

# The Design, Modeling, and Evaluation of the Relax Architectural Framework

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## Abstract

As transistor technology scales ever further, hardware reliability is becoming harder to manage. The effects of soft errors, variability, wear-out, and yield are intensifying to the point where it becomes difficult to harness the benefits of deeper scaling without mechanisms for hardware fault detection and correction. We observe that the combination of emerging applications and emerging many-core architectures makes software recovery a viable and interesting alternative to traditional, hardware-based fault recovery. Emerging applications tend to have *few I/O and memory side-effects*, which limits the amount of information that needs checkpointing, and they allow *discarding individual sub-computations* with typically minimal qualitative impact. Software recovery can harness these properties in ways that hardware recovery cannot. Additionally, emerging many-core architectures comprised of many simple, in-order cores pay heavily in terms of power and area for hardware checkpointing resources. Software recovery can be more efficient while it simultaneously simplifies hardware design complexity.

In this paper, we describe Relax, an architectural framework for software recovery of hardware faults. We describe Relax’s language, compiler, ISA, and hardware support, develop analytical models to project performance, and evaluate an implementation of the framework on the compute kernels of seven emerging applications. Applying Relax to counter the effects of process variation, we find that Relax can enable a 20% energy efficiency improvement for more than 80% of an application’s execution with only minimal source code changes.

## 1 Introduction

As CMOS technology scales, individual transistor components will soon consist of only a handful of atoms. At these sizes, transistors are extremely difficult to control in terms of their individual power and performance characteristics, their susceptibility to soft errors caused by particle strikes, the rate at which their performance degrades over time, and their manufacturability – concerns commonly referred to as *variability*, *soft errors*, *wear-out*, and *yield*, respectively. Already, the illusion that hardware is perfect is becoming hard to maintain at the VLSI circuit design, CAD, and manufacturing layers. Moreover, opportunities for energy efficiency are lost due to the conservative voltage and frequency assumptions necessary to overcome unpredictability.

This trend towards increasingly unreliable hardware has led to an abundance of work on hardware fault detection [19, 22, 24, 30, 33] and recovery [3, 7, 29, 35]. Additionally, researchers have explored architectural pruning [23] and timing speculation [10, 12, 13] as ways to mitigate chip design and manufacturing constraints. However, in all cases these proposals have focused on conventional applications running on conventional architectures, with a typical separation of hardware and software concerns.

In this paper, we observe two complementary trends in emerging applications and emerging architectures that favor a new overall architectural vision: hardware faults recovered in software. Below, we explain these trends, articulate the challenges in designing an architecture with software recovery, and finally outline the design, modeling, and evaluation of our proposed framework, Relax.

Emerging applications – applications that continue to drive increases in chip performance – include computer vision, data mining, search, media processing, and data-intensive scientific applications. Many of these applications have two distinct characteristics that make them interesting from a reliability perspective. First, and a key observation unique to this work, is that many have *few memory side-effects* at the core of their computation. In particular, state-modifying I/O operations are rare and memory operations are primarily loads, because the compute regions of these applications perform reductions over large amounts of data. Second, for many emerging applications, a perfect answer is not attainable due to the inherent computational complexity of the problem and/or noisy input data. Therefore, they employ approximation techniques to maximize the qualitative “usefulness” of their output. This suggests that these applications might be *error tolerant*, which has been observed in prior work as well [5, 9, 20, 21, 39]. In this paper, we specifically explore the phenomenon that the application can *discard* computations in the event of an error.

The concurrent architecture trend is that massively multi-core architectures are emerging to meet the computational demands of emerging applications [11, 14, 17]. These architectures often employ simple, in-order cores to maximize throughput and energy efficiency with little or no support for speculative execution or buffering. Hence, the paradigm that hardware misspeculation-recovery mechanisms can be repurposed for error recovery does not apply for these architectures. The valuable chip real estate that would otherwise be devoted to hardware recovery resources could be better spent elsewhere if software recovery were efficient.

Overall, the combination of limited side-effects and error tolerance that exists in large portions of emerging applications renders hardware recovery inflexible, unnecessarily conservative, and too expensive for emerging many-core architectures. Figure 1 shows the evolutionary path to software recovery considering

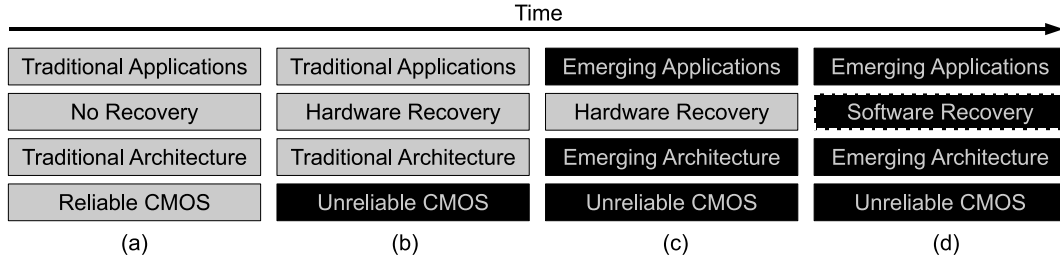


Figure 1: The evolution of hardware, architecture, and applications in the context of Relax.

these trends in hardware, architecture, and applications. Historically, traditional applications running on traditional superscalar processor architectures built with perfect CMOS devices required no recovery (Figure 1(a)). Even with imperfect CMOS, these applications still work best utilizing hardware recovery when running on traditional processor architectures (Figure 1(b)). However, with emerging applications running on emerging many-core architectures, hardware recovery introduces the inefficiencies we have described (Figure 1(c)). In the future, while hardware substrates will be unreliable, we require mechanisms that provide flexibility to software and keep the architecture simple. An architecture that exposes hardware errors to allow software recovery enables synergy between applications and architectures as shown in Figure 1(d).

The design of a system architecture that allows software recovery of hardware faults involves many important questions and challenges. The first and most obvious question is whether changes to the ISA are necessary. To answer this question, we refer to prior studies that show application tolerance to arbitrary instruction-level errors is very poor [5, 9, 21, 20, 39]. Operations relating to control flow and memory accesses are failure prone and constitute a large percentage of application operations. For an architecture to allow reasonably fine-grained software recovery without ISA changes, it would be necessary for the hardware to somehow distinguish these “critical” operations from the “non-critical” operations as it executes code. To date, no one has proposed an efficient way to do this. Hence, ISA support appears necessary.

The next logical question concerns what form ISA support should take. Software recovery of hardware faults has been proposed before in the context of software detection, using compiler-automated triple-modular redundancy (TMR) [7]. TMR makes sense when the overhead of detection is already very high, as is the case with comprehensive software detection. However, it is expensive and does not allow the application to exploit error tolerance. A more efficient solution that allows an application to choose its own form of recovery is closer to ideal.

Yet still more questions follow: How might the application writer express software recovery in the appli-

ation? How can applications be designed to behave predictably when errors occur non-deterministically? Are there ways in which the software development process can be automated or assisted? What should be the hardware organization – should all cores have no recovery support, or just some cores? Are there special considerations for the hardware microarchitecture?

