Towards Game-Theoretic Approaches to Attributing Carbon in Cloud Data Centers

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ABSTRACT

Data centers are becoming an ever greater threat to our climate: their energy usage alone constituted 0.6% of global greenhouse gas emissions (GHG) emissions in 2020. Recent studies have shown that embodied GHG emissions of data centers are comparable to that from their energy usage. As cloud customers increasingly seek to better understand their carbon footprint, public cloud providers have begun providing tools to attribute the carbon costs of data centers to users. Many open-source carbon attribution and accounting tools have also emerged in the last few years to help users measure the carbon footprint of their workloads. However, existing attribution methodologies lack fairness guarantees and are overly simple and coarse-grained. This paper presents a game theoretic framework for fair and comprehensive operational and embodied carbon attribution within the scope of a single node. We demonstrate the attribution framework on a real cloud server.

CCS CONCEPTS

• **Computer systems organization** → **Cloud computing**; • **Hardware** → **Impact on the environment**.

KEYWORDS

Sustainable Computing, Cloud, Data centers, Carbon Attribution

1 INTRODUCTION

The information and computing technology (ICT) industry accounted for a significant 2.1% to 3.9% of global greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions in 2021 with emissions growing annually since [15]. A significant portion of the ICT industry's carbon footprint comes from data centers, whose energy usage accounted for 0.6% of global

GHG emissions in 2020 [19] and embodied carbon footprint accounts for a similar portion [24]. Driven by the rapid growth of cloud services and large machine learning models, data centers are expected to grow roughly 10% year-on-year until 2030 [30].

As computing's impact on energy usage and carbon emissions grows ever larger, data center operators seek to better understand the carbon footprint of individual users and jobs. This understanding could drive sustainability strategies for the data center provider's internal operations as well as permit better carbon accounting and mitigation for cloud customers. The largest cloud operators – Amazon Web Services (AWS), Microsoft Azure, and Google Cloud Platform (GCP) – have developed accounting tools with which users can estimate the carbon impact of their cloud computation [6, 33, 41]. Open-source tools, such as Cloud Carbon Footprint [48] and CodeCarbon [40], have been created to help users understand the climate impact of their software applications [27, 28, 37].

Existing carbon accounting models do not fully capture nuances in colocated data center jobs. For instance, some workloads may use particular hardware resources more intensely than others such that time on the server does not precisely reflect carbon costs. Some workloads may interfere and lengthen job completion times for others such that carbon costs depend on colocation decisions. When jobs colocate, the carbon accounting framework must fairly attribute the server's fixed and variable costs to individual jobs. Fixed costs include carbon associated with shared idle power as well as shared hardware components (e.g., the printed circuit board, chassis, etc.). Variable costs include carbon associated with a job's specific usage of individual hardware components. Note that fixed and variable costs exist for both operational carbon, which depends on the server's electricity usage, and embodied carbon, which depends on the server's construction and life cycle.

We explore the use of the Shapley value [43], a game-theoretic concept, for fairly attributing data centers' carbon to users' jobs. The Shapley value guarantees several fairness properties and has been proven useful in many applications in economics [23, 25, 35] and computer systems [11, 14, 21, 26]. Past work has looked at using the Shapley value for attributing power amongst colocated workloads [11, 21], but no existing work looks at using the Shapley value for fair attribution of both operational and embodied carbon.

The key contributions of this work include:

- A Shapley value based model for fairly attributing a server's operational and embodied carbon using power and resource utilization telemetry.
- A set of resource-specific embodied carbon attribution models for the CPU, DRAM, mainboard, peripherals, storage, and the power supply unit.
- A demonstration of the fair attribution model on a Dell R650 dual-socket server on CloudLab [12] using CloudSuite 4.0 [13] workloads, showing up to a 43% difference in workload carbon attribution compared to a baseline energy-based attribution method.
- An exploration of challenges and a roadmap for future directions in fairly attributing data center carbon using game theory.

