



HAL
open science

A CO₂ emissions accounting framework with market-based incentives for Cloud infrastructures

David Margery, David Guyon, Anne-Cécile Orgerie, Christine Morin, Gareth Francis, Charaka Palansuriya, Kostas Kavoussanakis

► **To cite this version:**

David Margery, David Guyon, Anne-Cécile Orgerie, Christine Morin, Gareth Francis, et al.. A CO₂ emissions accounting framework with market-based incentives for Cloud infrastructures. SMART-GREENS: International Conference on Smart Cities and Green ICT Systems, Apr 2017, Porto, Portugal. hal-01486185

HAL Id: hal-01486185

<https://inria.hal.science/hal-01486185>

Submitted on 9 Mar 2017

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

A CO₂ emissions accounting framework with market-based incentives for Cloud infrastructures

David Margery¹, David Guyon², Anne-Cécile Orgerie³, Christine Morin¹,
Gareth Francis⁴, Charaka Palansuriya⁴ and Kostas Kavoussanakis⁴

¹*Inria, IRISA, Rennes, France*

²*University of Rennes 1, IRISA, Rennes, France*

³*CNRS, IRISA, Rennes, France*

⁴*University of Edinburgh, EPCC, Edinburgh, United Kingdom*

*david.margery@inria.fr, david.guyon@irisa.fr, anne-cecile.orgerie@irisa.fr, christine.morin@inria.fr,
g.francis@epcc.ed.ac.uk, c.palansuriya@epcc.ed.ac.uk, kostas.kavoussanakis@epcc.ed.ac.uk*

Keywords: Cloud computing, Energy monitoring, Carbon emissions, CO₂ accounting

Abstract: CO₂ emissions related to Cloud computing reach nowadays worrying levels, without any reduction in sight. Often, Cloud users, asking for virtual machines, are not aware of such emissions which concern the entire Cloud infrastructures and are thus difficult to split into the actual resources utilization, such as virtual machines. We propose a CO₂ emissions accounting framework giving flexibility to the Cloud providers, predictability to the users and allocating all the carbon costs to the users. This paper shows the architecture of our accounting framework and ideas on how to practically implement it.

1 INTRODUCTION

Cloud computing's wide adoption leads to a rising increase of data center's electricity consumption. This major social issue will worsen with the explosion of connected devices and Internet of Things (IoT), asking for always more computing and storage capacity in the Cloud. In 2013, U.S. data centers consumed an estimated 91 billion kWh of electricity; this consumption is projected to increase to roughly 140 billion kilowatt-hours annually by 2020, the equivalent annual output of 50 power plants, costing American businesses \$13 billion per year in electricity bills and causing the emission of nearly 150 million metric tons of carbon pollution annually (Natural Resources Defense Council, 2014).

This uncontrolled energy consumption of Cloud's data center causes increased greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. This important consequence is mainly determined by the amount and sources of consumed energy (Bosse et al., 2016). Among GHG, carbon dioxide (CO₂) is the major one in quantity produced by human activities. Consequently, carbon taxes have been proposed in order to reduce CO₂ emissions and their negative effects on environment (Nordhaus, 2012). From an operational point of view, a carbon

tax requires a monitoring and accounting infrastructure in order to fairly distribute CO₂ costs among the Cloud users. Even outside a carbon tax system, such an infrastructure can provide useful information to users about their real CO₂ emissions based on their utilization of the Cloud system, and therefore, it can raise their environmental awareness and incite them to adopt more sustainable practices.

To build a carbon tax system, it is required to precisely monitor the resource usage that can be attributed to each user (computing, storage, communication), and to account for the resource cost induced by the user's utilization, like the data center air conditioning cost for instance. While the live monitoring issue has already been addressed in literature (Wajid et al., 2015), the accounting issue has received little attention.

