

Providing Green SLAs in High Performance Computing Clouds

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Abstract—Demand for clean products and services is increasing as society is becoming increasingly aware of climate change. In response, many enterprises are setting explicit sustainability goals and implementing initiatives to reduce carbon emissions. Quantification and disclosure of such goals and initiatives have become important marketing tools. As enterprises and individuals shift their workloads to the cloud, this drive toward quantification and disclosure will lead to demand for *quantifiable green cloud services*. Thus, we argue that cloud providers should offer a new class of green services, in addition to existing (energy-source-oblivious) services. This new class would provide clients with explicit service-level agreements (which we call Green SLAs) for the percentage of renewable energy used to run their workloads.

In this paper, we first propose an approach for High Performance Computing cloud providers to offer such a Green SLA service. Specifically, each client job specifies a Green SLA, which is the minimum percentage of green energy that must be used to run the job. The provider earns a premium for meeting the Green SLA, but is penalized if it accepts the job but violates the Green SLA. We then propose (1) a power distribution and control infrastructure that uses a small amount of hardware to support Green SLAs, (2) an optimization-based framework for scheduling jobs and power sources that maximizes provider profits while respecting Green SLAs, and (3) two scheduling policies based on the framework. We evaluate our framework and policies extensively through simulations. Our main results show the tradeoffs between our policies, and their advantages over simpler greedy heuristics. We conclude that a Green SLA service that uses our policies would enable the provider to attract environmentally conscious clients, especially those who require strict guarantees on their use of green energy.

I. INTRODUCTION

It is well known that datacenters consume an enormous amount of electricity. This consumption translates into high carbon emissions, since most of the electricity is produced using fossil fuels. A 2008 study estimated world-wide datacenters to emit 116 million metric tons of carbon, slightly more than the entire country of Nigeria [1]. With increasing societal awareness of these emissions and climate change, there is increasing demand for cleaner products and services.

In response, enterprises have started to set explicit sustainability goals and create initiatives to reduce their carbon emissions. Such efforts have become important marketing tools. For example, in 2012, the Global Reporting Initiative [2], a non-profit organization that seeks “to make sustainability reporting standard practice for all organizations,” registered 2,295 reports from companies such as AMD, Dell, and Microsoft. As enterprises and individuals shift their workloads to

the cloud, this drive toward quantification and disclosure of the sustainability of business activities will lead to demand for *quantifiable green cloud services*.

A few small green cloud service providers, e.g., Green House Data [3], AISO [4], and GreenCloud [5], have already sprung up to meet the demand for clean computing. However, it is difficult to quantify how green such providers are. For example, while two of Green House Data’s datacenters are 100% powered by renewable (wind) energy, a third (equipped with solar power) is not [6]. Furthermore, cloud clients may have different goals for their carbon emissions (e.g., 100% vs. 30% green energy). In fact, since not all clients would need a 100% green service, creating fully green systems unnecessarily increases costs.

Thus, instead of a one-size-fits-all approach, we argue that Infrastructure-as-a-Service (IaaS) cloud providers should offer a new class of services, with explicit service-level agreements (SLAs) for the percentage of renewable energy used to run the clients’ workloads. We refer to these renewable-energy SLAs as Green SLAs. Importantly, this class of services should not replace existing services (which are oblivious to energy sources). Rather, it would allow environmentally conscious clients to explicitly contract for use of green energy for their workloads. For example, a client interested in near-zero carbon emissions would contract for virtual machines (VMs) in its workload to run 100% on green energy. Others could contract for lower percentages of green energy. An enterprise could even contract for different SLAs over time, as their business goals and progress toward meeting those goals evolve.

Cloud providers can offer the above differentiated Green SLA service in different manners. For example, one approach is to account for the entire amount of green and brown (i.e., electrical-grid-sourced) energy consumed within an accounting period (e.g., a month) irrespective of which workload consumed how much of each type of energy. In this accounting approach, it suffices for the provider to show that enough green energy was used to meet all Green SLAs. Although simple, this approach would not suffice for some clients. Specifically, we expect that an increasing number of clients will require guarantees that their workloads are executed with specific fractions of green energy, especially if they are required to demonstrate so by legislation. For example, the UK government requires businesses consuming more than 6 GWh of brown energy per year to purchase carbon offsets from the market [7].

In this paper, we propose and evaluate a stricter paradigm for High Performance Computing (HPC) cloud providers, where a client’s Green SLA can only be satisfied by actually using green energy to run that client’s job (i.e., a collection of

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VMs). Specifically, we assume that each job submitted by a client specifies a desired Green SLA, in the form of a minimum percentage of green energy that must be used to run the job. The provider can accept or reject the job.¹ If it accepts a job, the provider earns a premium for the percentage of the client’s job that must be run using green energy. However, the provider must pay a penalty if it violates the Green SLA. Meeting Green SLAs in the presence of intermittent sources of green energy, such as solar and wind, is a challenging proposition.

As the cloud provider needs to differentiate green energy from brown energy to satisfy Green SLAs, we assume that it operates a datacenter that either generates its own green energy (self-generation) or draws it directly from an existing nearby plant (co-location). In either scenario, the datacenter can also draw on brown energy as needed. (Importantly, note that we do *not* argue that self-generation or co-location will be the best approach for all sustainability-conscious datacenter operators. Rather, we argue that self-generation or co-location will be the approach of choice for many operators, as suggested by the many examples in [3]–[5], [8]–[10].)

However, having two distinct sources of energy (green and brown) is not enough to provide Green SLAs. The provider needs to bring the green energy all the way to the servers in the portion of the datacenter reserved to provide the Green SLA service. Thus, we propose a new power delivery infrastructure in which each rack reserved for the Green SLA service is dynamically switched between two energy sources, one entirely green, and one possibly a mixture of brown and green. The switching of the racks between the two energy sources is controlled by software running on a control module.

Next, we propose a software framework for optimization-based scheduling of client jobs and energy sources for the racks. We design two optimization-based scheduling policies using this framework. The policies seek to maximize the profit that the cloud provider can accrue by admitting and running clients’ jobs. They predict the amount of green energy that will likely be produced in the future, and use these predictions together with jobs’ execution information and Green SLAs to decide whether to admit jobs. They also generate schedules for executing the admitted jobs and for controlling the energy source of each rack. We also use two greedy heuristic scheduling policies as baselines for comparison.