In this paper, we propose a holistic architectural framework, called Relax, that provides specific answers to each of these questions. We divide Relax into three core components: (1) an ISA extension, (2) hardware support to implement the Relax ISA, and (3) software support for applications to use the Relax ISA. We discuss each component in a separate section:

- **ISA extension:** In Section 2, we describe the Relax ISA extension, which enables software to register a fault handler for a region of code. The extension allows applications to encode behavior similar to the *try/catch* behavior found in modern programming languages. The ISA behavior is intuitive to programmers, and the compiler and hardware combine to make guarantees about the state of the program as the region is executed. We also provide a rigorous definition of the ISA’s semantics.
- **Hardware support:** We cover the hardware support for Relax in Section 3. The Relax ISA’s semantics allow hardware design simplification and provide energy efficiency by relaxing the reliability constraints of the hardware. We describe support for fault detection and discuss hardware organizations that support Relax. We show that mechanisms such as aggressive voltage scaling, frequency overlocking, and turning off recovery mechanisms provide adaptive support for Relax. We also consider statically heterogeneous architectures, where cores are constructed with different reliability guarantees at design time.
- **Software support:** In Section 4, we develop a C/C++ language-level recovery construct to expose the Relax ISA extension to developers. We propose two key ideas: *relax blocks* to mark regions that may experience a hardware fault, and optional *recover blocks* to specify recovery code if a fault occurs. Our results indicate promise for alternative forms of application support as well, such as automated support through compiler static analysis or profile-guided compilation.

To support Relax, we develop performance models to guide the development of “relaxed” applications. The models, discussed in Section 5, determine the efficiency of Relax based on application and architecture characteristics and can be used to compute the achievable efficiency improvements for a given application,

recovery behavior, and architecture combination. We evaluate Relax in Sections 6 and 7, where we apply our language construct and Relax compiler to real applications, and simulate how Relax enables energy efficiency gains using process variation as a case study. We discuss related work in Section 8, and we conclude in Section 9.

## 2 ISA Support

In this section, we discuss the ISA component of the Relax framework. In Section 2.1, we describe the Relax ISA extension and briefly introduce our language-level construct, which we use to illustrate how high-level recovery behavior is mapped onto the ISA. In Section 2.2 we describe the ISA semantics in detail.

### 2.1 ISA & Compiler Support

We sketch a simple C function example to motivate and explain software recovery, and use this example to introduce Relax’s ISA extension. Code Listing 1 shows a simple C function and how it is augmented with Relax support and compiled to a sequence of instructions. Listing 1(a) shows the simple summation function and Listing 1(b) shows this function augmented to use Relax. The function uses our *relax/recover* construct, which is analogous to the *try/catch* construct of high-level languages that support exceptions. For the purposes of the example, the next paragraph provides a brief overview of the construct. Section 4 gives more details and uses.

In Code Listing 1(b), all code except the return statement is wrapped in a *relax block*. Code inside a *relax block* is susceptible to failure, where a hardware fault detected inside the block constitutes failure. The optional variable *rate* specifies a *relax block*’s probability of failure. Without it, the hardware dictates this probability independent of the application. In some situations, this variable is important to make reasonable guarantees about the quality of an application’s output. If a failure occurs, control transfers to the *recover block*. In this case, the *recover block* contains a *retry* statement, which causes re-execution of the *relax block*.

To support this behavior through the ISA, Code Listing 1(c) shows the assembly code for this function with the Relax additions highlighted. For readability, we use symbolic register names rather than numbered registers. A single instruction (`rlx`) communicates the start and end of *relax blocks* to the hardware. When used to enter a *relax block*, the `rlx` instruction optionally reads a general purpose register containing the

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**Code Listing 1** A simple summation function (a) modified to use Relax (b) and the assembly output produced by the compiler (c). For (c), the Relax additions are in bold. The RECOVER label can be folded away but is included for clarity.

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<pre>int sum(int *list, int len) {     int sum = 0;     for (int i = 0; i &lt; len; ++i) {         sum += list[i];     }     return sum; }</pre>	<pre>ENTRY:     <b>rlx</b> <b>\${rate}</b>, RECOVER # Relax on     mv 0 -&gt; \$sum     ble \$len, 0, EXIT LOOP_PREHEADER:     mv 0 -&gt; \$i LOOP:     sll \$i, 2 -&gt; \$tmp     ld [\$list + \$tmp] -&gt; \$tmp     add \$sum, \$tmp -&gt; \$sum     add \$i, 1 -&gt; \$i     blt \$i, \$len, LOOP EXIT:     <b>rlx</b> 0 # Relax off     ret \$sum RECOVER: # Relax automatically off     jmp ENTRY</pre>
(a)	
<pre>int sum(int *list, int len) {     <b>relax</b> (rate) {         int sum = 0;         for (int i = 0; i &lt; len; ++i) {             sum += list[i];         }     } <b>recover</b> { <b>retry</b>; }     return sum; }</pre>	
(b)	(c)

---

desired failure rate, as well as the offset of the PC address to the recovery block, to which the hardware automatically transfers control on failure. The same instruction with a PC offset of 0 signals the end of the relax block. Within the relax block, the execution semantics of the hardware are relaxed. A rigorous definition of what this means follows in Section 2.2.

Compiler support for Relax is relatively straightforward. The compiler sets up the recovery block and adds compensating code to save or recover state if necessary. In the case of the example function, the function has no side-effects and therefore has no state, beyond its input state, that needs to be restored in the event of a failure. If a failure occurs inside the function, it is sufficient to simply jump back to the beginning of the function, as Code Listing 1(c) demonstrates, with the guarantee that the input registers have not been overwritten. The compiler transparently enforces this guarantee simply by knowing that such a control path exists, thereby effectively implementing a software checkpoint. The checkpoint is extremely lightweight: the compiler only saves state that is strictly required. In this case, the two inputs, `list` and `len`, must either be saved to the program stack or must occupy available registers. Five physical registers are needed to store all the live variables in this function. If five are available, Relax adds no software overhead.

## 2.2 ISA Semantics

Relax allows instructions to commit potentially erroneous state, while the compiler ensures that this state is either discarded or overwritten after the fault is discovered and recovery is initiated. For the compiler to ensure recovery from the fault, the resulting error must be a *Locally Correctable Error* (LCE), as defined by Sridharan et al. [36]. Hence, the error must be spatially and temporally contained, which forces the following hardware constraints:

1. Errors must be spatially contained to the target resources of a relax block's execution. In other words, an instruction must not commit corrupted state to a register or memory location not written to by other instructions in the relax block. For stores, this means that a store must not commit if its destination address is corrupt, or if the store is reached through erroneous control flow. A simple (but high overhead) way to handle this is to stall on the error detection logic prior to committing a store. For other instructions that write only to registers, a tight coupling between the detection logic of the destination register datapath and the instruction commit logic enables rapid resolution of writes to incorrect destination registers.
2. The contents of memory locations must not spontaneously change, e.g. due to a particle strike. Relax depends on traditional mechanisms such as ECC to protect memories, caches, and registers from soft errors. Other errors that cannot be temporally contained to the scope of a relax block, such as most faults in the cache coherence or cache writeback logic, are also not recoverable by Relax.
3. Arbitrary control flow is not allowed. Control flow must follow the program's static control flow edges. Note that faulty control *decisions* are still acceptable since the static control flow is not violated.
4. Hardware exceptions must not trigger until hardware detection ensures that the exception is not the result of an undetected hardware fault.
5. Specifically under retry behavior (as in the example of Code Listing 1), an instruction may not store to a volatile address: on re-execution, the store might write to a different address and the initial store is then an irreversible data corruption. Atomic read-modify-write operations, such as an atomic increment, are also problematic to handle under retry behavior without violating the atomicity constraint. For this reason, relax blocks using retry may not currently contain any atomic read-modify-write operations.

```

RECOVER:
✓  rlx ${1/rate}, RECOVER
✓  mv  0 -> $sum
✓  ble $len, 0, EXIT
X  mv  0 -> $i
   sll $i, 2 -> $tmp
?  ld  [$list + $tmp] -> $tmp

```

Figure 2: An example illustrating Relax’s execution behavior.