2 LIMITATIONS OF EXISTING CLOUD CARBON ATTRIBUTION MODELS

The major public cloud providers and hyperscalers — Microsoft Azure, Google Cloud Platform (GCP), and Amazon Web Services (AWS) — have developed their own carbon attribution tools so that users can estimate their cloud carbon footprint [6, 33, 41]. There also exist many open-source tools [40, 44, 45] and academic works [1, 5, 16, 18, 39, 46, 49] that support a mix of operational carbon attribution, embodied carbon attribution, and energy attribution.

2.1 Cloud carbon attribution models

Azure attributes operational carbon by attributing each server's energy to each customer based on their resource utilization [31, 34] and then converting that to carbon footprint via the grid's carbon intensity. Azure attributes embodied carbon to each customer proportional to the billing cost of services rendered to that customer [32, 34].

GCP attributes operational carbon emissions by attributing each internal service's energy use to customers based on billing cost and then converting that to carbon footprint via the grid carbon intensity [7]. GCP attributes embodied carbon emissions to each customer proportional to the energy use attributed to that customer [7].

AWS attributes operational carbon emissions to customers using region-specific carbon intensity [42]. Unfortunately, AWS does not publicize further details on its energy attribution and carbon attribution methodology and does not provide embodied carbon attribution to its customers.

Open-source tools such as Cloud Carbon Footprint [48], Code-Carbon [40], Green Metrics Tool [44] and models such as carbond [39], and Westerhof et al. [49] attribute operational carbon on a per-node granularity. CodeCarbon and Green Metrics Tool do not attribute embodied carbon. Cloud Carbon Footprint and carbond attributes a server's embodied carbon footprint proportional to the customer's resource utilization quantity and time. Westerhof et al. attributes embodied carbon proportional to a user's energy attribution.

2.2 Limitations in existing methods

Existing tools and frameworks attribute operational carbon at workload-granularity with detailed energy accounting and attribution via hardware power and resource utilization telemetry. However, the tools either lack embodied carbon attribution entirely [40,

41, 44] or attribute simply based on billing cost, energy usage, or resource utilization quantity and time [6, 33, 39, 48, 49]. Moreover, existing open-source [40, 44, 48] and academic [39, 49] models do not attribute operational carbon between colocated workloads on the same node. We list below several additional shortcomings of existing frameworks that we seek to address via our Shapley value based carbon attribution method.

Resource-dependent carbon footprint. Embodied carbon attribution methods that group together the embodied carbon of all components and then attribute to customers via billing cost or energy use ignore the varying embodied carbon footprints of different components. Carbon accounting should be treated separately from monetary accounting and energy accounting. Billing cost is based on economic cost and pricing policies and is not representative of embodied carbon. The CPUs in our case study system cost 10766 USD and 13.60 $kgCO_2e$ (791.62 USD/$kgCO_2e$) whereas the RAM costs 763.68 USD and 178.00 $kgCO_2e$ (4.29 USD/$kgCO_2e$) [4, 20]. If data center providers set billing costs for resource usage roughly proportional to resource monetary costs, then a billing cost based approach for embodied carbon attribution will over-attribute the embodied costs of CPU usage by more than two orders of magnitude compared to RAM usage. Energy use is also not representative of embodied carbon since different components can have drastically different power to embodied carbon ratios. At an estimated 5 W TDP per module [3], the DRAM in our case study system (table 1) has a TDP to embodied carbon ratio of 1 W:2.225 $kgCO_2e$. The two CPUs in the same system have a ratio of 1 W: 0.0272 $kgCO_2e$, a difference of two orders of magnitude versus DRAM. Embodied carbon attribution should thus be done on a per-component granularity based on per-component carbon profiles.

Colocation effects are ignored. Colocated workloads on a single node can interfere with each other in complex, non-linear ways [26, 29]. Interference from colocated workloads may cause longer execution times and thus greater resource utilization. Thus, attribution methodologies that only use per workload resource utilization ignore such interference effects and can unfairly attribute workload carbon emissions without accounting for external influences from colocated workloads.