Finally, we evaluate our proposed infrastructure and scheduling policies using simulation. Our main results show the tradeoffs between our optimization-based scheduling policies, and their advantages over the simpler greedy heuristic policies. Importantly, policy parameters for the optimization-based policies can be adjusted to reflect different values placed on meeting Green SLAs. For example, the penalty can be set very high (even if the actual penalty the provider has to pay out to clients is lower) to force the policies to be conservative and avoid missing Green SLAs. Alternatively, the penalty can be set low to reflect a best effort environment, where Green SLA violations are not serious failures. Based on these results, we conclude that a Green SLA service that uses our policies

¹The client can easily resubmit a rejected job with a lower Green SLA. In particular, a job with 0% Green SLA would always be accepted if there is sufficient computing capacity. The provider can also negotiate a Green SLA to reflect its commitments to other clients and the expected availability of green energy. We leave this as future work.

would enable the provider to attract environmentally conscious clients, especially those who require strict guarantees on their use of green energy.

In summary, this paper makes the following contributions: (1) we propose a new HPC cloud service that provides explicit SLAs for the use of green energy, (2) we propose a hardware infrastructure to support this new service; (3) we propose an optimization-based framework for admission control and scheduling to maximize profit while respecting green SLAs; (4) we use the framework to design two optimization-based policies; and (5) we evaluate our framework and policies extensively through simulation.

II. RELATED WORK

In [11], Klingert *et al.* introduced the notion of Green SLAs. However, their work focused on identifying known hardware and software techniques for reducing energy consumption and integrating green energy, and how applications might specify preferences/requirements for these techniques. They did not propose a specific type of Green SLAs and did not explore approaches for satisfying Green SLAs.

In [12], Deng *et al.* explored the strategic placement of grid ties to concentrate green energy in areas of the datacenter used to support workloads of environmentally conscious clients. In [13], Li *et al.* proposed a static partitioning of a datacenter into separate green and brown parts, and migration of VMs between the two parts to maximize use of green energy while minimizing performance overheads. Again, these works did not propose Green SLAs, and did not explore approaches for satisfying Green SLAs. We could have adopted a static partitioning as in [13]. However, we decided to trade off some additional hardware (i.e., the per-rack transfer switches) for increased flexibility (e.g., the possibility of achieving $x\%$ green energy consumption without requiring migration).

Many recent papers have focused on datacenters that exploit green energy [14]–[23]. Of these, [15], [16], [18] studied the scheduling of deferrable batch jobs to maximize the use of renewable energy. Krioukov *et al.* proposed to adjust service quality in non-deferrable interactive workloads [19]. For datacenters that run a mix of interactive and batch workloads, [14] and [21] proposed to adapt the amount of batch processing dynamically. Goiri *et al.* considered both deferrable and non-deferrable workloads [17]. In general, these works have sought to maximize the use of green energy while maintaining performance bounds. Our work shares this goal. However, we also seek to precisely assign green energy to client jobs according to Green SLAs. We propose novel hardware and software to accomplish this assignment.

A number of prior works have also addressed VM placement to reduce energy cost and/or performance SLA violations [24]–[28]. These works either proposed migrating VMs across datacenters or carefully packing VMs within a datacenter to achieve lower energy consumption with bounded performance loss. None of these works considered green energy.

III. POWER DISTRIBUTION INFRASTRUCTURE

Figure 1 shows the power distribution and control infrastructure we propose for a module that would be used to support

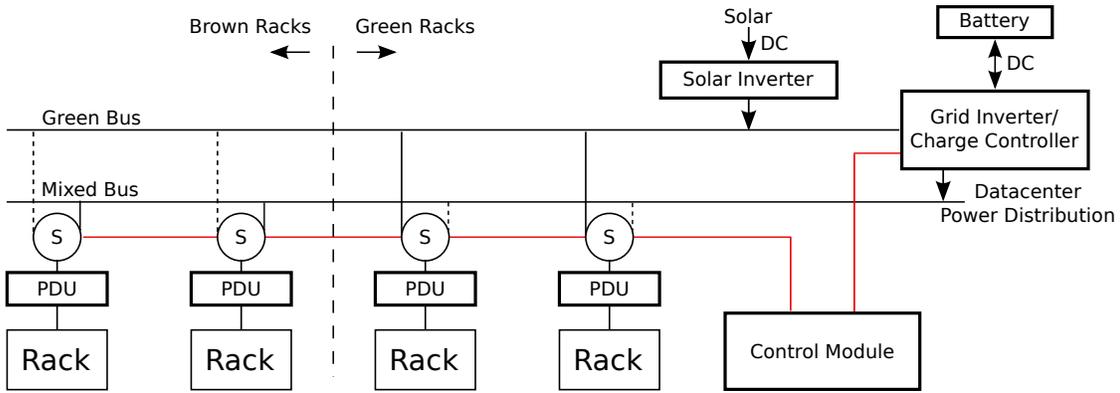


Fig. 1. Power distribution infrastructure. The vertical dashed line shows an example partitioning of the racks into a brown part (where racks are switched to the Mixed Bus) and a green part (where racks are switched to the Green bus) by a scheduling policy. This scheduling is discussed in Section IV.

the Green SLA service. One or more of these modules can be housed in a larger datacenter that also houses infrastructure for providing regular services (i.e., services to clients not interested in Green SLAs). Current IaaS providers already offer many classes of services, such as the Cluster Compute and Cluster GPU service classes of Amazon EC2.

The infrastructure contains two separate power buses, with the Green Bus carrying strictly green power and the Mixed Bus carrying a mix of brown and green power. Each rack is connected to a software-controlled transfer switch, which switches the power source for the rack between the Green and Mixed buses. The Grid Inverter/Charge Controller (GICC) is configured to charge the battery when there is excess green power, and discharge it when there is insufficient green power. Once the battery is full, excess green power is routed to the Mixed Bus. The GICC is configured to never allow power flow from the Mixed bus to the Green bus or to the battery.

The control module executes software that configures the GICC and the transfer switches. We detail this software in Section IV. The overall idea, however, is to use the solar power source, battery, and Green Bus to deliver *pure* green power to racks that can then be used to satisfy Green SLAs. This is why brown power is never allowed to enter the Green Bus and the battery. While excess green power may be routed to the Mixed Bus (so that it is not wasted), this green energy will not be counted toward any Green SLA.

Green energy is produced by a solar plant, either located on-site or at a nearby location. The solar source is supplemented by a small battery to smooth out any short-term variability in the solar power production (e.g., less energy is produced in a 15-minute interval than was predicted) as well as variability in power consumption. (Longer term matching of green energy and workload is done by the control software.)

In the proposed infrastructure, the solar inverter and GICC are both required for integrating a local green power source into the datacenter, independent of our proposal of a Green SLA service. Thus, the hardware cost of providing the Green SLA service is the extra power bus, the per-rack transfer switches, and the small battery. We comment further on the size of the battery in Section V.

This design is based on our experience building an actual solar-powered micro-datacenter [17]; we have direct experi-

ence with all components, except for the software-controlled transfer switches. However, similar switches are available commercially and are commonly used in current datacenters for redundant power delivery [29], [30]. In addition, while this paper considers solar as the source of green energy, our framework can be easily applied to other sources of green energy, such as wind, as long as it is possible to predict the near-future production of the green energy.

