

Energy-Efficient Management of Data Center Resources for Cloud Computing: A Vision, Architectural Elements, and Open Challenges

Aby Mathew C & Arjun Karat
Department of Computer Science
College of Engineering , Trivandrum

Abstract

Cloud computing is offering utility-oriented IT services to users worldwide. Based on a pay-as-you-model, it enables hosting of pervasive applications from consumer, scientific, and business domains. However, data centers hosting Cloud applications consume huge amounts of energy, contributing to high operational costs and carbon footprints to the environment. Therefore, we need Green Cloud computing solutions that can not only save energy for the environment but also reduce operational costs. This paper presents vision, challenges, and architectural elements for energy-efficient management of Cloud computing environments. We focus on the development of dynamic resource provisioning and allocation algorithms that consider the synergy between various data center infrastructures (i.e., the hardware, power units, cooling and software), and holistically work to boost data center energy efficiency and performance. In particular, this paper proposes (a) architectural principles for energy-efficient management of Clouds; (b) energy-efficient resource allocation policies and scheduling algorithms considering quality-of-service expectations, and devices power usage characteristics; and (c) a novel software technology for energy-efficient management of Clouds. We have validated our approach by conducting a set of rigorous performance evaluation study using the Cloud Sim toolkit. The results demonstrate that Cloud computing model has immense potential as it offers significant performance gains as regards to response time and cost saving under dynamic workload scenarios.

Introduction

Computing Utilities, Data Centers and Cloud Computing: Vision and Potential

In 1969, Leonard Kleinrock [1], one of the chief scientists of the original Advanced Research Projects Agency Network (ARPANET) which seeded the Internet, said: “As of now, computer networks are still in their infancy, but as they grow up and become sophisticated, we will probably see the spread of computer utilities which, like present electric and telephone utilities, will service individual homes and offices across the country.” This vision of computing utilities based on a service provisioning model anticipated the massive transformation of the entire computing industry in the 21st century whereby computing services will be readily available on demand, like other utility services available in today’s society.

Similarly, users (consumers) need to pay providers only when they access the computing services. In addition, consumers no longer need to invest heavily or encounter difficulties in building and maintaining complex IT infrastructure. In such a model, users access services based on their requirements without regard to where the services are hosted. This model has been referred to as utility computing, or recently as Cloud computing [5]. The latter term denotes the infrastructure as a “Cloud” from which businesses and users can access applications as services from anywhere in the world on demand. Hence, Cloud computing can be classified as a new paradigm for the dynamic provisioning of computing services supported by state-of-the-art data centers that usually employ Virtual Machine (VM) technologies for consolidation and environment isolation purposes [11]. Many computing service providers including Google, Microsoft, Yahoo, and IBM

are rapidly deploying data centers in various locations around the world to deliver Cloud computing services. The potential of this trend can be noted from the statement: "The Data Center Is The Computer," by Professor David Patterson of the University of California, Berkeley, an ACM Fellow, and former President of the ACM – CACM [2].

Cloud computing delivers infrastructure, platform, and software (applications) as services, which are made available to consumers as subscription-based services under the pay-as-you-go model. In industry these services are referred to as Infrastructure as a Service (IaaS), Platform as a Service (PaaS), and Software as a Service (SaaS) respectively. A recent Berkeley report [23] stated "Cloud Computing, the long-held dream of computing as a utility, has the potential to transform a large part of the IT industry, making software even more attractive as a service".

Clouds aim to drive the design of the next generation data centers by architecting them as networks of virtual services (hardware, database, user-interface, application logic) so that users can access and deploy applications from anywhere in the world on demand at competitive costs depending on their QoS (Quality of Service) requirements [3]. Developers with innovative ideas for new Internet services no longer require large capital outlays in hardware to deploy their service or human expense to operate it [23]. Cloud computing offers significant benefits to IT companies by freeing them from the low-level task of setting up basic hardware and software infrastructures and thus enabling focus on innovation and creating business value for their services.

The business potential of Cloud computing is recognised by several market research firms. According to Gartner, Cloud market opportunities in 2013 will be worth \$150 billion. Furthermore, many applications making use of utility-oriented computing systems such as Clouds emerge simply as catalysts or market makers that bring buyers and sellers together. This creates several trillion dollars worth of business opportunities to the utility/pervasive computing industry as noted by Sun cofounder Bill Joy [24]. He said "It would take time until these markets mature to generate this kind of value. Predicting now

which companies will capture the value is impossible. Many of them have not even been created yet."

