

# Failure Data-Driven Selective Node-Level Duplication to Improve MTTF in High Performance Computing Systems

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**Abstract.** This paper presents our analysis of the failure behavior of large scale systems using the failure logs collected by Los Alamos National Laboratory on 22 of their computing clusters. We note that not all nodes show similar failure behavior in the systems. Our objective, therefore, was to arrive at an ordering of nodes to be incrementally (one by one) selected for duplication so as to achieve a target MTTF for the system after duplicating the least number of nodes. We arrived at a model for the fault coverage provided by duplicating each node and ordered the nodes according to coverage provided by each node. As compared to traditional approach of randomly choosing nodes for duplication, our model - driven approach provides improvements ranging from 82% to 1700% depending on the improvement in MTTF that is targeted and the failure distribution of the nodes in the system.

**Keywords:** Fault-tolerance, Mean Time To Failure, Duplication, Partial Duplication.

## 1 Introduction

Computers are being employed increasingly in highly mission- and life-critical and long-running applications. In this scenario, there is a corresponding demand for high reliability and availability of the systems. Since failures are inevitable in a system, the best use of the bad bargain is to employ fault-detection and recovery techniques to meet the requirements. Mean Time to Failure (MTTF) (commonly also referred to as Mean Time Between Failures (MTBF)) is an important well-accepted measure for the reliability of a system. MTTF is the time elapsed, on an average, between any two failures in the component being studied.

Broadly speaking, two types of applications demand high reliability – (i) those which can be stopped and their state captured at a suitable point and their execution resumed at a later point in time from the captured state, also called the checkpointed state, (ii) those programs that cannot be interrupted and need to execute for a minimum amount of time, till the application (or the mission) is completed. Most long-running scientific applications are examples of applications in the former category.

They require efficient mechanisms to take checkpoints of the entire state of the application at a suitable point, and effective techniques to detect failures so as to roll back execution to the checkpointed state. For applications in the latter category, such as systems and software for flight, or spacecraft control, a time for the length of the mission (or mission time) is pre-determined and appropriate fault-tolerance techniques need to be deployed to ensure that the entire system does not fail within the mission time. The mission time of a flight system directly determines the length of its travel and is a highly critical decision point.

The MTTF of a system is an estimate of the time for which the system can be expected to work without any failures. Therefore, for applications that can be checkpointed MTTF could be used to determine the checkpointing interval, within which the application's state must be checkpointed. This would ensure that the checkpoint state itself is not corrupted and hence by rolling back to this state on detecting a failure the application will continue correct execution. For applications of the latter category, the MTTF can be used to determine the mission time, before which the system executes without any failure.

Understanding the failure behavior of a system can greatly benefit the design of fault-tolerance and reliability techniques for that as well as other systems with similar characteristics and thereby increasing their MTTF. Failure and repair logs are a valuable source of field failure information. The extent to which the logs aid in reliable design depends on the granularity at which the logging is performed. System level logs could assist in system-wide techniques such as global synchronous checkpointing etc. However, logging at a finer granularity, like that at the node-level, improves the effectiveness of techniques applied at the node level. An important observation that we make in this paper is that, "All nodes in a system are not equal" (either by functionality or by failure behavior). We attempt to take into account the logical (in the network configuration) locations of a node in the system, in reconciling its observed failure behavior.

Node-level reliability information also helps in designing and deploying techniques such as duplication selectively to the most critical portions of the system. This decreases setup, maintenance and performance costs for the system. Furthermore, with a framework for selective fault-tolerance in place the techniques could be customized to meet the specific reliability requirements of the application. In this paper we show how node-level duplication can be customized to meet an application's target MTTF.

The key contributions of this work are:

1. Analysis of node-level failures and their correlation with system and network configuration.
2. Data-driven estimation of the coverage provided for selective duplication of nodes in the system.
3. A methodology for selecting an optimal or near-optimal subset of the nodes that need to be duplicated to achieve the MTTF requirements of the application.

### **Description of Systems under Study and Data Sets**

Los Alamos National Laboratory has collected and published data regarding the failure and usage of 22 of their supercomputing clusters. This data was previously analyzed by Schroeder et. al. from CMU to study the statistics of the data in terms of the root cause of the failures, mean time between failures and the mean time to repair.

Table 1 provides the details of the systems. In the “Production Time” column the range of times specifies the node installation to decommissioning times. A value of “N/A” indicates that the nodes in the system have been installed before the observation period began. For these machines, we consider the beginning of the observation period (November 1996) as the starting date for calculating the production time. For some machines, multiple ranges of production times have been provided. This is because the systems have been upgraded during the observation period and each production time range corresponds to set of nodes within the system. For the sake of simplicity, for all such machines, we consider the production time to be the longest range among the specified ranges.

The failure data for a single system includes the following fields:

*System*: The number of the system under study (as referred to by Los Alamos Laboratory)

*machine type*: The type of the system (smp, cluster, numa)

*number of nodes*: The number of nodes in the system

*number of processors per node*: Some systems are heterogenous in that they contain nodes with different number of processors per node

*number of processors total*: Total number of processors in the system

$$= \sum_{i=0}^k n_i \cdot p_i$$

, where for a system,  $k$  is the number of node types in the system,  $n_i$  is the number of nodes of type  $i$  and  $p_i$  is the number of processors in a node of type  $i$ .

*node number starting with zero*: This node numbering is provided by Los Alamos so as to maintain consistency among all systems in terms of node numbering for easier comparison of systems.

*install date*: Date that the node was installed in the system. Since the systems under study were upgraded during the period of study, this field can vary for nodes within a system

*production date*: Date, after the installation date, where the node has been tested for initial burn-in effects and known operational failures, so that the node could be used to run production applications.

*decommission date*: Date that the node was removed from the system.

*field replacable unit type*: Whether on a failure the repair procedure involves replacing the entire unit or a portion of it.

*memory*: the amount of memory on the node

*node purpose*: The function of the node in the overall system: (i) compute, (ii) front end, (iii) graphics or a combination of the three such as graphics.fe (both graphics and front end).

*Problem Started (mm/dd/yy hh:mm)*: The time of occurrence of the failure event. This is logged by an automated fault detection engine.

*Problem Fixed (mm/dd/yy hh:mm)*: The time at which the failure was repaired and the system restored. This is logged by the administrators and repair staff.

