

Evaluating Storage Systems for Scientific Data in the Cloud

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ABSTRACT

Infrastructure-as-a-Service (IaaS) clouds are an appealing resource for scientific computing. However, the bare-bones presentation of raw Linux virtual machines leaves much to the application developer. For many cloud applications, effective data handling is critical to efficient application execution. This paper investigates the capabilities of a variety of POSIX-accessible distributed storage systems to manage data access patterns resulting from workflow application executions in the cloud. We leverage the expressivity of the Swift parallel scripting framework to benchmark the performance of a number of storage systems using synthetic workloads and three real-world applications. We characterize two representative commercial storage systems (Amazon S3 and HDFS, respectively) and two emerging research-based storage systems (Chirp/Parrot and MosaStore). We find the use of aggregated node-local resources effective and economical compared with remotely located S3 storage. Our experiments show that applications run at scale with MosaStore show up to 30% improvement in makespan time compared with those run with S3. We also find that storage-system driven application deployments in the cloud results in better runtime performance compared with an on-demand data-staging driven approach.

Keywords

HPC, parallel computing, cloud, global file systems

1. INTRODUCTION

Clouds are poised to become a key platform for data-intensive distributed computing [19]. Through virtualization, clouds offer full ownership of a flexible and customizable infrastructure. The Magellan initiative on cloud usability and data management [18] examined the cloud model for scientific applications. One of the challenges identified in its final

report [25] was developing appropriate application programming models that enhance the capabilities of the existing MapReduce model:

Tools to simplify using cloud environments ... and enhancements to MapReduce models to better fit scientific data and workflows [are needed] for scientific applications. The current tools often require significant porting effort, do not provide bindings for popular scientific programming languages, and are not optimized for the structured data formats often used in large-scale simulations and experiments.

More recently, a survey conducted by XSEDE [12] indicated the increasing cloud adoption in the scientific community. One of the challenges reported by a majority of the users interviewed was the difficulty and cost associated with managing data. Furthermore, the survey indicated that many users (27%) use the costly object store services such as S3 for application data management. On the other hand, experience using and comparing clouds with traditional high-performance computing (HPC) environments [15, 26] sheds light on the advantages of the cloud:

- The virtualized environment of the cloud eliminates the queue waiting times often dominating application turnaround times in shared clusters. The queue wait times have been replaced by the time it takes virtual machines (VMs) to become available. (Our past experiments show that this is generally under one minute on popular clouds such as EC2 and is constant regardless of the requested number of VMs [13]).
- Administrator-level access to instances in the cloud gives more control over resources, aiding in a range of user activities, such as installation and upgrade of software tools, and in customization of network policies, such as firewalls, without jeopardizing the system security.
- Clouds offer an economically affordable solution under certain cost models.

Despite these advantages, however, there is a lack of suitable techniques and tools to manage application data effectively and economically on distributed cloud resources.

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This paper explores the coupling of a programming model suitable for a popular application class, namely, many-task computing, with various storage systems suitable for the cloud. Specifically, we use the Swift parallel scripting framework with virtual storage and file management systems (collectively, storage systems) in cloud computing environments and assess their impact on application performance and overall usability. To better understand the practicalities of these systems, we benchmark the overall performance of the coupled system using both synthetic workloads and real-world applications.

This paper makes contributions over multiple axes:

1. Platform characterization: it sheds light on the network characteristics between Amazon EC2 cloud provisioning regions not generally taken into account while building computational models.
2. Storage system performance characterization: it benchmarks the performance of various storage systems with respect to core data access patterns.
3. Application porting to the cloud: It demonstrates execution of real-world applications on the cloud via a parallel scripting programming approach under two distinct data management models. More important, it helps in understanding the tradeoffs resulting from the choice of the storage system to support workflow applications.
4. Guidelines for toolkit evolution for clouds: It makes a case for improved usability of the cloud computing model using tools well adapted to traditional tightly coupled systems such as HPC clusters.