Cloud Infrastructure: Challenges and Requirements

Modern data centers, operating under the Cloud computing model are hosting a variety of applications ranging from those that run for a few seconds (e.g. serving requests of web applications such as e-commerce and social networks portals with transient workloads) to those that run for longer periods of time (e.g. simulations or large data set processing) on shared hardware platforms. The need to manage multiple applications in a data center creates the challenge of on-demand resource provisioning and allocation in response to time-varying workloads. Normally, data center resources are statically allocated to applications, based on peak load characteristics, in order to maintain isolation and provide performance guarantees. Until recently, high performance has been the sole concern in data center deployments and this demand has been fulfilled without paying much attention to energy consumption. The average data center consumes as much energy as 25,000 households [20].

As energy costs are increasing while availability dwindles, there is a need to shift focus from optimising data center resource management for pure performance to optimising for energy efficiency while maintaining high service level performance.

"The total estimated energy bill for data centers in 2010 is \$11.5 billion and energy costs in a typical data center double every five years", according to McKinsey report [19].

Data centers are not only expensive to maintain, but also unfriendly to the environment. Data centers now drive more in carbon emissions than both Argentina and the Netherlands [20]. High energy costs and huge carbon footprints are incurred due to massive amounts of electricity needed to power and cool numerous servers hosted in these data centers. Cloud service providers need to adopt measures to ensure that their profit margin is not dramatically reduced due to high energy costs. For instance, Google, Microsoft, and Yahoo are building large data centers in barren desert land surrounding the Columbia

River, USA to exploit cheap and reliable hydroelectric power [4]. There is also increasing pressure from Governments

worldwide to reduce carbon footprints, which have a significant impact on climate change. For example, the Japanese

government has established the Japan Data Center Council to address the soaring energy consumption of data centers [6].

Leading computing service providers have also recently formed a global consortium known as The Green Grid [7] to

promote energy efficiency for data centers and minimise their environmental impact.

Lowering the energy usage of data centers is a challenging and complex issue because computing applications and data

are growing so quickly that increasingly larger servers and disks are needed to process them fast enough within the required

time period. Green Cloud computing is envisioned to achieve not only efficient processing and utilisation of computing

infrastructure, but also minimise energy consumption. This is essential for ensuring that the future growth of Cloud

computing is sustainable. Otherwise, Cloud computing with increasingly pervasive front-end client devices interacting with

back-end data centers will cause an enormous escalation of energy usage. To address this problem, data center resources

need to be managed in an energy-efficient manner to drive Green Cloud computing.

Green Cloud Architectural Elements

The aim of this paper is to address the problem of enabling energy-efficient resource allocation, hence leading to Green

Cloud computing data centers, to satisfy competing applications' demand for computing services and save energy. Figure 1

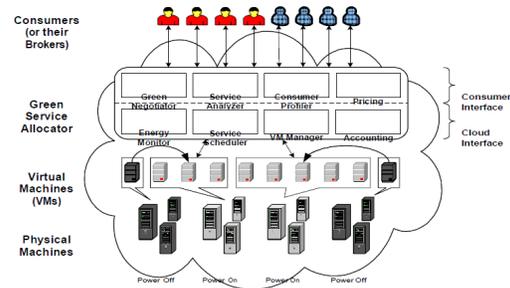
shows the high-level architecture for supporting energy-efficient service allocation in Green Cloud computing infrastructure.

There are basically four main entities involved:

a) Consumers/Brokers: Cloud consumers or their brokers submit service requests from anywhere in the world to the Cloud.

It is important to notice that there can be a difference between Cloud consumers and users of deployed services. For

instance, a consumer can be a company deploying a Web application, which presents varying workload according to the number of "users" accessing it.



Cloud Infrastructure

Figure 1: High-level system architectural framework.

b) Green Resource Allocator: Acts as the interface between the Cloud infrastructure and consumers. It requires the interaction of the following components to support energy-efficient resource management:

Green Negotiator: Negotiates with the consumers/brokers to finalize the SLA with specified prices and penalties (for violations of SLA) between the Cloud provider and consumer depending on the consumer's QoS requirements

and energy saving schemes. In case of Web applications, for instance, QoS metric can be 95% of requests being served in less than 3 seconds.

