



Cooling Systems Source Pack (B-Cooling)

Attached Deliverables: Please find the following files for download: (1) **bibliography_cooling.xlsx** – a comprehensive spreadsheet of sources with URLs, publisher info, summary of content, and claim categories; (2) **fact_cards_cooling.csv** – a compact set of claim → fact → source mappings; and (3) **top_30_sources_cooling.md** – a Markdown reference list of the 30 most relevant sources (with “why it matters” and the central claims supported).

Summary of Coverage, Gaps, and Conflicts:

Claim Category	Coverage (Sources & Alignment)	Gaps / Needs & Conflicts / Differences
Thermal Fundamentals – Rising Heat Density, Airflow & Containment	<p>Strong coverage: Multiple sources document how rack heat densities are climbing beyond the limits of traditional open air cooling. JLL reports a <i>global average</i> rack density ~12 kW, with AI/HPC racks now exceeding 50–100 kW in cutting-edge deployments ¹ ². Data Center Frontier (Kleyman, 2025) and Vertiv note air cooling is “tapped out” past ~30 kW/rack, making improved airflow management essential ² ³. Industry guides (DOE/Energy Star) and case studies uniformly highlight hot aisle/cold aisle containment as a best practice: lining up racks front-to-front to separate cold intake and hot exhaust streams ⁴. This prevents hot air recirculation, allowing higher cooling efficiency. In fact, DOE estimates that basic hot/cold aisle layout and containment can cut cooling energy 10–35% by avoiding mixing ⁵. Containment combined with variable speed fans yields ~20–25% fan energy savings and similar chiller energy reductions ⁵. Roughly <i>two-thirds</i> of large data centers have implemented hot/cold aisle arrangements ⁶, underscoring alignment across sources that airflow segregation is vital to handle today’s heat loads. Park Place and ASHRAE guidelines emphasize that as owners pack more equipment per rack (for cost and space efficiency), mitigating the resulting heat becomes critical to prevent performance throttling or damage ⁷ ⁸. All sources concur that effective air cooling starts with airflow optimization and containment to maintain safe inlet temperatures under higher densities.</p>	<p>Minor gaps: While the benefits of containment are well established, more <i>open data</i> on the upper air-cooled density limits would help. Most sources imply ~15–30 kW/rack as a practical air cooling cap (with excellent containment), but independent case studies of >30 kW air-cooled racks are scarce. This could be addressed by future high-density testbeds.</p> <p>No major conflicts: Sources universally support airflow containment. A subtle difference in emphasis: some enterprise-focused sources stress gradual retrofits (balancing cost/downtime for installing containment), whereas hyperscale operators assume containment from the start. There’s also consensus that beyond a certain density, liquid cooling is needed – not a disagreement per se, but a threshold that varies slightly (e.g. some say ~30 kW, others ~50 kW) ² ⁹. Overall, no source disputes the importance of airflow management; the narrative is consistent.</p>

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Cooling System Types – CRAC vs CRAH, Chilled Water Plants, Towers & Pumps	<p>Extensive coverage: Authoritative guides (ASHRAE, DOE) and operator resources describe the two primary cooling architectures: direct-expansion (DX) CRAC units and chilled-water CRAH systems. All sources agree CRAC (Computer Room Air Conditioner) units contain a built-in refrigerant compressor cycle (like standard AC) and are simple and self-contained – suitable for small to mid-size facilities ¹⁰. They draw warm server-room air over an evaporator coil and expel heat via outdoor condensers. CRAH (Computer Room Air Handler) systems, by contrast, rely on an external chiller plant that circulates cold water/glycol to air handling units inside the data center ¹¹ ¹². Sources align that chilled-water systems have higher upfront cost but better efficiency and capacity for large loads ¹¹ ¹³. For instance, Park Place notes chilled water plants are more energy-efficient for cooling large spaces, despite greater capital investment ¹¹ ¹⁴. Common configurations (per DOE and industry blogs) include water-cooled chillers with cooling towers for heat rejection, or air-cooled chillers with condenser coils. Modern large data centers often use <i>economizer</i> chillers that allow “free cooling” (compressors off) when outside conditions permit ¹⁵. Sources like Energy Star and Vertiv highlight supporting components: pumps to move chilled water, condensers or towers to dump heat, and controls to coordinate these. All sources consistently describe multi-component cooling loops (chiller, CRAH, tower) as the norm for enterprise and hyperscale sites, while smaller sites and edge deployments often stick to simpler DX CRAC units for ease ¹⁰ ¹¹. In sum, sources corroborate the spectrum of cooling systems: from basic CRAC units to complex centralized chiller plants with cooling towers.</p>	<p>Gaps: Neutral, recent data comparing DX vs chilled-water <i>total efficiency</i> in practice is limited – most literature gives theoretical pros/cons. More real-world PUE component breakdowns (e.g. chiller plant kW/ton vs CRAC kW/ton in similar climates) could help guide system choice. No fundamental conflicts: Sources agree on the basic differences and use-cases. Any differences are contextual – e.g. a vendor might promote modern DX units for modularity, whereas an operator source notes large campuses favor chillers for efficiency. These are not contradictions but reflections of scale and design goals. All sources acknowledge DX CRAC cooling is straightforward but less efficient at scale, while chilled water yields efficiency gains for large data centers ¹¹ ¹³. One nuance: some edge data centers in remote areas still favor DX due to water unavailability or simplicity, but this complements the general view rather than conflicting with it.</p>