Dynamic resource demand is ignored. Resources are provisioned to accommodate peak demand in data centers; this worst-case provisioning directly impacts the embodied carbon of data centers. Data center resource utilization can exhibit strong diurnal and other patterns [10], with low demand periods requiring much fewer resources than peak demand periods. Intuitively, embodied carbon attribution should account for the dynamics of resource demand: workloads that use resources during peak demand contribute more to the overall embodied carbon footprint. All existing embodied carbon attribution models fail to address this relationship between resource demand and aggregate embodied carbon footprint.

3 SHAPLEY VALUE CARBON ATTRIBUTION

The cloud data center is a system setting in which resources are inherently shared. The carbon impact of a data center depends on of its population of users and data center operator's decisions. For this complex system, we seek to fairly divide and attribute the

data center's carbon costs to individual users and the data center operator. Fairness matters because users are strategic and they can use another cloud service provider if they feel they are not being attributed the correct amount of carbon. The Shapley value [43] is a well-known game theoretic solution to complex, fair division problems [11, 14, 21, 23, 25, 26, 35].

3.1 Properties

Using the Shapley value to attribute the data center's shared carbon costs has four key desirable properties.

Null Player. The Shapley value is zero for a workload that has no effect on carbon.

Symmetry. Workloads in the same equivalence class (*e.g.*, with the same computational intensities and resource utilization profiles) are attributed the same amount of carbon.

Efficiency. The carbon footprint is fully attributed across all workloads and no carbon remains unattributed. Carbon is neither over- nor under-counted during attribution.

Linearity. Shapley values when attributing carbon for smaller sub-populations of workloads sum to the Shapley value when attributing carbon for the overall population of workloads. Linearity allows us to break down the problem of attributing data center carbon to each cloud user into smaller attribution sub-problems (*e.g.*, at rack or cluster scale). In this paper, we start with the smallest sub-problem: attributing carbon within a single server node.

3.2 Formula

The Shapley value examines all the possible ways to construct a set of colocated values by adding one workload at a time. In other words, it examines all workload permutations. In each permutation, a workload makes a marginal contribution to carbon costs by increasing the use of server hardware and power. A workload's Shapley value is the average of these marginal contributions across all permutations. Given the set N of n workloads with the carbon footprint function v, the formula for the Shapley value φ for workload $i \in N$ is:

$$\varphi_i(v) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{S \subseteq N \setminus \{i\}} \binom{n-1}{|S|}^{-1} (v(S \cup \{i\}) - v(S)) \qquad (1)$$

Although the Shapley value calculation scales with the square of the number of workloads, it can be a viable solution for carbon attribution at the single-node scope. Within a single node, the physical resources limit how many workloads can colocate, thus limiting the set size of possible workloads. Moreover, this assumption can be more reasonably made for smaller data centers with a limited number of internal users and workloads.

3.3 Operational Carbon Attribution

We first attribute power using the Shapley value formula. We then find operational carbon from attributed power usage and the grid's carbon intensity. We directly apply Shapley value attribution to power in a single server node. Here, $p(N)$ is a function that maps the set of colocated workloads N to system power P. With a small set of possible workloads, it is possible to profile all possible workload combinations, finding $p(S)$ for all $S \subseteq N$. Using these profiles, we calculate the Shapley value for power i-th workload at each moment

in time:

$$P_i(t) = \varphi_i(p, t) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{S \subseteq N(t) \setminus \{i\}} \binom{n-1}{|S|}^{-1} (p(S \cup \{i\}) - p(S)) \quad (2)$$

where $N(t)$ is the set of all workloads running at time t.