Execution may leave a relax block once the hardware detection guarantees error-free execution. In the event of an error, the hardware must trigger recovery at some point before execution leaves the relax block.

An example that illustrates Relax’s ISA semantics in action is shown in Figure 2. It uses the instruction stream from Code Listing 1(c). The `rlx`, `mv`, and `ble` instructions all complete and commit successfully but a fault occurs executing the second `mv` that is initially undetected and so the instruction commits as normal. Next, the result of the `sll` instruction is pipeline bypassed to the `ld` instruction. When the `ld` executes it triggers a page fault exception due to its corrupted input address. Before the exception is handled, the hardware waits for the detection to catch up. The fault from the `mv` is detected and execution jumps back to the `RECOVER` label.

### 3 Hardware Support

In this section, we present the hardware component of Relax. The Relax ISA’s main hardware benefits are design simplification and energy efficiency, while the key hardware requirement is fault detection. We first discuss Relax’s hardware benefits, followed by the hardware detection support. We conclude with a description of the overall hardware organization.

#### 3.1 Hardware Simplification

Relax provides several hardware benefits. First, the hardware need not provide support for buffering, check-pointing, or rollback for software-recoverable errors. Second, complicated techniques to combat parameter variations and wear-out, such as fine-grained body biasing [37], are less useful under Relax because, by design, variations are more tolerable. Finally, Relax reduces hardware design complexity because design margins to account for silicon uncertainty can be relaxed. This also potentially further improves energy

efficiency, as it allows hardware to be designed for correct and efficient operation under common case conditions, but with possible failures under dynamically worst case conditions. The overall result is hardware that is error-prone, but is easier to design and potentially more energy efficient. In Section 7, we consider timing faults from process variations and show how Relax provides energy efficiency and design complexity benefits.

### 3.2 Hardware Detection

Relax requires support for low-latency fault detection in hardware. Two viable alternatives are Argus [22] and redundant multi-threading (RMT) [24]. Argus provides comprehensive error detection specifically targeted at simple cores, and RMT runs two copies of a program on separate hardware threads and compares their outputs to detect faults. In addition, Razor [10] describes support for adaptive failure rate monitoring for timing faults. Relax requires a similar mechanism to ensure the fault rate remains stable if the `rlx` instruction's target fault rate input is specified.

### 3.3 Hardware Organization

While hardware that implements Relax everywhere and has no recovery support at all is the ideal, it is disruptively different from existing hardware and requires complete software support. Other configurations that partially implement Relax can be incrementally built into existing hardware organizations. In this section, we consider in detail three such organizations with both relaxed hardware and normal hardware, where relax blocks execute on relaxed hardware and other code executes on normal hardware.

Whether hardware is relaxed or not can be configured either statically or dynamically. In the static case, two types of cores are used: relaxed cores and normal cores. Relax blocks are off-loaded to relaxed cores and other code executes on normal cores. The relaxed cores can use less design guardband and do not need any hardware recovery mechanism. In the dynamic case, circuit techniques like voltage scaling or frequency over-clocking are used to execute relaxed blocks with improved overall efficiency and/or hardware recovery support can be adaptively disabled.

The type of hardware organization affects the performance of Relax. In particular, two costs dictated by the hardware are important: (1) the cost in cycles to detect and initiate recovery, and (2) the cost in cycles to transition into and out of relax blocks. Table 1 gives estimates for these two costs for three different

<b>Relaxed Hardware Implementation</b>	<b>Recover Cost</b>	<b>Transition Cost</b>
Fine-grained tasks	5	5
DVFS	5	50
Architectural core salvaging	50	0

Table 1: Parameters for three alternative relaxed hardware designs.

hardware alternatives we examine.

The first alternative is a statically configured architecture with support for fine-grained parallelism, where relax blocks are enqueued on a neighboring, unreliable core with low latency (e.g. Carbon [17]). The cost to recover is the cost of a pipeline flush, approximated at 5 cycles for a simple in-order core, and the cost to transition is the time to enqueue a task, which we estimate at 5 cycles. The second alternative is a dynamically configured architecture that uses dynamic frequency and voltage scaling (DVFS) to enter and exit relax blocks (e.g. Paceline [12]). The cost to recover is again just the cost of a pipeline flush, and we approximate the cost of DVFS at 50 cycles, which the work of Kim et al. suggests is reasonable for on-chip DVFS [15]. Finally, we consider an organization where hardware recovery is adaptively disabled and a thread swap occurs with a neighboring core in the event of a fault (e.g. Architectural Core Salvaging [28]). We assume the cost of a thread swap to recover is 50 cycles, with no cost to transition. We revisit the values in Table 1 when we discuss performance models in Section 5.

## 4 Software Support

In this section, we use the recovery construct introduced in Section 2.1 to demonstrate how Relax enables the implementation of flexible and efficient recovery policies in software through a series of example use cases. Our use cases derive from the code shown in Code Listing 2, adapted from the `x264` video encoding application. The listing shows a C function returning the *sum of absolute differences* over the array inputs `left` and `right`. It provides an example of a computation that is well suited for software-level recovery.

Although this example is taken from `x264`, many modern, computationally-intensive applications employ computation such as this, i.e. reduction, at the core of their execution. `x264` uses a two-dimensional version of this function to search for a predicted frame macroblock’s most similar reference frame macroblock. The function measures similarity by performing a pixel by pixel comparison over two macroblocks. A high

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**Code Listing 2** The *sum of absolute differences* code example that is the basis for all use cases.

---

```
int sad(int *left, int *right, int len) {
    int sum = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < len; ++i)
        sum += abs(left[i] - right[i]);
    return sum;
}
```

---

similarity presents redundancy that can be exploited to minimize the amount of information encoded. The overall process is called motion estimation, which allows for better data compression. The four use cases we explore each perform a different type of recovery over this function. We consider two high-level recovery behaviors: retry (RE) and discard (DI), furthermore distinguished by their granularities: coarse-grained (CO) and fine-grained (FI). Table 2 illustrates the resulting taxonomy.

**Use Case 1: Coarse-Grained Retry (CORE).** Relax and recover blocks can be used to implement coarse-grained retry (CORE) as shown in the upper-left quadrant of Table 2. This case is the same as shown for the example presented in Section 2.1. Just like the `sum` function, the `sad` function has no memory side-effects and therefore execution can simply jump back to the beginning of the function if a fault occurs, provided the inputs are still available. The Relax compiler performs a control flow analysis over the relax block, sets up the recovery code, and adds compensating code to save or recover state if necessary.

**Use Case 2: Coarse-Grained Discard (CODI).** Three difficulties with CORE are that it (1) potentially requires saving and restoring software state, (2) requires a retry mechanism that can deflect recurring failures, and (3) can hurt performance predictability. For error-tolerant applications, particularly those with real-time constraints, a potentially better alternative is to simply abort the function and return a value that indicates the function output should be disregarded. The code in the upper-right quadrant of Table 2 explores this alternative. In the case of `x264`, returning a maximum integer value effectively tells the application to disregard this macroblock pair and continue looking. Similar to CORE, this use case operates at a coarse granularity.