While we touch upon the subject of cost, we consider it outside of the scope of this paper and do not analyze it in any detail. The rest of this paper is structured as follows. Network characteristics of global EC2 cloud are analyzed in Section 2. Virtual storage solutions used in the current study are described in Section 3. The Swift parallel scripting framework is briefly discussed in Section 4. Our experiment setup for cloud related experiments is described in Section 5. Section 6 evaluates the performance of storage solutions for common workflow data access patterns. We discuss three use-case applications in Section 7 and present evaluation in Section 8. Related work is discussed in Section 9. We present concluding remarks and future work in Section 10.

2. THE NATURE OF THE CLOUD

Cloud vendors often do not reveal the true nature of the underlying fabric behind the virtualized resources. Clouds such as Amazon EC2 can have a global span. Users have limited information about the topology, network, and hardware capabilities. Consequently, one must explore available clues to gauge the nature of cloud environments and the best solutions for efficiently using resources.

Figures 1 and 2 present the bandwidth and latency, respectively, between instances from all eight available regions of Amazon EC2 cloud. Depending on the platform and application requirements, questions that must be answered include the following: What are the network capacity and latency between cloud instances at the zone, region, and global level? What is the expected time to completion given

a fixed number of resources in a given set of regions? What are the tradeoffs between storage and network performance that inform advanced data management solution? Which additional region is best to draw resources from, once the resource allocation limits have been reached in a given region?

The results obtained in figures 1 and 2 are significant for the consumers of cloud infrastructures that are deployed over global networks. While the infrastructure is presented to the user as a single virtual platform, the expected performance of application will vary wildly dependent upon the factors beyond a users control. This not only risks applications performance but also increases the user costs of using the infrastructure.

Performance of distributed applications significantly rely upon the bandwidth and latencies of the underlying infrastructure [17]. Storage systems such as the ones discussed in this paper circumvent these issues to some extent by implementing efficient caching, replication, and prediction mechanisms.

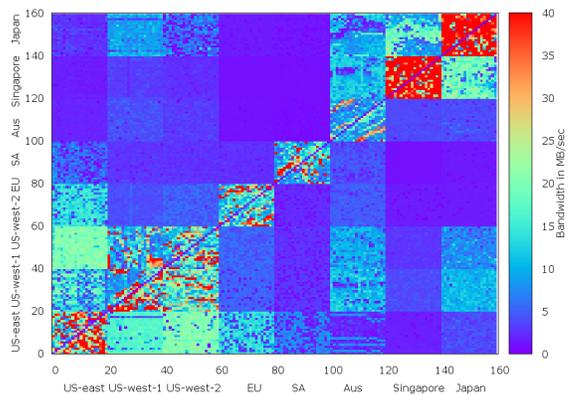


Figure 1: Heatmap of network bandwidths between instances of global Amazon EC2 cloud environment.

3. STORAGE SYSTEMS

Computing via workflows that assemble complex processing stages using existing components as their building blocks is an established method in the science domain. A popular approach to support these workflows is the many-task approach, in which the workflow processes communicate through intermediary files stored on a shared file-system.

On clouds, however, the backend data storage system can become a bottleneck when supporting I/O-intensive workflows [27]. Hence, an increasingly popular way to support workflow applications is to harness some of the resources allocated by the cloud, particularly node-local storage, and assemble a scratch storage space to store the intermediary data used to communicate among workflow tasks. In this scenario, the workflow scheduler is in charge of staging the application data into the intermediate space and staging out the results as needed. The details of workflow enactment depends on the precise data access semantics and API offered

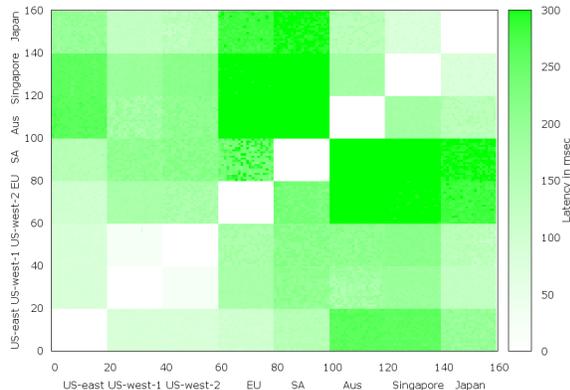


Figure 2: Heatmap of network latencies between instances of global Amazon EC2 cloud environment.