IV. SCHEDULING FRAMEWORK

Given the above power distribution and control framework, our goal is to schedule client jobs, and brown and green energy consumption to maximize the cloud provider's profit while meeting the clients' Green SLAs. In this section, we first describe the proposed Green SLA service in more detail. We then overview the scheduler, formulate scheduling as an optimization problem, and propose two approaches for solving the optimization problem (leading to two different scheduling policies). We also describe two heuristic-based scheduling policies as baselines for comparison with the optimization-based policies. Finally, we describe our approach for predicting the future production of green energy, which is a needed input to three of the four scheduling policies.

A. Green SLA Service

Each arriving job includes information about the number of VMs in the job, its run-time (i.e., the contracted service time for running the job), and a Green SLA specifying the required percentage of green energy. A job with a Green SLA of $x\%$ means that at least $x\%$ of the energy used to run the job must come from the Green Bus.

The provider charges clients a rate for each resource-time unit that can be run using either type of energy (e.g., \$0.24 per machine-hour). The provider charges a higher rate for each resource-time unit that should be run using only green energy (e.g., \$0.29 per machine-hour). The higher rate reflects the added value that the provider places on the differentiated service provided by Green SLAs.

The provider can reject a job at arrival if it does not have sufficient processing capacity and/or expected green energy production to execute the job and meet its Green SLA. However, if the job is admitted and the provider fails to meet the job's Green SLA, the provider must pay a penalty

proportional to how much of the Green SLA was missed (e.g., \$0.50 per machine-hour of Green SLA not fully powered by green energy).

B. Scheduling Overview

The provider runs a scheduler that is designed to maximize profit while meeting jobs' Green SLAs, where the cost to the provider includes the cost for brown energy and any penalty that must be paid for violations of Green SLAs. Specifically, the scheduler divides time in a scheduling window (e.g., the next 48 hours) into epochs, with an epoch of time on a machine called a slot. It then predicts the green energy production, and produces a schedule that specifies for each time epoch in the scheduling window: (1) the number of VMs of each active job j that should be running on each rack r , and (2) the power bus to which each rack should be connected. A slot in a rack connected to the Green Bus is called a green slot; one connected to the Mixed Bus is called a brown slot.

While the infrastructure described in Section III allows for arbitrary configurations of the power switches, the scheduler uses a more constrained configuration to simplify the scheduling problem. Specifically, the racks are divided into "left" and "right" partitions for each epoch; the vertical dashed line in Figure 1 shows an example partitioning. The racks in the right partition will be completely powered with green energy during the epoch, while the racks in the left partition will be powered mostly with brown energy. A small amount of green power may be routed to the Mixed bus, but only if this excess green energy is insufficient to allow another entire rack to be moved to the green (right) partition. This excess green energy is used to reduce the amount of brown energy needed, and so reduces cost, but cannot be used toward meeting Green SLAs. In this approach, the leftmost rack will be the brownest rack, i.e., it has the highest brown-to-green energy ratio over time, the rightmost rack will be the greenest rack, and the racks become "greener" from left to right.

The scheduler runs toward the end of an epoch, leaving enough time for turning servers on for the next epoch if necessary, when a new job has arrived in the current epoch and/or when the system detects that Green SLAs may be violated because green energy production is lower than previously predicted. The scheduler assumes that each VM will consume the maximum amount of energy in each slot, and meets the Green SLA of a job by scheduling its VMs on a sufficient number of green slots. If VMs running on green racks consume less than the allocated energy, the excess green energy will be automatically routed to the Mixed bus.

To minimize energy consumption and cost, unneeded servers are either turned off or put into a low-power state (e.g., S3 ACPI). For simplicity, we assume that data is stored on network-attached storage so that turning servers off does not affect data availability. We have solved this availability problem without requiring this assumption in a similar context [16].

We assume that VMs can be migrated live from one physical machine to another (i.e., a VM keeps running while it is being migrated) with no slowdown. During migration, energy is consumed on both the source and destination machines.

We handle failures in the same manner as Amazon's EC2 [31]. Specifically, if a VM is lost due to a crash or a

TABLE I. FRAMEWORK PARAMETERS. TIME EPOCHS IN THE SCHEDULING WINDOW ARE NUMBERED FROM 1 TO T . RACKS ARE NUMBERED FROM 1 TO RA , WHERE RACK i IS ADJACENT TO THE LEFT OF RACK $i + 1$ (LEFT-TO-RIGHT NUMBERING OF RACKS SHOWN IN FIGURE 1).

Symbol	Meaning
T	The number of time epochs in the scheduling window
J	Set of active jobs
V_j	Number of VMs in job j
G_j	Number of (remaining) green slots required for job j
T_j	Number of (remaining) time epochs in job j 's execution
R_b	Revenue earned per contracted execution of a VM in a brown slot
R_g	Revenue earned per contracted execution of a VM in a green slot
L	Penalty per slot of Green SLA not met
RA	Number of racks used to implement the Green SLA service
RC	Capacity of (i.e., number of machines in) each rack
EV	Amount of energy consumed by a machine running a VM in an epoch
EM	Amount of energy consumed by the migration of a VM
PB	Energy price that the cloud provider pays per brown slot
OP_r	Opportunity cost for using a slot in rack r
GP_t	Predicted green energy production in epoch t
e_r^b	Amount of brown energy scheduled for rack r during epoch t
e_{rt}^g	Amount of green energy scheduled for rack r during epoch t
x_{jrt}	Number of VMs of job j scheduled on rack r in epoch t

software or hardware failure on the hosting server, the job is counted as having 1 fewer VM for its remaining runtime, and the fee for its execution and the Green SLAs are adjusted accordingly.

C. Optimization Framework

Table I lists the set of parameters for our optimization framework. Using these parameters, we formulate the optimization problem shown in Figure 2.

In this formulation, the profit (Equation 1) that the cloud provider earns is the sum of revenues earned from running admitted jobs minus the penalty incurred for missing Green SLAs and the energy cost of running the admitted jobs. An opportunity cost ($OppCost_j$), representing expected future earning that is given up when slots are assigned to current jobs, is also subtracted. We introduce this cost to ensure that VMs are not scheduled on "greener" racks than needed to satisfy their Green SLAs. Otherwise, the system may need to migrate VMs (incurring migration costs) or reject new jobs (losing opportunities to increase profit) when they arrive in the future. The profit formulation does not include the capital and operating costs of the solar setup because all scheduling policies we seek to compare embody these same costs.

The revenue earned per job (Equation 2) is the revenue earned for the promised number of green slots and for the number of brown slots. The penalty (Equation 3) is proportional to the number of promised green slots replaced by brown slots because the cloud provider did not produce enough green energy while the job was running. The opportunity cost of each job (Equation 7) is the sum of the opportunity cost of all slots assigned to the job during its run-time. The cost to the provider of running the admitted jobs includes the cost of supplying racks with brown energy (Equation 8).

