

ICT Infrastructure - Appunti

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Contents

1	Introduction	7
1.1	Course map	7
2	Datacenter	9
2.1	Structure	9
2.2	Power Management	9
2.3	Cooling	10
2.3.1	CRAC	10
2.3.2	Inrow Cooling	11
2.3.3	Chilling water outside	11
2.4	Redundancy for Resilience	11
2.5	Cooling CPU	12
2.5.1	Spilling Pipes	12
2.5.2	Chassis	12
3	Cabling	13
3.1	Bandwidth	13
3.1.1	Storage implications	13
3.1.2	Fabric and Cables	13
3.2	Cabling Issues	15
4	Networking	17
4.1	Layers	17
4.1.1	Protocols inside switches	17
4.2	Ethernet Topology	18
4.2.1	RSTP	18
4.2.2	Spine Leaf architecture	18
4.2.3	Full fat tree	19
4.3	Virtualization	19

Course info

Don't be shy to send multiple emails, prof. Cisternino receives many emails, and he knows he can't reply to each one. He is okay to be contacted through teams using the @ symbol to "mention" him.

He designed the UniPi datacenters.

"Italy is more about the multiple micro businesses than the few existing industries"

Exam

The exam is **oral**.

Prof. Cisternino expects students to get the full picture, and understand key concepts, not to remember everything—which still wouldn't be bad ☺—.

Chapter 1

Introduction

Prof. Cisternino dropped a lot of measures in terms of Watts, Dollars, Gigabits and so on.

He mentioned with emphasis the problem of energy consumption. To give an idea, a single rack of a datacenter designed ~ 10 years ago, absorbs up to $15kW$. The datacenter in *San Piero a Grado* is made up of 60 racks. It is not meant to provide the maximum energy possible for all racks simultaneously, but it still helps to get an idea of how things work in similar contexts.

1.1 Course map

1. Elements
 - i. Datacenters
 - (a) Power
 - (b) Cooling
 - ii. Cabling
 - iii. Networking
 - iv. Storage
 - v. Compute
 - vi. Virtualization
 - (a) Hypervisor
 - (b) Containers
2. Cloud
 - i. Reference architecture
 - ii. Resilience
 - iii. Security
 - iv. Legal aspects
 - (a) GDPR
 - (b) Security frameworks
 - v. Procurement aspects
 - vi. Operations
 - i.e. Keep the system up and running while upgrading the system

Chapter 2

Datacenter

10 years ago datacenters were no more than a room with some computers, air conditioners and some plugs to power up the devices. Later on, customers started asking server vendors to include in the servers utilities to allow an *automated datacenter management*. Thus the trend moved towards Software Defined Datacenter, which currently is the only possible way to deploy a Datacenter.

An **Active Datacenter** allows for internet storage (?)

A Datacenter should be **future-proof**: servers may be replaced, but updating a whole datacenter is at least a 1-year project.

2.1 Structure

Racks are made of —~ 42— *units*.

Besides server themselves, there is a **cooling system**. The first issue is the how to provide cool air. Then there is also how to define an evacuation plan, which must take into account dust.

However also the **floor** is not to be neglected.

- ◇ *Floating floor* or *Ground floor*
 - “A “floating floor” in a data center, also known as a “raised floor”, is a type of construction used in data centers to create a void between the actual concrete floor and the floor tiles where the servers and other equipment are located¹². This space is typically used for routing cables and for air circulation, which helps with cooling the equipment¹.”¹
- ◇ *Resistance* usually around $1 \frac{\text{ton}}{\text{m}^2}$

For example, in San Piero A Grado, there was a power cabin receiving current from three lines. Now the whole power management components are in a container outside the building placed close to the facility.

Cables are not super-resistant to current. A lot of current passing through a copper wire will *exhaust* both the wire and the components receiving such current; hence the current should also be balanced among different cables, to avoid exhausting some components before the others.

A UPS —first of all— stabilizes the output current.

In theory $1V * 1A = 1W$, but in reality, performing such conversion something gets lost, so we have

$$I * V * \cos\phi = W$$

2.2 Power Management

Electric panels (aka *switchboards*) allow segmenting the power supply in the various zones of the datacenter.

PDUs stands for *Power Distribution Units*, and allow to distribute power for a server units in a rack. Typically, for each PDU there is another one, providing redundancy and thus resilience/robustness.