The accounting problem consists in splitting the indirect costs between the Cloud users (such as air conditioning), and forecasting the direct costs for each user. Indeed, Cloud computing is using a pay-as-you-go model where users buy computing, storage and network resources in the form of virtual machines (VM). Cloud providers exhibit prices per virtual machine type, depending on the amount of virtual resources included in the virtual machine. Such

a model involves an *a priori* cost which is known by the user upon purchase as opposed to an *a posteriori* cost based on a precise monitoring of the resources really used and thus, provided to the user at the end of its Cloud resources utilization. Such an accounting model has to be flexible enough for the Cloud providers to be attractive, and it should provide to the users a predictable cost. From an external third-party organization, the carbon tax accounting system needs to be certified: for a given period of time, all the carbon emissions of the data center must be equal to the overall carbon emissions charged to the users.

In this paper, we propose a CO₂ emissions accounting framework giving flexibility to the Cloud providers, predictability to the users and allocating all the carbon costs to the users. We provide the architecture of our accounting framework and ideas on how to practically implement it. We argue that instead of trying to keep the difference between predicted and real CO₂ emissions as low as possible at any time, an effective framework could consider this difference as a flexible capital to support an economical approach for users' energy-awareness.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 provides motivational examples and the context of this work. The related work is presented in Section 3. Our proposed architecture is described in Section 4. Section 5 discusses the advantages and drawbacks of our approach and provides ideas for implementing it in real Cloud infrastructures. Section 6 concludes this work.

2 CONTEXT AND MOTIVATION

2.1 From the Cloud user point of view

Cloud users are renting virtual machines (VM) on a pay-as-you-go basis. The energy consumption of their virtual machine depends on the resource utilization (CPU, memory, disk, network) and on the infrastructure power management (cooling cost, resource allocation management, etc.) (Kurpicz et al., 2016). The CO₂ emissions depends on the energy consumption and on the electricity mix (Wajid et al., 2015). One could compute these costs at each time and divide them proportionally to the number of resources booked by each VM. However, it would mean that identical VMs running the same computation could have really different costs. Indeed, if a VM is alone on the infrastructure at a given time, then it would support the entire infrastructure cost, while this same VM during a busy period would account for a much lower cost. Such an accounting model, with high variations

over the time, would provide great unpredictability to users, and is thus not desirable.

On the contrary, we argue for a shift of the prediction responsibility from the user to the provider. The Cloud provider gives a CO₂ cost for a VM upon its purchase. This cost depends on the VM size and can vary over time, but it cannot change for VMs already paid. So, the provider has to carefully monitor resource consumption, infrastructure costs and electricity mix to entirely attribute the CO₂ emissions to its users for a given period of time (a month for instance).

2.2 From the Cloud provider point of view

The Cloud provider is responsible for assigning all the CO₂ costs to the users over a long period (a month for instance). A third-party, like a governmental organization could be in charge of certifying the summary of provider's CO₂ accounts. The accounting model described above does not aim at being as accurate as possible. Indeed, the provider could compute the difference between invoiced and real costs at the end of each VM booking and it could directly pass on this difference to the next client. However, such a system does not give any flexibility to the provider. Instead, we argue for a flexible model, fixed by the provider itself, and following market opportunities.

The provider is then responsible for dealing with the difference between invoiced and real costs. It fixes its own CO₂ cost model for its VMs, and it can choose not to make direct adjustments, but to use this difference as a capital to invest. For instance, this capital can be reinvested to reduce the cost of VMs when the electricity mix is better or when cooling costs are lower (at night for instance with free cooling). This capital with its associated cheap offers would constitute a market-based incentive to increase users' energy-awareness. This accounting framework also favors energy-aware behavior from the Cloud providers as they need to invoice all the CO₂ costs to the users. So, in order to be competitive, they need to have CO₂ costs as low as possible. It creates then a strong incentive to switch off unused servers or perform over-commitment on servers hosting VMs with low workload.