The optimization problem involves many constraints, with the main ones listed and described briefly in Figure 3.

We use an optimization solver to instantiate, for each time epoch t in the scheduling horizon, the number of VMs from each job j to run on each rack r (x_{jrt}), the amount of brown

$$\begin{aligned}
Profit &= \sum_{j \in J} (Revenue_j - Penalty_j - OppCost_j) - \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{r=1}^{RA} Cost(r, t) & (1) \\
Revenue_j &= G_j \times R_g + ((T_j \times V_j) - G_j) \times R_b & (2) \\
Penalty_j &= \begin{cases} L \times (G_j - NumActGreenSlots_j) & \text{if } G_j > NumActGreenSlots_j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} & (3) \\
NumActGreenSlots &= \sum_{r=1}^{RA} \sum_{t=1}^T (x_{jrt} \times RackIsGreen_{rt}) & (4) \\
RackIsGreen_{rt} &= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } e_{rt}^g \geq \sum_{j \in J} (x_{jrt} \times EV + NumMigrates_{jrt} \times EM) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} & (5) \\
NumMigrates_{jrt} &= \begin{cases} x_{jrt} - x_{jr(t-1)} & \text{if } x_{jrt} > x_{jr(t-1)} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} & (6) \\
OppCost_j &= \sum_{r=1}^{RA} \sum_{t=0}^T (x_{jrt} \times OP_r) & (7) \\
Cost(r, t) &= e_{rt}^b \times PB & (8)
\end{aligned}$$

Fig. 2. Optimization framework.

energy supplied to each rack (e_{rt}^b), and the amount of green energy supplied to each rack (e_{rt}^g). Each time the problem is solved, T_j and G_j of each job that has already been running have to be updated to reflect how long the job has already run, and how many green slots it has already been allocated.

Note that our framework does not include the explicit management of the battery shown in Figure 1. Although we could have included this management [17], we have chosen to exclude it for simplicity. We believe this omission has little impact (if any) on our results since we propose only a small power “smoothing” battery. We also assume that each physical server only hosts one VM; if a server can host multiple VMs, an additional per-rack optimizer as in [24] can be added to maximize consolidation in the presence of inter-rack VM migration. In this case, it may be necessary reserve a small amount of green energy for intra-rack migration in the green partition. We do not account for the power consumed by turning nodes on/off because these operations take little time compared to the scheduling epochs; e.g., we have measured 45 and 15 seconds to turn a server on and off, respectively, and 4 and 3 seconds to enter and exit an S3 ACPI state that consumes 5% of the peak power, compared to the 15-minute epochs used in our evaluation. We have also chosen simplicity (e.g., constant brown energy pricing and constant penalty per missed slot) whenever the added complexity would be unlikely to affect our fundamental findings. Finally, the framework currently focuses solely on the servers, assuming that cooling and network-attached storage fully rely on green energy and (larger) batteries. We will eliminate these simplifying assumptions in future work.

D. Solving the Optimization Problem

Simulated Annealing. We use Simulated Annealing (SA) [32] to solve the above non-linear formulation for maximum profit. Recall that this optimization is executed each time a new job arrives, or the system detects that one or more Green SLAs might be missed.

When a new job arrives, SA first solves a simpler, linear reformulation of the problem (see below) to schedule the new job, assuming that the current schedule for jobs already in the system cannot be changed. This produces a starting point for SA. When the system detects that Green SLAs might be violated, the current schedule is the starting point.

SA then iteratively explores new schedules, relying on randomization to avoid local maxima. To limit the size of the search space, SA does not explore completely random new schedules. Instead, it maintains three job sets: (1) an “unmet” set of jobs whose Green SLAs are expected to be violated under the current schedule, (2) an “extra” set of jobs that are expected to receive more green energy than is needed to satisfy their Green SLAs, and (3) a “migration” set of jobs whose schedules contain more than a threshold of migrations in the future. SA produces a new schedule by randomly choosing a small subset of each job set, removing them from the current schedule, and rescheduling them as if they were new arrivals using the linear reformulation.

For a new job, if SA cannot find a schedule that increases profit, the job is rejected. Otherwise, the best schedule found by SA is adopted. In the case of detecting possible Green SLA violations, the best schedule found by SA is adopted, regardless of whether one or more Green SLAs are still expected to be missed or not. Once admitted, jobs must be executed to completion. If Green SLAs are missed, the cloud provider must pay the penalty.

Linear Programming. We can reformulate the optimization problem in Figure 2 into a simpler one that is solvable using Linear Programming (LP). In this reformulation, the optimization problem becomes one of minimizing the sum of the penalty, opportunity cost, and migration cost. We assume that the racks in the green partition are always completely full, allowing the green/brown energy routing to be predetermined into the future. Intuitively, the minimization problem leads to a solution that tries to meet Green SLAs (minimizes the

$$\forall_{j \in J} \forall_{0 < t \leq T} \sum_{r=1}^{RA} x_{jrt} = V_j \Rightarrow \text{Must run all VMs of each job } j \text{ in every epoch during } j\text{'s run-time} \quad (9)$$

$$\forall_{0 < r \leq RA} \forall_{0 < t \leq T} \sum_{j \in J} x_{jrt} \leq RC \Rightarrow \text{Total number of VMs running in a rack must not exceed its capacity} \quad (10)$$

$$\forall_{0 < r \leq RA} \forall_{0 < t \leq T} ((EV \times \sum_{j \in J} x_{jrt}) + (EM \times \sum_{j \in J} NumMigrates_{jrt})) \leq (e_{rt}^b + e_{rt}^g) \Rightarrow \quad (11)$$

Enough energy must be scheduled for each rack to run VMs scheduled there
and migrate VMs moving to another rack

$$\forall_{0 < t \leq T} \bar{A}_r | (RackIsGreen_{(r-1)t} = 1) \wedge (RackIsGreen_{rt} = 0) \wedge (RackIsGreen_{(r+1)t} = 1) \Rightarrow \quad (12)$$

All green racks must be next to each other

$$\forall_{0 < t \leq T} \bar{A}_r | (r \neq RA) \wedge (RackIsGreen_{rt} = 1) \wedge (RackIsGreen_{RA t} = 0) \Rightarrow \text{Green racks must start from right end}$$

$$\forall_{0 < r \leq RA} \forall_{0 < t \leq T} \sum_{r=1}^{RA} e_{rt}^g \leq GP_t \Rightarrow \text{Can schedule no more green energy than the amount of expected production} \quad (13)$$

Fig. 3. Optimization constraints.

penalty) without using greener slots than needed (minimizes the opportunity cost) and without unnecessarily moving VMs (minimizes the migration cost).

