

Data Staging Effects in Wide Area Task Farming Applications

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Abstract

Recent advances in computing and communication have given rise to the computational grid notion. The core of this computing paradigm is the design of a system for drawing compute power from a confederation of geographically dispersed heterogeneous resources, seamlessly and ubiquitously. If high-performance levels are to be achieved, data locality must be identified and managed. In this paper, we consider the affect of server side staging on the behavior of a class of wide area “task farming” applications. We show that staging improves task throughput mainly through the increased parallelism rather than the reduction in overall turnaround time per task. We derive a model for farming applications with and without server side staging and verify the model through live experiments as well as simulations.

1. Introduction

The computational grid [9] has recently evolved into a powerful paradigm for the utilization of distributed computational resources. Projects such as Globus [8], Legion [10, 11], NetSolve [4], Condor [7, 16], Ninf [12, 14] and EveryWare [17] are but a few of the many projects that attempt to harness the power of the computational grid. By definition, the computational grid encompasses resources that span a wide geographical (and network) distance. As such, the issue of data locality plays an important role in enhancing the performance of distributed applications run-

ning on the grid.

Locality has always been an important element in reducing data access overhead, whether at the processor level or in a distributed setting. While it is generally accepted that staging data near where it is consumed (caching) improves general application performance, the nature of such an improvement depends on the type of the application and on its ability to effectively use the available data.

A class of applications that has attractive scalability properties, rendering it suitable for grid implementation, is the class of parameter sweep (or farming) applications. These are embarrassingly parallel applications that divide a (potentially huge) parameter space into regions. A worker application is then assigned the task of searching one such region for points that match the search criteria set by the application. A sub-class of such applications are *data independent parameter sweeps*, where the input data set is shared between all workers. The structural properties of these applications suggest the usage of compute-side data staging to reduce communication delay incurred when the input is read. The resulting reduction in overhead should increase application throughput (expressed in terms of the number of regions searched per unit time).

In this paper, we study the staging behavior of wide-area data-independent parameter sweep applications. We base our computing model on NetSolve [4], and our staging using the IBP storage system [13]. We first derive an analytical model for predicting performance in such systems, and then run experiments in a wide-area setting to determine how well the model fares in a real implementation. Finally, we show results of a simulation of these systems so that a

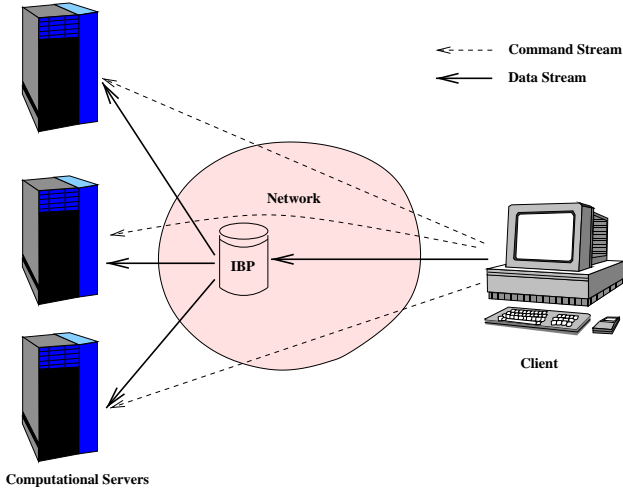


Figure 1. Farming model with an IBP Staging Point

wider class of parameters can be analyzed.

The main conclusion that we draw from this work is that in these applications, *the key parameter governing throughput is job initiation rate*. Typically, jobs are initiated when they have been sent their respective inputs by a controlling master process. By separating the initiation control signal from the data transport, and allowing jobs to fetch their inputs from a staging point (possibly located at the master) we are able to achieve a greater degree of parallelism and, hence, greater throughput. Interestingly, we did not find that the proximity of the staging point to the locus of computation was a factor for the networks and machines we studied.

2. Applications

We focus on parameter sweep, or “farming,” applications, which have been the focus of much initial work on grid computing [1, 2, 5, 6, 15]. As described above, these are parallel applications where little or no communication is performed between sub tasks in a larger computational process. An example is MCell, a microphysiology application that uses 3-D Monte-Carlo simulation to study molecular bio-chemical interactions within living cells [6]. In fact, almost all Monte-Carlo simulations belong to this class of applications.