3 RELATED WORK

The carbon emissions of users' virtualized resources mainly depend on their power consumption. The power consumption attributed to a user is not

equal to the total server power consumption when the user is not using all the server’s resources. A fine-grained monitoring of the power consumed by each VM on a server is necessary in order to be able to estimate their carbon emissions. Several VM power models have been proposed in literature with different implementations. They are usually based on counters (hardware or software) in order to monitor the resource usage. Their accuracy thus depends which resources are selected, how they are monitored and which formulas are used to estimate the VM power consumption from the monitoring data, such as linear regression (Kim et al., 2011) (Wu et al., 2016), polynomial regression (Xiao et al., 2013), machine learning (Yang et al., 2014) or tree regression based approach (Gu et al., 2015). In these studies, estimation errors typically fluctuate from 2 to 5%.

Research studies start to include ecological-related factors in their optimization algorithms. Bosse *et al* introduces GHG emissions into the system availability and cost optimization problem of fault-tolerant IT services (Bosse et al., 2016). Experiments show that, for a slightly increased cost, a significant reduction in GHG emissions is possible. Similarly, Khosravi *et al* propose a VM placement algorithm taking into account Cloud sites’ PUE and their carbon footprint (Khosravi et al., 2013). While maintaining the same level of QoS, their solution manages to reduce the power consumption and CO₂ emissions.

Workload predictions as well as green energy availability predictions bring an important contribution in reducing CO₂ emissions as it offers the ability to adapt system configurations in order to face future trends. Cloud resources usage can be predicted for a given Cloud by using Extreme Learning Machine algorithm on VM usage traces and user behavior (Ismaeel and Miri, 2016). Sharma *et al* present a prediction model for green energy availability (Sharma et al., 2010). The model is able to predict next day energy harvesting based on weather forecasts. They improved accuracy by 27% with machine learning techniques (Sharma et al., 2011).

The existing studies show the ability to monitor VMs power consumption, the inclusion of GHG emissions factor in algorithms and also the possibility to predict availability of green energy as well as Cloud users workload. However, to the best of our knowledge, no work is handling the difference between predictions and calculated estimations of effective CO₂ emissions. Enabling quotes would allow Cloud providers to bill the CO₂ emissions of a Cloud VM to the final user.

4 PROPOSED ARCHITECTURE

Figure 1 presents the high level architecture for enabling a provider to attribute CO₂ emissions to end-users. This system allows users to access information about resource usage (past and present), CO₂ emissions (estimated and attributed) for the VMs they run, and to quotes for CO₂ emissions that will be attributed to their future usage. Moreover, external services named Third Party Cloud Brokers can select platforms emitting the smallest amount of carbon between several Cloud providers to execute an application.

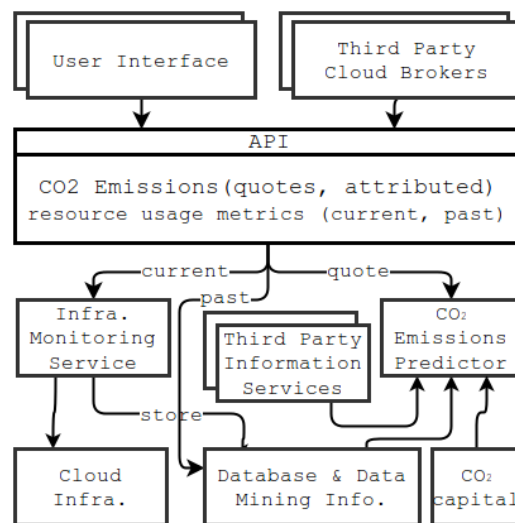


Figure 1: High level architecture of a CO₂ emissions accounting framework

In order to accurately predict the carbon emissions, the system needs to compute current and historical data. The current data is retrieved by communicating with the Infrastructure Monitoring Service and Third Party Information Services components. The historical data comes from the Database and Third Party Information Services. These components are presented in details below.

4.1 Infrastructure Monitoring Service

The Infrastructure Monitoring Service accesses the underlying hardware and software infrastructure which belongs to the Cloud provider. Thus, it knows the hardware data of each server: its energy efficiency, its availability and down times (planned and unexpected). As for the software infrastructure, it collects the amount of resources used by each VM. It is used to compute a cost per resource type as presented to the user.

