BIT ERROR ROBUSTNESS FOR ENERGY-EFFICIENT DNN ACCELERATORS

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ABSTRACT

Deep neural network (DNN) accelerators received considerable attention in past years due to saved energy compared to mainstream hardware. Low-voltage operation of DNN accelerators allows to further reduce energy consumption significantly, however, causes bit-level failures in the memory storing the quantized DNN weights. In this paper, we show that a combination of **robust fixed-point quantization**, **weight clipping**, and **random bit error training (RANDBET) improves robustness against random bit errors in (quantized) DNN weights significantly. This leads to high energy savings from** *both* **low-voltage operation** *as well as* **low-precision quantization. Furthermore, our approach generalizes across operating voltages and accelerators, as demonstrated on bit errors from profiled SRAM arrays. Without losing more than 1% in accuracy, we can reduce energy consumption on CIFAR10 by 20% for a 8-bit quantized DNN. Higher energy savings of, e.g., 30%, are possible at the cost of 2.5% accuracy, even for 4-bit DNNs.**

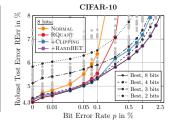
1 Introduction

Energy-efficiency is important to lower carbon-dioxide emissions of deep neural network (DNN) driven applications and to enable applications in edge computing. DNN accelerators, i.e., specialized hardware for inference, reduce energy consumption alongside cost and space compared to mainstream GPUs. These accelerators generally feature on-chip SRAM used as scratchpads, e.g., to store DNN weights. Data access/movement constitutes a dominant component of accelerator energy consumption (Sze et al., 2017). Thus, recently, DNN accelerators (Reagen et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2018; Chandramoorthy et al., 2019) lower memory supply voltage to increase energy efficiency since dynamic power varies quadratically with voltage. However, operating at very low voltages causes reliability issues in SRAMs in the form of bit-level failures (Ganapathy et al., 2017; Guo et al., 2009) with direct impact on the stored DNN weights. The rate p of these errors increases exponentially with lowered voltage, causing devastating drops in DNN accuracy.

Fig. 1 (left) shows the average bit error rates of SRAM arrays as supply voltage is scaled below V_{\min} , i.e., the measured lowest voltage at which there are no bit errors. DNNs robust to a bit error rate (blue, left y-axis) of, e.g., p=1% allow to reduce SRAM energy by roughly 30%. To improve DNN robustness to bit errors, we first consider the impact of fixed-point quantization on robustness. While prior work (Murthy et al., 2019; Merolla et al., 2016; Sung et al., 2015) studies robustness to quantization, we find that the choice of quantization scheme has tremendous impact on robustness, even though accuracy is not affected. We identify a particularly **robust quantization scheme**, RQUANT in Fig. 1 (right, red). Additionally, we propose aggressive **weight clipping** during training as regularization to improve robustness, CLIPPING in Fig. 1 (right, blue). This is in contrast to, e.g., (Zhuang et al., 2018; Sung et al., 2015) ignoring weight outliers to reduce quantization range, with sole focus of improving accuracy.

Common error correcting codes (ECCs such as SECDED), cannot correct *multiple* bit errors per word (containing multiple DNN weights). However, for p=1%, the probability of two or more bit errors in a 64-bit word is 13.5%. Error detection via redundancy (Reagen et al., 2016) or supply voltage boosting (Chandramoorthy et al., 2019) allow error-free low-voltage operation at the cost of additional energy or space. Therefore, (Kim et al., 2018; Koppula et al., 2019) propose co-design

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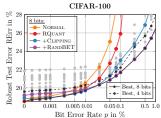


Figure 1: Left: Energy and Low-Voltage Operation. Average bit error rate p (blue, left y-axis) from 32 14nm SRAM arrays of size 512×64 from (Chandramoorthy et al., 2019) and energy (red, right y-axis) vs voltage (x-axis). Voltage is normalized by V_{\min} , the minimal measured voltage for error-free operation. Reducing voltage leads to exponentially increasing bit error rates. **Right:** Robustness to Random Bit Errors. Robust test error (test error *after* injecting bit errors in the quantized weights, RErr) plotted against bit error rate p (x-axis). We highlight the best model for each bit error rate for, e.g., RANDBET (in violet). For 8 bit and low bit error rates, CLIPPING is often sufficient. However, for 4 bit or higher bit error rates, RANDBET is crucial to keep RErr low.