The applications that we study have the following characteristics:

- **Large input data set.** The input data set is large relative to any control parameters that determine the manner in which the data set is processed.

- **Large number of tasks.** The number of tasks is large and is not usually known in advance. The application sweeps through a (possibly infinite) parameter space defined through the control parameters. Task throughput is the paramount measure of overall application performance.
- **Task independence.** Each task is completely defined through its control data set and the global input data set. No dependencies exist between tasks in the parameter sweep application.

3 Computing Model

We adopt the computing model supported by Net-Solve [4]. This is a brokered RPC model, sometimes termed the “client-agent-server” model. A client submits problems to computational servers through an intermediate agent, which acts as a resource broker and performance monitor for all computational servers that are registered with this agent. The client running the application queries the agent for a list of servers capable of solving the problem at hand. The client then proceeds to submit instances of the parameter sweep application to servers in that list until no servers are left unused. The client then proceeds to monitor completion of tasks on active servers, submitting more jobs to the server(s) that complete their tasks.

The introduction of staging into this environment leads to the differentiation of the control and data streams within the application. Without staging, the client marshals all inputs to the computational problem to the server whenever an instance of the problem is instantiated. With staging, the input data is prepositioned on a storage server, perhaps near the computational servers, and a pointer to the data is sent to the servers on job instantiation. The servers retrieve the data from the storage after their jobs are instantiated. This separates the path of the control data from that of the (larger) input data as seen in Figure 1. We assume that network storage exists for staging, such as the storage provided by the Internet Backplane Protocol (IBP) [2].

To analyze the effect staging has on the throughput in a parameter sweep application, we make the following assumptions:

- Pure execution time of individual tasks on computational servers is constant. Moreover, each server executes one task at a time.
- Tasks are introduced into the computational environment one at a time. The reasoning behind this assumption is twofold. The simultaneous introduction of tasks from the client side to multiple computational servers imposes heavy demands on bandwidth for problems involving large data sets. Such usage of available

bandwidth may not be acceptable to many organizations. The second reason is that in some environments (e.g. NetSolve), the introduction of a problem instance into the environment alters the configuration in such a way as to affect the decisions involved in assigning future instances to servers. While devising a scheme for the simultaneous scheduling of multiple problem instances is feasible, it is beyond the scope of this research.

- No server failures occur during computations.
- The output data size is negligible. It follows that no significant time elapses between a task terminating on a server and the client's recognition of this event and the launch of another instance on the same server.

In analyzing the throughput of parameter sweep applications, we define the following variables:

- T_f : Job forking time. This is the time to select a computational server and start a process on it. It includes network latencies and protocol overhead, but not the time to transmit input data.
- T_t : Input data transmission time.
- T_c : Task computational time, once the input has been received.
- T : A sufficiently large time interval used to measure throughput.
- P : Total number of computational servers.
- P_e : Effective number of computational servers.
- N : Number of completed jobs in T seconds.

With no staging, jobs are started as depicted in Figure 2(a). A new job cannot be started until all data from the previous job has been transmitted. Regardless of the number of available servers, the maximum number of servers (termed P_e for “effective” number of servers) that can be kept busy depends on $T_f + T_t$. In Figure 2(a), P_e equals three.

Specifically, without staging, the job turnaround time is $T_f + T_t + T_c$. However, since the client can only start a new job after $T_f + T_t$ seconds have passed, the effective number of computational servers used is the maximum number of tasks that can be started before the first task terminates. Hence:

$$P_e = \frac{T_f + T_t + T_c}{T_f + T_t}$$

Assuming $P_e \leq P$, then

$$\begin{aligned} N &= P_e \frac{T}{T_f + T_t + T_c} - (P_e - 1) \\ &= \frac{T - T_c}{T_f + T_t} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

