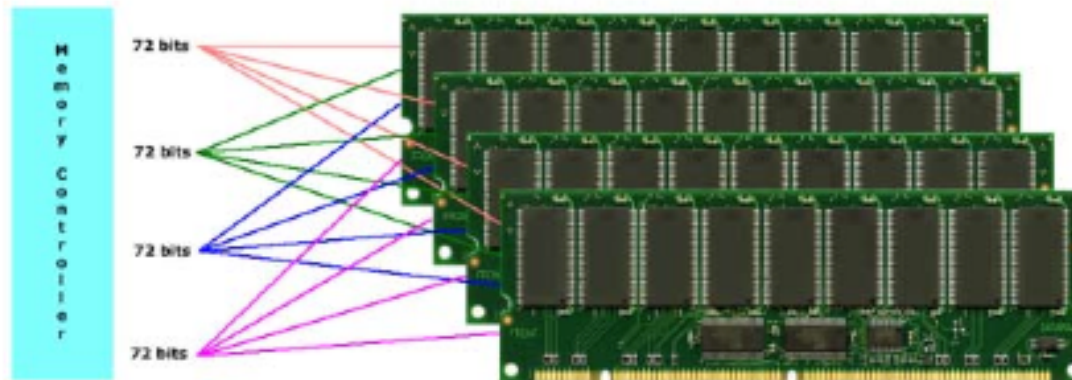


Figure 2

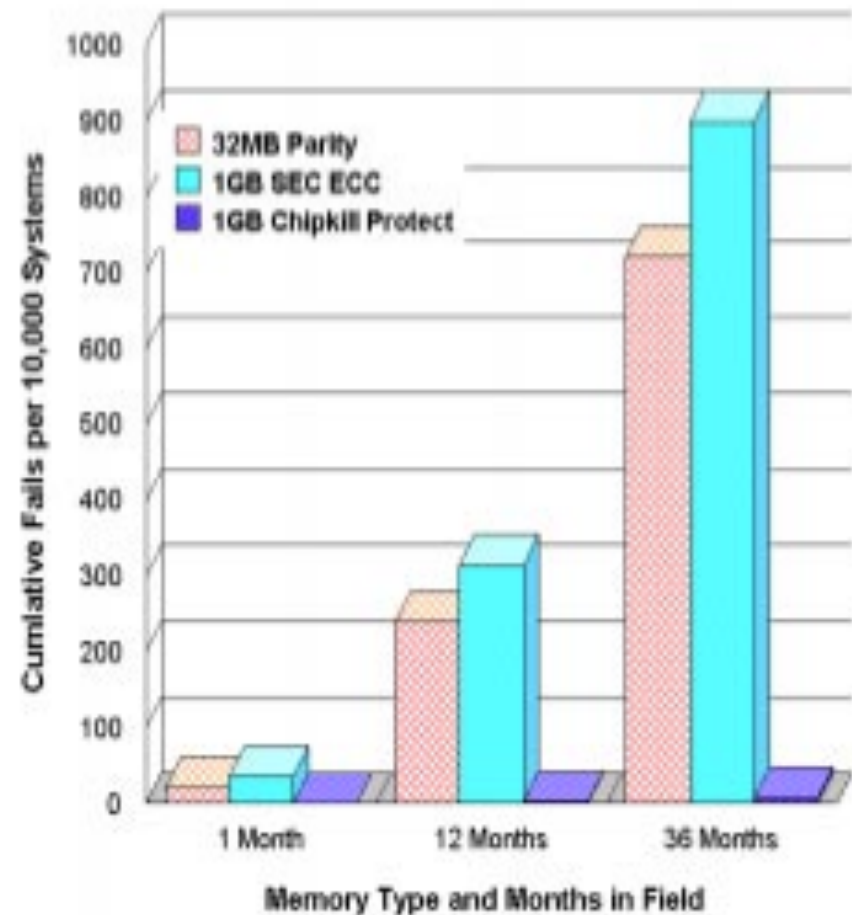
Chip-kill ECC  
Note how the bits are scattered across different modules

# ChipKill ECC: Implementation Tradeoffs

- Incurs four times the overhead of traditional ECC
  - Can be optimized using very wide ECC words
  - Provide detection of chip failures but not correction
- Compaq proposed a clever interleaving solution to combine two ECC words into one module
  - Provides the benefits of Chipkill ECC with only as much cost as parity protection
  - After a chip has failed, the Compaq ECC is unable to provide protection from single/double bit errors

# Parity, ECC and ChipKill- Comparison

- Simulation data gathered by IBM over 36 months comparing:
  - 32 MB Parity protected memory
  - 1 GB SEC ECC
  - 1 GB Chipkill ECC



# Other variations of ECC

- **Scrubbing**

- ECC memory only checks the bits during reads/writes
- However, infrequent accesses may lead to bit errors accumulating
- Solution: Scrub memory periodically by performing reads/writes to unaccessed memory

- **Sparing**

- Correlated or large area defects cannot be combated with ECC alone
- Use spare rows/columns in conjunction with ECC
- Leads to an order of magnitude reliability improvement over ECC alone for hard faults

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# I/O Sub-system - 1

- Disk and other storage media protected using RAID technologies
  - Fairly mature, industry standard
  - However, data is susceptible when it is buffered
  - Firmware controllers and I/O processor errors
- Need to ensure end-to-end consistency of data from I/O initiation to disk read/write

# I/O Sub-system - 2

- Techniques for end-to-end I/O checking
  - Checksums on data before and after reads
  - Checking of header fields for consistency
  - Watchdog timer for ensuring no deadlocks or livelocks of I/O devices
  - System-level consistency checks. e.g., read back data written to disk in chunks and check them
  - Use multiple file organizations to store data



# Summary

- Processor design must be self-checking
  - Error detection and recovery part of design
  - Duplication incurs upto 35 % area overheads (G5)
  - Commodity processors cannot afford such high costs
- Memory elements can be protected using ECC
  - ECC alone is not enough for chip failures -> chipkill
  - ECC has power, performance and area costs
- I/O systems need end-to-end consistency checks

# Further Reading

- T. Slegel et al. , IBM's S/390 G5 Microprocessor Design. *IEEE Micro* 19, 2 (Mar. 1999), pp.12-23.
- Soft Errors in Electronic Memory, A white paper by Terrazon Semiconductors, 2004.
- Baumann, R.; , "The impact of technology scaling on soft error rate performance and limits to the efficacy of error correction," *Electron Devices Meeting, 2002*.
- Timothy J. Dell, A White Paper on the Benefits of Chipkill-Correct ECC for PC Server Main Memory, (1997).
- Schroeder, B., Pinheiro, E., and Weber, W. 2009. DRAM errors in the wild: a large-scale field study. In *Proceedings of the Eleventh international Conference on Measurement and Modeling of Computer Systems*. SIGMETRICS '09.