Service Analyser: Interprets and analyses the service requirements of a submitted request before deciding whether to accept or reject it. Hence, it needs the latest load and energy information from VM Manager and Energy Monitor respectively.

Consumer Profiler: Gathers specific characteristics of consumers so that important consumers can be granted special privileges and prioritised over other consumers.

Pricing: Decides how service requests are charged to manage the supply and demand of computing resources and facilitate in prioritising service allocations effectively.

Energy Monitor: Observes and determines which physical machines to power on/off.

Service Scheduler: Assigns requests to VMs and determines resource entitlements for allocated VMs. It also decides when VMs are to be added or removed to meet demand.

VM Manager: Keeps track of the availability of VMs and their resource entitlements. It is also in charge of

migrating VMs across physical machines.

Accounting: Maintains the actual usage of resources by requests to compute usage costs. Historical usage information can also be used to improve service allocation decisions.

c) **VMs:** Multiple VMs can be dynamically started and stopped on a single physical machine to meet accepted requests,

hence providing maximum flexibility to configure various partitions of resources on the same physical machine to

different specific requirements of service requests. Multiple VMs can also concurrently run applications based on

different operating system environments on a single physical machine. In addition, by dynamically migrating VMs across

physical machines, workloads can be consolidated and unused resources can be put on a low-power state, turned off or

configured to operate at low-performance levels (e.g., using DVFS) in order to save energy.

d) **Physical Machines:** The underlying physical computing servers provide hardware infrastructure for creating virtualised

resources to meet service demands

Early Experiments and Results

In this section, we will discuss some of our early performance analysis of the energy-aware allocation heuristics described in

the previous section. As the targeted system is a generic Cloud computing environment, it is essential to evaluate it on a

large-scale virtualised data center infrastructure. However, it is difficult to conduct large-scale experiments on a real

infrastructure, especially when it is necessary to repeat the experiment with the same conditions (e.g. when comparing

different algorithms). Therefore, simulations have been chosen as a way to evaluate the proposed heuristics. The CloudSim

toolkit [34] has been chosen as a simulation platform as it is a modern simulation framework aimed at Cloud computing

environments. In contrast to alternative simulation toolkits (e.g. SimGrid, GandSim), it supports modeling of on-demand

virtualization enabled resource and application management. It has been extended in order to enable power-aware

simulations as the core framework does not provide this capability. Apart from the power consumption modeling and

accounting, the ability to simulate service applications with variable over time workload has been incorporated.

Power Model

Power consumption by computing nodes in data centers consists of consumption by CPU, disk storage and network

interfaces. In comparison to other system resources, CPU consumes larger amount of energy, and hence in this work we

focus on managing its power consumption and efficient usage.

Recent studies [28], [29], [30], [31] show that application of DVFS on CPU results in almost linear power-to-frequency

relationship. The reason lies in the limited number of states that can be set to the frequency and voltage of CPU and the fact

that DVFS is not applied to other system components apart from CPU. Moreover, these studies show that in average an idle

server consumes approximately 70% of the power consumed by the server running at full CPU speed. This fact justifies the

technique of switching idle servers off to reduce total power consumption. Therefore, in this work we use power model

defined in

$$P(u) = k * P_{\max} + (1 - k) * P_{\max} * u .$$

where P_{\max} is the maximum power consumed when the server is fully utilised; k is the fraction of power consumed by the

idle server; and u is the CPU utilisation. The utilisation of CPU may change over time due to variability of the workload.