The reformulated problem is a Mixed Integer Linear Programming (MILP) problem that we solve using a MILP solver. Since MILP solvers are only efficient for reasonably sized problems, LP can only be used to schedule a small number of jobs. Thus, when using just LP, we assume that once a job has been scheduled, its schedule cannot be changed in the future. When a new job arrives, it is scheduled using only resources (i.e., slots) that are not already used in the current schedule. It is rejected if the solution leads to lower profits. As already described, when used as a part of SA, LP may be used to produce a schedule for a small set of jobs, assuming the current schedule for the remaining jobs is fixed.

Greedy Heuristics. As baselines for comparison, we propose two greedy heuristic placement schemes. The first is a First-Fit (FF) scheme that is oblivious to energy type and admits all jobs as long as there is sufficient computing capacity. The second is a more sophisticated, green-energy-aware heuristic that we call Static Green-aware Placement (SGP). Specifically, when a job arrives with a Green SLA of $g\%$, SGP places the job's VMs on the rack r with expected green percentage during the job's runtime closest to but not less than $g\%$. If there are more VMs than available slots in r , the needed percentage of green is recomputed for the excess VMs, and the same placement procedure is repeated. VMs are never migrated. The job is rejected if a placement that is expected to meet or exceed the job's Green SLA cannot be found.

E. Green Energy Prediction

We use the method from [16] to predict solar energy production. This method combines the model from [33] with the approach for improving accuracy from [15]. Specifically, the model relates solar energy generation to cloud cover as $E_p(t) = B(t)(1 - CloudCover)$, where $E_p(t)$ is the amount of energy predicted for time t , $B(t)$ is the amount of energy expected under ideal sunny conditions for time t , and $CloudCover$ is the forecasted percentage cloud cover. For the cloud cover information, we use forecasts from Intellicast.com,

which predicts $CloudCover$ for each hour of the next 48 hours. This leads to prediction granularity (i.e., t) of one hour. We set $B(t)$ for each hour of the day to the amount of energy generated during that hour on the day with the highest energy generation from the previous month.

Of course, weather forecasts are sometimes wrong, which may lead to inaccurate predictions. To improve accuracy, we compute $CloudCover$ from the amount of energy generated in the previous hour. This approach then compares the accuracy of the two methods, and uses the most accurate one to predict the remainder of the horizon. For example, at the beginning of hour t , we compute $CloudCover$ for the next hour using (1) the weather forecast, and (2) the energy produced in hour $t-1$. At the beginning of hour $t+1$, we compare the accuracy of the two methods and use the best one to predict the remainder of the horizon. At hour $t+2$, the process repeats.

V. EVALUATION

A. Methodology

We use simulation to evaluate our framework and policies. Our simulator takes a workload trace, a solar energy production trace, a solar energy prediction trace, and the price for brown energy as inputs. Using these inputs, it simulates job arrivals and executions using a given scheduling policy, while tracking job energy consumption and whether Green SLAs are met.

Workloads. We study two real traces. The first and primary trace, called Grid5k, comes from the Grid Workload Archive [34]. The original trace was collected on the Grid'5000 system [35], a 2,218-node distributed system spread across 9 sites in France, from May 2004 to November 2006. We selected an arbitrary 48-hour portion of the trace. The chosen period has 675 jobs, with a peak processing demand of 1,654 nodes. Most of the results presented below were obtained using this workload trace.

The second trace, called Intrepid, comes from the Parallel Workload Archive [36]. The original trace was collected on the Intrepid system, a 40-rack, 40,960-node Blue Gene/P system deployed at Argonne National Laboratory, from January 2009 to August 2009. We selected an arbitrary 48-hour portion

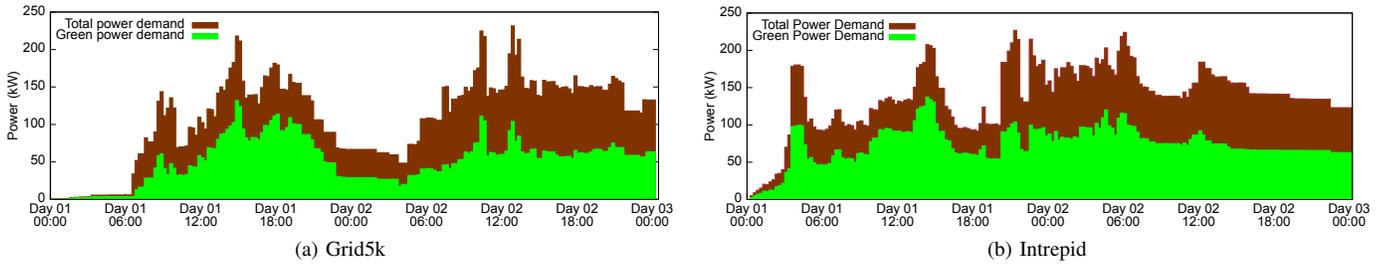


Fig. 4. Workload power demand assuming all jobs are admitted. The green areas represent the demand for green energy given by the Green SLAs.

of the trace, and then scaled down the processing load to match the peak demand of Grid5k (so that we can simulate the same datacenter). Specifically, we scaled down each job’s node demand by a factor of 24, reducing the total system size from 40,960 to 1,680 nodes. We correspondingly scaled up job runtimes by a factor of 8 (assuming that jobs run longer when running on smaller numbers of nodes). We also filtered out 35 very large jobs to make sure the trace does not ask for more nodes than the capacity of the simulated datacenter. The final workload trace contains 446 jobs, with a peak processing demand of 1,620 nodes.

We map the workloads into our environment by assuming that each job can be split into VMs, one VM per node requested by the job. Thus, each arriving job specifies the number of VMs needed, the contracted service time for running the job, and a Green SLA. We assume discrete service time periods equal to our scheduling epochs. Thus, each job’s runtime is converted into $\lceil \frac{\text{runtime}}{\text{epochsize}} \rceil$ slots. The Green SLA of each job that runs for less than 48 hours is chosen randomly according to a uniform distribution from the set $\{0\%, 25\%, 50\%, 75\%, 100\%\}$. For the jobs with runtimes longer than 48 hours (7 in Grid5k and 1 in Intrepid), we set the Green SLA to be 0% because we currently have predictions of green energy production only for the next 48 hours. This is done only for simplicity. We can extend our predictions further into the future using more coarsened-grained predictions (e.g., most weather services provide predictions 10 days into the future, allowing us to predict approximate daily green energy production). Figure 4 plots the power demand over time for the two workloads assuming that all jobs are admitted.

Datacenter. We simulate a datacenter containing 42 racks, each rack containing 40 servers. This computing capacity is chosen to accommodate the Grid5k workload without requiring any scaling. Each server consumes 140W when executing a VM, giving a peak datacenter power demand of 235.2kW. The 140W value is the measured power consumption of a server equipped with a 2.4GHz 4-core Xeon CPU, 8GB of memory, 1 7200rpm disk, and a 1Gb Ethernet card.