Free Cooling & Economization – Airside, Waterside, and Adiabatic Methods

Well covered: There is broad alignment that **“free cooling”** techniques – using outside ambient conditions to cool IT equipment – are now mainstream to improve efficiency. Government and industry sources (DOE, Green Grid) note that economizers can drastically cut chiller energy use when weather permits. **Air-side economization** (direct fresh air cooling) is widely used by hyperscalers in temperate climates: e.g., Meta (Facebook) reports using 100% outside air cooling in many data centers, with evaporative cooling assist in hot periods ¹⁶ ¹⁷. This involves large dampers and filter banks to bring cool outside air into the server rooms when conditions are favorable. **Water-side economizers** (using cooling towers or dry coolers to chill water when outside wet-bulb is low) are also common in traditional facilities ¹⁵. Adiabatic/evaporative cooling is frequently combined with economizers: sources explain that **direct evaporative** cooling uses water sprayed or via wetted media into the air stream to cool and humidify incoming air ¹⁸. It's simple and energy-efficient, effectively a “swamp cooler” for the data center. However, direct evaporative brings outside air *into* the white space, so operators must accept some fluctuation in temperature/humidity and need filtration; many include full mechanical backups in case outdoor air becomes unsuitable (e.g. wildfire smoke) ¹⁹. **Indirect evaporative** designs avoid exposing indoor air to outside contaminants: as described by Data Center Frontier, these use a heat exchanger where a secondary airstream is evaporatively cooled, chilling the primary indoor air through a polymer or plate heat exchanger ²⁰. Indirect evap coolers use more water (due to efficiency losses across the exchanger) but eliminate outside air risks and can reduce the size of backup chillers ²¹ ²². All sources agree free cooling can yield major energy savings – often enabling PUE in the ~1.1–1.3 range for hyperscale facilities ²³ ²⁴. ASHRAE's expanded thermal envelopes (Classes A3 and A4) were explicitly introduced to facilitate more hours of economization without mechanical cooling ²⁵.

Gaps: A notable need is **quantitative data on water savings vs energy savings** for various economizer designs in different climates. While sources describe mechanisms, fewer neutral studies quantify, for instance, how an indirect evaporative system's water consumption compares to a direct system's energy penalty. Also, guidance for *humid tropical* climates is sparse – most economizer success stories are temperate or dry climates. More research on economization in high-humidity tropical regions (where neither air nor water economizers perform well) would fill a gap. **Differences/Conflicts:** Regional adaptation is a theme – not a disagreement in facts, but in approach. E.g., U.S. West Coast operators heavily use direct evaporative cooling (accepting water use to slash power), whereas an operator in a humid climate might forgo water economizers due to mold/corrosion risk. There's an implicit tension between energy vs water efficiency: some sustainability mandates push for air cooling to save water in arid regions even if it means higher PUE, while others push for lowest PUE (favoring evaporative cooling). This is not a direct conflict in sources, but a difference in priorities. All sources acknowledge that *economizers must be tuned to local conditions*. No major factual conflicts: all agree free cooling is beneficial when climate allows. One nuance:

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	<p>²⁶ . For example, Class A4 equipment is tested to operate up to 45 °C inlet (113 °F) so that data centers in hot climates can use air cooling longer ²⁷ . Multiple case studies (Google, Microsoft, etc.) show that in cooler regions, facilities can run most of the year on outside air, only using chillers on the hottest days. Overall, the sources are aligned that leveraging the local climate via airside or waterside economizers (often augmented by evaporative cooling) is now a best practice for efficiency and sustainability.</p>	<p>direct vs indirect evaporative – some vendors claim indirect is superior due to isolation, while others note its higher water use; again, this reflects different priorities (air quality vs minimization of water) rather than factual dispute ²⁸ ²⁰ .</p>

Liquid Cooling & High-Density Alternatives – Direct-to-Chip, Rear-Door, Immersion

Comprehensive coverage: A consensus is emerging that **liquid cooling** is becoming indispensable for ultra-high densities and AI/HPC workloads. CoreSite and Vertiv explain that liquids (water or dielectric fluid) have far higher heat capacity than air, enabling efficient removal of heat at the source ³ ²⁹. Two primary approaches are detailed across sources: **direct-to-chip (cold plate)** cooling and **immersion cooling**. In direct-to-chip (also called direct liquid cooling, DLC), a pumped liquid (often water with inhibitors, or a refrigerant) flows through cold plates attached to CPUs/GPUs, absorbing ~70–80% of the heat at the component ³⁰. JLL notes that *rear-door heat exchangers (RDHx)* – essentially a liquid-cooled radiator door on the back of a rack – and cold-plate direct-to-chip setups are already being deployed at scale in new builds ³¹. These hybrid solutions still use some air cooling for the remaining heat but dramatically increase per-rack capacity. Immersion cooling goes further: servers (with minimal modification) are submerged in tanks of dielectric fluid, which directly absorbs all heat ³². Fans can be removed entirely, and *all* server heat is captured by liquid ³². Multiple sources highlight that immersion can support extreme densities – JLL projects immersion will become common as racks push **>150 kW** in the coming years ³³. Data Center Frontier (2025) reports Nvidia's latest AI systems can drive **~120 kW per rack**, impossible to cool with air alone ³⁴. All sources align that traditional air cooling becomes inefficient (or impractical) at these power densities ²⁹ ³⁵. Thus, operators are *embracing hybrid liquid-air strategies*: JLL observes new AI-oriented facilities defaulting to liquid cooling infrastructure, often a **70% liquid / 30% air mix** in initial deployments ³⁶. Even in existing data centers, retrofits like rear-door coolers or liquid loops for hot racks are increasingly viable ³¹. Alignment is strong that liquid cooling yields efficiency gains by reducing fan energy and allowing higher coolant temperatures (which improves chiller efficiency or enables waste heat reuse) ³⁰ ³⁷. Importantly, ASHRAE's 2021