Finally, we calculate the i-th workload's operational carbon footprint CF_i based on the grid's carbon intensity $ci(t)$ in gCO_2e/J, which varies across time:

$$CF_{op_i} = \int P_i(t) \times ci(t) dt \qquad (3)$$

3.4 Embodied Carbon Attribution

We frame the problem of embodied carbon attribution as the problem of demand-driven supply provisioning for hardware. At provisioning time, the decision is made as to what hardware is needed to meet future (expected peak) resource demands. For example, a 48-core CPU may be chosen because the cloud provider thinks that the workload will require no more than 48 cores simultaneously.

If the workload only uses 42 cores from the 48-core CPU, we could have provisioned fewer cores without affecting performance and the original 48-core CPU was *over-provisioned*. The over-provisioned hardware incurs additional carbon costs:

$$CF_{overprovisioning} = CF_{CPU}(48) - CF_{CPU}(42),$$

which could be attributed to the data center operator, which made the decision to over-provision the hardware. The carbon attribution problem is no longer attributing the carbon for the entire CPU $CF_{CPU}(48)$ to users but rather attributing $CF_{CPU}(48) - CF_{overprovisioining} = CF_{CPU}(42)$ to users. We can decompose the aggregate time-varying resource demand $Q_{demand}(t)$ as the sum of each individual user's resource demand:

$$Q_{demand}(t) = \sum_i Q_i(t) \qquad (4)$$

We can determine peak demand $Q_{peak} = max(Q_{demand}(t))$ and thus embodied carbon footprint CF as a function of the set S of workloads. Finally, we can apply the Shapley value calculation to attribute embodied carbon to a set N of n colocated workloads.

$$CF_{emb_i} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{S \subseteq N \setminus \{i\}} \binom{n-1}{|S|}^{-1} (CF_{emb}(S \cup \{i\}) - CF_{emb}(S)) \quad (5)$$

Applying this embodied carbon attribution methodology requires modeling each hardware type's embodied carbon footprint as a function of its quantity. For example, we model a CPU's embodied carbon footprint as a function of the number of cores and DRAM's embodied carbon footprint as a function of memory capacity.

Our approach attributes only the resources demanded by the user to the user. For example, a workload that uses no storage will not be attributed any of the embodied carbon from SSDs or HDDs in the node. Conventional methods, however, attribute the server's embodied carbon footprint as a whole and can unfairly over-attribute carbon to workloads for resources that they did not request.

CPU Embodied Carbon. We define the resource quantity Q as the number of CPU cores reserved by active users/workloads. We use a linear model to model the embodied carbon footprint of a CPU as a function of the number of cores.

First, we model a single CPU's embodied carbon as a linear function of chip area [17]. A fixed carbon footprint $CF_{packaging}$ is associated with the packaging of a single CPU. The embodied carbon of manufacturing the silicon chip is equal to the carbon per unit area of silicon, λ, multiplied by the silicon area, A.

$$CF_{CPU}(A) = CF_{packaging} + \lambda \times A \qquad (6)$$

We express CPU embodied carbon as a function of the number of cores by separating the chip area into a constant non-core area, A_{const}, and a variable core area. A_{const} includes I/O, memory, system management, etc. The variable core area is equal to the area of each core, A_{core}, multiplied by the number of cores, Q.

$$\begin{aligned} CF_{CPU}(Q) &= (CF_{packaging} + \lambda \times A_{const}) + (\lambda \times A_{core}) \times Q \\ &= \alpha + \beta \times Q \end{aligned} \qquad (7)$$

α represents the portion of embodied carbon that does not scale with the number of CPU cores. This includes embodied carbon costs associated with packaging and with non-core chip area. β is the embodied carbon cost of adding each core, modeled as the embodied carbon cost of the associated silicon area.