approaches of training DNNs on *profiled* SRAM/DRAM bit errors. These approaches work as the spatial bit error patterns can be assumed fixed for a *fixed* accelerator *and* voltage. However, the random nature of variation-induced bit errors requires profiling to be carried out for each voltage, memory array and individual chip making training DNNs on profiled bit error patterns an expensive process. More importantly, the obtained DNNs do *not* generalize across voltages or to unseen bit error patterns, e.g., from other memory arrays. We propose **random bit error training (RANDBET)** which, in combination with weight clipping and robust quantization, obtains robustness against completely *random* bit error patterns, see Fig. 1 (right, violet). Thereby, it generalizes across chips *and* voltages, without profiling, hardware-specific mapping or other circuit-level mitigation strategies. This paper is a short version of our MLSys'21 work (Stutz et al., 2021).

2 LOW-VOLTAGE RANDOM BIT ERRORS IN QUANTIZED DNN WEIGHTS

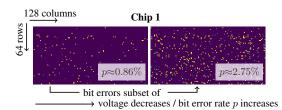
We assume the quantized DNN weights to be stored (linearly) on multiple memory banks, e.g., SRAM or DRAM. Following (Ganapathy et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2018; Chandramoorthy et al., 2019), the probability of memory bit cell failures increases exponentially as operating voltage is scaled below $V_{\rm min}$, i.e., the minimal voltage required for reliable operation, cf. Fig. 1. This is done intentionally to reduce energy consumption, e.g., (Chandramoorthy et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2018; Koppula et al., 2019), or adversarially by an attacker, e.g., (Tang et al., 2017). Process variation during fabrication causes a variation in the vulnerability of individual bit cells. For a specific memory array, bit cell failures are typically approximately random and independent of each other (Ganapathy et al., 2017). Nevertheless, there is generally an "inherited" distribution of bit cell failures across voltages: as described in (Ganapathy et al., 2019), if a bit error occurred at a given voltage, it is likely to occur at lower voltages, cf. Fig. 2 (left). However, across different SRAM arrays or different chips, the patterns or spatial distribution of bit errors is usually different and can be assumed random (Chandramoorthy et al., 2019). Throughout the paper, we use the following bit error model:

Random Bit Error Model: The probability of a bit error is p (in %) for all weight values and bits. For a fixed memory array, bit errors are persistent across supply voltages, i.e., bit errors at probability $p' \le p$ also occur at probability p. A bit error flips the currently stored bit. We denote random bit error injection by $BErr_p$.

This error model captures the nature of low-voltage induced bit errors, from both SRAM and DRAM (Chandramoorthy et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2018; Koppula et al., 2019). However, our approach in Sec. 3 is model-agnostic: the error model can be refined if extensive memory characterization results are available for individual chips. However, estimating these specifics requires testing infrastructure and introduces the risk of overfitting. Furthermore, we demonstrate that the robustness obtained using our uniform error model generalizes to profiled bit errors from real chips, cf. Fig. 2 (right).

3 TOWARDS ROBUSTNESS AGAINST RANDOM BIT ERRORS

Robust Fixed-Point Quantization: We consider quantization-aware training using a simple fixed-point quantization scheme commonly used in DNN accelerators (Chandramoorthy et al., 2019): Let



Model (CIFAR10)	RErr in %, p in %	
Fixed Pattern	p=1	p=2.5
PATTBET _{0.15} p=2.5	8.50	7.41
Random Patterns	p=1	p=2.5
PATTBET _{0.15} p =2.5	12.09	61.59
Profiled Chip (cf. left)	$p\approx0.86$	$p\approx2.75$
RANDBET _{0.05} p =1.5	7.04	9.37

Figure 2: Left: Exemplary SRAM Bit Error Patterns. Measured bit errors from on-chip SRAM, showing bit flip probability for a segment of 64×128 bits: yellow indicates a bit flip probability of one, violet indicates zero probability. We show measurements corresponding to two supply voltages. Right (top): Fixed Pattern Bit Error Training. RErr for training on a fixed bit error pattern (PATTBET) and evaluation on the same pattern and completely random patterns. PATTBET fails to generalize to lower bit error rates (in red), i.e., subsets of bit errors trained on, as well as random bit errors (i.e., other chips). Right (bottom): Generalization to Profiled Bit Errors. RErr for RANDBET on the profiled bit errors shown on the left. RANDBET generalizes well to the profiled bit errors, even though the pattern was not seen during training.