4.2 Third Party Information Services

To increase the accuracy of the carbon emissions prediction, the model gathers information from external services. They can be of different types and sources. The electricity power grid service provides information about the current Carbon Intensity Factor (CIF). The CIF represents the amount of carbon emitted for a given quantity of electricity provided by the power grid. The value of CIF varies over time depending on the electricity's origin (renewable or not). Other information sources can be used depending on the electricity used. For instance, weather forecast services can help predicting the production of solar panels.

4.3 Application Programming Interface

The Application Programming Interface (API) gives clients access to resource usage metrics for their VMs. It also provides a quote system that informs the clients about the CO₂ emissions that will be attributed to their VMs. The quote system publishes the period for which the quote is valid, binding the Cloud provider to attribute CO₂ emissions according to that quote. This allows clients, who are in control of resource usage (i.e. they can deploy additional VMs), to predict CO₂ emissions that will be attributed to their usage, enabling them to make provisioning decisions based only on parameters under their control.

4.4 Database and Data Mining Information

The data from the Infrastructure Monitoring Service and Third Party Information Services is gathered and stored in the Database. The former stores static information such as the energy efficiency of servers as well as non-static information such as planned down time of servers. The Database also saves periodically information about the current CIF value and the other third party-related information.

The Data Mining Information provides the data needed by CO₂ Emission Predictor. It can give the variation trend of the CIF associated to a specific time period for instance.

4.5 CO₂ Emissions Predictor

In order to offer quotes, the provider must be able to forecast resource usage and energy provisioning. The forecast and quote calculations are based on a mix of current data and historical data patterns retrieved by mining data stored in the Database. For example, records such as the past variation trend of the CIF for

a specific time period can have a significant impact on the accuracy of the prediction. Prediction accuracy can also be increased by including factors that have an effect on CO₂ emissions. Such factors can be seasonal changes or the prediction of green energy availability (wind energy, solar energy).

Internal information is as important as external information. The Infrastructure Monitoring Service component allows to figure out which servers are likely to be available to satisfy a request and their CO₂ footprint. Some servers may be less energy efficient and therefore have a greater carbon footprint. The past carbon emission attribution is gathered from the Database records. Users can ask for a collection of their historical carbon emissions for a specific time period. After data is retrieved from the Database, the collection is created and sent to the user through the API.

The prediction algorithm is left to Cloud providers' discretion as it is part of the market-based incentive. They can indeed choose to underestimate or to overestimate their CO₂ emissions predictions at some point in order to attract clients. The difference between the billed cost (depending on the predictions and policy of the Cloud provider at a given time) and the real cost is managed by the CO₂ Capital.

4.6 CO₂ Capital

At the infrastructure level, the provider can measure the total power consumption, and using external sources, the total CO₂ emissions attributable to its infrastructure. Comparing this latter value with the sum of CO₂ emissions attributed to users provides a way to measure the difference induced by the Cloud policy. These differences are accumulated over time in the CO₂ Capital. In order to keep this capital under an acceptable threshold, it can be taken into account by the prediction algorithm, or by a business policy (not described in the architecture) sitting between the API and the Predictor. Please note that this capital can be negative when estimation is too high and thus users are attributed more CO₂ emissions than attributable to the infrastructure.

5 DISCUSSION

In this section, we discuss the pitfalls to avoid for implementing the proposed accounting framework.

5.1 Architecture Difficulties

The architecture presented in this paper relies on the capacity to get real-time information about the energy sources and their CO₂ intensity at the level of each Cloud infrastructure. While it is quite easy to get that information country-wide or to rely on contractual promises made by the energy provider, it might be difficult in practice to get that information in the general case. Indeed, some green energy accounted for in the country-wide energy mix will probably already have been sold as such.