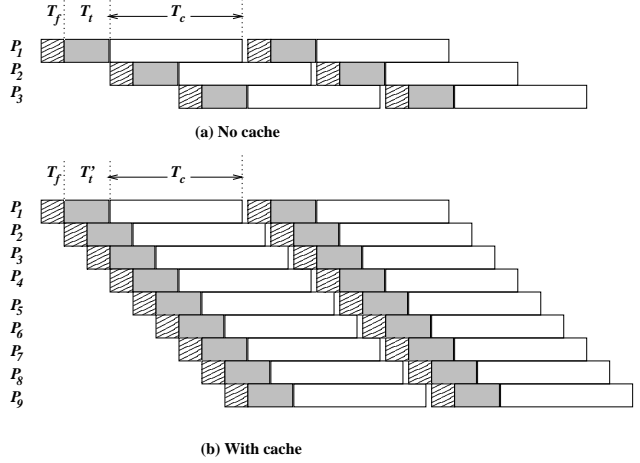


Figure 2. Job launching in parameter sweeps

With staging, we add primes to all variables. Note that $T'_f = T_f$ and $T'_c = T_c$. However T'_t will differ from T_t , depending on the location of the staging point. As depicted in Figure 2(b), a job need not wait for its input before starting, but rather, begins fetching its inputs from the staging point as soon as it is initiated. The result is that jobs are able to fetch their inputs in parallel up to the point where the bandwidth consumed by all jobs in their fetch phase is equal to the capacity of the network link. This increases the effective number of servers (to nine in Figure 2(b)), and will also shorten job turnaround time if $T'_t < T_t$. It follows that

$$P'_e = \frac{T_f + T'_t + T_c}{T_f}$$

And assuming $P'_e \leq P$, then

$$\begin{aligned} N' &= P'_e \frac{T}{T_f + T'_t + T_c} - (P'_e - 1) \\ &= \frac{T - T'_t - T_c}{T_f} \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

From equations 1 and 2

$$\frac{N'}{N} = \frac{T - T_c - T'_t}{T - T_c} \frac{T_f + T_t}{T_f} \quad (3)$$

For sufficiently large T , $T - T_c \gg T'_t$. Then

$$\frac{N'}{N} \approx 1 + \frac{T_t}{T_f} \quad (4)$$

Equation 4 shows that the improvement we see from the use of staging does not depend on transmission time (T'_t) up to the point of link saturation.

| Complexity | T_f (sec) | T_t (sec) | T'_t (sec) | T_c (sec) | T'_c (sec) | P_e | | P'_e | | N | | N' | |
|------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------|----------------|-----------------|-------|------|--------|------|-------|------|-------|------|
| | | | | | | Calc. | Act. | Calc. | Act. | Calc. | Act. | Calc. | Act. |
| $n^{0.6}$ | 2.8 | 7.5 | 0.2 | 15.6 | 9.84 | 2.5 | 1.5 | 4.6 | 3.4 | 1050 | 1047 | 3895 | 3758 |
| $n^{0.7}$ | 3.4 | 7.8 | 0.2 | 37.7 | 26.81 | 4.3 | 3.3 | 8.9 | 7.4 | 963 | 953 | 3168 | 2984 |
| $n^{0.8}$ | 4.7 | 6.2 | 0.2 | 90.7 | 82.68 | 9.3 | 8.3 | 18.6 | 17.3 | 980 | 983 | 2280 | 2257 |
| $n^{0.9}$ | 6.6 | 6.0 | 0.2 | 257.2 | 243.18 | 21.3 | 22.4 | 37.7 | 33.2 | 833 | 851 | 1478 | 1462 |
| $n^{1.0}$ | 6.7 | 8.0 | 0.2 | 737.4 | 744.80 | 51.1 | 33.4 | 111.7 | 34.4 | 469 | 390 | 469 | 452 |
| $n^{1.1}$ | 7.1 | 8.5 | 0.2 | 1458.8 | 1471.71 | 94.5 | 33.8 | 207.7 | 34.5 | 222 | 230 | 222 | 247 |