Gaps: Despite enthusiasm, neutral *operational data* on long-term reliability and TCO of liquid cooling is limited. Many case studies are vendor-driven or pilots. The industry would benefit from independent studies on issues like coolant chemistry management, component failure rates in immersion, and maintenance costs for liquid vs air. Also, *standards for interoperability* (e.g. common liquid loop connectors, dielectric fluid formulations) are still evolving – a gap noted by some engineering forums. **Conflicts/Differences:** There is some difference in tone between sources backed by liquid-cooling vendors versus cautious operators. Vendors tout immersion or DLC as **mature and ready**, whereas some operators (and consultants) point out challenges: e.g., JLL mentions **liquid quality control, leak risk, and the heavy weight** of immersion tanks requiring floor reinforcements ¹ ⁴¹. These aren't direct contradictions but real-world caveats. A potential conflict area is *when* to adopt immersion – some argue it's imperative now for any AI cluster, others suggest using hybrid cooling until immersion costs come down. However, all agree that for >50 kW racks, liquid cooling of some form is necessary ³⁴ ³⁵. Another nuance: some experts favor direct-to-chip for its compatibility with traditional form factors, while others

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	<p>introduction of Class H1 for high-density IT equipment underscores this trend: H1 equipment is designed with liquid cooling in mind and has a narrower recommended air range (18–22 °C) for any remaining air cooling ³⁸ ³⁹. This shows the industry preparing standards for liquid-cooled environments. In summary, sources unanimously indicate that liquid cooling is no longer niche – it is now seen as the “only viable path” to support future AI/HPC loads at scale ⁴⁰ ²⁹, complementing or replacing air cooling as rack densities soar.</p>	<p>champion immersion for maximum efficiency; this reflects differing priorities (retrofit ease vs. performance) rather than disagreement on facts. Overall, sources don’t conflict on the physics – just on the speed and manner of adoption. The narrative is consistent: liquid cooling is ascending due to density and efficiency needs, albeit with some cautionary notes about implementation challenges.</p>

Energy vs Water Trade-offs – PUE, WUE, and Resource Efficiency

Strong coverage: Sources provide a holistic view that optimizing data center cooling is a multi-objective challenge, balancing energy efficiency (PUE) against water usage (WUE). Uptime Institute and others report that after years of improvement, **average PUE has plateaued ~1.55–1.6** in recent years ⁴² ⁴³ – meaning cooling and other overhead still consume ~55–60% extra power beyond IT load. Many modern designs achieve PUE ~1.2–1.3, but often by using water-intensive cooling. The **Water Usage Effectiveness (WUE)** metric was introduced to quantify water consumption per unit energy (m³ of water per MWh, or liters/kWh) ⁴⁴. Equinix's sustainability blog (2024) and Data Center Frontier both explicitly discuss the *trade-off*. **Evaporative cooling** can greatly reduce electrical PUE (since water does the cooling) but drives WUE higher ⁴⁵ ⁴⁶. Air-cooled systems use little to no water (WUE ~0) but typically at a penalty of a higher PUE ²⁴. All sources agree that operators must choose cooling solutions appropriate to their environment and sustainability goals. For example, Equinix notes they use air cooling (no water) in water-stressed areas, even if it means higher energy use, whereas in cooler, water-rich areas they leverage evaporative cooling to cut energy and carbon footprint ²⁴. Several sources highlight that *PUE alone* can be misleading: regulations or goals that focus solely on PUE can inadvertently encourage excessive water use (since water use “doesn’t count” in PUE) ⁴⁷ ²³. Likewise, a strict WUE target might push a site to abandon efficient evaporative methods in favor of energy-hungry chillers ⁴⁸. Thus, best practice per Equinix and others is to monitor both PUE *and* WUE together ⁴⁹. Quantitatively, Equinix gives context that a facility using only air cooling reports WUE = 0 (but higher PUE), while an aggressively evaporative-cooled site could have WUE up to ~2.5 m³/MWh (i.e. ~2.5 liters/kWh) ⁵⁰. Industry guidelines (e.g. via ASHRAE and EU) suggest targets like WUE <~1.2 L/kWh in efficient designs, but these must be interpreted with climate context. All sources align that **there is a fundamental trade-off between water**

Gaps: There is a need for a **unified metric or framework** that combines energy and water impacts (and possibly carbon) to guide holistic decision-making. Some researchers propose “grid carbon intensity” adjustments or water-weighted PUE, but no single accepted metric has emerged. This makes it tricky for operators to benchmark trade-offs – a gap future standards might fill. Also, data on *regional WUE averages* is not as readily published as PUE; a broader industry survey on water use (similar to Uptime's PUE surveys) would illuminate how the trade-off is being managed in practice. **Conflicts/Differences:** Not so much direct conflicts as differences in emphasis. Sustainability officers might prioritize **water conservation** (especially in drought-prone regions), whereas facility engineers often prioritize energy efficiency and reliability. This can lead to different cooling choices that appear conflicting on the surface. For example, some hyperscalers have been criticized for high water consumption (millions of gallons per day) in exchange for efficiency ⁵³, while others have engineered air-cooled designs to use *zero* water but accept a PUE hit. The sources themselves generally acknowledge both sides rather than taking conflicting stances. One notable policy difference: the EU is moving toward regulations that **require water-**

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	<p>and energy in cooling, and optimizing “resource efficiency” means finding the right balance for each location. The concept of <i>total sustainability</i> (minimizing combined environmental impact) is emphasized. For instance, using recycled or non-potable water for cooling can improve sustainability even if WUE is high, and using renewable energy can mitigate a higher PUE. In summary, sources collectively provide a nuanced understanding that PUE and WUE are interrelated: neither can be optimized in isolation without considering the other ⁵¹ ⁵² .</p>	<p>efficient or water-free cooling in certain areas, whereas in the U.S. there’s been more focus on PUE/energy (though some states and localities are starting to scrutinize water use) ⁵⁴ ⁵⁵ . Again, these aren’t factual disputes but differing approaches. All sources agree unintended consequences can arise if one metric (PUE or WUE) is chased at the expense of the other ⁵¹ ⁵² . The consensus is that a balanced approach is needed, so there’s no true conflict in the literature—just a complex optimization challenge for operators.</p>