Thus, the CPU utilization is a function of time and represented as $u(t)$. Therefore, total energy (E) consumption by a

physical node can be defined as an integral of the power consumption function over a period of time

$$E = \int_t P(u(t)) .$$

Experimental Setup

We simulated a data center that comprises 100 heterogeneous physical nodes. Each node is modeled to have one CPU core

with performance equivalent to 1000, 2000 or 3000 Million Instructions Per Second (MIPS), 8 Gb of RAM and 1 TB of

storage. Power consumption by the hosts is defined according to the model described in Section 5.1. According to this

5

model, a host consumes from 175 W with 0% CPU utilization and up to 250 W with 100% CPU utilization. Each VM

requires one CPU core with 250, 500, 750 or 1000 MIPS, 128 MB of RAM and 1 GB of storage. The users submit requests

for provisioning of 290 heterogeneous VMs that fills the full capacity of the simulated data center. Each VM runs a web -

application or any kind of application with variable workload, which is modeled to create the utilization of CPU according

to a uniformly distributed random variable. The application runs for 150,000 MIPS that equals to 10 minutes of execution on

250 MIPS CPU with 100% utilization. Initially, VMs are allocated according to the requested characteristics assuming

100% utilization. Each experiment has been run 10 times and the presented results are built upon the mean values.

Simulation Results

For the benchmark experimental results we have used a Non Power Aware (NPA) policy. This policy does not apply any

power aware optimizations and implies that all hosts run at 100% CPU utilization and consume maximum power. The

second policy applies DVFS, but does not perform any adaptation of allocation of VMs in run-time. For the simulation setup

described above, using the NPA policy leads to the total energy consumption of 9.15 KWh, whereas DVFS allows

decreasing this value to 4.4 KWh.

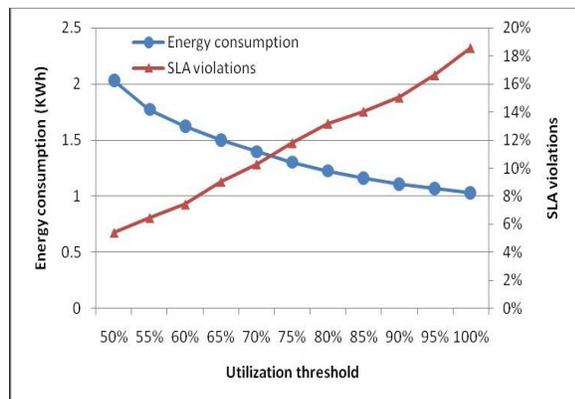


Figure 2. Energy consumption and SLA violations by ST policy.

To evaluate ST policy we conducted several experiments with different values of the utilization threshold. The simulation

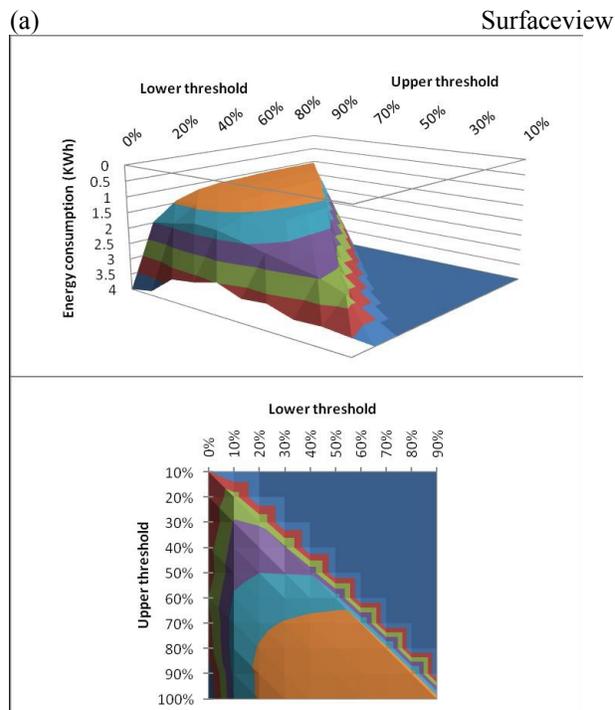
results are presented in Figure 2. The results show that energy consumption can be significantly reduced relatively to NPA

and DVFS policies – by 77% and 53% respectively with 5.4% of SLA violations. They show that with the

growth of the utilization threshold energy consumption decreases, whereas percentage of SLA violations increases. This is

due to the fact that higher utilization threshold allows more aggressive consolidation of VMs, however, by the cost of the

increased risk of SLA violations.