**Use Case 3: Fine-Grained Retry (FIRE).** Another alternative to CORE is to retry at a finer granularity to minimize the amount of wasted work on failure. This can be done simply by moving the relax block into the loop as shown in the lower-left quadrant of Table 2. In this case, each individual accumulation is retried

	Retry	Discard
Coarse-grained	<pre>int sad(int *left, int *right, int len) {   relax (rate) {     int sum = 0;     for (int i = 0; i &lt; len; ++i)       sum += abs(left[i] - right[i]);   } recover { retry; }   return sum; }</pre> <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Use Case 1 (CORE)</b></p>	<pre>int sad(int *left, int *right, int len) {   relax (rate) {     int sum = 0;     for (int i = 0; i &lt; len; ++i)       sum += abs(left[i] - right[i]);   } recover { return INT_MAX; }   return sum; }</pre> <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Use Case 2 (CODI)</b></p>
Fine-grained	<pre>int sad(int *left, int *right, int len) {   int sum = 0;   for (int i = 0; i &lt; len; ++i)     relax (rate) {       sum += abs(left[i] - right[i]);     } recover { retry; }   return sum; }</pre> <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Use Case 3 (FIRE)</b></p>	<pre>int sad(int *left, int *right, int len) {   int sum = 0;   for (int i = 0; i &lt; len; ++i)     relax (rate) {       sum += abs(left[i] - right[i]);     }   return sum; }</pre> <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Use Case 4 (FIDI)</b></p>

Table 2: Our four use cases classified by granularity and recovery behavior.

on failure. Since the last instruction of the relax block is the accumulation onto `sum`, the old value of `sum` can be immediately overwritten as the block terminates.

**Use Case 4: Fine-Grained Discard (FIDI).** For functions that allow approximate output, individual accumulation values can be discarded as shown in the lower-right quadrant of Table 2. Note that there is only a single relax block and no recover block. The resulting behavior is as if there was a recover block that was empty (omitting it enhances readability). Without the recover block, the variable `sum` has two possible values at the end of the relax block: either it has been updated with the new value, or it is unchanged. This achieves the desired behavior: on failure, the accumulation value is discarded.

#### 4.1 Nesting and Error Propagation

The disadvantage of FIRE and FIDI over CORE and CODI is the reduced coverage over the function; i.e. fewer instructions are relaxed. Nesting can overcome this as shown in Code Listing 3. It shows the nesting of FIRE inside CORE.

The behavior for nested relax blocks should be a straightforward extension of the normal behavior: execution inside relax blocks is relaxed even when nested inside another relax block, and failures cause control

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**Code Listing 3** FIRE nested inside CORE.

---

```
int sad(int *left, int *right, int len) {
    relax (rate1) {
        int sum = 0;
        for (int i = 0; i < len; ++i) {
            relax (rate2) {
                sum += abs(left[i] - right[i]);
            } recover { retry; }
        }
    } recover { retry; }
    return sum;
}
```

---

to transfer to the end of the innermost relax block. Architecturally, the only requirement to implement this behavior is micro-architectural support for a stack-like structure to store the stack of failure destination addresses, akin to the Return Address Stack (RAS) in modern microprocessors.

In our current design, recover blocks nested inside relax blocks are not relaxed to allow for the case where recover blocks are required to execute correctly to communicate meta-information, such as where the failure occurred, upward. The capability to propagate failures upward we have left as future work.

## 5 Analytical Models

Relax provides hardware energy efficiency improvements by removing the need for hardware recovery support while still allowing hardware faults to occur. However, there are software overheads associated with Relax. In the case of retry behavior, there is the potential cost of saving and restoring state, and also the overhead of the wasted time spent executing failed relax block executions. In the case of discard behavior, failed relax block executions reduce the application’s output quality (e.g. image sharpness). To compensate, the application must be configured at a higher quality setting (e.g. more iterations) to achieve the same output quality. This introduces execution time overhead.

In this section, we develop a set of analytical models to help developers reason about the various efficiency considerations. One of the key outcomes of our models is that, depending on application, recovery behavior (e.g. retry vs. discard), and architecture characteristics, we can determine the specific fault rate that maximizes overall efficiency. The models are extended from the probabilistic models for the performance overhead of backward error recovery developed by De Kruijf et al. [8]. We focus on energy efficiency

and specifically energy-delay product (*EDP*), although our methodology can be trivially extended to other metrics.

## 5.1 The Optimal Fault Rate for Retry

The efficiency of retry behavior is dictated by the improved efficiency of the hardware executing with faults, tempered by the overhead of re-executing after each fault. For the overhead of re-execution, De Kruijf et al. develop a probabilistic model for the performance overhead of a backward error recovery solution given a per-cycle error rate [8]. The model uses two input parameters: *cycles*, which denotes the execution time in cycles between checkpoints, and *restore*, which denotes the cost in cycles of restoring the checkpoint and initiating re-execution.

As a beginning step, the model defines two functions: *failures*, which denotes the number of failed attempts to execute over a checkpoint, and *waste*, which denotes the number of wasted execution cycles that must be discarded when an error occurs. Both functions take as input the per-cycle error rate, *rate*. The two functions combine to give the overhead of error recovery as follows:

$$\text{overhead}(\text{rate}) = \text{failures}(\text{rate}) \cdot (\text{waste}(\text{rate}) + \text{restore}) \quad (1)$$

De Kruijf et al. apply probability theory to resolve the functions *failures* and *waste* to:

$$\text{failures}(\text{rate}) = \frac{1}{(1 - \text{rate})^{\text{cycles}}} - 1$$

$$\text{waste}(\text{rate}) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{\text{cycles}} k(1 - \text{rate})^{k-1} \text{rate}}{1 - (1 - \text{rate})^{\text{cycles}}}$$

In applying this model to Relax, we equate a relax block with a checkpoint interval, and redefine *cycles* to be the execution time of a relax block. We also assume there is no overhead to set up a software checkpoint so that *restore* is fully determined by the hardware’s latency to initiate recovery. Finally, we introduce an additional input, *transition*, to denote the cost of transitions into and out of relax blocks. The transition cost is paid once when the relax block is initially executed, and then once again for each re-execution, where the number of re-executions corresponds with *failures*. Hence, we produce the overhead function for Relax, *overhead'*, which is:

$$overhead'(rate) = overhead(rate) + transition \cdot (1 + failures(rate)) \quad (2)$$

With the function  $overhead'$ , the relative execution time of retry behavior relative to without retry behavior,  $exec\_time$ , is computed as follows:

$$exec\_time(rate) = \frac{cycles + overhead'(rate)}{cycles} \quad (3)$$

We now have a model to mathematically compute the overheads of the recovery mechanism. With a function that gives the energy efficiency of the hardware executing at a given error rate, we can compute the overall efficiency of retry behavior at the different error rates, relative to error-free execution. As previously mentioned, we assume the efficiency goal is to minimize the *energy delay* of the system, measured as the energy-delay product, which we abbreviate as  $EDP$ , where  $EDP = power \cdot delay^2$ . For software, retry behavior affects *delay* proportionally to the change in execution time, represented by Equation 3. For the hardware, we assume we have some function  $EDP_{hw}$  that maps hardware fault rate to relative change in hardware  $EDP$ . With these definitions, the overall change in  $EDP$  of the system using retry behavior ( $EDP_{retry}$ ) is given by the equation below. Solving for the derivative of this equation set to zero yields the fault rate that minimizes  $EDP$ .

$$EDP_{retry}(rate) = EDP_{hw}(rate) \cdot exec\_time(rate)^2 \quad (4)$$

**Usage Example.** Equation 7 allows us to plot  $rate$  vs.  $EDP$  for different configurations of  $cycles$ ,  $restore$ , and  $transition$ . For a relax block where  $cycles$  is roughly 1170, Figure 3 shows a graph evaluating each of the three hardware-specific values for  $restore$  and  $transition$  given in columns 2 and 3 of Table 1.