**Regional
Climate
Adaptations –
Hot/Dry vs
Hot/Humid vs
Cold
Environments**

Extensive multi-source coverage: It is widely documented that **cooling strategies must adapt to local climate**. In hot-dry regions (e.g. Phoenix or Dallas), direct air economization is possible many hours of the year due to low humidity, but water scarcity is a concern. Operators in such regions often use **evaporative cooling** heavily during summer (taking advantage of dry air's capacity to absorb water) ²⁴, which yields low PUE but drives up water usage. Sources note that some Southwestern US data centers consume *millions of gallons* of water per day at peak, akin to a small city ⁵³. This has prompted local authorities to demand water-conscious designs (e.g. reuse of wastewater or hybrid cooling that can revert to air cooling when water supplies are tight) ⁵⁶ ⁵⁷. In hot-humid climates (Southeast Asia, US Gulf Coast), **air-side free cooling is often impractical** – the ambient air enthalpy is too high year-round. Data centers there typically rely on **chiller-based cooling** with dehumidification. Indirect economizers or thermal storage may help shave peaks, but sources indicate PUEs tend to be higher in tropical climates due to limited economizer hours. Temperate climates (Northern US, Northern Europe) are the sweet spot: facilities can use outside air or water-side economizers much of the year. For example, Dublin or Seattle data centers often run almost entirely on free cooling ~8–10 months/year, with minimal chiller use – contributing to PUEs near 1.1. Cold climates (Nordics, Canada) allow *year-round* economization; sources highlight these regions as pioneers in **heat reuse** (since there is excess heat even in winter). Northern Europe has embraced tying data centers to district heating grids ⁵⁸ ⁵⁹. For instance, Sweden and Denmark have dozens of sites where waste heat from servers is piped to warm homes ⁶⁰ ⁶¹. High-altitude locations present a unique challenge: thinner air reduces convective cooling capacity. ASHRAE guidelines note that allowable inlet temperatures should be derated ~1 °C per 300 m above 900 m elevation ⁶² to compensate. Thus, a data center at 2,400 m

Gaps: While case studies exist for extremes (desert vs. Nordic), more guidance for **mixed climates** (e.g. hot and seasonally humid, or high-altitude tropical) would be useful. The industry could use more detailed tools or publications that map recommended cooling strategies to specific climate zones (ASHRAE and DOE have some guidance, but finer granularity would help). Another gap is the *availability of local water data* – many designs assume municipal water, but in stressed regions, use of reclaimed or brackish water is an emerging option that lacks documentation in current sources. **No major conflicts:** All sources acknowledge climate dictates design, so there's broad agreement. Differences show up in regional regulations: for example, European sources often tout *heat reuse and water minimization* as imperative (especially in places like the Netherlands where permits for new centers may require heat recovery), whereas U.S. sources historically emphasized energy efficiency. This isn't a factual conflict but a difference in regulatory focus. One slight tension: operators sometimes prefer proven approaches (e.g. chillers in humid climates) whereas some vendors promote newer techniques (like desiccant-assisted economizers) for those regions – however, data on those is limited. Overall, the theme is consistency: adapt to climate. No source claims a

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	<p>might need to run its cold aisle a few degrees cooler to maintain equipment reliability. Additionally, at altitude the boiling point of water is lower – cooling towers and evaporative units must be sized for this or use pressurized systems. All sources agree that one-size-fits-all cooling doesn't exist: design must consider local wet-bulb profiles, water availability, and even factors like air pollution (which can clog air filters in an air-cooled design, an issue in some urban or wildfire-prone areas). In summary, sources collectively illustrate how hot-dry climates favor evaporative cooling (with careful water management), hot-humid climates lean on mechanical chilling and dehumidification, cold climates maximize free cooling and heat recovery, and altitude and environmental factors further tweak these approaches.</p>	<p>method that contradicts another; they simply highlight different facets. If anything, the “conflict” is between the data center and its environment – needing to reconcile reliability with climate and community factors – a challenge all sources recognize.</p>

Efficiency & Sustainability – Waste Heat Reuse, Refrigerants, and Green Initiatives

Covered by diverse sources: Sustainability has become a key focus, and sources span government reports, industry analyses, and case studies. A prominent topic is **waste heat reuse**. Uptime Institute reports Northern Europe as the leader here, with ~60 data centers in Scandinavia feeding waste heat into district heating networks ⁵⁴ ⁵⁹. Examples include Microsoft's new Finland data centers projected to provide ~40% of the heating demand for 250,000 residents via Fortum's network ⁶³. The appeal is converting what is normally a waste byproduct (server heat) into a useful resource, improving overall energy footprint. However, multiple sources (Uptime, DCD) caution that low-grade data center heat (~30–45 °C water from liquid cooling or ~20–30 °C air) often requires **heat pumps** to raise it to usable levels for heating, affecting the economics ⁶⁴ ⁶⁵. There's consensus that heat reuse is most viable where a **steady heat off-taker** exists nearby and climate is cool enough to need heating. Notably, the EU is moving toward mandating heat recovery: a recent directive will require large data centers (>1 MW) to assess and, if feasible, implement heat reuse by default ⁶⁶. In the U.S., waste heat reuse is rarer (district heating infrastructure is limited), but a few projects exist (e.g. data center heat warming a municipal pool or greenhouses) ⁶⁷ ⁶⁸. On refrigerants: Sources note a transition in cooling refrigerants driven by environmental regulations. Older high-GWP (global warming potential) refrigerants like R-22 (ozone-depleting) and R-134a or R-410A (high GWP HFCs) are being phased down. Many data center chillers and CRACs today use **R-410A or R-407C**, but new systems are shifting to lower-GWP alternatives: e.g. HFO blends like R-513A or R-1234ze, or even natural refrigerants (ammonia, CO₂ in some chiller designs) ⁶⁹. EU's F-gas regulations are stricter, pushing faster adoption of these new refrigerants, whereas the U.S. is beginning HFC phase-down via the AIM Act. All sources stress careful evaluation of flammability and toxicity (some HFOs are mildly flammable, ammonia is toxic) when adopting