Table 1. Experimental results (1). $P = 35, T = 3$ hours

| Complexity | T_f (sec) | T_t (sec) | T'_t (sec) | T_c (sec) | T'_c (sec) | P_e | | P'_e | | N | | N' | |
|------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------|----------------|-----------------|-------|------|--------|------|-------|------|-------|------|
| | | | | | | Calc. | Act. | Calc. | Act. | Calc. | Act. | Calc. | Act. |
| $n^{0.6}$ | 2.6 | 7.2 | 0.2 | 10.9 | 10.6 | 2.1 | 1.1 | 5.2 | 4.0 | 1104 | 1100 | 4198 | 4095 |
| $n^{0.7}$ | 2.6 | 7.3 | 0.2 | 30.4 | 29.6 | 4.0 | 3.0 | 12.0 | 5.4 | 1075 | 1071 | 1989 | 1978 |
| $n^{0.8}$ | 2.7 | 7.7 | 0.2 | 89.8 | 85.0 | 9.7 | 5.3 | 32.3 | 5.8 | 642 | 639 | 733 | 736 |
| $n^{0.9}$ | 2.8 | 7.7 | 0.2 | 257.6 | 254.8 | 25.5 | 5.7 | 93.0 | 5.9 | 237 | 239 | 247 | 248 |
| $n^{1.0}$ | 2.9 | 8.1 | 0.4 | 757.7 | 895.7 | 70.3 | 5.9 | 279.0 | 6.0 | 79 | 82 | 67 | 69 |
| $n^{1.1}$ | 3.2 | 8.5 | 0.2 | 1515.8 | 1560.6 | 130.0 | 5.9 | 484.2 | 6.0 | 37 | 42 | 36 | 39 |

Table 2. Experimental results (2). $P = 6, T = 3$ hours

The staging performance modeled above assumes the number of available servers exceeds the maximum number of effective servers that a client can use, and that the slowdown of input transfer caused by link saturation is negligible. The improvement in performance is due to the reduction in transmission time and the enhanced parallelism achieved through overlapping job instantiation and data transmission. To isolate the effect of staging, let $P < \min(P_e, P'_e)$. In this scenario, we find that

$$N = P \frac{T}{T_f + T_t + T_c} - (P - 1) \quad (5)$$

and

$$N' = P \frac{T}{T_f + T'_t + T_c} - (P - 1) \quad (6)$$

For sufficiently large T , $P - 1 \ll P \frac{T}{T_f + T_{Tx} + T_c}$. It follows that

$$\frac{N'}{N} \approx \frac{T_f + T_t + T_c}{T_f + T'_t + T_c} \quad (7)$$

For a server side staging point, we have $T'_t \ll T_f + T_c$. Then

$$\frac{N'}{N} \approx 1 + \frac{T_t}{T_f + T_c} \quad (8)$$

For a client side staging point, $T'_t = T_t$ and $\frac{N'}{N} \approx 1$. In the vast majority of scientific farming applications, the

computational time T_c dominates data transmission time T_t . This is in contrast to web caching applications, where the opposite is generally true. Hence, it can be seen from the above model that as the number of computational servers available decreases from that number needed to keep the staging pipeline full, the throughput gain advantage through staging diminishes and eventually vanishes with sufficiently long running tasks and/or few servers.

4. Experimental Results

In this section, we present the results of running a wide area distributed farming application. The goal of this part is to test the validity of the model developed in section 3 under real network and server loading conditions (computational servers running in work stealing mode). We developed a simple synthetic algorithm that allows us to control the running time of computational tasks through input parameters. Multiple instances of this algorithm were spawned on a network of computational servers from a remote client.

4.1. The testing environment

The experiments using the synthetic algorithm were performed using the following experimental setup:

- **Client:** The client is a SUN ULTRA-2 machine running at Princeton University.
- **Servers:** The computational servers are selected from a pool of 41 machines running at the University of Ten-

nessee, Knoxville. Of these, 12 machines are dual 167-MHz UltraSPARC-1 processor machines with 256-MB of memory. The remaining 29 machines have single 143-MHz UltraSPARC processor with 256-MB of memory.

- **NetSolve agent:** The NetSolve agent was launched on one of the computational servers used in the experiment.
- **Staging Point:** The staging point is implemented by an IBP server [13] running on an Internet2 machine dedicated to serving storage to network applications [3]. This machine is housed at the University of Tennessee.
- **Experimental setup:** All reported experiments were performed between the hours of 8:00 AM and 11:00 PM (EDT) during the months of May and June 2000. All components of the experiments were running in a work-stealing mode, with a *nice* value of 15.

The farming interface [5] in NetSolve was used to launch tasks and assign them to computational servers. However, this interface was instrumented to allow for better control over the maximum number of hosts that can be simultaneously used by a client, and to add various tracing and performance measurement code.