Energy Prices. We use the average brown energy price for New Jersey: 10.55 cents/kWh [37]. We assume self-generation of solar energy, so that green energy has zero (incremental) cost. Note, however, that our framework can be easily extended to account for a non-zero green energy cost.

Service Pricing. Customers pay \$0.29 per contracted VM-hour in their Green SLAs and \$0.24 per each remaining contracted VM-hour. These prices are modeled after the green cloud provider GreenCloud’s pricing [38] and Amazon EC2’s

pricing [39], respectively, for a large VM instance running Linux. These prices place a premium of approximately 20% for each contracted green VM-hour.

If the cloud provider fails to meet a job’s Green SLA, it pays a penalty of \$0.50 per missed VM-hour. We have chosen a relatively large penalty (10 times the 5 cents premium for requiring green energy) to ensure that the cloud provider does not lightly dismiss Green SLAs to garner greater profits. We explore the sensitivity of our policies to different ratios between the service prices and penalty below.

With the above prices and penalty, if the provider admits a 1-VM job that runs for 1 hour and has a Green SLA of 100%, it earns 29 cents if it meets the job’s Green SLA, earns 4 cents (29 cents fee - 25 cents penalty) if it misses the Green SLA by 50%, and pays the client 21 cents (29 cents fee - 50 cents penalty) if it does not use green energy to run the VM at all.

Opportunity Cost. We could compute the opportunity cost by scheduling a representative workload over an appropriate time frame, and computing the average profit earned per slot within each rack. However, for simplicity, we currently use an ϵ value that increases from the brownest rack to the greenest rack. This ϵ opportunity cost is sufficient to prevent unnecessary placement of VMs on green slots, which may later require migration so that the slots can be recovered to admit new jobs.

Solar Power Generation. We model the solar power generation as a scaled-down version of a solar farm at Rutgers that has a rated production capacity of 1.4MW. We scale the farm’s production down to 750 solar panels capable of producing 176.2kW. After derating, the peak production can provide 75% of the peak power consumption of our simulated datacenter. We choose 75% because on days with high solar energy production, this is sufficient to admit almost the entire workload while solar energy is being produced.

We evaluate our scheduling policies using three pairs of consecutive days with different amounts of solar energy production. Specifically, we select two sunny days (5/9/11 and 5/10/11) with high solar energy production (totaling 3.23MWh), two days (6/16/11 and 6/17/11) with medium solar energy production (totaling 1.94MWh), and two days (5/15/11 and 5/16/11) with low solar energy production (totaling 626kWh). We call these the “High”, “Medium”, and “Low” days, respectively.

Interestingly, the three pairs of days show different levels of accuracy for predictions of solar energy production. Predictions are mostly accurate for the High days, although there are some under-predictions for the first day. Predictions are also

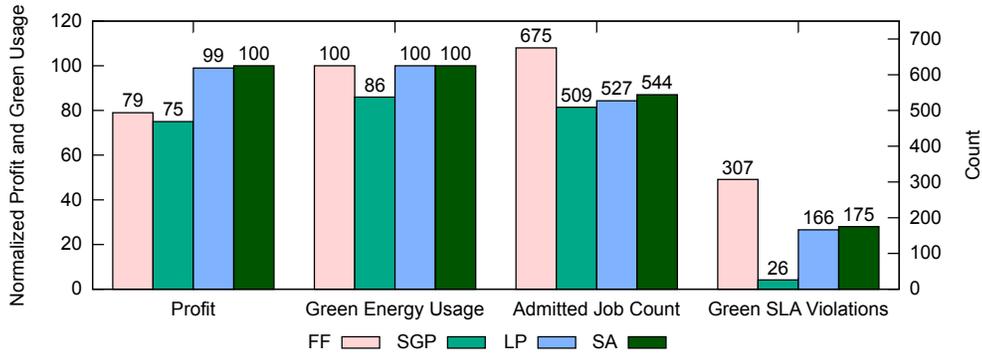


Fig. 5. Comparison of normalized profit, normalized green energy use, number of admitted jobs, and number of Green SLA violations for the Grid5k workload running over the Medium days.

mostly accurate for the Low days. However, predictions for the Medium days contain significant errors, which are mostly over-predictions. We evaluated our solar energy predictions in more detail in [16].

Optimization. The scheduling horizon is set to 48 hours, the extent of time into the future that we currently predict green energy production. The horizon is divided into 15-minute epochs, implying that the scheduling policy is rerun at most once every 15 minutes. We use the Gurobi solver [40] to solve the MILP optimization problem described in Section IV.

B. Results

Figure 5 compares the profit, green energy usage, number of admitted jobs, and number of missed Green SLAs achieved on the Medium days for the Grid5k workload by the four policies described in Section IV-D. The profits and green energy usage are normalized to those of SA (left Y-axis), whereas the numbers of admitted jobs and Green SLA violations are absolute (right Y-axis). These results show that the two optimization-based policies, SA and LP, can significantly outperform the two greedy policies, with FF and SGP achieving only 79% and 75%, respectively, of SA’s profit.

Interestingly, the greedy policies under-perform the optimization-based policies for opposing reasons. FF, as expected, is overly aggressive since it admits all jobs, regardless of their Green SLAs and expected green energy production. Thus, it violates many Green SLAs and incurs large penalties. However, it can use more green energy because the other policies sometimes reject jobs even when green energy is available.

In contrast, SGP is overly conservative in trying to not violate any Green SLA at all. Thus, it misses opportunities where the cloud provider can earn a profit because the penalty is relatively small compared to the revenue earned (e.g., when Green SLAs are only missed by small amounts). However, SGP violates the fewest Green SLAs among all the policies; it only violates the Green SLAs of 26 out of 509 admitted jobs (5%). This can be advantageous if violating Green SLAs has negative implications beyond the penalty; e.g., clients seeking to reduce the carbon footprint of their computing workloads may become unhappy if too many Green SLAs are missed, despite the compensating penalties.

For the current parameters, there is little difference between the performance of LP and SA for maximizing profit. SA

admits jobs more aggressively (3% more jobs than LP), but violates Green SLAs more frequently (5% more missed Green SLAs), and so pays higher penalties. SA takes substantially longer (11.3 secs on average in our experiments with a 2.4GHz Xeon server) to compute a schedule than LP (0.15 secs on average). However, both overheads are low compared to our 15-minute epochs. Also, LP runs less frequently (only when a new job arrives, i.e., 675 times) than SA (866 times) in our experiments. We explore the scalability of SA’s and LP’s runtimes with datacenter and workload sizes below.