The solid curve shows a hypothetical  $EDP_{hw}$  mapping, which represents the ideal case. The derivation of this mapping is given in Section 6.4. The dotted curve considers fine-grained tasks, the dash-dotted curve considers DVFS, and the dashed curve considers architectural core salvaging.

The figure shows that, for these three hypothetical design points, Relax provides an approximately 21.9%, 18.8%, and 22.1% optimal EDP reduction for each, respectively. The optimal fault rates are in the range  $1.5e^{-5}$  to  $3.0e^{-5}$  faults per cycle.

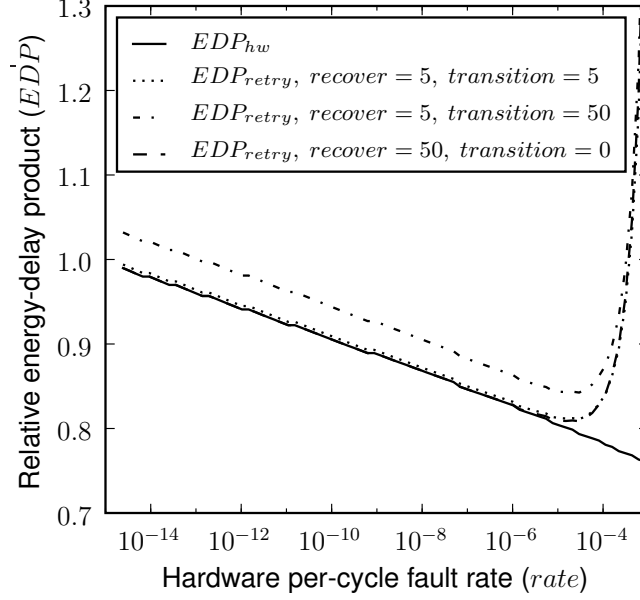


Figure 3: A mapping from fault rate to  $EDP$  for different architectural parameters.

## 5.2 The Optimal Fault Rate for Discard

The challenge with discard behavior is that an application’s output quality (e.g. image sharpness) is no longer just a function of the application’s input quality setting (e.g. number of iterations), but also of the relax block fault rate. The efficiency function for discard behavior,  $EDP_{discard}$ , has the same hardware efficiency function as for retry, but the execution time function is different as follows. We use the same variables as defined in Section 5.1.

Let the random variable  $X$  denote the number of cycles executed before an error occurs.  $X$  has a geometric distribution with  $P(X = k) = (1 - rate)^{k-1}rate$ . If we let  $p_{succ}$  denote the probability of an error-free execution between checkpoints, then  $p_{succ} = P(X > cycles) = (1 - rate)^{cycles}$ . For discard behavior, execution succeeds with probability  $p_{succ}$  and fails with probability  $1 - p_{succ}$ . On success, the execution time contribution is  $transition + cycles$  and on failure it is  $transition + waste(rate)$ . Hence, we define:

$$cost_{succ} = transition + cycles$$

$$cost_{fail}(rate) = transition + waste(rate)$$

Then, as with Equation 3 from Section 5.1, the relative execution time of retry behavior relative to without retry behavior is:

$$exec\_time(rate) = \frac{p_{succ} \cdot cost_{succ} + (1 - p_{succ}) \cdot (cost_{fail}(rate))}{cycles} \quad (5)$$

However, this equation does not consider quality degradation. To control for quality, we define a function, *quality*, that maps an input quality and an error rate to an output quality for a given application. That is, for a target output quality  $q_o$  and an input quality setting  $q_i$ ,  $quality(q_i, rate) = q_o$ . Then, the constraint  $quality(q_i, rate) = quality(q_{i_{base}}, 0)$  for input qualities  $q_i$  and  $q_{i_{base}}$  ensures that output quality remains constant with Relax (left-hand side) relative to without Relax (right-hand side). With quality held constant, we next define a function, *visits*, that maps a quality input setting to the number of times the relax block is executed at that setting. Our use of this function assumes that the quality setting controls the number of times a relax block is executed, which is true for all applications we studied. With the quality constraint in place and *visits* defined, a refined version of *exec.time* that holds quality constant,  $exec\_time'$ , is computed as follows:

$$exec\_time'(q_i, rate) = \frac{visits(q_i) \cdot exec\_time(rate)}{visits(q_{i_{base}})} \quad (6)$$

Using the same analysis and the same  $EDP_{hw}$  hardware efficiency function as in Section 5.1, the function for the overall energy efficiency of discard behavior,  $EDP_{discard}$ , is as follows:

$$EDP_{discard}(rate) = EDP_{hw}(rate) \cdot exec\_time'(rate)^2 \quad (7)$$

**Usage Example.** A second application we consider in our evaluation, *canneal*, is particularly well behaved under discard behavior and is a good candidate to demonstrate how Equation 6 can be used. Like *x264*, *canneal* uses a sum-of-absolute-differences computation, which it uses to compute routing costs between elements in a hardware netlist. The particular block we consider has *cycles* of roughly 2840.

The *quality* function for *canneal* is not known in advance. Figures 4(a) and 4(b) illustrate a method for computing it. Figure 4(a) shows on the  $x$ -axis a range of input settings that adjust the quality of the application's output. (e.g.  $\{q_{i_1}, \dots, q_{i_{60}}\}$ ). For each of these input settings, the application is run over a

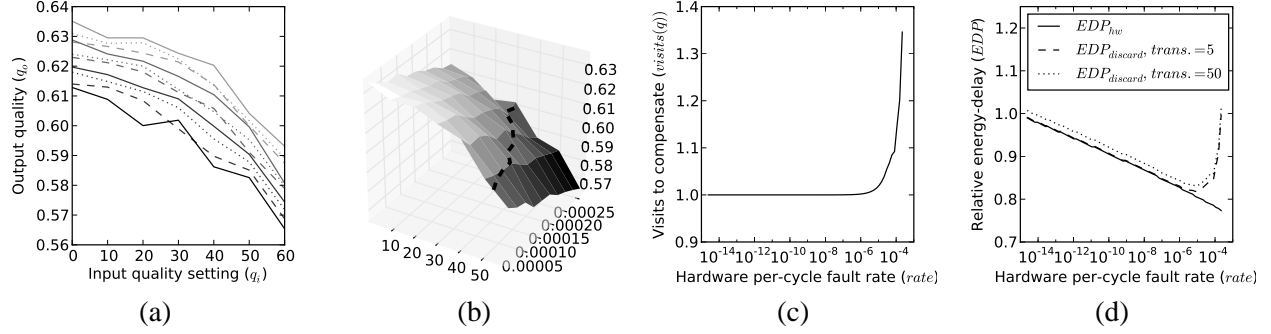


Figure 4: Graphs (a) and (b) show the *quality* function for canneal. Graphs (c) and (d) show *rate* vs. *visits* and *rate* vs. *EDP*, respectively, for the pairings of *rate* and  $q_i$  indicated by the black striped line in (b).

range of target fault rates. For the data shown, we chose a sampling of ten fault rates distributed around the optimal *rate* predicted for  $EDP_{retry}$ , and averaged across five samples for each. Each run produces an output which is fed to an application-specific *quality evaluator* [5, 20] to produce an output quality value,  $q_o$ . Figure 4(a) shows these output qualities interpolated to produce a curve for each fault rate. Finally, Figure 4(b) shows each of these curves interpolated in the fault rate dimension to produce  $quality(q_i, rate)$ .