A second issue with this architecture is that it does not include a mechanism to protect an infrastructure provider from users massively changing their behavior to adapt their workload to the current quote for CO₂ emissions. This in turn would impact the accuracy of the workload prediction component of the CO₂ Emission Predictor, always increasing the error made during prediction. Some form of user behavior modeling might be necessary to be able to keep predictions accurate, or some business model component to link quotes to clients using Service Level Agreements and base quotes not on periods but on expected resources usage.

5.2 Certification

The presented architecture exhibits good properties only if the CO₂ Capital stays very low. This is what ensures that globally all CO₂ emissions estimated for the infrastructure are passed on to users.

On the one hand, it seems relatively easy to accurately measure power consumption at the infrastructure level, using the same perimeter as in PUE calculations, and to certify that value. In the same vein, a certification authority could independently monitor power sources, and certify the CO₂ emissions that need to be attributed to users.

On the other hand, getting a certifiable view of all CO₂ emissions attributed to users is more complex. Some form of publicly auditable record of CO₂ emissions attributed to every client must be made available, raising confidentiality issues. Some form of block-chain usage might help here (Swan, 2015).

The difference between the CO₂ emissions to attribute and those attributed to clients builds up over time in the CO₂ Capital. Further work is needed to understand the properties required for the CO₂ capital so as to limit side effects in the way CO₂ emissions are attributed.

At a global scale, our initial thoughts are that the CO₂ Capital must stay within a few percent of total CO₂ emissions over a year. Maybe a higher threshold

should be required at the scale of a week, a month, etc. Another threshold could be set per client, so that eco-aware clients do not benefit from the presence of other users that don't care about CO₂ emissions. This would avoid shifting all CO₂ emissions to clients that do not report their carbon footprint, so as to offer unrealistic reports to eco-aware clients.

5.3 Quotes and Business logic

We have said very little until now about the contents of quotes, other than the fact that they give users the amount of attributed CO₂ per unit of usage of resources over a period of time in the future. We anticipate that providers might want to offer different quotes for different periods, different quotes for different VM sizes, or for different hardware zones or regions. The provider could even attempt to sell at a higher price usage of the part of energy he gets from renewable sources, in an attempt to partition its user base between clients for which environmental impact is important and others. As long as it can stay certified while doing this, it is possible, thus enabling a dynamic and competitive eco-system of eco-aware providers.

5.4 VM CO₂ emissions

As seen in the related work, the literature has focused on modeling the power consumption of a single VM. These models are seldom able to take into account the infrastructure costs of the VM, for example, the amount of unusable memory on the VM's host because of the effective size of the VM.

With the presented architecture, it is only important to have an accurate enough VM power model so that the clients have little opportunity to change their behavior to beat the system to be attributed less CO₂ emissions than the system would do. It is important to note that there is no value for real CO₂ emissions. The difference does not lie between an objective value measured after the fact and the value attributed to a VM according to the quote given to the client by the provider. It lies between the value attributed to a VM and calculated using the power model at the VM level and the one using the power model at the infrastructure level. As the complete model takes into account the infrastructure contribution to power consumption, and that the quote system does not, there are optimization opportunities for clients.

Because the optimization opportunities come from infrastructure costs more than from inaccurate power modeling, the focus of an infrastructure

provider should be to make its infrastructure energy proportional, rather than to provide accurate VM power modeling.

5.5 Passing the cost up to the end-user

We have discussed here how CO₂ emissions are attributed to VMs by the infrastructure provider. Because the VM user has the ability to predict CO₂ emissions as she knows in advance how they will be computed from resource usage counters, she has the ability to apply the same techniques to pass the costs up to the different users of her VMs. This can be applied recursively up to the end user, who is then empowered with information about the CO₂ emissions attributed to her usage of computing resources.