Definition 2.1 (PUE) *Power Usage Effectiveness PUE measures the efficiency of a Datacenter.*

$$PUE = \frac{\text{Total energy}}{\text{ICT energy}}$$

¹ChatGPT 4.0 - Generated

The reason for improving Datacenter design is to lower the PUE; basically to save money, but also for “green-environment” concerns.

But when should PUE be measured?

The PUE in January is very different from the one in August, so generally it is calculated as the average of one year.

Note that a poorly designed datacenter placed in Siberia with -20° may have a lower PUE than a datacenter in Italy, for instance.

In particulare geographical zones with high temperature variations over the year (e.g. in Italy the temperature variates from 40 to 50 Celsius degrees), are strongly unrecommended to build datacenters in. A counterintuitive example is the desert, where the temperature is very high during the day and very low during the night, but in general the temperature over the year is **stable**; allowing for defining physical processes exploiting such stability. Also the oceans have a very stable temperature; not on the surface, but deep down it is very stable.

2.3 Cooling

Note that racks are always placed back-to-back, because the front requires cool air, and the back outputs hot air.

2.3.1 CRAC



Figure 2.1: CRAC/CRAH cooling architecture

Chillers take hot air from above and push cool air in the bottom. Then air pushed under the floating floor wants to exit, and does so going through the grates placed in front of the racks. The racks suck the cool air in front and output hot air from the back.

There are two **drawbacks**:

1. It is difficult to confine and keep separated hot air and cool air. The mixup between the two leads to cooling inefficiency, thus energy and money waste
2. In case a rack has a workload heavier than others and thus requires more cooling air, the chiller must provide more cool air to all the racks in the same row; this makes this architecture particularly inefficient for datacenter which have heterogeneous workloads.

2.3.2 Inrow Cooling

The fan “towers” are called *inrow cooling*.

The first advantage is that it allows for heterogeneous cooling in the datacenter. Secondly, a fan outputs hot air directly where another fan expects it to be. This allows to confine hot air and to avoid wasting energy in outputting air and sucking it.

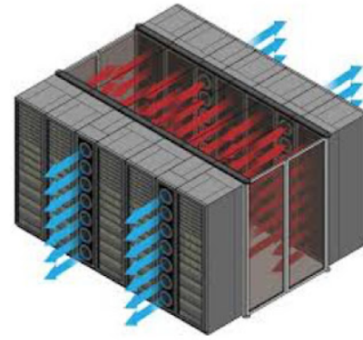


Figure 2.2: Inrow cooling architecture

2.3.3 Chilling water outside



Figure 2.2: Outside chillers

Outside of a datacenter there are chillers which cool down water which is then pumped into the datacenter, where it is used by CRAC/InRow chillers to cool down air.

It is important to ensure that the temperature does not heat up while travelling from the outside chillers to the datacenter, because it would mean wasting energy.

In SPG the outside chillers cool the water down to 18° , which seems high temperature, but in fact it is not: the datacenter is designed to work up to 26° .

The higher the “allowed” temperature is, the more is the energy saved.

Besides, **adiabatic** chillers —such as the ones in SPG— can use *free cooling* in case the outside temperature is lower than 18° ², which basically exploits the lower outside temperature to *passively* chill water, without involving the compressor used in the standard cooling way.

Also **humidity** must be managed. An environment which is too dry leads to water condensation onto racks and plugs, possibly resulting in damage to devices and humans.

2.4 Redundancy for Resilience

Active-Passive means that aside from the active system, there is a mirrored one which is shut down waiting for failure and boots up “*just in case*”. This approach is usually not the ideal one, because the second system is very unlikely to be used and is costful. Besides, there are two critical issues with Active-Passive:

- Cons
1. There is a non-negligible time interval where the switch from the active broken system and the passive one has to happen.
 2. If when booted the backup system reveals itself to be flawed and not working, well... *very sad* ☹

²common case in winter and autumn

Active-active systems are usually better, because they also allow for load balancing. In case of SPG there are three cooling systems, and in case one breaks, the other two can keep working. Active-active costs even more, but it is the standard way to go.

2.5 Cooling CPU

High-end CPUs *heat up so much* that it has become *unreasonable* to cool them using air.

However, note that water conducts electricity, so a flaw in a waterpowered cooling system may lead to consistent damage and possible fires.