With *quality* defined, the programmer can specify the target output quality. For the sake of example, we set it to 0.60 so that the constraint  $quality(q_i, rate) = quality(q_{i_{base}}, 0.0) = 0.60$  is set. With this constraint,  $q_{i_{base}}$  is 53.8, and the matching pairs of  $q_i$  and *rate* are shown by the black striped line in Figure 4(b). For each  $q_i$ , the programmer uses performance profiling information to find  $visits(q_i)$  and generate the mapping of *rate* to *visits* for each matching *rate*, as shown in Figure 4(c). With this mapping, the programmer can compute  $EDP_{discard}(q_i, rate)$ , shown in Figure 4(d). For this relax block and using values for *transition* of 5 and 50 as in Section 5.1, Relax provides an approximately 20.8%, 19.7% optimal EDP reduction, respectively. Both optimal points are at a fault rate of approximately  $1.1e^{-5}$ .

### 5.3 Summary

Once an application writer determines the relax blocks, he or she can use these models to estimate efficiency gains using Relax. The models also allow sensitivity analyses of the application and architecture parameters (*restore* and *transition*) that affect overall application efficiency. This framework allows rapid evaluation of relax block alternatives and, in the case of discard behavior, also a method to build the mapping for the *quality* function using fault injection.

## 6 Evaluation Methodology

While several phenomena can cause faults to occur in the hardware, we evaluate one specific case here. The scenario we consider is Relax in the context of process variations where the hardware is designed to ignore these variations, resulting in some timing faults. This section discusses our evaluation methodology and the next section presents experimental results.

We implemented language support for relax and recover blocks in C/C++ programs using the LLVM compiler infrastructure [18]. We apply the compiler to applications and simulate them using instruction-level fault injection to estimate the potential energy efficiency gains of Relax when coupled with hardware that runs more efficiently in the presence of faults. In Section 6.1 we describe our methodology for evaluating applications using discard behavior specifically. In Section 6.2 we describe our fault injection methodology and in Section 6.3 we discuss performance metrics. Finally, in Section 6.4 we derive a hardware efficiency function to model the impact of allowing errors due to process variations on hardware energy efficiency.

### 6.1 Evaluating Discard Behavior

Prior work evaluating application-level error tolerance has employed application-specific quality metrics to assess the degree of output quality deterioration [5, 9, 20, 21]. These studies attempt to hold execution time relatively constant while using the error rate to vary output quality. The difficulty with this approach is that it is fundamentally hard to quantify and evaluate variations in output quality.

We provide a novel solution to this problem by taking the converse approach of holding output quality constant while using the error rate to vary execution time. For each application using discard behavior, we define a function that maps an input quality setting and a fault rate to an output quality, and we use it to adjust the input quality setting as we adjust the fault rate to hold output quality constant. The function is the *quality* function discussed in Section 5.2, and it allows an apples-to-apples comparison across applications.

### 6.2 Fault Injection

To perform detailed quality analysis for discard behavior as described above, we required a simulation framework that would allow us to run relaxed applications to completion on large, representative input data. To meet this challenge, we developed an LLVM instrumentation pass to perform instruction-level

Application	CPL
barneshut	3.07
bodytrack	0.90
canneal	6.05
ferret	0.72
kmeans	0.44
raytrace	0.79
x264	0.28

Table 3: Cycles per LLVM instruction.

fault injection for rapid simulation. We chose LLVM because its virtual ISA closely matches both the x86 and SPARC V9 instruction sets [2], while instrumenting LLVM bytecode is straightforward and flexible. Compared to native execution, our simulation slowdown is less than two-fold in all cases on commodity x86 Linux hardware.

For fault injection, each LLVM instruction inside a relax block is surrounded by code that probabilistically injects an error into the output of that instruction. Although we inject only single-bit errors, the nature of the error is in practice not relevant since corrupted output is ultimately either discarded or overwritten, and hence is never used. If an error occurs in the address computation of a store instruction, the store does not commit and execution immediately jumps to the recovery destination. If an error occurs in any other instruction, the instruction commits and execution continues as normal, but a recovery flag is set to indicate that an error occurred. When control reaches the end of the relax block, execution jumps to the recovery destination if the recovery flag is set. This behavior is consistent with the ISA semantics described in Section 2.2.

### 6.3 Performance Metrics

We use execution cycles to measure performance overheads and energy efficiency improvements. To compute execution cycles we record the number of dynamic LLVM instructions executed (not including instructions added for fault instrumentation) and multiply by the CPL (cycles per LLVM instruction) of the relax block. We similarly divide the per-instruction fault rate by the the CPL to compute the per-cycle fault rate. Table 3 shows the CPL for each application. Cycle counts were measured running applications natively on a 2.53 GHz Core 2 Duo processor.

The validity of using CPL to produce cycle-accurate performance numbers depends on our ability to

assert that CPL does not change when relax blocks are augmented with retry or discard behavior. Below, we explain why the two factors that might affect CPL, *instruction mix* and *memory latency*, are not adversely affected by these behaviors. First, all relax blocks we consider have a largely homogeneous instruction mix. Therefore, partial execution of a relax block has a CPL very close to the overall CPL of the block, and certainly averaged over many millions of executions, the CPL will tend towards the CPL of the whole block. Second, for memory latency, we note that retry behavior will re-execute over data that is already cached, and therefore our measured CPL will be an *overestimate*, while for discard behavior, any early termination will place more weight on up-front loads that bring in potentially uncached compute data, yielding an *underestimate*. We accept the overestimating factor and our results for retry behavior are therefore conservative. For discard behavior, we observe that none of our applications are structured with up-front loads since the relax blocks are in all cases iterating over simple array structures. We assert that the overestimating effect is therefore negligible.

## 6.4 Hardware Efficiency Model

Process variations are forcing conservative voltage and timing margins in future technology nodes. Timing speculation can relax these margins providing energy efficiency at the risk of hardware errors. The VAR-IUS model provides a model for process variations [32] and De Kruijf et al. extend the model to provide estimations for the efficiency of hardware allowing timing faults, providing results for a simple processor core design [8]. The resulting model outputs the relative energy efficiency of a given processor design as the error rate is varied.

We applied the methodology from De Kruijf et al. to develop our hardware efficiency function,  $EDP_{hw}$ , using delay-aware simulation of the OpenRISC processor with Synopsys VCS and the Synopsys 90nm technology library to measure path delay distributions. We use  $0.051\mu$  as the standard deviation in path delays ( $\sigma_{path\_delay} = 0.051\mu$ ). This value models predicted variations in 11nm CMOS technology using high-performance transistors with fine-grained body biasing applied at each pipeline stage.

## 7 Results

This sections presents results using and evaluating the Relax framework. In Section 7.1 we show evidence for the *error tolerance* phenomenon by identifying applications from the PARSEC benchmark suite that are

Application Name	Benchmark Suite	Application Domain	Input Quality Parameter	Quality Evaluator
barneshut (fluidanimate)	Lonestar (PARSEC)	Physics modeling	Distance before approximation	SSD <sup>a</sup> over body positions, relative to maximum quality output
bodytrack	PARSEC	Computer vision	Number of simultaneous body particles	Application-internal likelihood estimate
canneal	PARSEC	Optimization: local search	Number of iterations	Change in output cost, relative to maximum quality output
ferret	PARSEC	Image search	Maximum number of iterations	SSD <sup>a</sup> over top 10 ranking, relative to maximum quality output
kmeans (streamcluster)	NU-MineBench (PARSEC)	Data mining: clustering	Number of iterations	Application-internal validity metric
raytrace	PARSEC	Real-time rendering	Rendering resolution	PSNR of upscaled image, relative to high resolution output
x264	PARSEC	Media encoding	Motion estimation search depth	Encoded output file size relative to maximum quality output

<sup>a</sup>SSD = Sum of squared differences

Table 4: The seven applications modified to use Relax.

tolerant to errors. We then show in Section 7.2 the results applying our language constructs to each of these applications. We show that relax block regions account for large portions of application execution times, and that the phenomenon of *limited memory side-effects* allows Relax to work with essentially no software overhead. Using our efficiency mapping driven by process variations, we evaluate *EDP* improvement using Relax in Section 7.3. Finally, we validate the analytical models against experimental data in Section 7.4.