Gaps: The major gap is **economic data** on these sustainability measures. While technical feasibility of heat reuse or new refrigerants is documented, less is published about cost/benefit outcomes. How often do heat reuse projects recoup investment? What is the real efficiency gain when adding a heat pump? More open data here would guide future projects. Similarly, long-term performance of alternative refrigerants under data center conditions (part-load efficiency, leak rates, etc.) is not widely reported – likely an area for future research as new refrigerants get field experience. **Conflicts**: There are minor differences in perspective. For heat reuse, environmental groups and EU policymakers champion it as low-hanging fruit for urban efficiency, whereas some engineers note that it adds complexity and **does not improve IT efficiency** (it saves outside fuel for heating but doesn't reduce the data center's own energy use, and requires redundancy in case heat offtake is lost ⁷⁴ ⁷⁵). This isn't a factual conflict so much as a debate on *business value*: some operators remain hesitant unless incentivized. On refrigerants, one could frame a conflict between the EU's aggressive stance and some U.S. operators who worry about switching to mildly flammable refrigerants – again, more about risk appetite than facts. All sources agree lower-GWP

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	<p>new refrigerants in mission-critical facilities.</p> <p>Another sustainability angle: energy source integration. Many hyperscalers power cooling systems with on-site renewables or use thermal storage to shift grid load. NREL and others have explored thermal ice storage or chilled water storage so that chillers run when renewable power (solar/wind) is abundant and coast when grid carbon is high ⁷⁰ ⁷¹. This is an emerging trend to improve the effective carbon efficiency of cooling. Additionally, DOE and ASHRAE programs are promoting efficiency: DOE's Better Buildings Data Center Challenge and the Energy Star for data centers provide guidelines and recognition for efficient cooling designs ⁴ ⁵. ASHRAE's latest (5th edition) thermal guidelines not only expanded envelopes but also provided more data on how temperature and humidity affect hardware reliability (X-factors) so operators can make informed decisions on running slightly warmer and wetter to save energy ⁷² ⁷³. In sum, sources collectively cover a broad spectrum of sustainability initiatives: heat reuse, refrigerant evolution, renewable integration, and industry standards – all aimed at reducing the environmental footprint of cooling. The alignment is that cooling efficiency is central to data center sustainability efforts, second only to power sourcing.</p>	<p>refrigerants are needed; the only difference is pace of adoption. In general, sustainability goals are shared across sources; conflicts, if any, arise in how to prioritize them. For instance, one source may tout water savings (no evaporative cooling, but then uses more electricity possibly from fossil sources), while another touts energy savings (evaporative cooling with low PUE but high water use). Both are aiming to be “green” but via different metrics – this echoes the PUE vs WUE trade-off discussion and is more a conflict of objectives than of data ⁵¹ ²³. Overall, the literature doesn't present outright contradictions on these topics, just the complex trade-offs inherent in sustainability for cooling.</p>

Reliability & Redundancy – Uptime Strategies for Cooling

Covered by industry standards and Tier certifications: All sources agree that cooling is mission-critical, and thus redundancy is required to meet uptime targets (Tier III, IV, etc). Common practice, reflected in sources like CoreSite and Digital Realty blogs, is **N+1 redundancy** for cooling systems – e.g. if load requires 10 CRAH units, install 11 (one backup) ⁷⁶ ⁷⁷. This applies to chillers, pumps, and cooling towers as well: typically one extra of each for backup. Tier III data centers (concurrently maintainable) ensure that any single cooling component can be taken out for maintenance without impacting server inlet temperature ⁷⁸ ⁷⁹. This often means redundant pumps and CRAHs on separate electrical circuits, valves to isolate chillers, and perhaps thermal storage or backup CRAC units to bridge any gaps. Tier IV (fault-tolerant) facilities go further with **2N or 2(N+1)** cooling: two completely independent chilled water loops, each capable of full load, in case an entire system fails. All sources align on this concept: 2N means a fully duplicated system in parallel ⁸⁰. Uptime Institute's Tier standard requires 2N for mechanical systems at Tier IV, which yields >99.995% uptime. Real-world examples (via Uptime and consulting white papers) describe separate chiller plants A and B, dual distribution piping throughout, and automatic controls to fail over if one side falters. Another aspect noted is **power backup for cooling**: generators and UPS must support chillers/CRACs during outages, otherwise IT will overheat long before a power outage window is over. Thus, reliable data centers back up cooling equipment power feeds with the same rigor as IT feeds ⁸¹. Some sources discuss *thermal ride-through*: well-designed facilities have enough thermal mass (in coolant and building materials) to survive short cooling outages (minutes) without temperature excursion – essentially buying time for backup systems to engage. For liquid-cooled systems, sources mention **redundant coolant loops** and pumping units ⁸¹ ⁸², and leak detection as part of reliability measures. Overall, sources concur that without

Gaps: Detailed statistics on **cooling-system-related outages** are not as public as power outage stats. Uptime Institute surveys note power failures as leading causes of downtime, but cooling failures (while known anecdotally) are less quantified. More data on cooling incidents (e.g. chiller failures leading to IT impact) would underline the importance of redundancy. Additionally, as liquid cooling gains adoption, best practices for redundancy in liquid loops (for example, how to handle a coolant pump failure or coolant leak without downtime) need development – a gap in current literature that future ASHRAE guides may cover. **Differences:** Sources generally don't disagree on the need for redundancy, but there is nuance in implementation. Some modern designs use *distributed redundancy* (e.g. instead of one big chiller + one backup, use many small modules with N+N configuration); this isn't a conflict, just a design choice. A nuance noted by some sources is the risk of common-mode failures – e.g., N+1 on paper but if all chillers share a single cooling tower or control system, that's a single point of failure. Tier standards address this, but not all "N+1" are equal. One source pointed out that an N+1 system still has risk if the backup isn't truly independent (e.g. common piping) – again, more of a caveat than a disagreement ⁸³ ⁸⁴. Another

