algorithm and use Winograd’s efficient small DFT algorithms for each of the factors (Kolba and Parks, 1977).

Very efficient general-purpose FFT subroutines combine all of the above algorithms and permit the efficient calculation of the DFT for a wide selection of N values. When the data is real, or real and symmetric (cosine transform) or real and anti-symmetric (sine transform), special efficient algorithms can be used to avoid redundant calculations.

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FAULT-TOLERANT COMPUTING

For articles on related subjects see CLUSTER COMPUTING; DISTRIBUTED SYSTEMS; ERROR CORRECTING AND DETECTING CODE; ERRORS; and REDUNDANT ARRAY OF INEXPENSIVE DISKS.

Fault-tolerant computing is the art and science of building computing systems that continue to operate satisfactorily in the presence of faults. A fault-tolerant system may be able to tolerate one or more fault types, including (1) transient, intermittent or perma-

nent hardware faults, (2) software and hardware design errors, (3) operator errors, or (4) externally induced upsets or physical damage. An extensive methodology has been developed in this field over the past 40 years, and a number of fault-tolerant machines have been developed—most dealing with random hardware faults, while a smaller number deal with software, design and operator faults to varying degrees. A large amount of supporting research has been reported.

Fault tolerance and dependable systems research covers a wide spectrum of applications ranging across embedded real-time systems (q.v.), commercial transaction systems, transportation systems, and military/space systems—to name a few. The supporting research includes system architecture, design techniques, coding theory, testing, validation, proof of correctness, modeling, software reliability, operating systems, parallel processing, and real-time processing. These areas often involve widely diverse core expertise ranging from formal logic, mathematics of stochastic modeling, graph theory (q.v.), hardware design and software engineering (q.v.).

The primary forum for presenting research in this field has been the annual IEEE International Symposium on Fault-Tolerant Computing (FTCS) and the papers in its Digests provide a primary reference source.

Basic Concepts

HARDWARE FAULT TOLERANCE

The majority of fault-tolerant designs have been directed toward building computers that automatically recover from random faults occurring in hardware components. The techniques employed to do this generally involve partitioning a computing system into modules that act as fault-containment regions. Each module is backed up with protective redundancy so that, if the module fails, others can assume its function. Special mechanisms are added to detect errors and implement recovery. Two general approaches to hardware fault recovery have been used: (1) fault masking and (2) dynamic recovery.

Fault masking is a structural redundancy technique that completely masks faults within a set of redundant modules. A number of identical modules execute the same functions, and their outputs are voted to remove errors created by a faulty module. Triple modular redundancy (TMR) is a commonly used form of fault masking in which the circuitry is triplicated and voted. The voting circuitry can also be triplicated so that individual voter failures can also be corrected by the voting process. A TMR system fails whenever two modules in a redundant triplet create errors so that the vote is no longer valid. Hybrid redundancy is an extension of TMR in which the triplicated modules are
backed up with additional spares, which are used to replace faulty modules—allowing more faults to be tolerated. Voted systems require more than three times as much hardware as non-redundant systems, but they have the advantage that computations can continue without interruption when a fault occurs, allowing existing operating systems to be used.

Dynamic recovery is required when only one copy of a computation is running at a time (or in some cases two unchecked copies), and it involves automated self-repair. As in fault masking, the computing system is partitioned into modules backed up by spares as protective redundancy. In the case of dynamic recovery, however, special mechanisms are required to detect faults in the modules, switch out a faulty module, switch in a spare, and instigate those software actions (rollback, initialization, retry, restart) necessary to restore and continue the computation. In single computers special hardware is required along with software to do this, while in multicomputers the function is often managed by the other processors.

Dynamic recovery is generally more hardware-efficient than voted systems, and it is therefore the approach of choice in resource-constrained (e.g., low-power) systems, and especially in high-performance scalable systems in which the amount of hardware resources devoted to active computing must be maximized. Its disadvantage is that computational delays occur during fault recovery, fault coverage is often lower, and specialized operating systems may be required.