4.2. Results

In this section, we present results from two experiments. In both experiments, The duration of each job is set to be a function of the input data size n . These functions are of the form n^y , and in our tests, we vary y from 0.6 to 1.1. In the first experiment, the number of computational servers (P) is fixed at 35. In the second experiment, P is six. The goal of these experiments is to test the validity of the models developed in section 3 as well as the simulator code described later. All runs were conducted for a period T of 3 hours. Input data size for these experiment is 832 KB. Tables 1 and 2 summarize the results of these experiments.

As the last two columns of each table indicate, the model does a very good job of predicting actual behavior both with and without staging. And as is demonstrated most clearly in Table 1, the most notable improvement due to staging is the increase in P_e — roughly a factor of two in Table 1, and over a factor of three in Table 2. However, when there are not enough processors for P_e processors to be kept busy, as in the last two rows of Table 1 and the last four rows of Table 2, the reduced transmission time due to the input being near the servers has little effect.

Below we make a few more comments from the experiments:

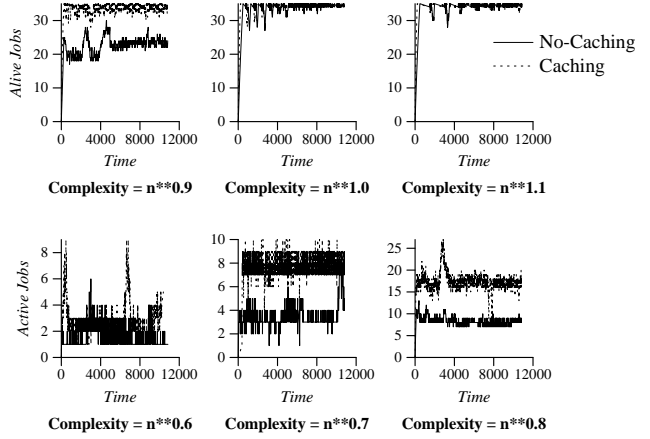


Figure 3. Active jobs (P_e) at each time step: $P = 35$.

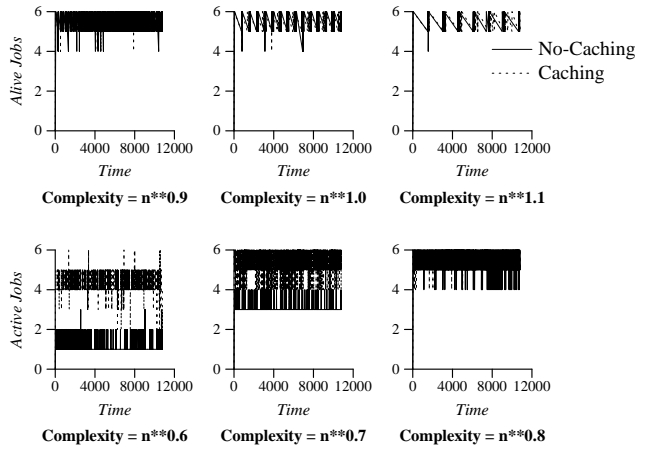


Figure 4. Active jobs (P_e) at each time step: $P = 6$.

- **Forking time T_f :** The average forking time increases as the number of computational servers used increases. The increase stems from the need for the client to negotiate with the NetSolve agent and servers to select a suitable server for every new task. As a result, the average starting time tends to increase as the number of available servers increases due to the dynamic server selection process.
- **Transmission time T_t :** In NetSolve, one can only measure total job instantiation time at the client. Without staging, this is $T_f + T_t$. With staging, it is simply T_f , since the data is downloaded from IBP after job instantiation. For that reason, T_t is calculated to be the job instantiation time without staging ($T_f + T_t$), minus the job instantiation time with staging (T_f).

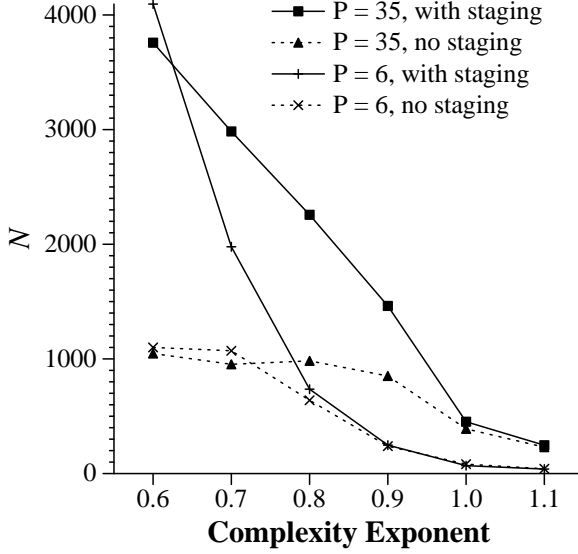


Figure 5. Completed jobs in each experiment.