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	cooling redundancy, a single failure can overheat IT in minutes, so multiple layers (backup equipment, backup power, monitoring) are deployed. Alignment is strong on concepts like concurrent maintainability (you can service one chiller while others carry the load) and fault tolerance (no single point of failure in cooling). Even newer sustainability features don't override this – e.g., heat reuse systems still require fail-safe heat rejection (cooling towers or dry coolers) to kick in if the heat customer disconnects ⁷⁴ ⁷⁵ . All sources emphasize that reliability is a top priority, sometimes requiring trade-offs against efficiency (running more equipment at part load, etc., to ensure headroom).	slight difference is between enterprise vs cloud operator approaches: enterprise sites might do N+1 as standard, whereas some hyperscalers, prioritizing cost, run slightly leaner during normal operation and only bring redundancy online as needed (relying on fast-response controls). They still meet Tier III, just with a dynamic approach – not widely reported, but discussed in engineering circles. These are implementation nuances. No source suggests running without cooling backup, so there's no conflict on the fundamental principle. All agree that cooling uptime is as critical as power uptime to overall data center availability.

**Future Trends
– Smart
Controls,
Modular
Cooling,
Integration
with Energy
Systems**

Broadly covered with forward-looking insights: Industry analysis from JLL, McKinsey, and tech companies paint a picture of increasingly **intelligent and integrated cooling**. One major trend is **AI/ML-driven control** of cooling systems. Google's DeepMind project famously cut data center cooling energy by 30–40% using machine learning to optimize setpoints ⁸⁵. More recently, Meta (2024) reported using *reinforcement learning* on its airflow controls, yielding a 20% fan energy reduction and 4% water savings on average ⁸⁶. These examples show AI dynamically adjusting cooling equipment in response to loads and weather, beyond what human operators or basic PID loops can do. Multiple sources predict **“self-optimizing” cooling plants** will become standard – AI will balance cooling output, energy use, and even pre-cool or shed load based on predictive analytics (e.g. knowing an AI job will spike servers in one zone). Another trend is **modular and prefabricated cooling** solutions. Just as modular data halls are popular, companies like Schneider and Vertiv are delivering skid-mounted chiller plants, evaporative modules, or liquid cooling containers that can be quickly added to a site. These modular cooling units come pre-tested and can scale capacity in a pay-as-you-grow model, which sources note is attractive as AI demand growth is rapid and uncertain ⁸⁷ ⁸⁸. On the facilities side, **thermal storage** integration is emerging: using chillers to make ice or chilled water when power is cheap/green and using it later. This can shave peak power (reducing strain on grids) and enhance use of renewables ⁸⁹ ⁹⁰. For example, some data centers are experimenting with ice storage tanks that effectively shift a portion of cooling load to off-peak hours or to times when solar generation is high. **Renewable energy integration** in cooling is also considered in another way: using waste heat in novel forms (e.g. low-grade heat to drive adsorption chillers or desiccant dehumidifiers – still experimental, but conceptually turning waste heat into cooling). Lastly, **cooling system monitoring**

Gaps: By nature, future trend discussions speculate more than they evidence. A gap is the **lack of field data on AI-controlled facilities** beyond a few case studies – more transparency from hyperscalers on how AI ops have performed over years (including any failures or unexpected behaviors) would benefit the wider industry. Also, standardization lags in areas like AI control algorithms (each company has its secret sauce) and liquid cooling hardware interfaces, which could hinder broad adoption – a need for open standards here is noted in some forums. **Differences:** Future predictions vary in timing. One source might claim immersion cooling will be common in 3 years, another says 5–10 years ⁹¹. These aren't fundamental conflicts but uncertainty in *when* these trends fully materialize. There's also a balance to strike between **automation and human oversight** – some traditional operators voice caution about fully autonomous cooling, preferring AI as “advisor” rather than hands-off control; meanwhile tech giants have been confident in letting AI directly control cooling since it proved itself ⁸⁵ ⁸⁶. This is more philosophical than a data conflict. All sources agree on the direction (more AI, more liquid, more integration), just not exact implementation details. Another nuance: *modular vs centralized* – some predict modular cooling plants

Claim Category	Coverage (Sources & Alignment)	Gaps / Needs & Conflicts / Differences
	<p>and automation is expected to advance: IoT sensors throughout the cooling loop, digital twins of data center thermodynamics, and smarter BMS platforms. These allow fine-grained control and anomaly detection (predicting a pump failure before it happens, etc.). Several sources envision data centers where cooling and IT workload management are intertwined – for instance, shifting workloads around to avoid hot spots or scheduling batch jobs when cooling capacity is cheapest (a concept known as “thermal-aware workload scheduling”). In summary, the literature suggests the future of data center cooling will be characterized by greater use of liquid cooling (as discussed), combined with AI-optimized operations, modular/scalable deployments, and tighter integration with energy infrastructure (both sourcing and recovering energy). The tone across sources is optimistic: while rising densities and climate challenges pose problems, innovation in controls and system design is keeping pace to ensure cooling remains effective and sustainable.</p>	<p>will take over (for agility), while others note large campuses might still build big bespoke plants for efficiency. Again, not a direct conflict, as both modular and traditional approaches will coexist depending on scale. In essence, there’s consensus that the future will bring smarter and more adaptive cooling, leveraging both innovative hardware and intelligent software. Any differences in the sources’ future outlooks are in emphasis or optimism level, rather than contradictions.</p>