For multi-socket systems, we need to consider having multiple CPUs. When modeling embodied carbon as a function of the number of cores, we assume that the number of CPUs is the minimum needed to supply the number of cores. If each CPU has Q_{perCPU} cores, the number of CPUs needed is $\lceil \frac{Q}{Q_{perCPU}} \rceil$.

$$CF_{CPU}(Q) = \alpha \times \lceil \frac{Q}{Q_{perCPU}} \rceil + \beta \times Q \qquad (8)$$

DRAM Embodied Carbon. We break down total system memory into individual modules. As with multi-socket CPUs, we view the combined memory capacity from all modules as a pool of resources. When modeling DRAM's embodied carbon as a function of memory capacity, we assume only the minimum number of DRAM modules is provisioned for that capacity. If each module has $M_{perModule}$ amount of memory, then the number of DRAM modules needed is $\lceil \frac{M}{M_{perModule}} \rceil$.

We separate out the carbon for each DRAM module into two parts. The first part comprises the DRAM chips. The carbon of a DRAM chip includes carbon for packaging $CF_{packaging}$ and for the silicon die CF_{die}. For the carbon of the DRAM chips, we assume carbon is directly proportional to memory capacity at a rate of μ. The second part includes everything else associated with the DRAM module, including the PCB, the RCD chip, any other components. We assume the carbon footprint of these components, κ, is constant per module.

$$CF_{MEM}(M) = \kappa \times \lceil \frac{M}{M_{perModule}} \rceil + \mu \times M \qquad (9)$$

Mainboard Embodied Carbon. We split the embodied carbon footprint of the mainboard (also known as the motherboard or baseboard) into a fixed component and a component that scales proportionally with power. The portion that scales proportionally with power is the mainboard's power delivery network. Proportional scaling is a reasonable assumption since most server mainboard power delivery networks are multi-phase, switched-mode supplies
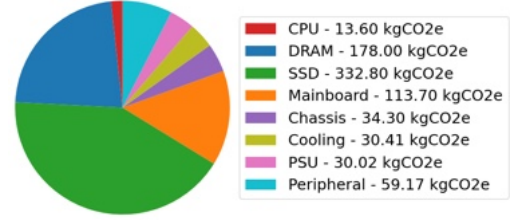

Figure 1: The Dell R650 server's embodied carbon footprint is dominated by SSD storage, DRAM, and the mainboard. Other components combined make up around 21% of its overall embodied carbon footprint.
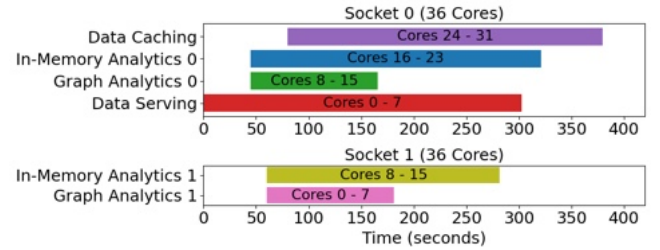

Figure 2: Six workloads are run on the R650 node during the 7-minute test period. Each workload is allocated eight cores when running.

where both the number of components and the peak current capacity are roughly proportional to the number of phases.

We model the embodied carbon footprint of the mainboard as a linear function of peak power capacity required, P_{peak}. We define ϕ as the embodied carbon footprint of the PDU per watt of power capacity.

$$CF_{MB}(P_{peak}) = CF_{fixed} + \phi \times P_{peak} \qquad (10)$$

Other Carbon. We model the embodied carbon footprint of storage to be proportional to storage capacity. Depending on the storage technology, we apply a technology-specific rate of carbon per GB of storage. We assume the embodied carbon footprint of peripheral devices (e.g. NICs, HDD controllers, riser cards, etc.) to be fixed. We leave the development of variable embodied carbon models for peripheral devices to future work. We model the embodied carbon footprint of a power supply unit (PSU) and cooling as proportional to power capacity. We leave the development of more nuanced PSU and cooling embodied carbon models to future work.
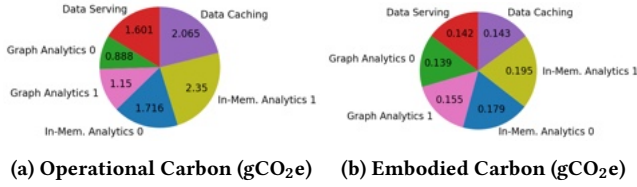
4 CASE STUDY: CLOUDSUITE ON DELL R650

