Datacenter Power Management in Smart Grids

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Abstract

Cloud computing is a new computing paradigm and it is gaining wide popularity due to its benefits including reduced cost, ease of management, and increased reliability. In a cloud computing environment, companies or individuals offload their computing (hardware/software/data) to the cloud, which is supported by the computing infrastructure called datacenters. Datacenters consume large amounts of electricity to operate and bring enormous electricity bills to the operators. Associated emissions also cause significant negative impact to the environment. Meanwhile, a new kind of electrical grid, called the smart grid, is emerging. Smart grids enable two way communications between the power generators and the power consumers. Smart grid technology brings many salient features to help deliver power efficiently and reliably.

There are many efforts addressing either of the two tracks above. Different with them, we focus on cost-aware datacenter power management in presence of smart grids and review recent developments on this area. It involves understanding how a smart grid operates, where power goes in datacenters, and most importantly, how to reduce the power cost and/or negative environmental impact when operating datacenters. We first study new ideas of exploring spatial diversities provided by geographically distributed datacenters and show how to perform request routing. Then, we discuss the research that leverages temporal flexibilities given by delay-tolerant workload and present how to conduct workload scheduling. Thirdly, we study how to jointly optimize routing and scheduling by considering spatial diversities and temporal flexibilities together. These studies consider multiple features of smart grids, and develop different cost minimization approaches using techniques from the optimization, algorithmic, and feedback control fields. Moreover, we review studies incorporating the same solution framework with additional dimensions such as renewable and cooling.

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1

Introduction and Overview

Cloud computing is a new computing paradigm and it is gaining wide popularity due to the distinct benefits provided to the cloud users Armbrust et al. [2010]. Cloud computing enables users to have ubiquitous, convenient, and on-demand access to a shared pool of computing resources (e.g., servers, applications, and services). Cloud users no longer need massive capital investment in self-owned hardware and software or large expenses to operate them. They do not need to be concerned about over-provisioning or under-provisioning computing resources for their services. Instead, cloud users can pay for use of computing resources as needed and release them when not needed. This feature significantly simplifies users' resource management. Furthermore, the cloud keeps users' data safe and improves their service reliability.

The computing infrastructure supporting the cloud is called datacenters. The benefits for cloud users come with large-scale datacenter maintenance and management, which cause unacceptably heavy economic burden on cloud service providers. For example, a large datacenter hosts hundreds of thousands servers and requires megawatts of electricity Katz [2009]. This brings an electricity bill of millions of dollars annually to the operator. Moreover, associated carbon emissions

1.1. Datacenter Overview

from operating datacenters also cause significant negative impact to the environment. Organizations such as Google, Microsoft, Amazon, and many other cloud service providers are very concerned with their high power usages, electricity costs, and carbon emissions. Hence, an energyefficient, low-cost, and environment-friendly datacenter operation is a key enabler of cloud computing.

In the mean time, a new technology for the next generation electrical grid, called the smart grid, has been emerging Farhangi [2010]. A smart grid uses both information and communication technology, and enables a two way communication between the power suppliers and the power consumers. Many salient features brought by a smart grid including self-healing, load adjustment, bi-directional energy flows, time-ofuse pricing, demand response, etc., help deliver power more efficiently and reliably. Therefore, smart grids provide an excellent opportunity for better power management of datacenters. For example, cloud service providers could benefit from receiving real-time information of the electrical grid, such as electricity price and power availability. They can reduce their energy costs by dispatching workload to the datacenters where the electricity prices are lower and the power supplies are abundant. In this work, we review how to manage datacenter power consumption in the context of a smart grid, mainly focusing on utilizing features of time-of-use pricing and demand response to cut the datacenter electricity cost.

1.1 Datacenter Overview

Cloud-oriented datacenters are usually built in independent buildings, which are dedicated for hosting computing devices. Each datacenter can take up to several hundred thousand square feet in size, and can have a peak power usage of tens of megawatts (MWs). A cloud service provider may have tens or even hundreds of such datacenters distributed geographically and connected by the Internet. This section presents an overview of such a large-scale system, from three aspects including major components and their functions, power usage, and datacenter distribution.

Introduction and Overview

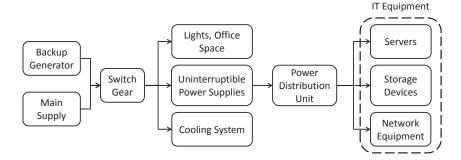


Figure 1.1: Components of a Datacenter.

1.1.1 Major Components

Fig. 1.1 shows typical components of a datacenter U.S. Environmental Protection Agency [2007]. There are three major components: IT equipment, cooling system, and power infrastructure. We list detailed description for each of the three major components as follows.

IT equipment. IT equipment includes servers for data processing, storage devices for data storage, and network equipment for data communications. They work together to support applications and services hosted in a datacenter. Servers are often mounted in rack cabinets and are interconnected by high-speed network equipment. Storage devices are usually placed alongside servers for lower access delay as well as easy management.