f(x;w) be a DNN taking an example $x \in [0,1]^D$, e.g., an image, and weights $w \in \mathbb{R}^W$ as input. Quantization determines how weights are represented in memory, e.g., on SRAM. In a fixed-point quantization scheme, m bits allow to represent 2^m distinct values. A weight $w_i \in [-q_{\max}, q_{\max}]$ is represented by a signed m-bit integer $v_i = Q(w_i)$ corresponding to the underlying bits. Here, $[-q_{\max}, q_{\max}]$ is the symmetric quantization range and signed integers use two's complement representation. Then, $Q: [-q_{\max}, q_{\max}] \mapsto \{-2^{m-1} - 1, \dots, 2^{m-1} - 1\}$ is defined as $Q(w_i) = \lfloor w_i/\Delta \rfloor$, $Q^{-1}(v_i) = \Delta v_i$ with $\Delta = \frac{q_{\max}}{2^{m-1} - 1}$. In global quantization, q_{\max} is chosen to accommodate all weights, i.e., $q_{\max} = \max_i |w_i|$. However, it has become standard to apply quantization perlayer allowing to adapt q_{\max} to each layer. The **per-layer**, symmetric quantization is our default reference, referred to as NORMAL.

To further reduce quantization error, we also consider arbitrary quantization ranges $[q_{\min}, q_{\max}]$ (allowing $q_{\min} > 0$): we map $[q_{\min}, q_{\max}]$ to [-1, 1] and quantize [-1, 1] as above. The resulting per-layer asymmetric quantization has the finest granularity (i.e., lowest Δ), however, is not the most robust. Therefore, we further replace the floor operation $\lfloor w_i/\Delta \rfloor$ with proper rounding $\lceil w_i/\Delta \rfloor$. Similarly, for asymmetric quantization, we use quantization into unsigned integers, i.e., $Q: [q_{\min}, q_{\max}] \mapsto \{0, \dots, 2^m - 1\}$, instead. It is important to note that these differences have little to no impact on accuracy, while having tremendous impact on robustness against bit errors.

Weight Clipping refers to constraining the weights to $[-w_{\max}, w_{\max}]$ during training, where w_{\max} is a hyper-parameter. Generally, w_{\max} is independent of the quantization range(s) which always adapt(s) to the weight range(s) at hand. However, weight clipping limits the maximum possible quantization range, i.e., $q_{\max} \leq w_{\max}$. Note that the *relative* errors induced by bit errors do *not* change through weight clipping. As the DNN's decision is usually invariant to rescaling, reducing the scale of the weights does not impact robustness. Thus, weight clipping does *not* "trivially" improve robustness by reducing the scale of weights. Instead, we found that the interplay of weight clipping and minimizing the treors-entropy loss during training is the key. High confidences can only be achieved by large differences in the logits. Because the weights are limited to $[-w_{\max}, w_{\max}]$, large logits can only be achieved using more weights in each layer to produce larger outputs. As a result, weight clipping leads to more weights being utilized, i.e., more redundancy in the weights, making them less susceptible to (bit) errors, as illustrated in Fig. 3 (left).

Random Bit Error Training (RANDBET): In *addition to* weight clipping and robust quantization, we inject random bit errors with probability p during training to further improve robustness. This results in the following learning problem:

$$\min_{w} \mathbb{E}[\mathcal{L}(f(x; \tilde{w}), y) + \mathcal{L}(f(x; w), y)] \quad \text{s.t.} \quad v = Q(w), \ \tilde{v} = \text{BErr}_p(v), \ \tilde{w} = Q^{-1}(\tilde{v}). \tag{1}$$

where (x,y) are labeled examples, $\mathcal L$ is the cross-entropy loss and v=Q(w) denotes the (elementwise) quantized weights w which are to be learned. $\operatorname{BErr}_p(v)$ injects random bit errors with rate p in v. Note that we consider both the loss on clean weights and weights with bit errors to avoid an increase in (clean) test error and stabilizes training. Note that bit error rate p implies, in expectation, pmW bit errors. We use stochastic gradient descent to optimize Eq. (1), by performing the gradient computation using the perturbed weights $\tilde{w}=Q^{-1}(\tilde{v})$ with $\tilde{v}=\operatorname{BErr}_p(v)$, while applying the gradient update on the (floating-point) clean weights w.