We demonstrate our Shapley value-based carbon attribution framework on a CloudLab [12] Dell R650 server, described in table 1. We run a schedule of 6 workloads from CloudSuite 4.0 [13], shown in [12], on the node over a test period of 7 minutes and attribute carbon per workload. We use Intel RAPL to measure power for each CPU package and for DRAM, and we use Linux top to measure memory utilization.

We use publicly available information [38, 50] to estimate the CPU die and core areas and we assume a packaging carbon footprint

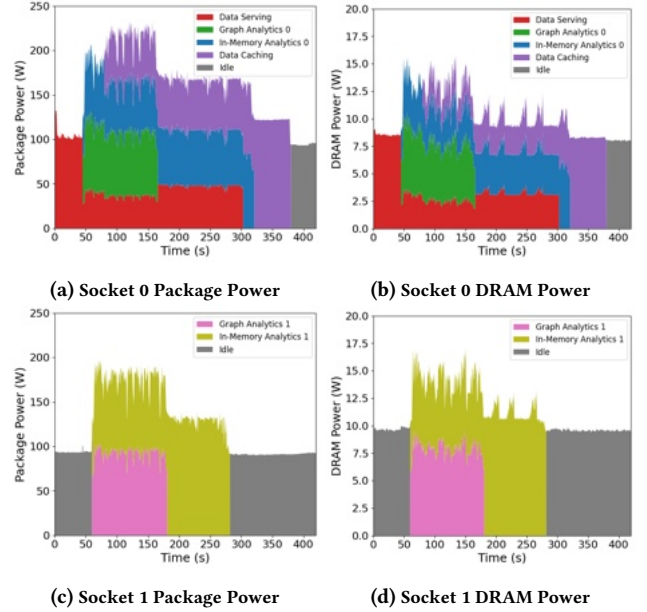**Table 1: CloudLab R650 Server Hardware Configuration and Embodied Carbon Model**

Component	Specifications [8]	Embodied carbon model
CPU	Two 36-core Intel Xeon Platinum 8360Y at 2.4GHz	$CF_{CPU}(Q) = (2.804 \text{ kgCO}_2\text{e/CPU})\lceil \frac{Q}{36 \text{ cores/CPU}} \rceil + (0.1110 \text{ kgCO}_2\text{e/core})Q$
DRAM	256GB ECC Memory (16x 16 GB 3200MHz DDR4)	$CF_{MEM}(M) = (2.885 \text{ kgCO}_2\text{e/module})\lceil \frac{M}{16 \text{ GB/module}} \rceil + (0.5151 \text{ kgCO}_2\text{e/GB})M$
SSD	One 1.6TB NVMe SSD (PCIe v4.0) One 480GB SATA SSD	$CF_{SSD}(D) = (0.16 \text{ kgCO}_2\text{e/GB})D$
Mainboard	Dell R650 two-socket mainboard	$CF_{MB}(P_{peak}) = 100.1 \text{ kgCO}_2\text{e} + (0.02725 \text{ kgCO}_2\text{e/W})P_{peak}$
Chassis	Dell R650 1U, 2-socket	$CF_{chassis} = 34.30 \text{ kgCO}_2\text{e}$
Cooling	Air cooling (assumed)	$CF_{cooling}(P_{peak}) = (0.06082 \text{ kgCO}_2\text{e/W})P_{peak}$
PSU	1100W rated (assumed)	$CF_{PSU}(P_{peak}) = (0.06003 \text{ kgCO}_2\text{e/W})P_{peak}$
Peripherals	Two Mellanox PCIe 4.0 NICs	$CF_{peripheral}(P_{peak}) = 59.17 \text{ kgCO}_2\text{e}$