*Down Time*: The time elapsed between the occurrence of the problem and restoration of the system.

The root cause for the failures is classified in the following categories: (i) Facilities, (ii) Hardware, (iii) Human Error, (iv) Network, (v) Undetermined, or, (vi) Software.

**Table 1.** Characteristics of Systems under study

System		System Number	Num nodes	# procs in node	# procs	Network Topology	Production Time	Remarks
Type	Category							
A	smp	7	1	8	8	Not Applicable	N/A – 12/99	
B	smp	24	1	32	32	Not Applicable	N/A – 12/03	
C	smp	22	1	4	4	Not Applicable	N/A – 04/03	
D	cluster	8	164	2	328	GigaBit Ethernet Tree	04/01 – 11/05 u12/02 – 11/05	
E	cluster	20	256	4	1024	Dual rail fat tree	12/01 – 11/05	
	cluster	21	128	4	512		09/01 – 01/02	
	cluster	18	1024	4	4096		05/02 – 11/05	
	cluster	19	1024	4	4096		10/02 – 11/05	
	cluster	3	128	4	512	Single rail fat tree	09/03 – 11/05	
	cluster	4	128	4	512		09/03 – 11/05	
	cluster	5	128	4	512		09/03 – 11/05	
F	cluster	6	32	4	128		09/03 – 11/05	
	cluster	14	128	2	256	Single rail fat tree	09/03 – 11/05	Most jobs run on only one 256-node segment
	cluster	9	256	2	512		09/03 – 11/05	
	cluster	10	256	2	512		09/03 – 11/05	
	cluster	11	256	2	512		09/03 – 11/05	
	cluster	13	256	2	512		09/03 – 11/05	
cluster	12	512	2	1024	09/03 – 11/05 03/05 – 06/05			
G	cluster	16	16	128	2048	Multi rail fat tree	12/96 – 09/02	
	cluster	2	49	128, 80	6152		01/97 – 11/05 06/05 – 11/05	
	cluster	23	5	128, 32	544		10/98 – 12/04	
							01/98 – 12/04 11/02 – 11/05 11/05 – 12/04	
H	numa	15	1	256	256		11/04 – 11/05	

## 2 Related Work

There has been significant study over the past few decades on analyzing failure logs from large-scale computers to understand the failure behavior of such systems and possibly use the knowledge in improving system design. Plank et. al. [1] derive an optimal checkpointing interval for an application using the failures logs obtained from networks of workstations. They derive the failure rate of the machines using the time between failures observed in the logs. In another study, Nath et. al. [2] study real-world

failure traces to recommend design principles that can be used to tolerate correlated failures. Particularly they have used it in recommending data placement strategies for correlated failures.

Prior work in analyzing failure rates tried to arrive at reasonable curves that fit the failure distribution of the systems [0-0]. Schroeder and Gibson [0] have presented the characteristics of the failure data that has been used in this study as well. However, a limitation of these studies is that they do not evaluate how system design choices could be affected by the failure characteristics that they have derived from the data. In this work we specifically attempt to understand the failure behavior and use that knowledge in the design of an optimal node-level duplication strategy with the aim of increasing the overall availability of the system at the least cost.

There is also interesting research work in understanding the correlations between system parameters and failure rate. Sahoo et al. [0] show that the workload of the system is closely correlated with its failure rate, whereas Iyer [0] and Castillo [0] bring out the correlation between workload intensity and the failure rate. In our study we study the dependency of failure rate on network configuration, which in turn determines the workload characteristics of the system. For example, a fat tree topology necessitates higher communication and computation bandwidth and load at the higher levels of the tree structure.

Oliner and Stearley [0] have analyzed system logs from five supercomputers and critically evaluate the interpretations of system administrators from patterns observed in the logs. They propose a filtering algorithm to identify alerts from system logs. They also recommend enhancements to the logging procedures so as to include information crucial in identifying alerts from non-alerts.

Lan et al. [00] have proposed a machine-learning based automatic diagnosis and prognosis engine for failures through their analysis of the logs on Blue Gene/L systems deployed at multiple locations. Their goal is to feed the knowledge inferred from the logs to checkpointing and migration tools [00] to reduce the overall application completion time.

Oliner et al. [0] derive failure distributions from multiple supercomputing systems and propose novel job-scheduling algorithms that take into account the occurrence of failures in the system. They evaluated the impact of this on the average bounded slowdown, average response time and system utilization. In our study we have utilized failure and repair time distributions to propose a novel node-level duplication strategy. The metric of evaluation used is the mean time to failure (MTTF) of the system.

Duplication, both at the system- and node- level has been a topic of active and extensive research in the micro-architecture and fault-tolerant computing areas. *Error Detection Using Duplicated Instructions (EDDI)* [0] duplicates original instructions in the program but with different registers and variables. Duplication at the application level increases the code size of the application in memory. More importantly, it reduces the instruction supply bandwidth from the memory to the processor. *Error Detection by Diverse Data and Duplicated Instructions (ED<sup>2</sup>I)* [0] is a software-implemented hardware fault tolerance technique in which two “different” programs with the same functionality are executed, but with different data sets, and their outputs are compared. The “different” programs are generated by multiplying all variables and constants in the original program by a diversity factor  $k$ .

In the realm of commercial processors the IBM G5 processor 0 has extra I- and E-units to provide duplicate execution of instructions. To support duplicate execution, the G5 is restricted to a single-issue processor and incurs 35% hardware overhead.

In experimental research, simultaneous multithreading (SMT) 0 and the chip multiprocessor (CMP) architectures have been ideal bases for space and time redundant fault-tolerant designs because of their inherent redundancy. In simultaneously and redundantly threaded (SRT) processor, only instructions whose side effects are visible beyond the boundaries of the processor core are checked 0-0. This was subsequently extended in SRTR to include recovery 0. Another fault-tolerant architecture is proposed in the DIVA design 00. DIVA comprises an aggressive out-of-order superscalar processor along with a simple in-order checker processor. *Microprocessor-based introspection (MBI)* 0 achieves time redundancy by scheduling the redundant execution of a program during idle cycles in which a long-latency cache miss is being serviced. SRTR 0 and MBI 0 have reported up to 30% performance overhead, which are close to the overhead observed for Full Duplication (FullRep) in our experiments. These results counter the widely-used belief that full duplication at the processor-level incurs little or no performance overhead.