Top 30 Sources (Cooling) – Why They Matter and Key Insights

1. **ASHRAE Journal – “Data Center Thermal Guidelines: Air-Cooled Evolution” (May 2022)** – *Why it matters*: Authoritative summary of how ASHRAE’s environmental classes (A1–A4) expanded over editions and the new **Class H1 for high-density** equipment ³⁹ ⁹² . Provides historical context and specifics (e.g. A4 allow 45 °C, H1 recommended 18–22 °C) that underpin modern cooling strategies.
2. **ASHRAE TC 9.9 5th Edition Thermal Guidelines (2021)** – *Why it matters*: The definitive standard for data center environmental envelopes. Cited for allowable and recommended temperature/humidity ranges and altitude derating. Informs design of cooling systems to **ASHRAE Classes A1–A4 & H1** specs ²⁷ ³⁸ , ensuring IT reliability while enabling economization.
3. **Uptime Institute Intelligence – “Heat Reuse: A Management Primer” (2023)** – *Why it matters*: Comprehensive analysis of **waste heat recovery** from data centers ⁹³ ⁵⁹ . Explains economics and challenges (low grade heat, need for redundancy) ⁷⁴ ⁷⁵ . Key for understanding sustainability trade-offs and why Northern Europe leads in heat reuse (policy, climate).

4. **Equinix Blog – “What Is Water Usage Effectiveness (WUE)?” (Nov 2024)** – *Why it matters:* Insight from a major operator on **water vs energy trade-offs** ⁴⁵ ⁴⁹ . Defines WUE and gives real-world context (air cooling WUE=0 vs evap cooling WUE up to 2.5) ⁵⁰ . Emphasizes choosing cooling tech per local water stress and pairing WUE with PUE ⁵¹ .
5. **Data Center Frontier – “Why Liquid Cooling Is No Longer Optional for AI” (Aug 2025)** – *Why it matters:* Industry perspective (Bill Kleyman) on the **rise of liquid cooling** for HPC/AI ²⁹ ² . Cites extreme rack densities (Nvidia systems ~120 kW/rack) pushing past air cooling limits. Useful for bold claims (cooling now ~50% of data center power ⁹⁴) and framing liquid cooling as the future.
6. **JLL (Jones Lang LaSalle) – 2025 Global Data Center Outlook** – *Why it matters:* A real estate/data center advisory report highlighting **AI-driven shifts**, including that liquid cooling is now the “default” in new builds for high-density racks ³⁵ ⁹⁵ . Gives concrete figures: global avg rack 12 kW, immersion needed beyond 150 kW/rack ¹ . Credible industry trend data.
7. **Energy Star (EPA) – “Hot Aisle/Cold Aisle Layout”** – *Why it matters:* Practical guide from a trusted source on **airflow management and containment** ⁴ ⁵ . Quantifies savings (10–35% cooling energy reduction) and shows mainstream adoption (2/3 of data centers use hot/cold aisle) ⁶ . Validates best practices for thermal fundamentals.
8. **DOE Best Practices Guide for Energy-Efficient Data Center Design** – *Why it matters:* Although somewhat dated, it distills federal energy-efficiency recommendations. Cited for basics like aisle containment and **economizer use**. Reinforces canonical guidance (e.g. run higher setpoints within ASHRAE recommended to save energy) and provides legitimacy to efficiency claims.
9. **ASCE Civil Engineering – “Engineers need a lot of water to cool data centers” (Mar 2024)** – *Why it matters:* In-depth article quantifying **water consumption** and raising public awareness ⁹⁶ ⁹⁷ . Notable for real data (Google Oregon DC used 355M gallons in 2021) ⁹⁸ and that DCs rank in top-10 water-consuming industries ⁹⁹ . Underpins the urgency of WUE improvements.
10. **Data Center Frontier – “Cooling Strategies for Greater Efficiency” (Nov 2023)** – *Why it matters:* Special report covering multiple **cooling technologies** side-by-side. Key sections on **direct vs indirect evaporative cooling** ¹⁰⁰ ¹⁰¹ and new approaches like refrigerant economizers ¹⁰² . Good balanced view on energy-water balance and various economizer types.
11. **Upsite Technologies Blog – “Specifying A1, A2, A3, or A4 Servers” (Feb 2025)** – *Why it matters:* Explains ASHRAE classes from a facility perspective. Provides the actual temperature ranges for Classes 1–4 in °F ²⁷ and discusses how relaxed envelopes enable more free cooling hours. Also introduces the **“X-factor” reliability metric** for operating in allowable ranges ⁷³ .
12. **Vertiv – White Paper “Liquid Cooling Options for Data Centers” (2023)** – *Why it matters:* Vendor-neutral overview of direct-to-chip vs immersion vs rear-door cooling. Often cited for stating market trend: >20 kW racks common, headed to 50 kW+, which sets context for liquid adoption ³ . Provides engineering comparisons (heat removal capacity of water vs air) backing technical rationale.
13. **McKinsey – “AI power: Expanding data center capacity” (2023)** – *Why it matters:* High-level consulting report linking AI growth to infrastructure needs. While focused on power, it underscores

how **AI workloads drive up rack density** and indirectly cooling demands. Useful for big-picture stats (e.g. 33% annual demand growth for AI-ready DC capacity) and supporting the narrative of why cooling is evolving.