6 CONCLUSION

We present in this paper an architecture that allows users of a Cloud infrastructure to have predictable CO₂ emissions attributed to their usage while taking into account the difference between predictions and estimations of effective CO₂ emissions. If this difference is kept under a pre-defined threshold, it opens the way to an eco-system where infrastructure providers can be certified as providing reasonable CO₂ emissions certificates to users while at the same time giving predictability to users. This creates a fair playing field where infrastructure providers compete to attract eco-aware users in a way such that the complete infrastructure costs are taken into account. This should increase the adoption of green technologies in all aspects of datacenter provisioning and therefore, contribute to limiting the impact of IT on GHG.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work has been supported by the ECO2Clouds project (<http://eco2clouds.eu/>) and was partially funded by the European Commission under grant agreement number 318048.

REFERENCES

Bosse, S., Jamous, N., Kramer, F., and Turowski, K. (2016). Introducing Greenhouse Emissions in Cost Optimization of Fault-Tolerant Data Center Design. In *IEEE Conference on Business Informatics (CBI)*, volume 01, pages 163–172.

Gu, C., Shi, P., Shi, S., Huang, H., and Jia, X. (2015). A Tree Regression-Based Approach for VM Power Metering. *IEEE Access*, 3:610–621.

Ismaeel, S. and Miri, A. (2016). Multivariate Time Series ELM for Cloud Data Centre Workload Prediction. In *International Conference on Human-Computer Interaction (HCI)*, pages 565–576.

Khosravi, A., Garg, S. K., and Buyya, R. (2013). Energy and Carbon-Efficient Placement of Virtual Machines in Distributed Cloud DataCenters. In *International Conference on Parallel Processing (EuroPar)*.

Kim, N., Cho, J., and Seo, E. (2011). Energy-Based Accounting and Scheduling of Virtual Machines in a Cloud System. In *IEEE/ACM International Conference on Green Computing and Communications (GreenCom)*, pages 176–181.

Kurpicz, M., Orgerie, A.-C., and Sobe, A. (2016). How much does a VM cost? Energy-proportional Accounting in VM-based Environments. In *Euromicro International Conference on Parallel, Distributed, and Network-Based Processing (PDP)*, pages 651–658.

Natural Resources Defense Council (2014). Data Center Efficiency Assessment. NRDC Issue Paper, <https://www.nrdc.org/sites/default/files/data-center-efficiency-assessment-1P.pdf>.

Nordhaus, W. D. (2012). *Carbon Taxes to Move Toward Fiscal Sustainability*, pages 208–214. Columbia University Press.

Sharma, N., Gummesson, J., Irwin, D., and Shenoy, P. (2010). Cloudy Computing: Leveraging Weather Forecasts in Energy Harvesting Sensor Systems. In *IEEE Conference on Sensor, Mesh and Ad Hoc Communications and Networks (SECON)*, pages 1–9.

Sharma, N., Sharma, P., Irwin, D., and Shenoy, P. (2011). Predicting Solar Generation from Weather Forecasts Using Machine Learning. In *IEEE International Conference on Smart Grid Communications (SmartGridComm)*, pages 528–533.

Swan, M. (2015). *Blockchain: Blueprint for a new economy*. O’Reilly Media, Inc.”.

Wajid, U., Cappiello, C., Plebani, P., Pernici, B., Mehandjiev, N., Vitali, M., Gienger, M., Kavoussanakos, K., Margery, D., García-Pérez, D., and Sampaio, P. (2015). On Achieving Energy Efficiency and Reducing CO₂ Footprint in Cloud Computing. *IEEE Transactions on Cloud Computing*, PP(99):14.

Wu, W., Lin, W., and Peng, Z. (2016). An Intelligent Power Consumption Model for Virtual Machines Under CPU-intensive Workload in Cloud Environment. *Soft Computing*, pages 1–10.

Xiao, P., Hu, Z., Liu, D., Yan, G., and Qu, X. (2013). Virtual Machine Power Measuring Technique with Bounded Error in Cloud Environments. *Journal of Network and Computer Applications*, 36(2):818–828.

Yang, H., Zhao, Q., Luan, Z., and Qian, D. (2014). iMeter: An integrated VM power model based on performance profiling. *Future Generation Computer Systems*, 36:267 – 286.