Oil instead doesn't conduct electricity, and there are some systems which are *submerged* in oil, but there are two drawbacks:

1. **Price:** oil is way more expensive than water
2. **Servicing:** it is impossible to maintain the system's hardware.

Distilled water is not conductive, but even not considering that distilling it is expensive, it is impossible to guarantee that it stays pure when travelling in pipes, chillers, and so on.

Most datacenters tend to have an hybrid approach to cooling, called **air-to-liquid**. The idea is simple: It is acceptable to use cool air to chill water, which is then used to chill the air by InRow coolers, which chills the liquid which chills the CPUs.

(Woa! We need a schema...)

This is *not* the most efficient approach.

A nice question would be, "*Can't we simply chill the liquid and send it directly onto the CPUs?*" **No** ☹.

- ◇ Required pressure is different
- ◇ Required temperatures do not match
- ◇ ... TODO

2.5.1 Spilling Pipes

Liquid cooling systems manufacturers allow customers to ensure that their pipes are not spilling by injecting in the pipes a known gas at a known pressure. The customer can measure the pressure when the product is shipped and check whether it is the expected one, and if not, send back the device.

Handling spills

Handling spills is an **open problem**. Theoretically, the idea would be to check for pressure variations, but this is currently *impossible* to be done on each entrance of each rack. Too much actuation and sensing would be required.

Besides, in case a pipe is spilling, the operators must act *quickly*, before the water spills onto other racks and cause critical damage.

2.5.2 Chassis

Chassis are needed for various reasons:

- ◇ 2.4GHz is the frequency at which water in our cells resonates, and circuits generate electromagnetic fields, so it may be unsafe to directly expose humans to circuitry
- ◇ Act as Faraday cages
- ◇ TODO

Chapter 3

Cabling

Cabling is of paramount importance.

Prof. Cisternino learnt it “the hard way” when he performed the cabling of the first UniPi datacenter by himself

1. Maintenance
2. Cooling
 - i. Cables may heat up
 - ii. Cables may obstruct air flow
3. Determines which machines interact with each other (*fabric*)
4. Bandwidth
5. Not neglectable cost

3.1 Bandwidth

3.1.1 Storage implications

A standard datacenter has servers connected with 25Gbit links in both directories, summing up to 50Gbit total bandwidth. Current SSDs provide much more. 4 drives are enough to saturate a 100Gbit/s link.

We moved from a situation where the **bottleneck** were slow Hard Drives, to the current one where the bottleneck is the —network— **bandwidth**.

Recently the PCI 3.0, which lasted very long —providing $\sim 1000\text{Gbit/s}$ —, suddenly become unsufficient to handle the needed traffic.

Considering this, datacenters must be designed to allow *Terabytes* of data to be moved in east-west traffic.

*The **fabric** is the glue that makes the datacenter possible.*

Besides, a single server is *unable* to handle 10TBs of data and handling requests from 3000 users simultaneously. It is necessary to **distribute** the requests.

HDDs are still currently used for **cold storage**; CPUs will access data exclusively from SSDs, and sometimes the server is shipped with on board **full-flash storage**.

The difference in price between SSDs and HDDs becomes negligible since you pay for top CPU, top GPU, top RAM; furthermore, you can’t waste —the high amount of— energy —consumed by such components— by waiting for a slow drive.

SSDs have a known write limit, but today, the usually last enough time: if you write the whole disk every day it will last for 5 years. Most-likely after five years you’d have to renew some components anyway, besides the failure is a predictable event.

3.1.2 Fabric and Cables

Optical

Electric current propagates at a speed $s = \sim 0.6c$. Hence **optical fiber** is —at least in theory?— faster.

Lasers are a coherent beam of equal fotons. It is possible to transfer energy through such fotons. Something resembling a laser is used for optical fibers.

Blu-Ray came out when scientists managed to create light using frequencies in the Blu area, which are the higher ones. Currently, the best and most expensive optical fibers exploit blu-lasers as source of light.

Note that with optical you always need 2 fibers, one sending and the other receiving. The two possible connectors are SC and LC. Sometimes the two ends of the cable are detachable so that the cables may be switched; this is useful because sometimes you may want to attach the TX cable on the RX plug and viceversa.