Figure 3: Left: Effect of Weight Clipping. Weight clipping constraints the weights (right), thereby implicitly limiting the possible range for logits (left, blue). However, even for $w_{\rm max}=0.1$ the DNN is able to produce high confidences (middle, blue), suggesting that more weights are used to obtain these logits. As result, the impact of random bit errors, p=1%, on the logits/confidences (red) is reduced. Right: Random Bit Error Training (RANDBET). Average RErr of RANDBET evaluated at bit error rates p=0.5% and p=1.5% using m=8 or 4 bits. For low p, weight clipping provides sufficient robustness. For larger p, RANDBET increases robustness significantly.

4 EXPERIMENTS

We conduct experiments on CIFAR (Krizhevsky, 2009) and report (clean) test error Err (lower is better, \downarrow), corresponding to *clean* weights, and **robust test error RErr** (\downarrow), i.e., the **test error after injecting bit errors into the weights**. We report *average* RErr across 50 samples of random bit errors for a specific rate p. We use SimpleNet (HasanPour et al., 2016) on CIFAR10 and Wide ResNet (WRN) (Zagoruyko & Komodakis, 2016) on CIFAR100. Normal training with the standard and our robust quantization are denoted NORMAL and RQUANT, respectively. Weight clipping with w_{max} is referred to as CLIPPING w_{max} or together with RANDBET as RANDBET w_{max} .

Fig. 3 (right) presents RErr on CIFAR10 for m=8 and m=4 bit, showing that our combination of RQUANT, CLIPPING and RANDBET (trained with p=1% bit error rate) improves robustness to random bit errors significantly, especially for high bit error rates. For smaller bit error rates, e.g., p=0.5%, CLIPPING with $w_{\rm max}=0.1$ might be sufficient for robust operation, achieving 6.95%RErr, while RANDBET is necessary at higher bit error rates, e.g., p=1.5%. For lower precision, i.e., m=4 bits, the benefit of RANDBET is pronounced even further, reducing RErr significantly from 15.79% to 9.77% for p=1.5%. We also emphasize that RANDBET generalize to lower bit errors than trained on. This is in contrast to related work (Kim et al., 2018; Koppula et al., 2019), training on fixed bit error patterns (e.g., profiled from one chip) as demonstrated in Fig. 2 (right). RANDBET also generalizes to bit errors profiled from real chips, see Fig. 2 (right).

Our experiments are summarized in Fig. 1 (right), plotting RErr against bit error rate p for various CLIPPING and RANDBET models corresponding to different $w_{\rm max}/p$ (indicated in • gray) in comparison to NORMAL and RQUANT. RQUANT (red) clearly outperforms NORMAL (orange), however, RErr increases quickly even for low bit error rates. CLIPPING (blue) generally reduces RErr, but only the combination with RANDBET (violet) can keep RErr around 6% for a bit error rate of $p \approx 0.5\%$ on CIFAR10. This corresponds to roughly 25% energy savings in Fig. 1 (left). The best model for each bit error rate p and different precisions m is shown in black (e.g., solid for m=8 or dashed for m=4). Even for m=4 bits precision, RANDBET ensures low RErr. This enables energy savings from both low-voltage operation and low precision quantization.

5 Conclusion

Overall, the proposed combination of **robust quantization**, **weight clipping** and **random bit error training (RANDBET)** enables robust low-voltage operation *without* requiring expensive error correcting codes (ECCs) or other circuit techniques (Reagen et al., 2016; Chandramoorthy et al., 2019). Furthermore, our analysis applies both to DRAM, commonly off-chip, and SRAM, usually used as scratchpads on-chip of DNN accelerators. Compared to co-design approaches (Kim et al., 2018; Koppula et al., 2019), we do not require expert knowledge or expensive profiling infrastructure. Moreover, RANDBET improves over these approaches by generalizing across chips *and* voltages. We also show that robust fixed-point quantization *only with* weight clipping can provide reasonable robustness. Finally, to further reduce energy consumption, our approach also enables low-voltage operation at low precisions, e.g., 4 bits or lower.

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