For a more detailed look at the behaviors of the policies, Figures 6(a)-(b) show the power consumption profiles of FF and SA. Overall, SA consumes less energy because it rejects jobs when it predicts that there will not be sufficient green energy to profitably admit the jobs. As already observed, this makes SA more susceptible to leaving some green energy unused, especially if green energy production is higher than predicted. In this case, both FF and SA leave some green energy unused on the first day because more green energy was produced than is required to support the entire workload for several hours. (Excess green energy can be either net-metered or stored in batteries for later use.) However, SA uses more green energy to meet Green SLAs than FF, and so earns higher profits from the produced green energy.

Impact of ratio between green revenue and penalty. The ratio between the fee for meeting Green SLAs (green revenue) and the penalty for not meeting them significantly impacts the behaviors of LP and SA, and their performance relative to the greedy policies. As the penalty increases compared to the revenue, both LP and SA will admit fewer jobs to avoid violations of Green SLAs. Thus, their performance will become comparable to that of SGP. For example, on High days, the ratio of SGP’s profit to SA’s profit is 0.74:1, 0.88:1, and 0.96:1 for low (\$0.20), medium (\$0.50), and high (\$0.80) penalty, respectively. We observe similar results for Medium and Low days. Further, FF’s relative performance will worsen because its obliviousness to green energy production becomes increasingly expensive. As the penalty decreases compared to the revenue, both LP and SA will admit more jobs to increase profit, even though more Green SLAs will be missed. Thus, their performance will become more comparable to that of FF. SGP’s relative performance will worsen because it does not recognize that violations of Green SLAs can be profitable.

Impact of green energy availability. We now evaluate the policies across the three pairs of days with different levels of

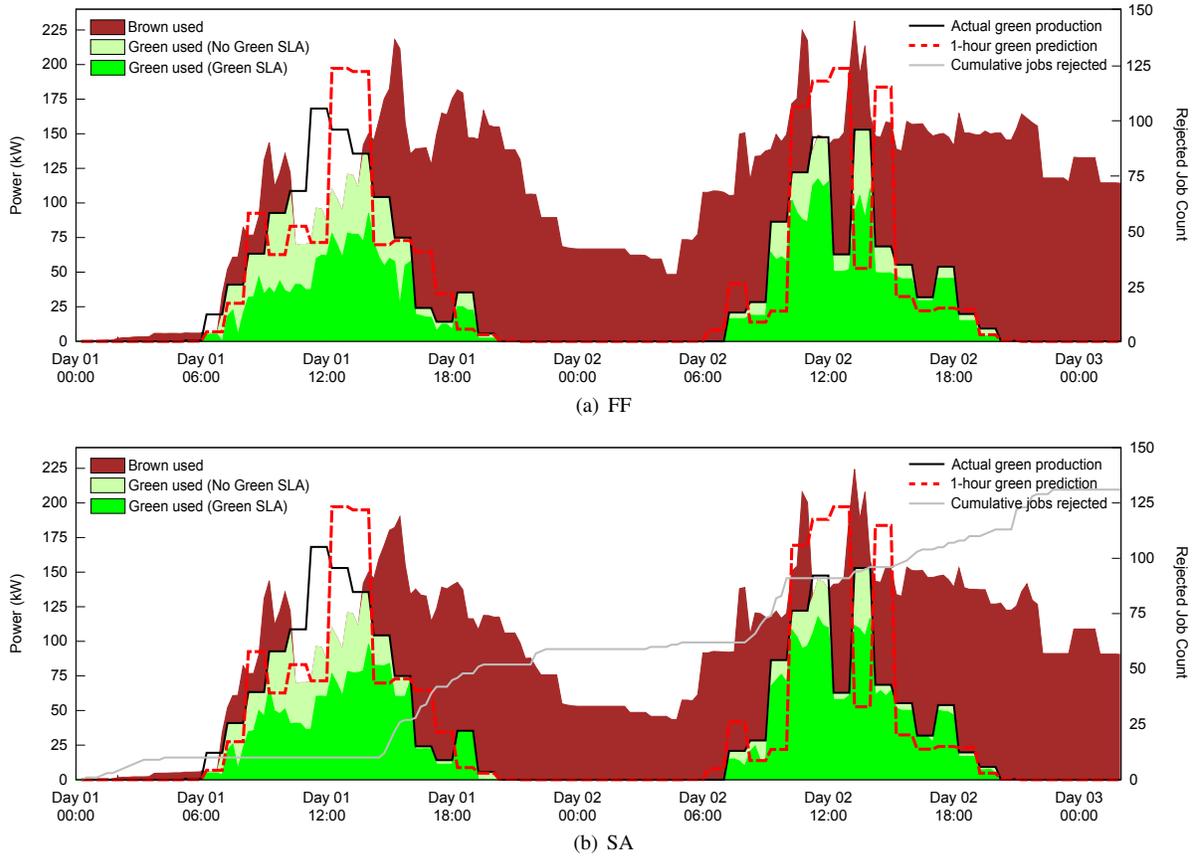


Fig. 6. Power profile of FF and SA when running Grid5k over the Medium days. The “Green used (Green SLA)” areas represent green energy used for meeting the Green SLAs of admitted jobs. The “Green used (No Green SLA)” areas represent green energy used to run jobs beyond that required to meet Green SLAs. The “Brown used” areas represent brown energy used. The dashed red lines show the 1-hour ahead predictions of green energy production. The black lines show the actual green energy production. The gray line in (b) shows the number of jobs rejected (Y-axis on the right). Note that FF does not reject any jobs.

green energy production. Figures 7(a)-(b) show the results of running Grid5k over the High and Low days. As one might expect, the advantages of the optimization-based policies over FF become clearer when the availability of green energy is more limited. On the Low days, FF only achieves 50% of SA’s profit. On the other hand, as green energy becomes more available, FF becomes more comparable, achieving 85% of SA’s profit on the High days. SGP’s performance compared to LP and SA is relatively insensitive to green energy production.

While not visible in the figures (the differences are less than 1%), SA outperforms LP slightly. This is because SA can migrate VMs from already admitted jobs to correct for inaccuracies in green energy prediction. If green energy production is greater than predicted, SA can migrate VMs from jobs receiving more green energy than expected to browner racks in order to admit more jobs. If production is less than predicted, SA may be able to migrate VMs to avoid or reduce the penalty from missed Green SLAs.

We have also simulated scenarios with peak green energy production providing 25% and 50% (compared to the above base case of 75%) of the peak power consumption of the datacenter. Trends in these results are consistent: the performance gap between the optimization-based and heuristic-based policies widens as the availability of green energy decreases.

Impact of green energy prediction inaccuracies. Inaccurate green energy predictions can harm profit. Over-predictions

(i.e., predicted production is greater than actual production) can be especially bad since they also lead to increased violations of Green SLAs. Thus, it may be desirable to make the green energy predictions more conservative.