- **Execution Time T_c :** The execution times listed in Tables 1 and 2 represent the time between the end of the client's job instantiation and the time at which the client detects job completion. As a result, this time may exceed the actual execution time, because the client does not check for job completion while in the midst of forking a new job. As a result, execution time as seen at the client may exceed the actual execution time by $(T_f + T_t)$ seconds without staging, and by T_f seconds with staging. This accounts for the differences in T_c and T'_c in the tables.

In Figures 3 and 4, we plot the number of active processors at each time step over the lifetime of the computation. These figures underscore the importance of staging in increasing P_e .

Finally, in Figure 5, we plot the number of completed jobs for each test, both with and without staging. When $P_e < P$, the reduced job forking time of the $P = 6$ tests show better performance. Additionally, when $P_e < P$, staging again shows benefits because it increases P_e . When P_e reaches P , the benefits of staging are far less dramatic.

5. Simulation Results

In this section we report further results that we obtained through simulation. The simulator accepts the following parameters:

- A probability distribution for T_f .
- A probability distribution for T_c .

- A probability distribution for remote bandwidth from the client to servers.
- A probability distribution for local bandwidth from servers to their staging points.
- The input data size.
- The number of servers P .
- The application duration T .

It then performs a stochastic simulation of the farming application, and returns the number of jobs completed. The purpose these simulation tests is to explore the behavior of staging with respect to farming while varying the behavior of parameters. For the runs described here, we use the following parameters:

- T_f is uniformly distributed in the interval $[3, 7]$ seconds.
- T_c is uniformly distributed in the interval $\mu - 0.25\mu, \mu + 0.25\mu$, where μ is the mean value of T_c , and varied in these tests.
- Remote bandwidth is uniformly distributed in the interval $[0.25, 0.75]$ MB per second.
- Local bandwidth is uniformly distributed in the interval $[0.5, 1.5]$ MB per second.
- The input data size varies between 5 MB and 32 MB.
- The number of servers varies between 200 and 500.
- The application duration (T) is 24 hours.

The lower and upper bounds of the number of finished jobs for each case were evaluated over ten independent runs, and these bounds are used to find values of P_e , and intervals for the jobs completed (N, N'), and throughput ratio (N'/N) shown in Figures 6 and 7. These parameters represent an environment with remote bandwidth almost half the local bandwidth. It should be noted that the relatively poor local bandwidth used in the simulations accounts for the fact multiple transmissions from a single staging point to the computational servers can be simultaneously active and therefore degrade performance. Multiple staging points can improve performance, but we did not simulate staging points with higher performance.

In Figure 6, the results are shown for input data sizes of 5 MB and 16 MB, and $P = 200$. In these graphs, three different zones can be identified in terms of the individual task computational time T_c :