(b) Top view

Figure 3. Energy to thresholds relationship for MM policy

To evaluate two-threshold policies it is necessary to determine the best values for the utilization thresholds in terms of

power consumption and QoS provided. Therefore, at first we simulated MM policy with different values of thresholds

varying absolute values of the thresholds as well as the interval between the lower and upper thresholds. The results showing the energy consumption achieved by

using this policy are presented in Figure 3. The lowest values of energy consumption

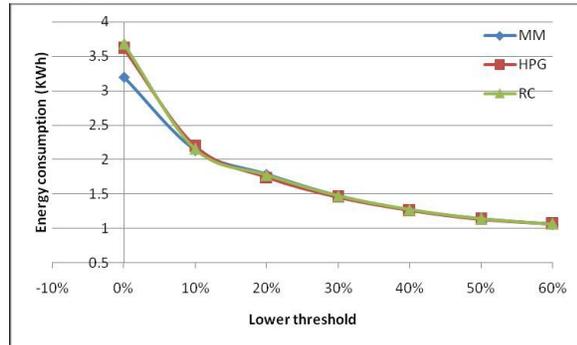
can be gained by setting the lower threshold from 10% to 90% and the upper threshold from 50% to 100%. However, the obtained intervals of the thresholds are wide. Therefore, to determine the concrete values, we have compared the thresholds

by the percentage of SLA violations caused, as rare SLA violations ensure high QoS. The experimental results have shown

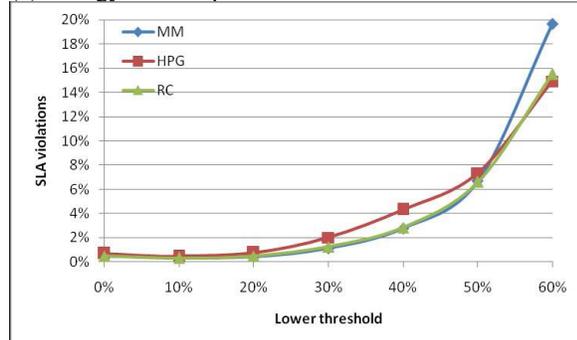
that the minimum values of both characteristics can be achieved using 40% as the interval between the utilization thresholds.

(a) Energy consumption (b) SLA violations

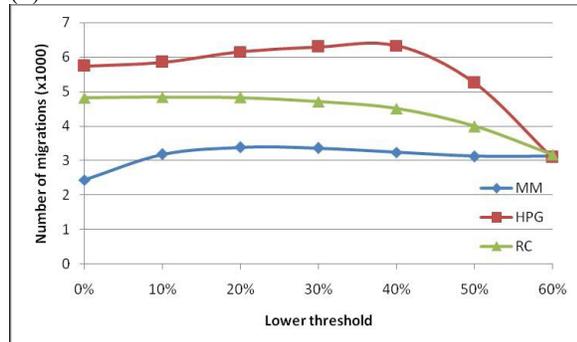
(c) Number of VM migrations (d) Average SLA violation



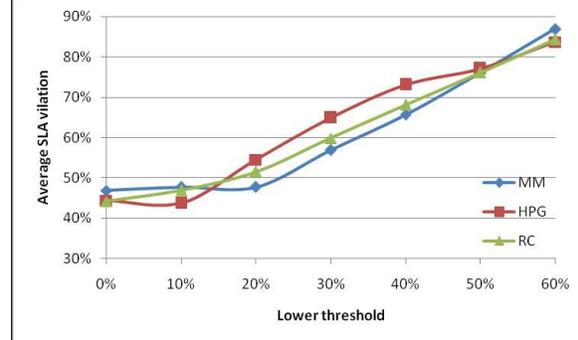
(a) Energy consumption



(b) SLA violations



(c) Number of VM migrations



(d) Average SLA violation

Figure 4. Comparison of two-threshold algorithms.

We have compared MM policy with HPG and RC policies varying exact values of the thresholds but preserving 40% interval between them. The results (Figure 4) show that these policies allow the achievement of approximately the same

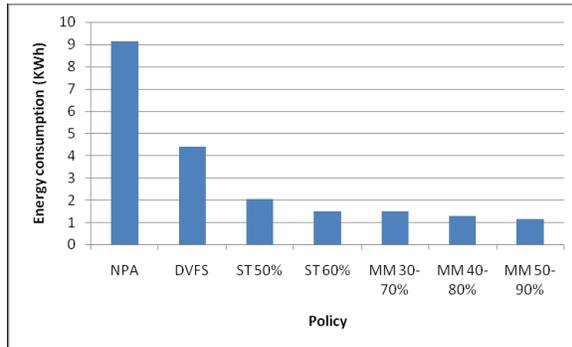
values of energy consumption and SLA violations. Whereas the number of VM migrations produced by MM policy is

reduced in comparison to HPG policy by maximum of 57% and 40% on average and in comparison to RC policy by maximum of 49% and 27% on average