To study the impact of conservative predictions, we rerun our simulations while reducing all $B(t)$ (Section IV-E) values by 10%, 20%, and 30%. These conservative predictions lead to slightly lower profits for both SA (<3%) and LP (<3%) but significantly fewer missed Green SLAs (up to 18% and 12% fewer, respectively). We conclude that it is worthwhile to make the green energy predictions more conservative than the method described in Section IV-E, perhaps by up to 30%.

Impact of workload characteristics. Thus far, we have focused exclusively on the Grid5k workload. We have also studied the Intrepid workload, which was collected on a distinctly different system from that of Grid5k, to validate our findings. Observations from results obtained using Intrepid are consistent with those based on Grid5k. In fact, because Intrepid exhibits a less distinct diurnal pattern than Grid5k, it has more jobs asking for green energy when none is available (i.e., at night). Thus, the difference between FF and the other policies is more significant since admission control becomes more important for profitability. For example, for the Medium days, FF’s profit when running Intrepid is only 64% of SA’s profit compared to 79% when running Grid5k. Also, there are more VMs per job in Intrepid than Grid5k, giving SA and

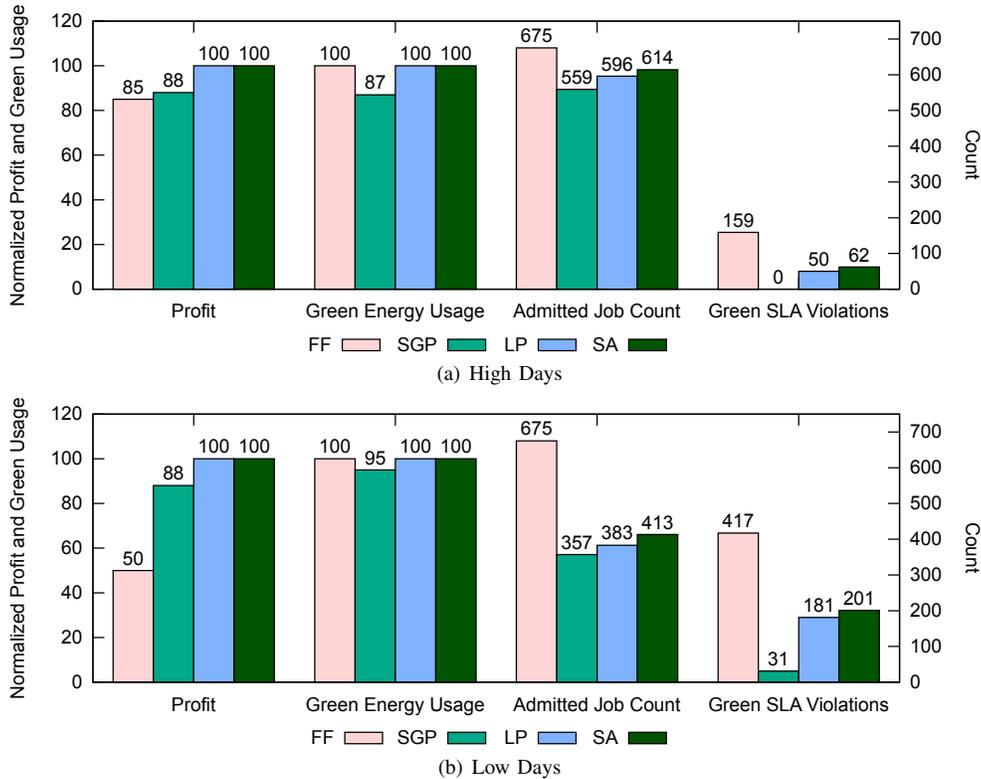


Fig. 7. Comparison of normalized profit, normalized green energy use, number of admitted jobs, and number of green SLA violations for High and Low days for Grid5k workload.

LP more flexibility for scheduling. As a result, both policies migrated VMs less often.

Impact of limiting SA’s search space. Recall from Section IV-D that we limit SA’s execution time by rescheduling only a subset of the active jobs; for the results discussed above, we limited SA to reschedule at most 30 jobs. To study the impact of this heuristic on the quality of SA’s solutions, we compare SA’s performance to a version of SA, called SA-All, that reschedules all active jobs. Results show that SA-All achieves 3.5% higher profit than SA when running Grid5k over the Medium days, but is 28 times slower. Thus, we conclude that our heuristic makes it practical to use SA without significantly degrading the quality of SA’s solutions.

Scalability of SA and LP. We explore the scalability of SA and LP by running experiments for datacenters with 11, 21, and 84 racks. We also scale the workload proportionally (e.g., the workload of a datacenter with 84 racks is twice that of a datacenter with 42 racks). As we are increasing the problem size exponentially, the runtimes also grow exponentially. However, the overheads for a 84-rack system are still low compared to our 15-minute epochs. Average runtimes for LP are 0.02, 0.04, 0.15, 0.23 for 11, 21, 42, and 84 racks, respectively. Average runtimes for SA are 0.1, 1.0, 11.3, 58.3 secs. As systems and workloads increase further, the provider may consider utilizing more machines to run our policies, or simply increase the epoch length.

Battery size. Finally, we estimate the size of the battery needed for our simulated datacenter to validate our claim that the proposed infrastructure only requires a small battery. In particular, we study a fine-grained trace of solar energy production collected in March 2013 from our solar-powered

micro-datacenter [17], scaled to match the size of the simulated datacenter (42 racks, 40 machines per rack). We choose this particular month because there were events such as snow storms that can lead to inaccurate prediction of green energy production. In this month, the green energy predictor over-predicted green energy production for 60 epochs (2%). The average over-prediction is 11.7kW with a maximum of 29.9kW. If we were to tolerate the maximum deficit for 10 seconds before switching racks from the green to the brown partition, we would need a 0.08kWh battery. For the 60 epochs, on average we need to switch 2 racks from the green to the brown partition (maximum 5 racks). The 10 seconds buffer is also more than sufficient to tolerate fine-grained variability in green energy production. This battery size is quite small compared to the battery capacity to sustain 8-10 minutes of operation at peak load already provisioned in typical datacenters [41]. For our simulated datacenter, this provisioning would translate to 31.3 to 39.2kWh.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we proposed that HPC cloud service providers should offer a novel green service. In this service, each client job specifies a Green SLA, which is the minimum percentage of green energy that must be used to run the job. We then proposed a power distribution and control infrastructure, together with an optimization-based scheduling framework and policies, for providing such a Green SLA service. We also proposed two simple greedy heuristic policies for achieving the same goals. We evaluated our proposals extensively using simulations. Our evaluation results showed that the optimization-based policies can significantly outperform the greedy policies. The results also showed that the choice of optimization-based

policy depends on whether the cloud provider prefers to accept more jobs or violate fewer Green SLAs. We conclude that a Green SLA service that uses our policies can be useful for the provider to attract environmentally conscious clients, especially those who require strict guarantees on their use of green energy.

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