Figure 3.1: SC and LC connectors

Copper wires

In case of electricity there are many aspects to be considered. Interferences, cable diameter/size, length, and also the fact that if a 1 has been transmitted for some time, it takes longer to transmit a 0, due to the *commutation* that must happen.

RJ45 is a standard physical interfaced for copper wires, which allows up to 1Gbit regularly. The Cat 7 cables still use the RJ45 as connector and provide instead 10Gbit/s, but are very uncomfortable, they are so thick that they are difficult to bend.

It is estimated that there have been installed $70 \times 10^9 m$ of Ethernet cables, making them the most used.

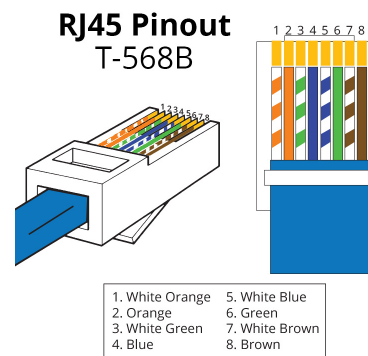


Figure 3.3: RJ45 - T568B

The aim of SFP is to decouple the optical transceivers from the server modules.

Is this correct?

They allow to go *optic-copper*, *copper-optic*, *optic-optic* and *copper-copper*.

SFP and GBIC (oldest one, now dead) pluggable modules acting as active transceivers for optical wiring using RJ45 connector.

A single cable having SFP ends costs about 100€. The cost ain't neglectable ☹.

SFP → 1Gbit
 SFP+ → 10Gbit
 SFP28 → 25Gbit



Figure 3.4: SFP transceivers form factors

Fun fact: ci sono 9 cavi USB-C e solo due portano informazioni video.

3.2 Cabling Issues

The key point is that it would be desirable for cabling to be reconfigurable.

There are things called “*Muffole*”, which are used for joining optical fiber cables, allowing for longer distances to be covered. They are designed to be underground.

Data traffic is always at least SFP+. Current standard is SFP28. Various SFP are typically compatible, the shape of the plug should stay the same. On switches there also some ports which are QSFP+ or QSFP28, which allow up to 40 and 100Gbit/s respectively, and are used for north-south traffic.

The Q letter stands for *Quality*

Switches for datacenters should be **non-blocking**, meaning that no port has to wait for other ones —or any other thing— before transmitting, they can also transmit simultaneously.

In every datacenter it is *MANDATORY* to document the cabling.

Chapter 4

Networking

The two key aspects of a network are:

1. **Bandwidth** → amount of data per second that can be moved through a specific connection
2. **Latency** → is the amount of time required for transmitting data, measured from the moment it is sent from the source to the one it is available to the source.

Latency—in a datacenter—to transmit data on the cable using “*pure ethernet*” is of the order of $0.5 \times 10^{-6}s(\mu s)$. If the TCP/IP stack is used (standard application case), latency is about $70 - 90\mu s$.

Furthermore, current drives have reached speeds such that latency may act as bottleneck between them and the CPU.

Cable aggregation (e.g. aggregating 4 cables 10Gbit/s, providing 40Gbit/s total) can be performed only at a low—physical—level. Otherwise the TCP/IP stream will be associated to a single cable of the ones aggregated, resulting in less bandwidth.

4.1 Layers

Programmers usually do not care about anything under layer 3/4 traffic. However, in datacenters it is fundamental to understand how layer 2 works.

Also because in datacenters there are no routers doing the work for you; you are building the fabric in the first place.

Layer 2 is fundamental for 2 reasons:

1. East-west is Ethernet in the datacenter
2. All the dozens of protocols used in switches are really used, so they are important.
3. MTU - Maximum Transmission Unit

4.1.1 Protocols inside switches

- ◇ LLDP Link Layer Discovery Protocol - Allows to reconstruct at least partially the functioning of the network.
- ◇ DCBX Data Center Bridging Exchange - A meta-protocol so that two devices can agree on the configuration of a bunch of protocols, typically related to storage/data
e.g. “I need 50% percent of the bandwidth otherwise a can’t work”.
It represents part of some kind of QoS for Ethernet
- ◇ PFC Priority Flow Control
- ◇ ETS Enhanced Transmission Selection
- ◇ RSTP Rapid Spanning Tree Protocol - Uses BPDU packets to explore the graph of the network and compute the spanning tree of the network and detect the —malicious— cycles if any.