Cooling system. Cooling devices, usually referred to as computer room air conditioning (CRAC) units, extract the heat from IT equipment, and control the temperature and humidity in a datacenter. Typically, outside air is introduced into the top of a CRAC unit where it gets conditioned by passing through some coils containing chilled water. The chilled water is pumped from a chiller that cools down the returned hot water from CRAC units using mechanical refrigeration cycles or water-sider economizers Zhou et al. [2012], Liu et al. [2012]. The cooled air then passes IT equipment (primarily servers) through a raised floor plenum, and the fans pull the air into servers.

Power infrastructure. Different datacenters may have different

1.1. Datacenter Overview

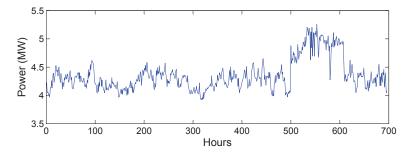


Figure 1.2: The figure is from Kong and Liu [2014], which illustrates the hourly power usage of a Google datacenter of 12,500 machines Goolge. All servers are assumed to be homogeneous. Each server has a peak power of 300W and idle power of 150W. Networking devices' power consumption equals 5% of the total peak power of all servers. Power Usage Effectiveness or PUE equals 1.5.

power infrastructure designs. We just give a typical case in the following. The power infrastructure generates and/or distributes power to cooling devices and IT equipment through a micro power grid that can integrate the electrical grid, local power supply (backup generator) and energy storage devices (UPS, uninterruptible power supplies). Electricity first flows to an UPS unit, which acts as a battery backup to prevent the IT equipment from experiencing power disruptions. The electricity is converted from AC to DC to charge the UPS batteries, and then reconverted from DC to AC before leaving the UPS. The electricity finally enters IT equipment through power distribution units (PDUs). Upon a power outage, UPS batteries keep powering up a datacenter using energy stored within them, until the backup power can start up or ramp up to match the datacenter's power load.

1.1.2 Power Usage

The total power usage of a datacenter can be approximately defined as the sum of IT equipment power, cooling power, and power distribution losses. They are related via the power usage effectiveness (PUE) metric, which equals total power divided by IT equipment power. A lower PUE means a higher power efficiency, i.e., a larger portion of power is used for computing devices instead of supporting facilities. Modern datacenters usually have a PUE around 1.1 to 2. The power usage of

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IT equipment consists of the aggregated power consumed by all servers (data storage included) and networking devices. Servers' power consumption can be estimated by a linear power model or dynamic voltage and frequency scaling (DVFS) power model (details will be discussed in Section 2). Networking devices' power consumption can be approximated as a constant offset and is in general less than 10% of the peak power of all servers in a datacenter Hamilton. Hence, if given a PUE and IT equipment power consumption, we can estimate the total power usage of a datacenter. For example, Fig. 1.2 (from Kong and Liu [2014]) shows power load estimation using a Google workload trace Goolge based on the linear power model in Fan et al. [2007]. The datacenter power load is highly variable but shows an approximate daily pattern of up-and-down. The first three weeks have a similar power load trace; while the last week experiences a load burst. A more detailed analysis on the Google workload trace can be found in Reiss et al. [2012]. A more accurate datacenter power usage estimation method relates PUE to the varying temperature. PUE is largely dependent on the scale of cooling power, and cooling power is closely tied to the temperature difference between the outside air and the insider air Liu et al. [2012]. For example, usually PUE for a cold weather will be smaller than that in a hot weather.

1.1.3 Datacenter Distribution

A cloud service provider may have tens or even hundreds of geodistributed datacenters connected at Internet scale. Each datacenter is connected to many Internet Service Providers (ISPs) that are responsible for carrying traffic between service providers and thousands to millions of users. Datacenters are interconnected by the backbone network. Datacenters are distributed to different locations according to many factors, such as population, power availability, network proximity, and climate. The geo-distributed feature of datacenters brings a number of diversities in service response time, capital and operational costs, and carbon emissions. Hence, these diversities can be leveraged to optimize different kinds of performances for an Internet scale datacenter system. For example, user requests can be dispatched to the

1.2. Smart Grid Overview

nearest datacenter (e.g., with the smallest round trip time (RTT)) for processing to reduce the response time perceived by users, or assigned to the datacenter location with the lowest temperature to reduce the datacenter cooling cost, or routed to the datacenter with the lowest electricity price to cut the datacenter operational cost.

1.2 Smart Grid Overview

Smart grids are the next generation power grids. Traditional electrical grids are used to carry power from several central power generators to a large number of customers. By contrast, a smart grid enables two-way energy and information flows to create an automated and distributed power delivery network. Smart grids have distinct features compared with traditional grids. For a comprehensive survey on smart grid systems, readers are referred to existing surveys, such as Fang et al. [2011]. In this work, we only describe features closely related to the datacenter power management.

Improved reliability. Smart grids employ advanced technologies for better self-monitoring and self-healing without manual intervention. With the help of real-time monitoring devices, a smart grid is able to reduce blackouts with minimum disruptions. It can automatically detect the problems, immediately respond to errors on power lines, and accurately isolate the error-prone links from the main power network. Reliable and quality power supply can significantly improve datacenter service availability.