by this intermediate space. At one end of the spectrum are intermediate storage systems that offer a shared file-system with complete POSIX API support (e.g., MosaStore [1, 21], and Chirp/Parrot [20]). Whereas, at the other end of the spectrum are two overlapping solutions: (1) solutions that offer a custom API, possibly specialized for classes of applications (e.g., the Hadoop File System - HDFS); and, (2) solutions that do not offer a shared name and storage space and leave explicit data movement between independent storage nodes and space management to be handled by the workflow scheduler. Apart from performance, an additional benefit from using the storage systems is lower cost: most cloud billing systems do not invoice separately the instance-local storage space/traffic; thus, deploying and using an intermediate storage space comes at zero cost (as opposed to using the backend storage where both space and traffic are generally billed).

3.1 Amazon S3

Amazon S3 [2] is the storage service provided by Amazon. Its full design and architecture have not been made public; however, an important building block is the Dynamo [5] key-value store. S3 was not designed to be a file system and is not POSIX-compatible. It acts as a large-scale datastore and backup service for cloud-based applications. S3 is pre-configured, albeit at a cost charged by Amazon. It has a simple two-level namespace: buckets (with unique names in the global namespace) and objects (the data stored within the buckets). It provides durability, availability, and relatively fast access. These characteristics make S3 an ideal service for applications requiring backup and archiving (e.g., the Smart Grid State Estimation application [14]). Third-party interfaces such as S3FS [7] provide access to S3 service as mountable file systems with a subset of common file operations. S3FS also implements a simple, local node caching mechanism to improve performance over that of raw S3 access.

3.2 Hadoop Distributed File System

The Hadoop Distributed File System (HDFS) is a high-throughput file system designed to store and process large amounts of data stored on cheap, shared-nothing clusters of commodity machines. HDFS aggregates the disk space of the distributed nodes on which it is installed and provides a unified storage view of the aggregated space. A block of data (usually 64 MB) is the unit of management for load balancing, physical data movement, replication, and fault tolerance. Data movement is governed via “streaming” access modes, implying its suitability for record-level manipulation on datasets. Metadata and file namespace on an HDFS cluster are managed by a “NameNode” process. The actual data blocks are managed by the “DataNode” processes running on each compute node of a cluster.

3.3 MosaStore

MosaStore is a low-overhead, user-level distributed storage system based on FUSE [6]. MosaStore can be deployed to aggregate the storage space of compute nodes to an application and offered it as a shared POSIX-compatible storage system. MosaStore is workflow-optimized in that it supports various data placement optimizations designed specifically for workflow applications. Its key attributes are: (1) The POSIX API makes integration with applications trivial; (2) Files are striped across multiple nodes. This is a useful feature if nodes do not have disks and if RAM disks with inherently limited space need to be aggregated; and (3) Support is provided for cross-layer optimizations that enable the storage system to expose details of the stored data (e.g., data location, replication level) to an application or workflow.

3.4 Chirp/Parrot

Chirp [20] is a user-level storage system that provides a virtualized, unified view of data over multiple real file systems (e.g., over file systems deployed over independent clusters). Deploying Chirp does not require kernel changes or special access privileges (admittedly, not a key issue when deploying on cloud, but often a major adoption barrier when using large, shared clusters). Chirp servers consist of directory servers (containing only the directory hierarchy of the Chirp namespace) and data servers (containing the actual files). The files are not striped across multiple nodes. Parrot is an interceptor layer that traps the application’s POSIX file system calls and redirects them to Chirp. A combination of Parrot and Chirp can thus provide a POSIX-accessible storage environment with files distributed across multiple native file systems.

3.5 Summary of Storage Systems Features

In this section, we summarize the operations of the storage systems, showing the common abstractions and working mechanisms. Storage systems can be seen as having three components (though in some cases these components are minimal):

1. On the client side (where the client application runs), a component that enables the application to access the data. This can be as complex as FUSE-based implementation in MosaStore (or S3 access through S3FS), Java APIs for HDFS, or an ability to deal with file management and transfers (e.g., Parrot for Chirp).