## 7.1 Evidence for Error Tolerance

We identified seven applications from the PARSEC benchmark suite [6] employing approximation techniques. However, two applications, `fluidanimate` and `streamcluster`, did not have an easily identifiable input quality parameter for discard behavior. Since this was merely an artifact of their implementation, we replaced them with more straightforward alternatives from the same application domain. We replaced `fluidanimate` with `barneshut`, a physics application from the Lonestar Benchmark Suite [16], and `streamcluster` with `kmeans`, a clustering application from NU-MineBench [26]. Table 4 shows the details for each application. Columns 1-3 show the application name, benchmark suite, and application domain, respectively. Columns 4-5 concern evaluation of discard behavior only, and show the input quality parameter used to configure output quality and the quality evaluator used to evaluate output quality, respectively.

Application Name	Function Name	Function % Exec. Time
barneshut	RecurseForce	>99.9
bodytrack	InsideError	21.9
canneal	swap_cost	89.4
ferret	isOptimal	15.7
kmeans	euclid_dist_2	83.3
raytrace	IntersectTriangleMT	49.4
x264	pixel_sad_16x16	49.2

Table 5: Application functions and percentage of execution time inside each function.

Application Name	Relax Block Length in Cycles				Percentage of Function Relaxed		Source Lines Modified		Checkpoint Size (Register Spills)	
	CoRE	CoDI	FiRE	FiDI	CoRE / CoDI	FiRE / FiDI	CoRE / CoDI	FiRE / FiDI	CoRE	FiRE
barneshut	N/A	N/A	98	98	N/A	70.6	N/A	6	N/A	0
bodytrack	775	812	25	25	76.3	47.8	2	2	0	0
canneal	2837	2837	115	115	99.8	62.0	2	8	0	0
ferret	4024	4077	12	11	99.6	72.3	2	4	0	0
kmeans	81	81	4	4	99.5	65.8	2	2	0	0
raytrace <sup>a</sup>	2682	2682	136	136	96.5	67.7	2	6	0	0
x264 <sup>a</sup>	1174	1174	4	4	99.9	76.2	2	2	0	0

<sup>a</sup>SSE is emulated for x264 and raytrace

Table 6: Details for each application’s function and the various use cases implemented.

## 7.2 Application Relaxation

The seven applications were modified to implement the four use cases described in Section 4. For each application, we modified only a single, dominant function to use Relax. More functions existed, but evaluating all of them was beyond the scope of this work. Table 5 identifies each application’s function and the percentage of execution time spent inside the function. Percentages were measured using the Google Performance Tools CPU profiler [1] running applications natively on a 2.53 GHz Core 2 Duo processor and include time spent in external library calls.

Six of the seven applications were evaluated for all four use cases FiRE, CoRE, FiRE, and FiDI. Barneshut could only support the two fine-grained use cases FiRE and FiDI. Table 6 shows detailed statistics for each application. Columns 2-5 show the length of each relax block in cycles, which corresponds to the variable *cycles* used in our models from Section 5. Columns 6 and 7 show the percentage of executed LLVM instructions affected by Relax for each use case. Combined with the data from Table 5, we see that for three applications more than 70% of the application is relaxed, for two others roughly 50% is relaxed,

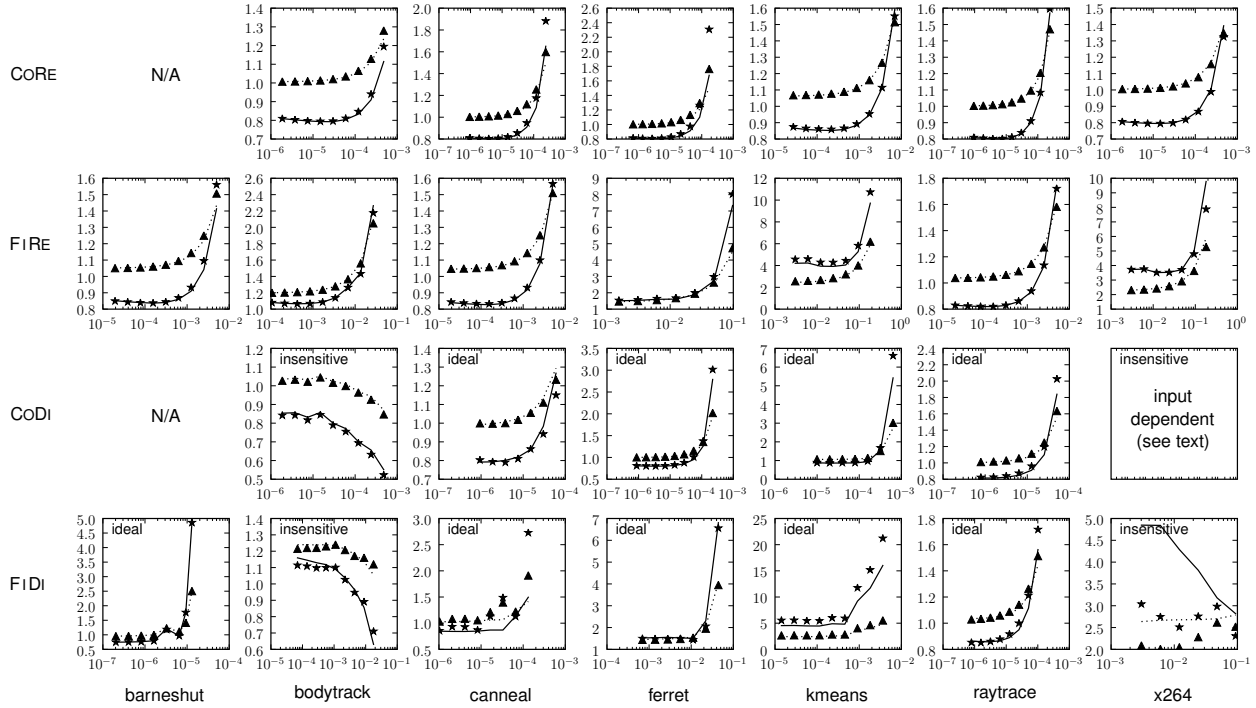


Figure 5: Solid curves plot analytically predicted  $rate$  (x-axis) versus  $EDP$  (y-axis) for each application and use case combination, with empirical data shown using stars. Dashed curves plot  $rate$  versus  $exec\_time$  only, with empirical data shown using triangles.

and for the last two less than 20% is relaxed. Columns 8 and 9 show the number of C/C++ source code lines modified or added. In all cases, the number of changes is very low. Relax blocks do not appear to obstruct code readability and are in most cases straightforward to implement. Finally, columns 10 through 11 show the number of register spills needed to set up a software checkpoint for retry behavior. The numbers assume an architecture with 16 general purpose integer registers and 16 floating point registers. In all cases, there is no software checkpointing overhead; the functions are side-effect free, and simple enough that there is insufficient register pressure to force additional register spills to save input state. Even with register pressure, the measured number of extra registers needed is in the range of zero to two registers.