SOFTWARE FAULT TOLERANCE

Efforts to attain software that can tolerate software design faults (programming errors) have made use of static and dynamic redundancy approaches similar to those used for hardware faults. One such approach, N-version programming, uses static redundancy in the form of independently written programs (versions) that perform the same functions, and their outputs are voted at special checkpoints. Here, of course, the data being voted may not be exactly the same, and a criterion must be used to identify and reject faulty versions and to determine a consistent value (through inexact voting) that all good versions can use. An alternative dynamic approach is based on the concept of recovery blocks. Programs are partitioned into blocks and acceptance tests are executed after each block. If an acceptance test fails, a redundant code block is executed.

An approach called design diversity combines hardware and software fault-tolerance by implementing a fault-tolerant computer system using different hardware and software in redundant channels. Each channel is designed to provide the same function, and a method is provided to identify when one channel deviates unacceptably from the others. The goal is to tolerate both hardware and software design faults. This is a very expensive technique, but it is used in very critical aircraft control applications.

History

The SAPO computer built in Prague, Czechoslovakia, was probably the first fault-tolerant computer. It was built in 1950–1954 under the supervision of A. Svoboda, using relays and a magnetic drum memory. The processor used triplication and voting (TMR), and the memory implemented error detection with automatic retries when an error was detected. A second machine developed by the same group (EPOS) also contained comprehensive fault tolerance features. The fault tolerant features of these machines were motivated by the local unavailability of reliable components and a high probability of reprisals by the ruling authorities should the machine fail.

Over the past 30 years, a number of fault-tolerant computers have been developed that fall into three general types: (1) long-life, unmaintainable computers, (2) ultradependable, real-time computers, and (3) high-availability computers.

LONG-LIFE, UNMAINTAINABLE COMPUTERS

Applications such as spacecraft require computers to operate for long periods of time without external repair. Typical requirements are a probability of 95% that the computer will operate correctly for 5–10 years. Machines of this type must use hardware in a very efficient fashion, and they are typically constrained to low power, weight, and volume. Therefore, it is not surprising that NASA was an early sponsor of fault-tolerant computing. In the 1960s, the first fault-tolerant machine to be developed and flown was the on-board computer for the Orbiting Astronomical Observatory (OAO), which used fault masking at the component (transistor) level.

The JPL Self-Testing-and-Repairing (STAR) computer was NASA’s next fault-tolerant computer, developed in the late 1960s for a 10-year mission to the outer planets. The STAR computer, designed under the leadership of A. Avižienis, was the first computer to employ dynamic recovery throughout its design. Various modules of the computer were instrumented to detect internal faults and signal fault conditions to a special test and repair processor that effected reconfiguration and recovery. An experimental version of the STAR was implemented in the laboratory and its fault tolerance properties were verified by experimental testing.

Perhaps the most successful long-life space application has been the JPL Voyager computers that have
now operated in space for 20 years. This system uses dynamic redundancy in which pairs of redundant computers check each other by exchanging messages, and if a computer fails, its partner can take over the computations. This type of design has been used on several subsequent spacecraft.

**ULTRADEPENDABLE REAL-TIME COMPUTERS**

These are computers for which an error or delay can prove to be catastrophic. They are designed for applications such as control of aircraft, mass transportation systems, and nuclear power plants. The applications justify massive investments in redundant hardware, software, and testing.

One of the first operational machines of this type was the Saturn V guidance computer, developed in the 1960s. It contained a TMR processor and duplicated memories (each using internal error detection). Processor errors were masked by voting, and a memory error was circumvented by reading from the other memory. The next machine of this type was the Space Shuttle computer. It was a rather ad hoc design that used four computers that executed the same programs and were voted. A fifth, non-redundant, computer was included with different programs in case a software error was encountered.