2. On the storage side, the basic native storage (block or chunk level) and a component that exposes it to the rest of the system, and signals that the component is active to enable discovering failures, decision system to replication, liveness etc (e.g. Mosastore’s benefactor component).
3. A management component that keeps track of functionalities involving striping, space management, garbage collection, data placement, etc. Not all systems have all these; some (e.g., Chirp) leave the applications to manage these functionalities by themselves.

4. SWIFT

We use the Swift parallel scripting framework to express application flow and orchestrate tasks on clouds. Swift [22] is an implicitly concurrent programming language originally designed to express workflows consisting of large numbers of scientific application invocations on multiple diverse resources. Swift separates application workflow logic from runtime configuration, allowing for a highly flexible development model. Swift can invoke application binaries on distributed resources, similar to ordinary command-line invocations, rendering better binding with application execution environment without extra coding required from the user. Swift/K is a parallel scripting framework for distributed application programming. It supports explicit data movement via protocols such as FTP, scp, and TCP. A pilot-job abstraction is supported via its coasters implementation [8]. The Swift/T engine (T stands for Turbine, a distributed engine) [23] distributes the load of processing Swift workflow logic across multiple sites. This enables extremely scalable workflow logic processing and task management.

5. EXPERIMENT SETUP

We prepared a Linux image with the tools and software installation and required security and communication tuning. FUSE was installed and enabled as a kernel module. The Chirp server was installed on each of the cloud instances’ EBS device. Read/write operations were performed on randomly chosen Chirp servers via explicit calls to Parrot. For HDFS, a default setup mimicking that of Hadoop applications was used. An instance was chosen as a NameNode, whereas the rest of the instances were designated as DataNodes with storage space formatted over the EBS device. One of the DataNodes served as a secondary NameNode. For MosaStore, one instance was designated as the manager node whereas the rest of the instances were the benefactor nodes. The application binaries and library dependencies were installed on the image. Application input data was loaded on the storage systems or on local EBS storage as required. In all experiments, instances drawn from the same prepared image were size “m1.large”, consisting of two cores and 8 GB memory each.

6. RAW PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

The fundamental I/O patterns in workflows involve successive reads and writes occurring concurrently on file systems for interdependent and independent tasks. In this section we explore the common I/O patterns of workflow applications and look into the performance on underlying storage systems. In order to ensure uniformity in data movement,

as seen in Section 2 the instances are drawn from a single region for the experiments described in this section. Performance benchmarks for parallel reads of data of varying sizes from the underlying storage systems are shown in figure 3. The data is read from the respective storage system into the local file system, EBS devices in the case of Amazon cloud.

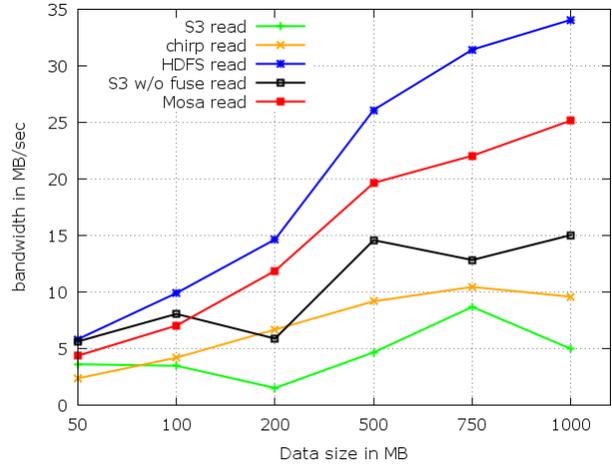


Figure 3: Performance benchmark of storage systems on Amazon cloud: concurrent reads of 40 files with varying size across 40 Amazon nodes.

Performance benchmarks for parallel writes of data of varying sizes to the underlying storage systems are shown in figure 4. The data is written to the storage system from the local file system.