SLICK 0 is an SRT-based approach to provide partial replication of an application. The goals of this approach are similar to ours. However, unlike this approach we do not rely on a multi-threaded architecture for the replication. Instead, this paper presents modifications to a general superscalar processor to support partial or selective replication of the application.

As for research and production systems employing system-level duplication, the space mission to land on the moon used a TMR enhanced computer system 0. The TANDEM, now HP, Integrity S2 computer system 0 provided reliability through the concept of full duplication at the hardware level. The AT&T No.5 ESS telecommunications switch 0, 0 uses duplication in its administrative module consisting of the 3B20S processor, an I/O processor, and an automatic message accounting unit, to provide high reliability and availability. The JPL STAR computer 0 system for space applications primarily used hardware subsystem fault-tolerant techniques, such as functional unit redundancy, voting, power-spare switching, coding, and self-checks.

### 3 Failure Rate Correlation with Network Configuration

The failure data for each system is analyzed independently. The data set contains the data for all the systems in a monolithic fashion. Therefore, the data is split based on the system number. For data for a specific system, using the `nodenumz` field, which gives the number of the failed node, the failures for each node are aggregated and the number of failures for each node calculated. This data provides an ordering of the nodes based on the number of failures experienced by the node within the observation period. The number of failures per node also provides insights into the correlation between the node's failure behavior and the logical location of the node in the system's network configuration.

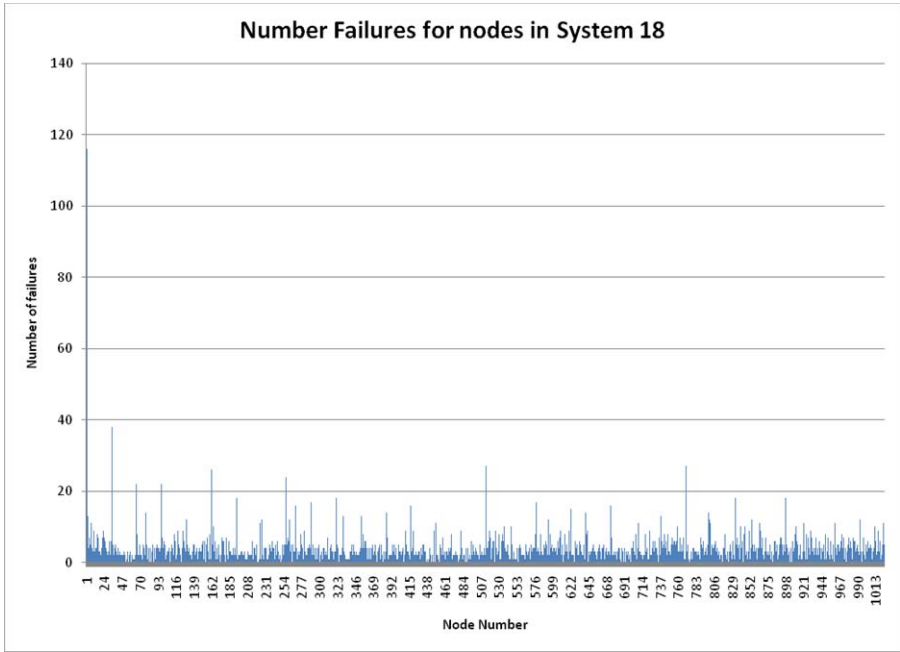


Fig. 1. Number of failures for nodes in System 18

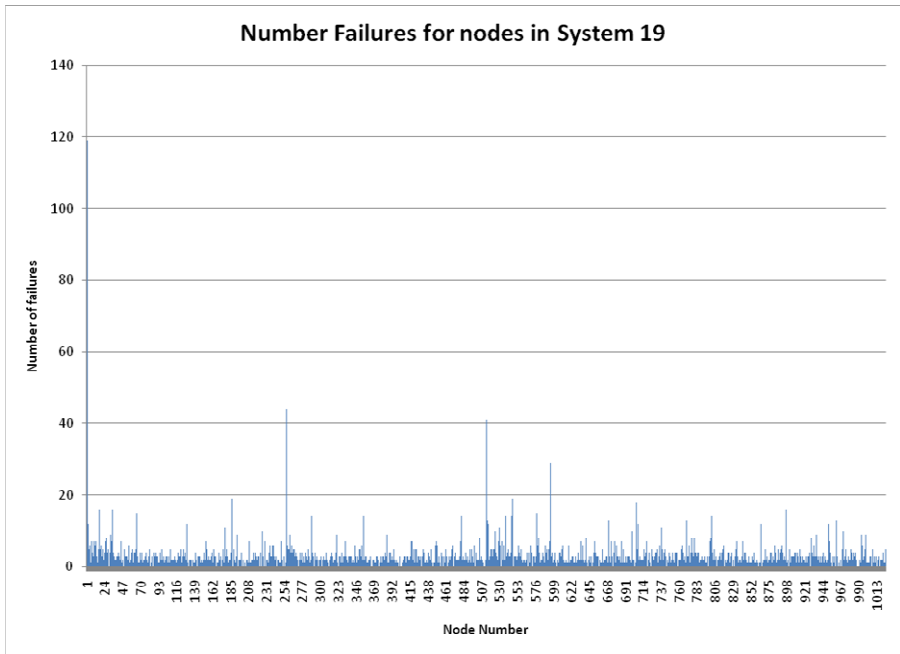


Fig. 2. Number of failures for nodes in System 19

As mentioned before, the nodes of a particular system show variability in the failure rate. This could partly be explained by the network configuration of the distributed system.

Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 show the failure behavior of individual nodes in System 18 and 19. The figure shows that the peaks of failures are at nodes with numbers that are multiples of 32, with a few exceptions. The exception in the failures of other nodes could be due to their specific workload characteristics or due to the inherent failure susceptibility of that node. On discussion with the system administrators, it was revealed that these systems are configured such that every 32<sup>nd</sup> node serves as an NFS root for the other 31 nodes in the group and is running NFS root type services, making its workload considerably higher than the rest.