This just to recall that the switch is not a stupid thing! It is complex, fascinating, and deserves love; it’s crucial to understand its functioning, also because its protocols occupy bandwidth.

4.2 Ethernet Topology

Typically nowadays the network is a **graph**, where internal nodes are switches or routers, and the leaves are servers.

The physical medium is no more shared, but conceptually the data link layer behaves as if it was.

On a switch, the only way to emulate a **shared bus**, is to “*copy-paste*” a frame onto multiple ports, losing the “identity” of frames. Packets in higher layers (IP?) have an ID, but frames don’t, making it impossible to recognize whether a frame is a copy of another one or not. This approach makes **loops** a problem, because they disrupt performance by generating a packet storm.

The solution would be to ensure that the topology resembles a **tree**, instead of a graph. But, at the same time, a **fully connected graph** allows to have multiple routes for the same destination, possibly enhancing performance, reducing “hops” before reaching the destination.

4.2.1 RSTP

So...how can we leave the graph to be connected, but making it a tree from a logical point of view?

The answer is the RSTP protocol.

RSTP sends *probes* to understand whether there are loops and where are PCs located.

4.2.2 Spine Leaf architecture

2-Tier Spine-Leaf Architecture

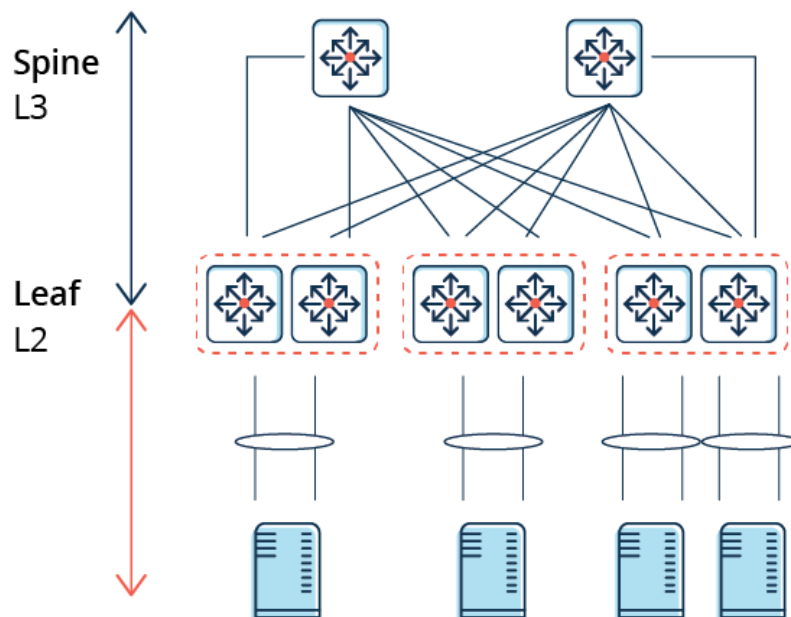


Figure 4.1: Spine-leaf architecture schema (from [Arubanetworks.com](https://arubanetworks.com))

A **spine-leaf** architecture is data center network topology that consists of two switching layers: a spine and leaf. It ensures traffic is always the same number of hops from its next destination, so latency is lower and predictable (fixed).

Capacity also improves because STP is no longer required. While STP enables redundant paths between two switches, only one can be active at any time. As a result, paths often become oversubscribed. Conversely, spine-leaf architectures rely on protocols such as *Equal-Cost Multipath* (ECMP) routing to load balance traffic across all available paths while still preventing network loops.

Spine-leaf allows *scale-out* opposed to *scale-up*, by adding additional spine switches, ultimately increasing capacity.

4.2.3 Full fat tree

In a —full?— **fat tree**, branches nearer the top of the hierarchy are ”fatter” (thicker) than branches further down the hierarchy. In a telecommunications network, the branches are data links; the varied thickness (bandwidth) of the data links allows for more efficient and technology-specific use.

Full-fat tree is rarely needed.

4.3 Virtualization

With VLAN frames are extended by 4 bytes. Every switch nowadays automatically sets the `VLAN_ID` to 1; if the field is not existent, it is appended, making an **tagged** an *untagged* frame.

Switches ensure that data cannot spill/leak from a VLAN to another. VLAN became largely of use when 10Gbit connection came out, because only 1Gbit was a too constrained bandwidth to be splitted into multiple VLANs.