### 7.3 Execution Time and Energy Efficiency

Figure 5 shows execution time and  $EDP$  for each application and use case relative to execution without Relax. We model hardware with fine-grained task support and hence set both of the analytical model variables  $restore$  and  $transition$  to 5 cycles. Execution time is measured using our methodology from Section 6.3.  $EDP$  is measured applying the  $EDP_{hw}$  function computed in Section 6.4 to the square of the execution

time. The triangles plot fault rate versus execution time and the stars plot fault rate versus *EDP*. Using the models described in Sections 5.1 and 5.2, the dotted curves plot *rate* versus predicted *exec.time* and the solid curves plot *rate* versus predicted *EDP*. The x-axis ranges are centered around the predicted optimal fault rate.

For retry behavior, the results show that a 20% reduction in *EDP* is common for CORE, and that CORE tends to perform better than FIRE. In some cases, execution time with FIRE is very high, as with *kmeans* and *x264*. For these applications the fine-grained relax block size is only 4 cycles, and the 5 cycle transition cost (*transition*) enforces a lower bound of 2.25 to relative execution time.

For discard behavior, we see two flavors of results: *ideal* and *insensitive*. The graphs are annotated with these labels. In the *ideal* cases, changing the input quality setting and/or injecting errors into the application affects behavior in a way that is very regular and consistent. As a result, the discard behavior results for CODI and FIDI closely mirror those for CORE and FIRE. The two differences are that (1) in some cases discard behavior cannot support a fault rate quite as high as retry behavior, and (2) the resulting data are slightly more noisy. However, discard behavior will still be the more desirable alternative in situations where performance predictability is more important than output predictability, as might be the case with a real-time ray tracer or an online data clustering algorithm.

The *insensitive* discard behavior cases are *bodytrack* and *x264*. For *bodytrack*, the algorithm effectively only has two outputs: either the tracked body position is close, or it is off because the algorithm has lost a handle on the body position. For the quality settings we used, the algorithm did not lose the body position at fault rates of less than  $1e^{-3}$  for CODI and  $2e^{-2}$  for FIDI. Hence, any lower fault rate setting produced effectively equivalent output quality, and, due to the nature of discard behavior, the execution time of the program was shortened by the faults and *EDP* improved. For *x264* the story is slightly different. For *x264* with the reference input we used, it was very difficult to affect the output quality by adjusting the input quality at all. Even at the lowest setting, with a 40% reduction in execution time, the change in output quality was still only extremely minor. Although there was sufficient variation that the *quality* function could capture it for FIDI, the range was too narrow for CODI. Even for FIDI, the function was very noisy. We expect that different data input might lead to different results, but we cannot confirm at this time.

## 7.4 Model Validation

For retry behavior, the predicted curves and measured data are very close. The cases where there are noticeable discrepancies are for FIRE with high error rates, where the discretization of cycles in our simulation is different from what is modeled. For example, two faults in a single cycle only count as one fault in our simulation, while the model considers each separately. For discard behavior, the predicted curves and measured data are also generally close, although variability and noise in the *quality* mappings for some applications produces some discrepancies, as with FIDI for *canneal* and *x264*.

## 8 Related work

We discuss related work in error recovery, full-system solutions to hardware errors, and application error tolerance.

**Error Recovery.** Sorin provides a complete treatment of error recovery solutions [34]. He describes two primary approaches to error recovery: *backward error recovery* (BER) and *forward error recovery* (FER). Relax provides BER under retry behavior, and a restricted form of FER under discard behavior. We consider each separately below.

For BER, Relax is distinct from other mechanisms in that it is both software based and has a small sphere of recoverability. Other software approaches have larger spheres of recoverability [27, 38] which comes at a substantial cost to performance. Hardware approaches have both large [29, 35] and small [3, 25] spheres of recoverability. However, hardware checkpoints consume substantial chip resources, and may not even be feasible when dealing with highly error-prone environments, where the checkpointing logic and storage itself cannot be made relatively immune to errors. Relax's fine-grained recovery in software is a good fit for an anticipated future with high fault rate systems running emerging applications that have few memory side-effects and can recover in software with low overhead.

On the FER side, the main competing approach is triple-modular redundancy (TMR). With discard behavior, Relax does not add any redundancy to implement FER, but rather allows the programmer to exploit the redundancy inherent in the application.

	<b>Recovery</b>	
<b>Detection</b>	Hardware	Software
Hardware	RSDT[4] SWAT [19, 31]	<b>Relax</b>
Software	SWAT [19, 31]	Liberty [7, 30]

Table 7: A taxonomy of full-system solutions.

**Full-System Solutions.** Table 7 classifies other full-system proposals for managing error-prone hardware. SWAT [19, 31] uses lightweight symptom- and invariant-based detection techniques combined with heavy-weight hardware checkpoints to recover from failure. SWAT optimizes for the modern-day common case of failure-free execution with a primary focus on reducing detection overhead while latency is not a concern as long as recovery remains possible. Our work is distinct from SWAT in anticipating a future where, for efficiency reasons, failure is much more common, and we shift priorities accordingly. Additionally, Relax is a software recovery framework that utilizes hardware detection, in contrast to SWAT’s hybrid hardware-software detection with hardware recovery.

The Resilient-System Design Team (RSDT) attempts to manage faults entirely in hardware by adding mechanisms for testing, monitoring, and adaptive recovery [4]. While effective for general-purpose computing systems, this approach is overly restrictive for emerging applications with few side-effects and ignores application error tolerance.

Finally, the Liberty Research Group proposes transparent software-based detection and recovery through compiler instrumentation [7, 30]. This software-only approach can be readily deployed in commodity hardware but has high performance overheads.

**Application Error Tolerance.** A variety of studies have attempted to quantify application tolerance to errors [5, 9, 20, 21, 39]. In contrast to Relax, they allow errors to affect program state rather than discard them. However, the general findings are that control flow and memory operations, which together constitute a large percentage of these applications, remain intolerant to errors. As a result, these studies ultimately advocate for various forms of detection and/or recovery. The only technique that incorporates neither detection or recovery involves manually identifying “soft” computations and allowing only the backwards slice of these computations to fail [21]. These instructions can in some cases account for more than half of an application’s dynamic instruction stream, but in general the technique by itself does not scale well beyond fault rates of more than  $1e^{-6}$ , and even this technique would still require changes to the ISA and compiler

for the software to communicate information on what is a soft computation to the hardware. The evident conclusion is that arbitrary and uncontrolled failure is not generally feasible.

## 9 Conclusion

As CMOS technology scales, hardware reliability is becoming a primary design constraint. While languages, ISAs, and microarchitectures continue to maintain the illusion of the transistor as a perfect switch, VLSI circuits, CAD, and manufacturing layers of the silicon stack are under tremendous pressure to maintain this illusion. Emerging applications provide an opportunity to mitigate these CMOS scaling constraints by relaxing the burden of fault recovery on hardware.

This paper presented the Relax framework, which relaxes architectural semantics to help simplify CMOS scaling by removing the illusion of perfect hardware. Specifically, we proposed a handful of simple extensions to the programming language, compiler, ISA, and microarchitecture levels that simplify hardware design by enabling efficient software-level recovery of hardware faults. We constructed a spectrum of language models combining retry and discard behaviors with coarse and fine recovery granularities to enable flexible application handling of errors.

We showed that PARSEC applications are easily relaxed for more than 70% of their execution with only a handful of source-line modifications required, and that significant further opportunity exists. Applying the framework to allow timing errors due to process variations, we show that, applications are up to 20% more energy-efficient. Most importantly, the correctness requirements of hardware are reduced. Overall, the Relax framework enables flexible and efficient handling of hardware reliability through multiple levels of the system stack, instead of placing all the burden on hardware alone.

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