### 4 Approach

This section describes our approach for analyzing the data and building a model used for selective node-level duplication. The records for a single node are ordered according to the time of occurrence of the failure, as given by the “Prob Started field”. The time elapsed between the start of one failure and the consecutive failure in this ordered list gives the time between these two failures. Following this procedure the times between failure for each pair of failures for the node are calculated. The average of all these times is used as an estimate for the mean time between failures or the mean time to failure (MTTF) for the node. Time To Failure (TTF) for a fault  $i = TTF_i = (prob\ started)_i - (prob\ started)_{i-1}$ . Therefore,

$$MTTF = \frac{\sum_i^n TTF_i}{n} = \frac{(prob\ started)_n - (system\ install\ date)}{n} \text{ OR}$$

MTTF is calculated as:

$$MTTF = \frac{\text{Total Period of study}}{\text{Number of Failures observed (n)}} \tag{Eq. 1}$$

The period of study of a system is its production time, defined elsewhere as the time between its installation and its decommissioning or the end of the observation period, whichever occurs first.

The “Downtime” field provides the time required by the administrators to fix the failure and bring the system back to its original state. It can be calculated as the difference between the “Prob Ended” and “Prob Started” fields. This is the repair time for this failure. Averaging this field over all the records for a single node provides an estimate for the mean time to repair (MTTR) for this node. Time To Repair (TTR) for a failure  $i = TTR_i = (prob\ fixed)_i - (prob\ started)_i$ . Therefore, Mean Time To Repair is given by



$$MTTR = \frac{\sum_i^n TTR_i}{n}$$

### 4.1 Introducing Node-Level Duplication

From the previous analysis procedures, the MTTF and the MTTR for a node have been estimated. Now, we introduce a methodology to understand the effect on node failure if we augment it with a spare node. Fig. 3 shows the states through which a duplicated node transitions on failure and repair events. When both the original and the spare node are working correctly the system is in state “2”. It is assumed that, after a failure is detected in the node, the system has the reconfiguration capability to fail over to the spare node instantaneously. Computation therefore continues uninterrupted. This state of the node is represented by state “1” in the figure. In the meantime, the original node is repaired. The roles of the spare node and original node are switched. If no other failure occurs in the node, before the original node is repaired, then the original node assumes the role of the spare node, while the computation continues on the spare node. Essentially, the system is brought back to its pristine, fault-free state (State “2” in the figure). However, if the next failure for the node occurs within the mean time to repair for that node, then it is not possible to continue computation on that node. The node reaches state “0”. We declare that duplication cannot cover this second failure. There are other possible transitions between these states, shown as dotted lines in Fig. 3. They are (i) State “0” to “2”: When both the original and spare nodes are repaired and the node returns to its normal state. (ii) State “0” to “1”: When one of the failed nodes (the original or the spare) is repaired and computation continues on this node. (iii) State “2” to “0”: When both nodes fail at the same time. However, it is to be noted that for the analysis based on the data these transitions need not be considered. There would not be a transition from State “2” to “0” since the data represent failures only in one single node and would not therefore have

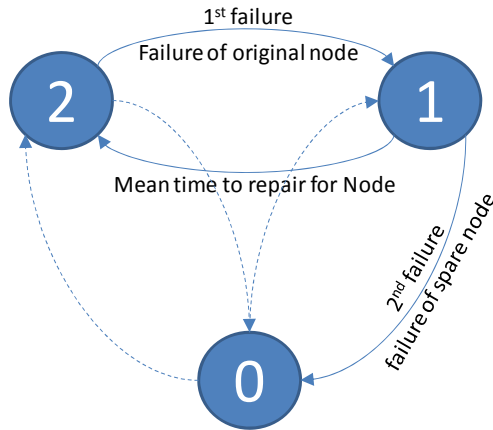


Fig. 3. State transition diagram for node failure with duplication

two simultaneous failures. The purpose of the analysis (aided by the state transition diagram) is to decide whether a particular failure can be covered by duplication or not. Once the node reaches State “0” it is declared that the failure cannot be covered by duplication. Therefore, outward transitions from State “0” (to States “1” and “2”) are not considered.

Based on this analysis, conducted for each node individually, we evaluate all the failures that are covered by duplication. This analysis provides an estimate of the nodes that benefit the most (have the maximum reduction in the number of failures) when they are duplicated.

The next part of the study is used to achieve application requirements of MTTF. To estimate the improvement in MTTF using node-level duplication, the nodes are ordered in terms of the reduction in number of failures when they are duplicated. In short, we will refer to this sorting criterion as the duplication coverage of the node. For a system without duplication the MTTF is calculated as the ratio between the total period of observation for the system and the number of failures observed as in the original data. Now, we pick the node with the highest duplication coverage. The MTTF for the system is recalculated as the total observation period for the system divided by the remaining number of failures in the system. Since the total observation period is constant, the MTTF is inversely proportional to the number of failures remaining in the system. Next, we pick the node with the next highest duplication coverage and recalculate the MTTF. Progressively, we include nodes in the order of their duplication coverage and calculate the MTTF. The duplication of nodes is continued until the MTTF requirements of the application are met.

## 4.2 Effect of Duplication on System Reliability

The node-level failure information is interpolated by selectively applying duplication to nodes that are most sensitive to errors. Depending on its execution profile, or on the frequency of its checkpointing support, the application demands a certain mean time to failure from the system so as to reduce the amount of wasted computation in the event of a failure. We study how the MTTF of the system is affected by incrementally adding dual redundancy to the nodes in the system.

In this study we consider node-level duplication as a fault-tolerance technique employed to increase the MTTF of a system. For each node that is duplicated, using the analysis mentioned in Section 0, some or all of the failures for that node are covered. This decreases the total number of failures in the system, thereby increasing the MTTF of the system using Eq. 1. If no information about the failure rate of nodes is available, all nodes would be assumed to fail uniformly and therefore the nodes to be duplicated would be picked at random one after another. We refer to this as the Traditional approach. However, with the failure rate analysis of the data we have derived a model for the coverage provided by duplication at the node-level and an ordering for the nodes based on the improvement in coverage by duplicating that node. Using this model, we may be able to improve the choice of nodes to be duplicated. This is the “Model-driven” approach to selecting nodes for incremental duplication.

Fig. 4 through Fig. 9 compare the cumulative increase in MTTF due to incremental node duplication for Systems 10, 11, 12, 13, 18, and 19 respectively, for these two approaches. The x-axis represents the percentage of nodes that have been duplicated.