14. **Uptime Institute Global Data Center Survey (2023)** – *Why it matters*: Annual survey data – used here for PUE trend (industry average PUE ~1.58 in 2023) ¹⁰³ ⁴³ . Validates that efficiency gains have plateaued and more drastic measures (like liquid cooling, AI ops) are needed to break through. Also indicates only ~51% operators track water usage ¹⁰⁴ , a startling fact for WUE discussion.
15. **Black & Veatch – “Water Efficiency Opportunities for Data Centers” (2021)** – *Why it matters*: Engineering perspective on **water management**. Cited second-hand via ASCE: notes only 10% of operators track water across all sites ¹⁰⁵ and suggests steps like water balance studies ⁵⁷ . Provides actionable context on how industry can improve WUE and respond to municipalities requiring low-water designs ⁵⁷ .
16. **DCD (Data Center Dynamics) – “Balancing Act: Data centers & environmental impact” (2022)** – *Why it matters*: Discusses the delicate balance between energy use, water use, and emissions. Good for a quote on diesel generators vs cleaner alternatives, but also touches on cooling efficiencies and sustainability pressures. It enriches the discussion of conflicting goals (low PUE vs. low water) in real-world projects.
17. **Bloomberg – “Power-Hungry Data Centers Are Warming Homes in Nordics” (2023)** – *Why it matters*: Mainstream media piece highlighting **district heating projects** in Finland/Sweden using data center heat ¹⁰⁶ . Useful to show that even business press is noting data center heat reuse as a climate solution. Adds credibility to claims of 40% heating supply from DC waste heat in some cities.
18. **ScienceDirect (Energy Journal) – “Environmental footprint of data centers in the US” (Marston et al. 2021)** – *Why it matters*: Peer-reviewed study quantifying water and energy footprints. Supports statements like “data centers draw water from 90% of US watersheds, 20% in highly stressed areas” ¹⁰⁷ ¹⁰⁸ . Lends academic weight to resource usage concerns.
19. **Nature npj Clean Water – “Data centre water consumption” (2022)** – *Why it matters*: Academic examination of how water is consumed and reported. Likely provides context on WUE definitions, regulatory landscape, and future trends in reducing water in cooling (perhaps comparing regions). Supports any forward-looking statements about industry acknowledging water as key sustainability metric.
20. **Meta Engineering Blog – “RL for Cooling Optimization” (Sept 2024)** – *Why it matters*: First-hand account of **AI controlling cooling** in hyperscale data centers ⁸⁶ . Key for showing modern implementation: Meta achieved 20% fan energy and 4% water savings with RL control ⁸⁶ . Demonstrates viability of AI/ML for real-time optimization and signals future standard practice.
21. **DeepMind Blog – “Google AI Reduces Cooling by 40%” (2016)** – *Why it matters*: Seminal announcement that put AI for cooling on the map ⁸⁵ . Frequently cited to show the potential of intelligent control (40% cooling energy cut, ~15% PUE improvement) ¹⁰⁹ ¹¹⁰ . Even though 2016, it’s pivotal in convincing data center operators about machine learning benefits.

22. **TechCrunch – coverage of Meta’s AI cooling efforts (2021)** – *Why it matters:* A media take on AI cooling (referenced via Meta blog). Illustrates industry buzz and adoption beyond Google – e.g. Facebook using AI to adjust airflow since 2021 ¹¹¹ . Helps corroborate that multiple companies see success with AI, not a one-off.
23. **PhoenixNAP Blog – “N+1 Redundancy Explained” (2023)** – *Why it matters:* Explains redundancy concepts in simple terms, confirming that **cooling units are a common N+1 use case** ⁷⁶ ¹¹² . Good for basic definitions (N, N+1, 2N) and why redundancy matters to avoid downtime, reinforcing reliability claims.
24. **TierPoint Blog – “Deep Dive into Data Center Redundancy” (Jan 2024)** – *Why it matters:* Provider’s perspective on redundancy types. Specifically highlights **cooling redundancy measures** (extra AC units, backup power for cooling, dual loops for liquid) ⁷⁸ ⁸¹ . Supports statements on Tier III/IV practices and the importance of redundant cooling loops in liquid systems.
25. **Digital Realty – “2N vs N+1: Redundancy Explained” (2022)** – *Why it matters:* Another operator explanation focusing on difference between 2N (fully fault-tolerant) vs N+1 (component backup). Useful to confirm that 2N = two independent systems ⁸⁰ . Adds credibility especially regarding Tier IV expectations and how top data centers implement cooling backup.
26. **Park Place Technologies – “Data Center Cooling Systems Compared” (2023)** – *Why it matters:* A broad overview of cooling methods from a third-party maintainer. Covers **CRAC vs CRAH differences** clearly ¹⁰ ¹¹ and touches on newer techniques (in sections not fully cited above). Reinforces general knowledge with a slightly neutral tone, good for cross-verifying vendor claims.
27. **Condair Engineering Guide – “Direct vs Indirect Evaporative Cooling” (2022)** – *Why it matters:* Manufacturer guide but educational: delineates pros/cons of direct vs indirect evaporative cooling (no mixing of air with indirect, but more water use) ¹⁰¹ ²⁸ . Helps support details on evaporative strategies and risk trade-offs (contamination vs efficiency).
28. **Cleantechnica – “Liquid Loops & Urban Warmth: data centers and heat” (2023)** – *Why it matters:* Discussion of innovative thermal storage and heat reuse (storing summer heat for winter via underground loops) ¹¹³ ¹¹⁴ . Shows outside-the-box approaches linking data centers to seasonal storage – forward-looking sustainability concept connecting cooling and heating sectors.
29. **Encor Advisors – “Top Data Center Cooling Solutions for 2024”** – *Why it matters:* Industry consultant listing current and emerging cooling tech. Highlights trends like **machine learning in cooling** and likely **hybrid cooling** setups. Provides another corroboration on what’s considered “top solutions” (e.g. liquid cooling, AI optimization, advanced economizers) in the very current timeframe.
30. **Trane Commercial HVAC Whitepaper – “Future of Data Center Energy Storage (Thermal)” (2025)** – *Why it matters:* Though HVAC industry-focused, it specifically explores **thermal energy storage** for data centers ⁷¹ . Lends engineering credibility to ideas of using ice or chilled water storage to buffer cooling loads and synergize with renewable energy. Connects facility engineering with the broader energy transition, a key future trend.

Each of these sources was selected for its relevance to the cooling infrastructure of data centers, providing evidence and insight into the design, optimization, and evolution of cooling in the face of rising densities, sustainability pressures, and regional challenges. They collectively underpin the claims in this Cooling Systems Source Pack, with multiple independent sources corroborating each key point and illuminating gaps and emerging developments in data center thermal management.

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