(a) Operational Carbon (gCO$_2$e)   (b) Embodied Carbon (gCO$_2$e)

Figure 3: Carbon footprint per workload using Shapley value based attribution.

of 0.150 kgCO$_2$e [9], in line with the ACT model [17]. We estimate the DRAM carbon footprint using wafer manufacturing and bit density data from [22]. Using DRAM module carbon footprint estimates from [36], we estimate the non-DRAM chip portion (PCB, RCD, miscellaneous components) of carbon footprint. We assume that SSDs have a embodied carbon footprint of 0.16 kgCO$_2$e/GB, based on [47]. For the chassis, mainboard PCB and connectors, PSU, and peripherals we assume the same carbon footprint as that of the Dell R740 [36]. For the power delivery network and cooling, we scale the Dell R740's carbon footprint by the R650's TDP.

4.1 Carbon Attribution Results

Operational and embodied carbon attribution results per workload are shown in figure 3 with per-component breakdowns shown in 5. Operational carbon attributions are derived from Shapley value based power attribution results, shown in figure 4, and using live grid carbon intensity data from Electricity Maps [2]. As expected, longer running workloads, like Data Caching, have higher operational carbon attribution. The shortest running workloads: Graph Analytics 0 and Graph Analytics 1, have the lowest operational carbon attributions. Moreover, as seen in figure 4, when more workloads are running concurrently, each workload's individual power attribution reduces as idle power is divided among a greater number of workloads. As a result, we see workloads running on socket 1 (Graph Analytics 1 and In-Memory Analytics 1) incurring greater power and operational carbon attributions than their counterparts on socket 0 (Graph Analytics 0 and In-Memory Analytics 0). Moreover, as seen in figure 5b, the embodied carbon per workload varies based on resource utilization and power. For example, In-Memory Analytics workloads use much more DRAM than other workloads

(a) Socket 0 Package Power   (b) Socket 0 DRAM Power

(c) Socket 1 Package Power   (d) Socket 1 DRAM Power

Figure 4: Shapley value based power attribution fairly divides system power among concurrent workloads based on each workload's contribution to overall power, capturing the non-linear effects of colocation.

and thus are attributed much more of the DRAM's embodied carbon.

4.1.1 Comparison with Energy-Proportional Attribution. In figure 6, we compare embodied carbon attribution results from our fair Shapley value method with results from a baseline energy-proportional method, showing that the baseline method can under-attribute by up to 43% and over-attribute by up to 37%. The baseline energy-proportional method attributes server embodied carbon to each workload proportional to the workload's energy attribution. The same proportion of embodied carbon from each resource is attributed regardless of resource utilization; for example, a workload that used 20% of total energy will be attributed 20% of the server's DRAM embodied carbon even if it used only negligible amounts

(a) Per Component Operational Carbon Breakdown

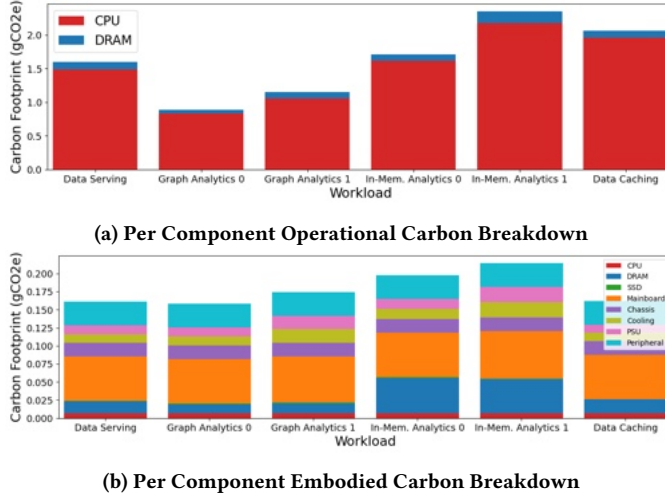**(b) Per Component Embodied Carbon Breakdown**