The y-axis gives the percentage in MTTF achieved by duplicating that subset of the nodes in the system. The data points when major increments in MTTF (25%, 50%, 100%, 150%, 200%)<sup>1</sup> are crossed are labeled on the curves for the “Traditional” and “Model-driven” approaches. We see that consistently for all curves and for all major increments in MTTF, our Model-driven approach far outperforms the Traditional approach of random selection of nodes. For example, in Fig. 4 for System 10 the model-driven approach achieves close to 25% improvement of MTTF (exactly 26.7%) when 3.9% of the nodes are duplicated. For approximately the same improvement in MTTF the traditional approach requires 20.3% of the nodes to be duplicated. Thus there is an improvement of about 420% in the number of nodes to be duplicated using our data-derived model-driven approach. Table 2 summarizes these results for 6 systems that characterize those under study and for different aims for improvement in MTTF.

From Table 2 we note two striking observations. Firstly, the average improvement in number of nodes duplicated varies widely between different systems. This is due to the variation in the failure distribution of the system. The marginal increase in fault coverage for System 18, System 10 and System 12 with every additional node duplicated using the model-driven approach is shown in Fig. 10, Fig. 11, and Fig. 12 respectively. We see that for Systems 18 and 19, using the model-driven approach,

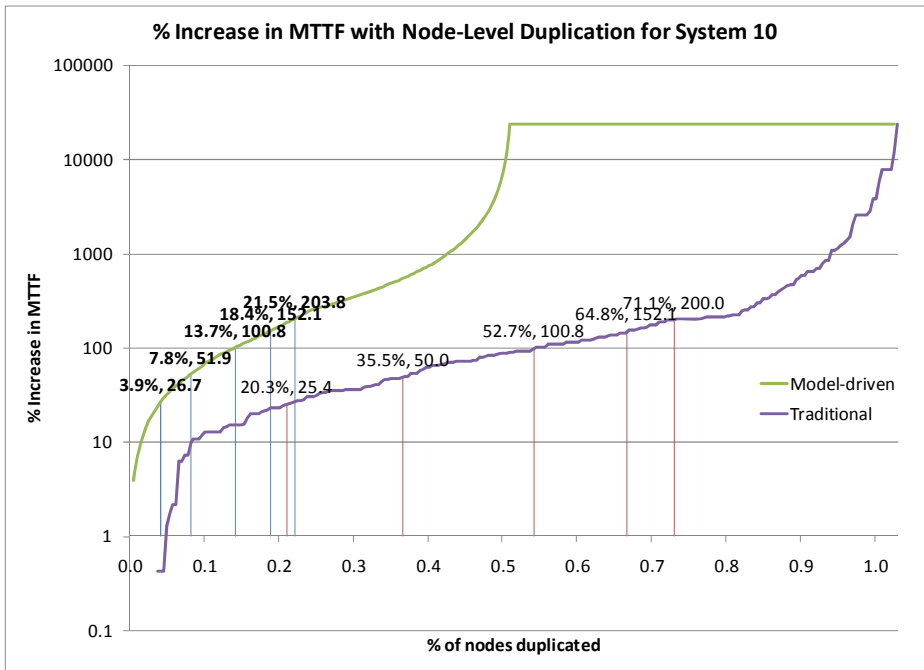


Fig. 4. % Increase in MTTF with node-level duplication for System 10

<sup>1</sup> Note that the actual data point represents the first time the increase in MTTF has *crossed* a major increment and is not exactly equal to the major increment.