During the 1970s, two influential fault-tolerant machines were developed by NASA for fuel-efficient aircraft that require continuous computer control in flight. They were designed to meet the most stringent reliability requirements of any computer up to that time. Both machines employed hybrid redundancy. The first, designated Software Implemented Fault Tolerance (SIFT), was developed by SRI International. It used off-the-shelf computers and achieved voting and reconfiguration primarily through software. The second machine, the Fault-Tolerant Multiprocessor (FTMP), developed by the C. S. Draper Laboratory at MIT, used specialized hardware to effect error and fault recovery. A commercial company, August Systems, was a spin-off from the SIFT program. It has developed a TMR system intended for process control applications. The FTMP has evolved into the Fault-Tolerant Processor (FTP), used by Draper in several applications and the Fault-Tolerant Parallel Processor (FTPP)—a parallel processor that allows processes to run in a single machine or in duplex, triplex or quadrupled groups of processors. This highly innovative design is fully Byzantine resilient and allows multiple groups of redundant processors to be interconnected to form scalable systems. (A processor has a *Byzantine* failure if it appears to function normally but gives incorrect results.)

The new generation of fly-by-wire aircraft exhibit a very high degree of fault tolerance in their real-time flight control computers. For example, the Airbus airliners use redundant channels with different processors and diverse software to protect against design errors as well as hardware faults. Other areas where fault tolerance is being used include control of public transportation systems and the distributed computer systems now being incorporated in automobiles.

**HIGH-AVAILABILITY COMPUTERS**

Many applications require very high availability but can tolerate an occasional error or very short delays (on the order of a few seconds), while error recovery is taking place. Hardware designs for these systems are often considerably less expensive than those used for ultra-dependable real-time computers. Computers of this type often use duplex designs. Example applications are telephone switching and transaction processing.

The most widely used fault-tolerant computer systems developed during the 1960s were in electronic switching systems (ESS) that are used in telephone switching offices. The first of these AT&T machines, No. 1 ESS, had a goal of no more than two hours downtime in 40 years. The computers are duplicated to detect errors, with some dedicated hardware and extensive software used to identify faults and effect replacement. These machines have since evolved over several generations to No. 5 ESS, which uses a distributed system controlled by the 3B20D fault-tolerant computer.

The largest commercial success in fault-tolerant computing has been in the area of transaction processing (q.v.) for banks, airline reservations, etc. Tandem Computers, Inc., was the first major producer and is the current leader in this market. The design approach is a distributed system using a sophisticated form of duplication. For each running process, there is a backup process running on a different computer. The primary process is responsible for checkpointing its state to duplex disks. If it should fail, the backup process can restart from the last checkpoint (q.v.). Stratus Computer has become another major producer of fault-tolerant machines for high-availability applications. Their approach uses duplex self-checking computers where each computer of a duplex pair is itself internally duplicated and compared to provide high-coverage concurrent error detection. The duplex pair of self-checking computers are run synchronously so that if one fails, the other can continue the computations without delay.

Finally, the IBM mainframe series which evolved from the IBM 360 (see IBM 360/370/390 SERIES) has always used extensive fault tolerance techniques of internal checking, instruction retries and automatic switching of redundant units to provide very high availability. The newest CMOS-VLSI version, G4, uses coding on
 registers and on-chip duplication for error detection, and it contains redundant processors, memories, I/O modules, and power supplies to recover from hardware faults, providing very high levels of dependability.

The server market represents a new and rapidly growing market for fault-tolerant machines driven by the growth of the Internet and local networks and their needs for uninterrupted service. Many major server manufacturers offer systems that contain redundant processors, disks, and power supplies, and automatically switch to backups if a failure is detected. Examples are Sun's UltraSparc and the HP/Stratus Continuum 400. Other vendors are working on fault-tolerant cluster technology where other machines in a network can take over the tasks of a failed machine. An example is the Microsoft MSCS technology.

Validation of Fault Tolerance

One of the most difficult tasks in the design of a fault-tolerant machine is to verify that it will meet its reliability requirements. This requires creating a number of models. The first model is of the error/fault environment that is expected. Other models specify the structure and behavior of the design. It is then necessary to determine how well the fault-tolerance mechanisms work by analytic studies and fault simulations. The results, in the form of error rates, fault rates, latencies, and coverages, are used in reliability prediction models.