Figure 5: The Shapley value based model attributes carbon on a component granularity. CPU dominates operational carbon. In contrast, CPU makes up only a small share of embodied carbon and other components (i.e., mainboard, DRAM, chassis, PSU, cooling) make up the bulk.

of DRAM. GCP and Microsoft Azure use energy-proportional attribution along with billing-cost-proportional attribution to attribute embodied carbon to users. As discussed in section 2.2, energy and billing cost are poor proxies for embodied carbon. In contrast, our Shapley value method will attribute each resource's embodied carbon separately based on that specific resource's utilization while providing additional fairness guarantees via the Shapley value properties listed in section 3.1.

Looking at Graph Analytics 0 results in figure 6, we see that the baseline method attributes much less mainboard and peripheral embodied carbon even though they are embodied carbon costs that are largely fixed. The baseline method also attributes little CPU embodied carbon to Graph Analytics 0 compared to other workloads even though all the workloads use the same number of cores. The baseline method under-attributes embodied carbon to those workloads that consume less power relative to the amount of resources they use. On the other hand, the baseline over-attributes embodied carbon to workloads such as Data Caching because they consume more power relative to the resources they use.

5 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper, we propose a model to fairly attribute carbon footprint to different workloads running on a data center server using a game-theoretic approach. Fine-grained carbon attribution can drive sustainability strategies for data center operators as well as carbon accounting and mitigation for cloud users. We formulate a Shapley value based attribution model for both operational and embodied carbon, and demonstrate the corresponding fair attribution on a dual socket server running CloudSuite 4.0 workloads. While the paper aims to address the need for fair fine-grained carbon attribution, we identify some key areas of future work.
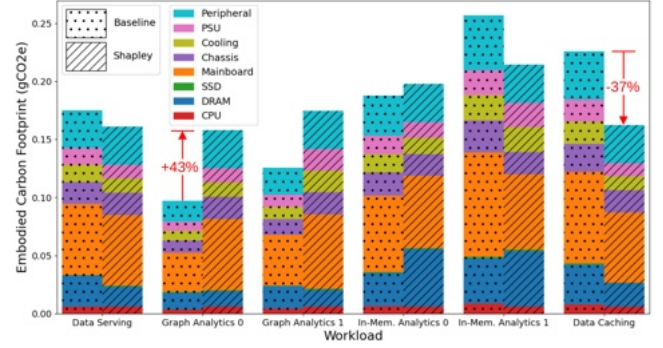

Figure 6: Energy-proportional baseline versus Shapley attribution. The baseline model attributes carbon to workloads proportional to the workload's energy attribution. The baseline attributes fixed proportions of each resource's carbon footprint to each workload regardless of actual per resource utilization.

Fine-grained feedback for improving software sustainability. The Shapley value based model empirically captures nuances of colocation on power and resource utilization. Future work should bridge the gap between the underlying software and hardware mechanisms that drive power consumption and the Shapley value to provide users insight into how to reduce their carbon emissions.

Scaling to many workloads and users. Given the number of diverse workloads running in hyperscaler data centers, it is intractable to compute the exact Shapley value at scale. Moreover, our approach of offline profiling of workload colocations for power measurements may not be practical for scaling reasons and also because workloads can be dynamic.

Incorporating data center scale hardware and software overheads. The experiments in this paper are run on a single-node, dual-socket server. However, data centers comprise tens of thousands of nodes that are supported by an extensive hardware and software infrastructure. The corresponding operational and embodied carbon from the supporting infrastructure should be attributed to workloads in future work.

Expanding model resource scope and colocation model. Our current model considers power, CPU cores, memory utilization, and storage utilization as resources metrics for inputs. In the future, we plan to expand our model to include network utilization, memory bandwidth utilization, and a more complex model for interference and resource contention effects.

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