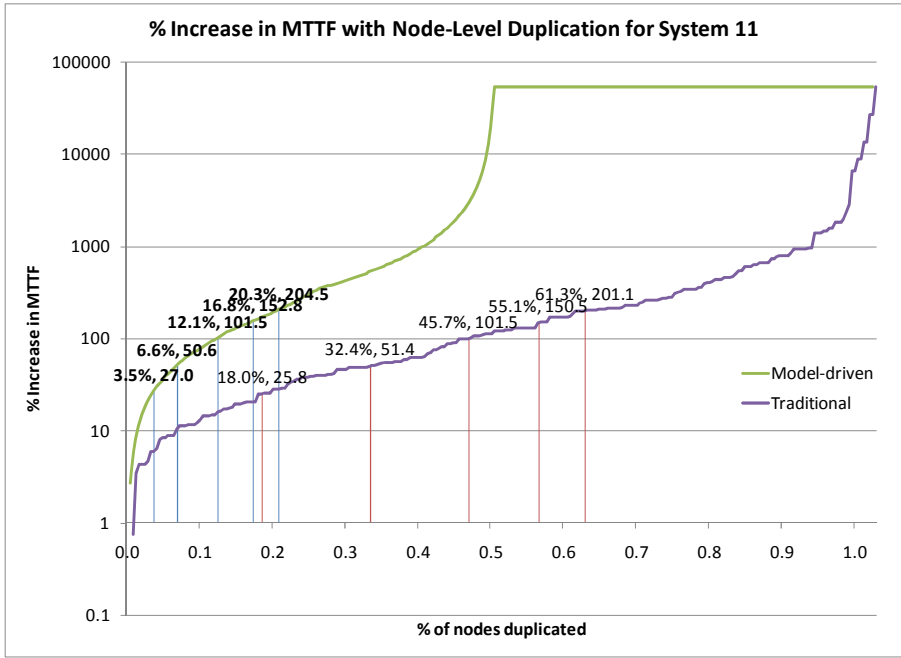


Fig. 5. % Increase in MTTF with node-level duplication for System 11

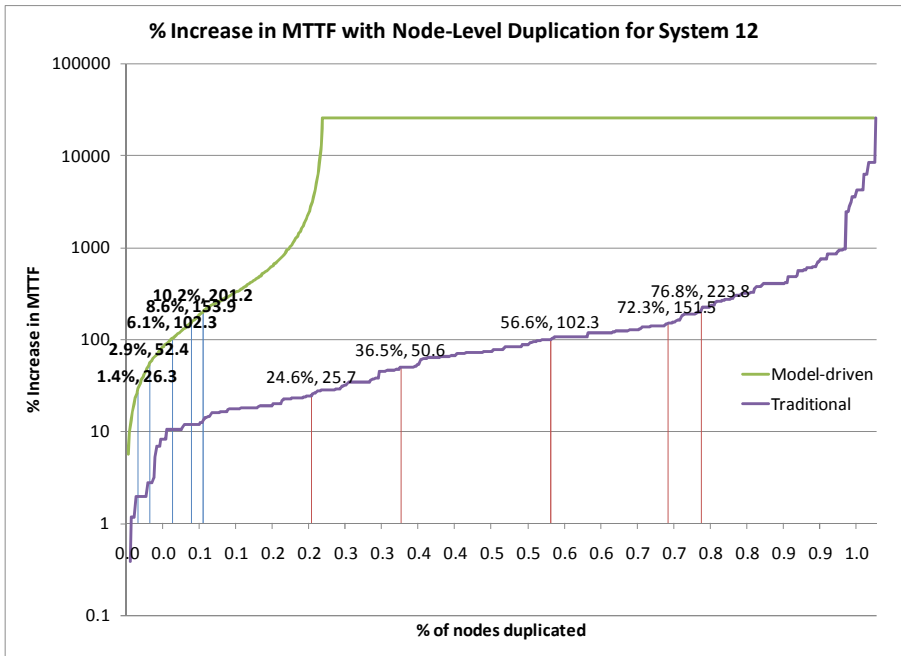


Fig. 6. % Increase in MTTF with node-level duplication for System 12

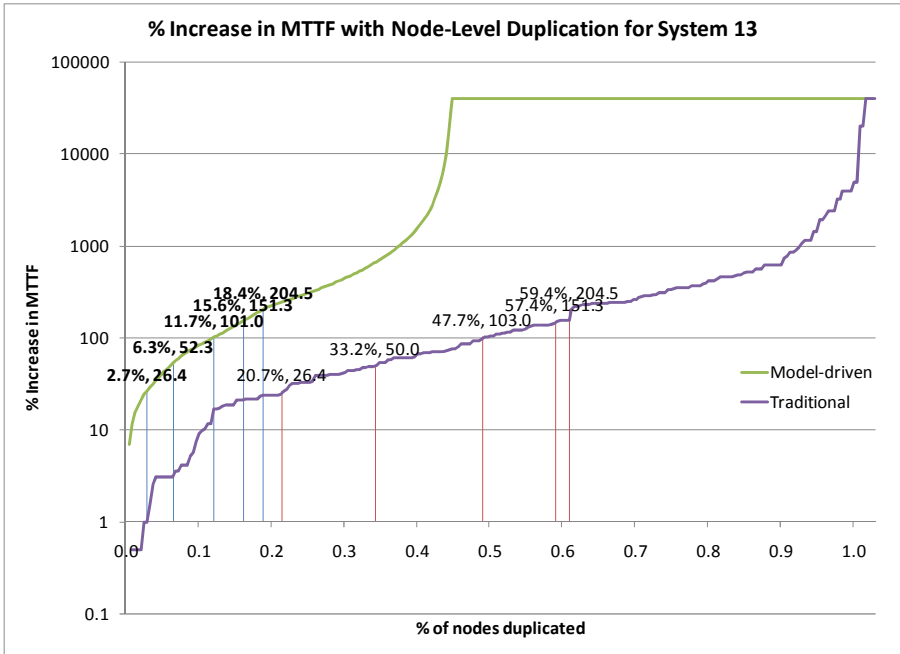


Fig. 7. % Increase in MTTF with node-level duplication for System 13

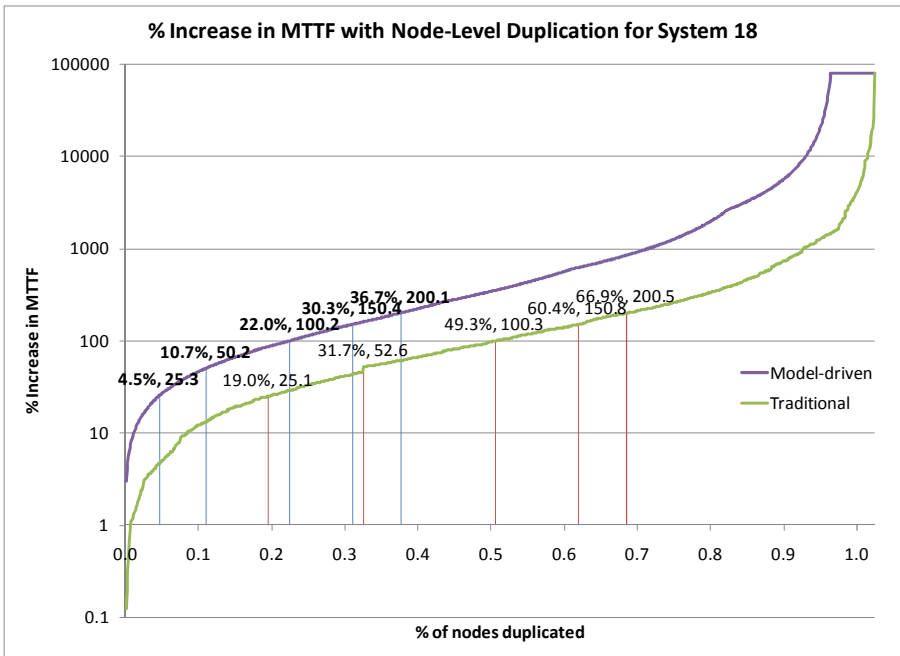


Fig. 8. % Increase in MTTF with node-level duplication for System 18

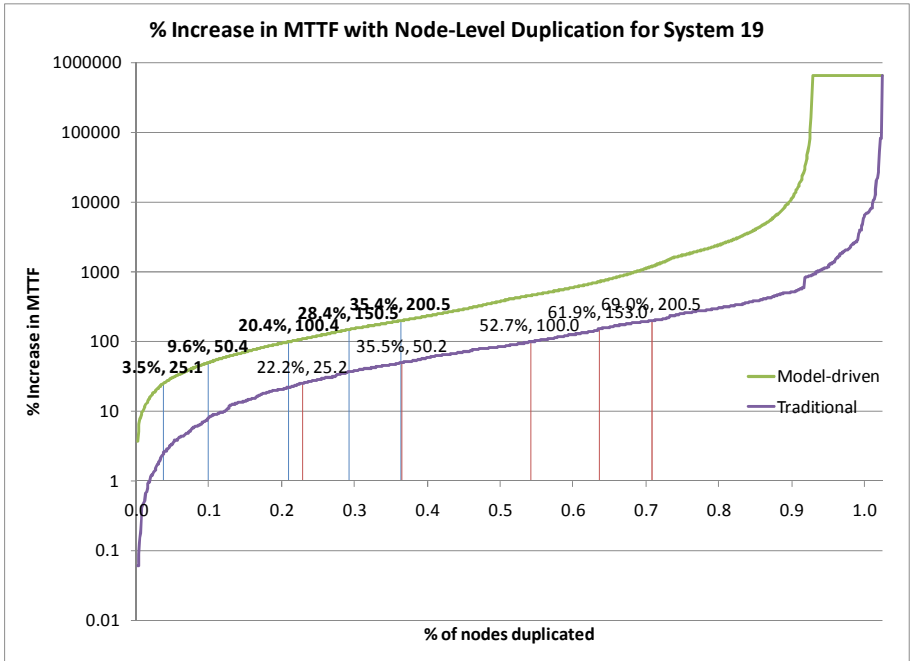


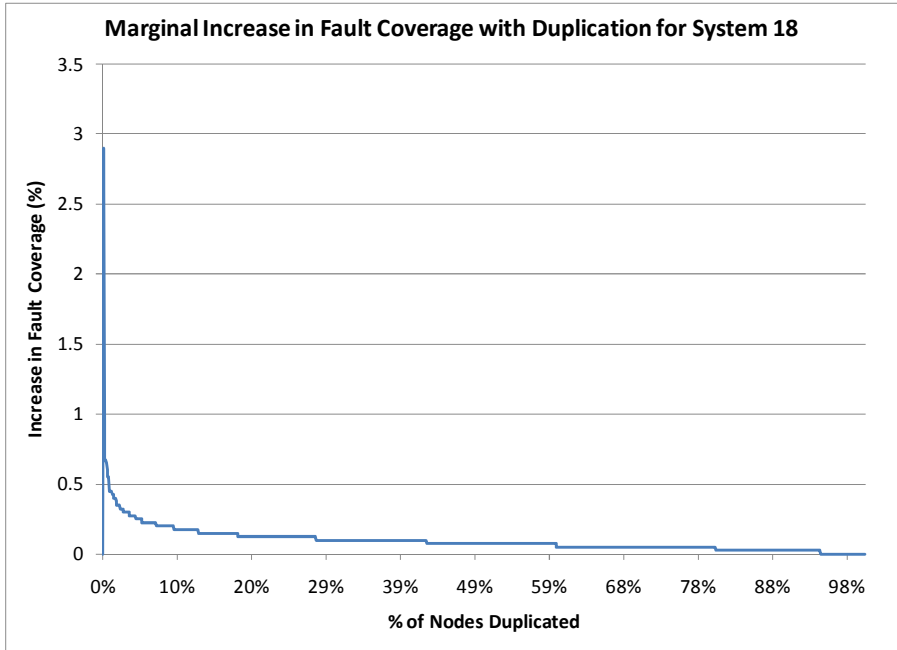
Fig. 9. % Increase in MTTF with node-level duplication for System 19

Table 2. Improvement in #nodes duplicated using Model-driven vs Traditional approaches

Improvement in nodes duplicated		System Number						Average
		10	11	12	13	18	19	
%MTTF Improvement (approx.)	25	420%	411%	1700%	657%	324%	531%	674%
	50	355%	388%	1147%	431%	195%	271%	465%
	100	286%	277%	835%	307%	124%	158%	331%
	150	253%	228%	741%	268%	100%	118%	285%
	200	231%	202%	656%	223%	82%	95%	248%
Average		309%	301%	1016%	377%	165%	235%	

the MTTF continues to increase until about 90% of the nodes are duplicated. This indicates that failures occur in upto 90% of the nodes, even though to a small degree, as shown in Fig. 10. Therefore the average improvement for these systems is 165%

and 235% respectively. For Systems 10, 11 and 13, it is seen that failures occur in only about 50% of the nodes (please see Fig. 11), thus there is an initial rapid improvement in MTTF using the model-driven approach as compared to the traditional approach. The average improvement for these systems ranges between 300 to 375%. For System 12, failures are concentrated in only upto 25% of the nodes, as shown in Fig. 12. Therefore, the improvement is even more stark and rapid, thereby showing an average improvement of about 1000%.



**Fig. 10.** Marginal increase in fault coverage with model-driven node duplication for System 18

Secondly, the improvement achieved in the nodes to be duplicated decreases as we try to achieve higher increments in MTTF. In other words, the gain in number of nodes duplicated for 25% improvement in MTTF is higher than that for 50% improvement in MTTF, which in turn is greater than that for a 100% improvement in MTTF and so on. This supports intuition since the model-driven approach is essentially greedy. It attempts to pick the node that provides the next best improvement in MTTF (or failure coverage). Therefore, the marginal increase in failure coverage for every additional node that is duplicated decreases monotonically. However, for a random selection of nodes, it is possible that nodes selected at later stages for duplication have a higher increment in the failure coverage than that of nodes selected in the earlier picks. These two trends are depicted in Fig. 13.