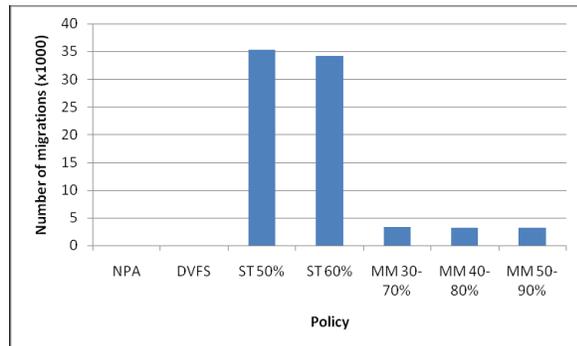
Table 1. The final simulation results.

Policy	Energy, kWh	SLA, %	VM migrations	Avg. SLA, %
NPA	9.15	-	-	-
DVFS	4.40	-	-	-
ST 226	50%	2.03	5.41 35	81
ST 231	60%	1.50	9.00 34	89
MM 30-70%	1.48	1.11	3359	56
MM 40-80%	1.27	2.75	3241	65
MM 50-90%	1.14	6.69	3120	76

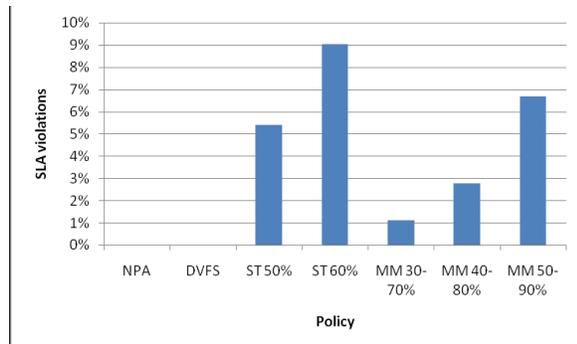
(a) Energy consumption



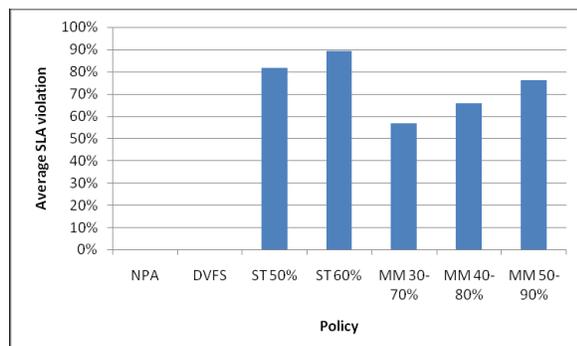
(a) Energy consumption



(b) SLA violations



(c) Number of VM migrations



(d) Average SLA violation

Figure 5. The final simulation results.

Final results comparing all the policies with different values of the thresholds are presented in Table 1 and in Figure 5.

The results show that dynamic reallocation of VMs according to current utilization of CPU provides higher energy savings

compared to static allocation policies. MM policy leads to the best energy savings: by 83%, 66% and 23% less energy

consumption relatively to NPA, DVFS and ST policies respectively with thresholds 30-70% and ensuring percentage of SLA

violations of 1.1%; and by 87%, 74% and 43% with thresholds 50-90% and 6.7% of SLA violations. MM policy leads to

more than 10 times less VM migrations than ST policy. The results show flexibility of the algorithm, as the thresholds can be

adjusted according to SLA requirements. Strict SLA (1.11%) allow the achievement of the energy consumption of 1.48

KWh. However, if SLA are relaxed (6.69%), the energy consumption is further reduced to 1.14 KWh.

Open Challenges

In this section, we identify key open problems that can be addressed at the level of management of system resources.