A number of probabilistic models have been developed using Markov and semi-Markov stochastic processes to predict the reliability of fault-tolerant machines as a function of time. These models have been implemented in several computer-aided design tools. Some of the better known tools are:

HARP—Hybrid Automated Reliability Predictor (Duke University)
SAVE—System Availability Estimator (IBM)
SHARPE—Symbolic Hierarchical Automated Reliability and Performance Evaluator (Duke)
UltraSAN—(University of Illinois)
DEPEND—(University of Illinois)
SURF-2—Laboratoire d’Analyse et d’Architecture des Systèmes (LAAS)

Recently there has been a great deal of research in experimental testing by fault insertion to aid in assessing the reliability of dependable systems. Among the fault injection tools that have been developed to evaluate fault tolerant systems are FTAPe (University of Illinois), Ballista (CMU), and MEFISTO (LAAS).

Conclusion

Fault tolerance is achieved by applying a set of analysis and design techniques to create systems with dramatically improved dependability. As new technologies are developed and new applications arise, new fault tolerance approaches are also needed. In the early days of fault-tolerant computing, it was possible to craft specific hardware and software solutions from the ground up, but now chips contain complex, highly integrated functions, and hardware and software must be crafted to meet a variety of standards to be economically viable. Thus a great deal of current research focuses on implementing fault tolerance using COTS (Commercial-Off-The-Shelf) technology.

Recent developments include the adaptation of existing fault-tolerance techniques to RAID disks, where information is striped across several disks to improve bandwidth and a redundant disk is used to hold encoded information so that data can be reconstructed if a disk fails. Another area is the use of application-based fault tolerance techniques to detect errors in high performance parallel processors. Fault tolerance techniques are expected to become increasingly important in deep submicron VLSI devices to combat increasing noise problems and improve yield by tolerating defects that are likely to occur on very large complex chips.

Fault-tolerant computing already plays a major role in process control, transportation, electronic commerce, space, communications, and many other areas that impact our lives. Many of its next advances will occur when applied to new state-of-the-art systems such as massively parallel scalable computing, promising new unconventional architectures such as processor-in-memory or reconfigurable computing, mobile computing (q.v.), and the other exciting new advances that lie around the corner.

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Optical fibers are thin, flexible strands of clear glass or plastic that can serve as a transmission medium capable of carrying up to several gigabits of information per second over short or long distances. They perform the same basic functions as copper wires or coaxial cables in carrying voice, data, or video information, but they transmit light instead of electrical signals. An optical fiber transmission system, shown in Fig. 1, is similar to a conventional transmission system, except that the transmitter uses a light-emitting or laser diode to convert electrical information signals to light signals while the receiver uses a photodiode to convert the light back into electrical signals. Optical repeaters are needed to regenerate the light signals only for links that exceed their distance limitations.

Optical fibers offer so many distinct advantages that they are rapidly replacing older transmission media in applications ranging from telephony to computers and automated factories. These advantages include:

1. Large bandwidth—Modern optical fibers can have bandwidths thousands of times greater than the best coaxial cables. Practical bandwidths, however, are much smaller than theoretically possible because of limitations of current multiplexers and optical transmitters–receivers.

2. Low loss—The attenuation or loss of an optical fiber is essentially independent of the transmission rate, whereas other media exhibit increasing attenuation with increasing transmission rates. The implication is that signal repeaters need not be placed so close together, reducing the cost of fiber optics systems.

3. Electromagnetic immunity—Because they are conductors of light and not of electricity, optical fibers are not affected by stray electromagnetic fields. Consequently, fiber optics systems exhibit low noise, high data and low error rate characteristics.

4. Small size and light weight—Size and weight are important factors when considering overcrowded conduits running under city streets. For the same bandwidth, fibers are hundreds of times smaller and lighter than copper conductors.

5. Safety and electrical insulation—Because optical fibers are insulators, they provide electrical isolation between the source and the destination. Therefore, optical fibers present no electrical spark hazards and can be used where electrical codes and common sense prohibit the use of electrical conductors.

The major disadvantages of fibers are that they are more difficult to work with than the more conventional twisted pairs or coaxial cables. They are much smaller and more delicate, making splicing and coupling more difficult. Furthermore, they are more brittle than metallic conductors; thus they must be mechanically protected and cannot be sharply bent. These disadvantages, however, are minor compared with the benefits they provide, making fibers the transmission medium of choice, especially for interbuilding and wide area networking.