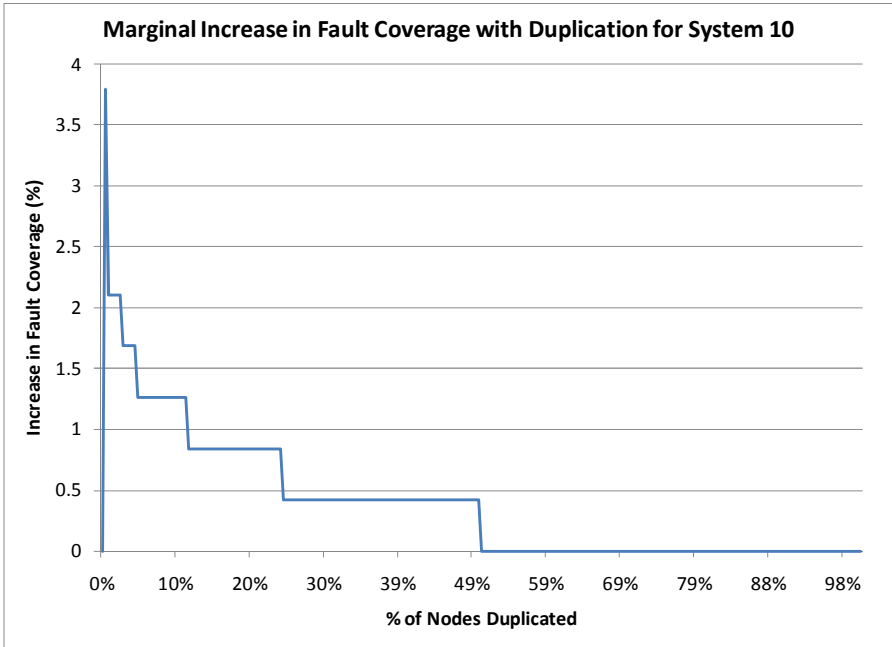


Fig. 11. Marginal increase in fault coverage with model-driven node duplication for System 10

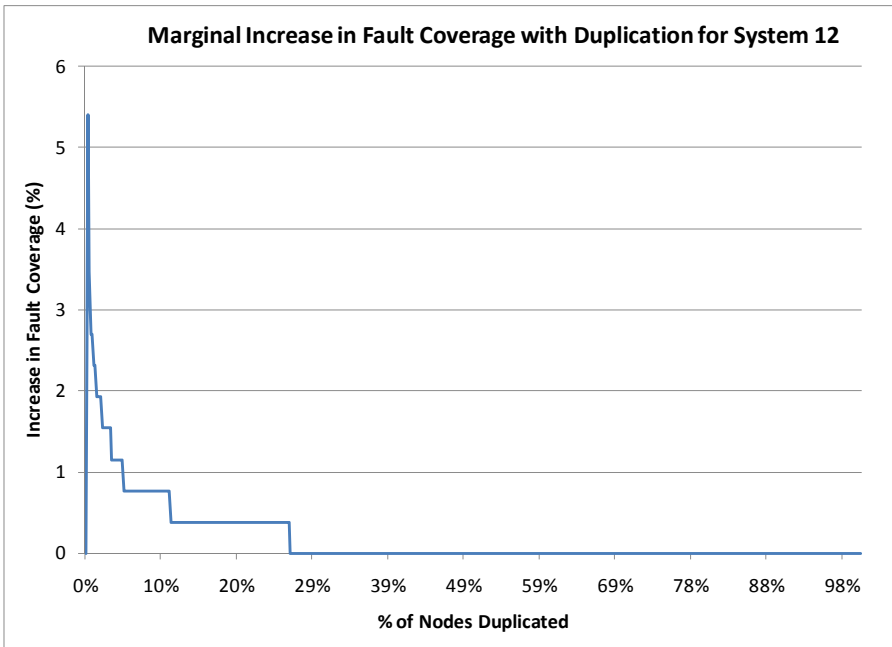


Fig. 12. Marginal increase in fault coverage with model-driven node duplication for System 12



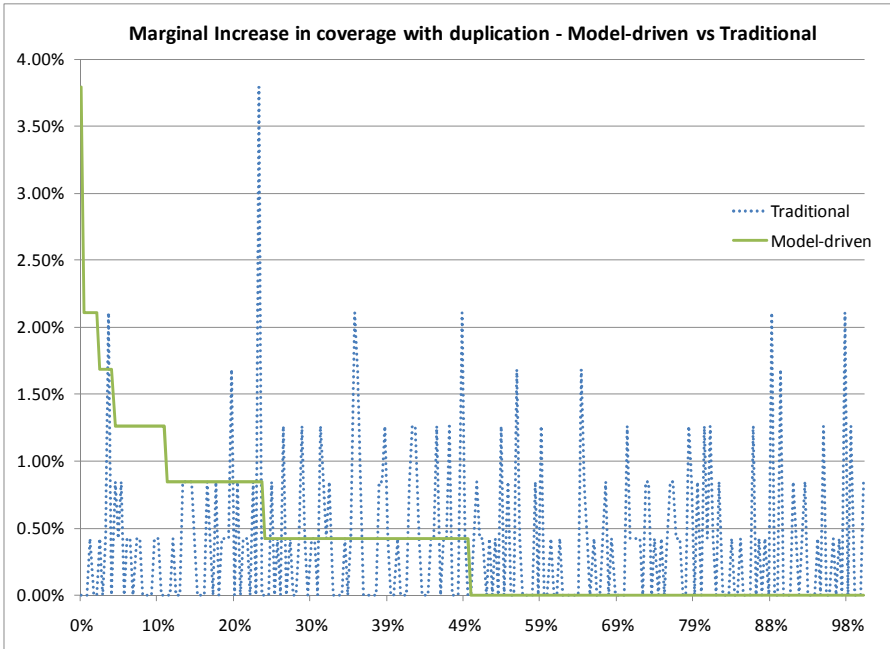


Fig. 13. Marginal increase in failure coverage for traditional and model-driven approaches

## 5 Conclusions and Future Directions

In this paper, we have presented our analysis of the failure behavior of large scale systems using the failure logs collected by Los Alamos National Laboratory on 22 of their computing clusters. We note that not all nodes show similar failure behavior in the systems. Our objective, therefore, was to arrive at an ordering of nodes to be incrementally (one by one) selected for duplication so as to achieve a target MTTF for the system after duplicating the least number of nodes. The network configuration of the systems and the consequent unequal distribution of workloads showed a close correlation with the failure behavior of the nodes. Using the start times and the down times logged for the failures we derived the time between failures and the mean time for repairs failures on a node. Using these two derived quantities, we arrived at a model for the fault coverage provided by duplicated each node and ordered the nodes according to coverage provided by each node. We saw that as compared to traditional approach of randomly choosing nodes for duplication, our model-driven approach provides improvements ranging from 82% to 1700% depending on the improvement in MTTF that is targeted and the failure distribution of the nodes in the system. The variations due to these parameters have also been explained.

The failure data from LANL provides node level failure information even though each node has multiple processors. Also, different nodes have different number of processors, therefore a more fine-grained logging of failures at the processor-level could provide even higher improvement in hardware overheads in achieving higher levels of System-level MTTFs.

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