Dynamic pricing. Communication and metering technologies of smart grids can inform electricity consumers (e.g., datacenters) via smart devices, when power demand is high in their regions. To motivate consumers to cut their load, the electricity price increases during high demand periods and decreases during low demand periods. Consequently, electricity consumers are stimulated to consume less during high demand periods as eventually they would see an economic gain by using energy at off-peak periods.

Enhanced sustainability. A smart grid is a key enabler for deep integration of renewable energy and distributed power generation. Smart

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grid technology allows for many distributed feed-in points and support bidirectional power flows. Furthermore, with the help of integrated monitoring and control, a smart grid can tackle the intermittancy and fluctuations of renewable energy, and can also maintain a consistent and stable power flow over the electrical grid. Hence, one electricity consumer can not only draw much cleaner power from the grid but also can install local power generators to become a power supplier.

Demand response. Generators and consumers can interact in a realtime manner with demand response support, adjusting demand to level out spikes. Advanced communication capabilities of a smart grid can provide consumers effective tools to receive incentive-based or emergency load reduction signals and to respond these signals accordingly. These capabilities not only eliminate the cost of adding reserve capacity for utilities but also cut the electricity bills for energy users who avoid coincidence with spikes. Moreover, consumers are even allowed to sell self-generated or stored energy back to the grid under policies such as net metering DSIRE.

1.3 Datacenter Power Management Overview

Along with the surging energy usage of datacenters, power management is becoming an important and active research area. An overview of challenges toward power management in datacenters is presented in Liu et al. [2009a]. Efforts such as the Climate Savers Computing Initiative (www.climatesaverscomputing.org) intended to help lower worldwide computer energy consumption by promoting widespread adoption of high efficiency power supplies and also by encouraging the use of power-saving features already present in users' equipment. Earlier research work on power management aims at reducing power consumption of servers within a single datacenter. Different hardware and software technologies have been proposed. In hardware level, the adoption of technologies, such as chip multiprocessing Barroso and Holzle [2007] and dynamic voltage and frequency scaling (DVFS) Horvath et al. [2007], has made more energy-efficient servers. In software level, the application of technologies, such as virtualiza-

1.4. Road Map

tion technologies Nathuji and Schwan [2007], Barham et al. [2003], dynamic power management Chase et al. [2001], Meisner et al. [2009], Ahmad and Vijaykumar [2010] and control theories Lefurgy et al. [2007], has further reduced servers' power consumption. In addition, there are new technologies developed to reduce the power of both servers and cooling device in a datacenter, such as Raghavendra et al. [2008], Liu et al. [2009b], Abbasi et al. [2012].

While all of the above works address how to reduce datacenter energy consumption, this work focuses on the problem of how to reduce the datacenter energy cost. The difference between energy saving and cost reduction mainly stems from the dynamics of the electricity market. For example, to minimize energy consumption, workload should be allocated to the most energy-efficient datacenters as much as possible. However, these datacenters may not locate at the region with the cheapest electricity price, and thus this allocation method would increase energy cost. Furthermore, there are two reasons for considering energy cost. First, energy cost is one of the major concerns for datacenter operators, such as Google and Facebook. For example, Google consumed $2.60 \times 10^6 MWh$ electricity in 2010, amounting to hundreds of million dollars Shao et al. [2013]. Second, lowering datacenter energy expenditure also contributes to emission reduction. For example, the electricity price increases as power suppliers put more spinning reserves on-line to meet the rising power demand. These reserves not only have higher power generation costs, but also usually use carbon-intensive fuel such as coal and diesel. Hence, lowering energy cost makes datacenters use less power when the price is high, and thus reduce carbon emissions.

1.4 Road Map

Figure 1.3 depicts the road map of this work. In Section 2, we study ideas of exploring spatial diversities provided by geographically distributed datacenters and show how to carry out request routing to minimize energy cost. In this section, we first present the objectives and constraints of the energy cost minimization problem for geograph-

Introduction and Overview

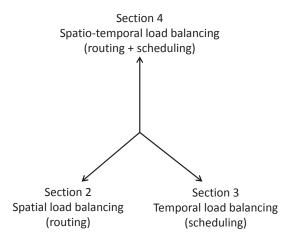


Figure 1.3: Road map of the work.

ically distributed datacenters. We then provide several solutions based on different pricing and power models using techniques from the optimization, algorithmic and feedback control fields. At the end of this section, we introduce several extensions of this model to deal with carbon emission reduction, renewable energy integration, and energy buffering. In Section 3, we provide the research that leverages temporal flexibilities given by delay-tolerant datacenter workload and present how to perform workload scheduling to save datacenter power cost. In Section 4, we study how to jointly optimize routing and scheduling by exploring both spatial diversities and temporal flexibilities. We first discuss the problem formulation and a cost minimizing solution, and then present several open problems for spatio-temporal load balancing. In Section 5, we conclude the work with summaries of main ideas discussed in previous sections.

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