Virtualisation technologies, which Cloud computing environments heavily rely on, provide the ability to transfer VMs

between physical nodes using live or offline migration. This enables the technique of dynamic consolidation of VMs to a

minimal number of nodes according to current resource requirements. As a result, the idle nodes can be switched off or put

to a power saving mode (e.g. sleep, hibernate) to reduce total energy consumption by the data center. In order to validate the

approach, we have proposed several resource allocation algorithms discussed in Section 4 and evaluated them by extensive

simulation studies presented in Section 5. Despite the energy savings, aggressive consolidation of VMs may lead to a

performance degradation and, thus result in SLA violation. Our resource management algorithms effectively address the

trade-off between energy consumption and performance delivered by the system.

4.1 Energy-aware Dynamic Resource Allocation

Recent developments in virtualisation have resulted in its proliferation of usage across data centers. By supporting the movement of VMs between physical nodes, it enables dynamic migration of VMs according to QoS requirements. When VMs do not use all provided resources, they can be logically resized and consolidated on a minimal number of physical nodes, while idle nodes can be switched off.

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Currently, resource allocation in a Cloud data center aims to provide high performance while meeting SLA, without a focus on allocating VMs to minimise energy consumption. To explore both performance and energy efficiency, three crucial issues must be addressed. First, excessive power cycling of a server could reduce its reliability. Second, turning resources off in a dynamic environment is risky from a QoS perspective. Due to the variability of the workload and aggressive consolidation, some VMs may not obtain required resources under peak load, so failing to meet the desired QoS. Third, ensuring SLA brings challenges to accurate application performance management in virtualized environments. A virtual machine cannot exactly record the timing behaviour of a physical machine. This leads to the timekeeping problems resulting in inaccurate time measurements within the virtual machine, which can lead to incorrect enforcement of SLA. All these issues require effective consolidation policies that can minimise energy consumption without compromising the used-specified QoS requirements. To achieve this goal, we will develop novel QoS-based resources selection algorithms and mechanisms that optimise VM placements with the objective of minimizing communication overhead as described below.

QoS-based Resource Selection and Provisioning

Data center resources may deliver different levels of performance to their clients; hence, QoS-aware resource selection plays an important role in Cloud computing. Additionally, Cloud applications can present varying workloads. It is therefore

essential to carry out a study of Cloud services and their workloads in order to identify common behaviors, patterns, and explore load forecasting approaches that can potentially lead to more efficient resource provisioning and consequent energy efficiency. In this context, we will research sample applications and correlations between workloads, and attempt to build performance models that can help explore the trade-offs between QoS and energy saving. Further, we will investigate a new online approach to the consolidation strategy of a data center that allows a reduction in the number of active nodes required to process a variable workload without degrading the offered service level. The online method will automatically select a VM configuration while minimising the number of physical hosts needed to support it. Moreover, another goal is to provide the broker (or consumers) with resource-selection and workload-consolidation policies that exploit the trade-offs between performance and energy saving.

Optimisation of Virtual Network Topologies

In virtualised data centers VMs often communicate between each other, establishing virtual network topologies. However, due to VM migrations or non-optimised allocation, the communicating VMs may end up hosted on logically distant physical nodes providing costly data transfer between each other. If the communicating VMs are allocated to the hosts in different racks or enclosures, the network communication may involve network switches that consume significant amount of power. To eliminate this data transfer overhead and minimise power consumption, it is necessary to observe the communication between VMs and place them on the same or closely located nodes. To provide effective reallocations, we will develop power consumption models of the network devices and estimate the cost of data transfer depending on the traffic volume. As migrations consume additional energy and they have a negative impact on the performance, before initiating the migration, the reallocation controller has to ensure that the cost of migration does not exceed the benefit.

Concluding Remarks and Future Directions

This work advances Cloud computing field in two ways. First, it plays a significant role in the reduction of data center energy consumption costs and thus helps to develop a strong, competitive Cloud computing industry. This is especially important in the context of Australia as a recent Frost & Sullivan's report shows that Australia is emerging as one of the preferred data center hubs among the Asia Pacific countries [25]. Second, consumers are increasingly becoming conscious about the environment. In Australia, a recent study shows that data centers represent a large and rapidly growing energy consumption sector of the economy and is a significant source of CO₂ emissions [26]. Reducing greenhouse gas emissions is a key energy policy focus of many countries including Australia. Therefore, we expect researchers world-wide to put in a strong thrust on open challenges identified in this paper in order enhance energy-efficient management of Cloud computing environments.

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