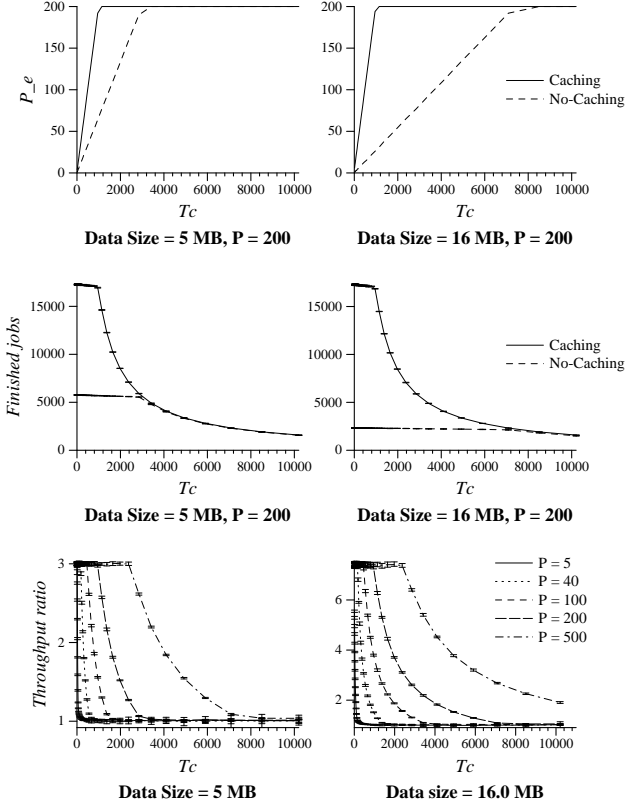


Figure 6. Sample simulation results(1)

- **Zone A** This zone extends from $T_c = 0$ to approximately $T_c = 1200$ seconds. In this zone, neither model is able to utilize all available computational servers. The staging architecture is able to utilize more servers due to the reduced total task starting time.
- **Zone B** This zone covers the interval $[1200, 3200]$ for a data size of 5 MB, and $[1200, 8000]$ for a data size of 16 MB. In this zone, the staging architecture is making full use of all available computational servers, while its no-staging counterpart is making partial use of them. It should be noted that the range of T_c for which this condition is true increases as the data size increases.
- **Zone C** This zone covers the interval $T_c \geq 3200$ for a data size of 5 MB, and $T_c \geq 8000$ for a data size of 16 MB. For values of T_c in this zone, both architectures are making full use of all available servers. For sufficiently large running interval T , no significant difference is observed between the total number of finished jobs in both cases. For this region, staging does not improve task throughput.

It can be seen that the precise boundaries between the three zones depend on the particular configuration of the problem solving environment (various bandwidth values and number

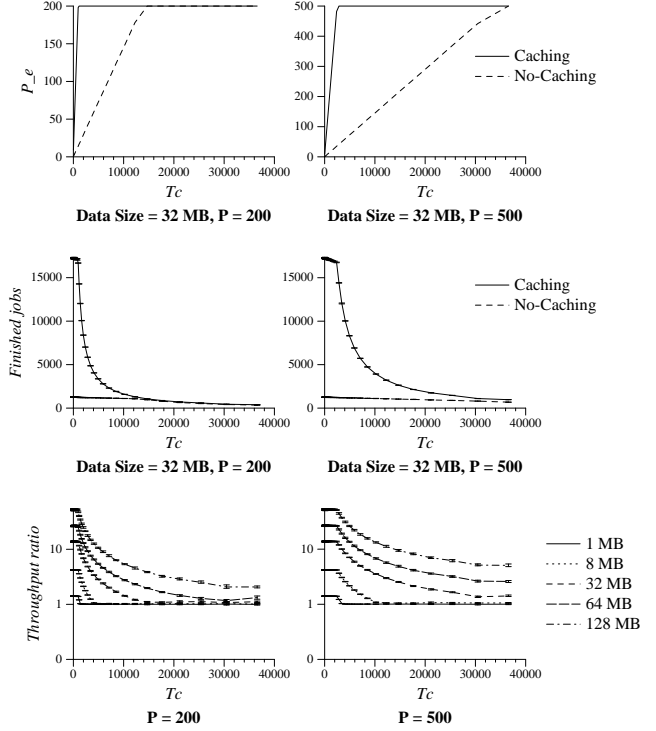


Figure 7. Sample simulation results (2)

of available servers) as well as properties of the problem itself, namely input data size. For instances in zones A and B, staging is beneficial in improving task throughput, while for zone C, such improvement is not observed.

In Figure 7, simulation results are shown for a data size of 32 MB using 200 and 500 computational servers. The results show that for a relatively large input data size, the improvement in throughput through staging is profound for zone A and part of zone B. This effect vanishes, but only for values of T_c that are relatively large (approximately 18000 and 40000 seconds for 200 and 500 servers, respectively).

6. Conclusion

In this paper, we studied the performance of wide area data independent farming applications. We developed a model for total task throughput with and without staging. The models were validated using experiments and simulations. The models and simulation results suggest that any improvement in task throughput through staging is primary due to increased server utilization through reduction in individual task starting time through staging. The reduction in total task time is not significant enough for large problems to make a significant improvement.

7. Acknowledgements

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