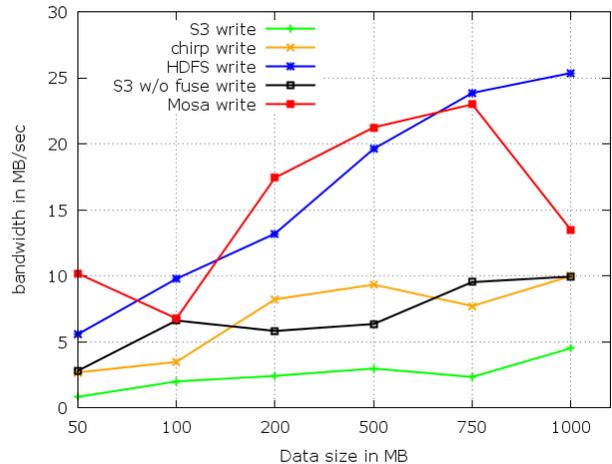


Figure 4: Performance benchmark of virtual storage systems on Amazon cloud: concurrent writes of 40 files with varying size across 40 Amazon nodes

In read-after-write (RAW) pattern, shown in figure 5, data is read from the storage immediately after being written to it. Shown in figure 6 are the performance measurement plots for the RAW pattern on varying data sizes. From the perfor-

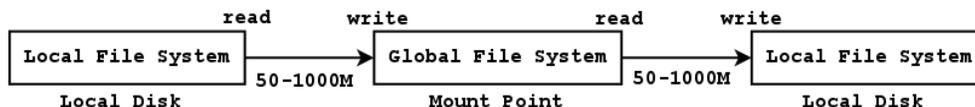


Figure 5: Read-after-write data access pattern: data is read immediately after being written to a global storage system mount point.

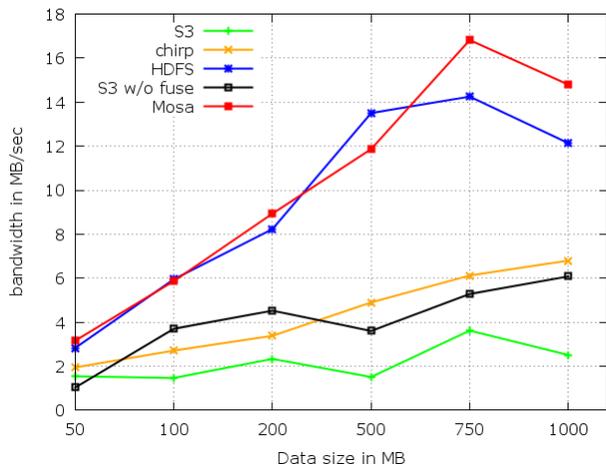


Figure 6: Performance benchmarks for 40 concurrent read-after-writes on 40 EC2 nodes.

mance benchmarking plots, we see a trend of high variability on the remotely located S3 system and a more consistent behavior from the storage systems installed over local space. We see consistently better bandwidths for HDFS and MosaStore systems except at the 1000 MB datasizes. One of the most common data access pattern in many-task workflow applications is concurrent reads and writes. We see that MosaStore shows better read-after-write performance beyond 500MB (fig 6). Consequently, we chose MosaStore for node-local aggregated storage for application measurements.

7. APPLICATION OVERVIEW

In this section we describe three real-world applications and their implementation using the virtual storage systems coupled with Swift.

7.1 Power Locational Marginal Price Simulation (LMPS)

Optimal power flow studies are crucial in understanding the flow and price patterns in electricity under different demand and network conditions. A big computational challenge arising in power grid analysis is that simulations need to be run at high time resolutions in order to capture effects occurring at multiple time scales. The power flow simulation application under study analyzes historical conditions in the Illinois grid to simulate instant power prices on an hourly basis. The application runs linear programming solvers invoked via an AMPL (A Mathematical Programming Language) model representation and collects flow, generation, and price data

with attached geographical coordinates. A typical application consists of running the model in 8,760 independent executions corresponding to each hour of the year.

7.2 Parallel Blast

Blast is one of the most prevalent applications used on clouds. A protein alignment search tool, Blast performs searches from protein databases. Parallel Blast workflow adds two additional steps to the basic Blast application. First, a splitter splits the protein database into multiple fragments on which the traditional Blast can be run. Second, the resulting search results from each of the blast are merged using a blastmerge step. The application flow and its interaction with underlying storage system is shown in figure 7. In this study we use a reduced ‘nr’ nucleotide database with 1.5 million entries. The splitter splits this database into 300 fragments resulting in a total of 602 application calls.

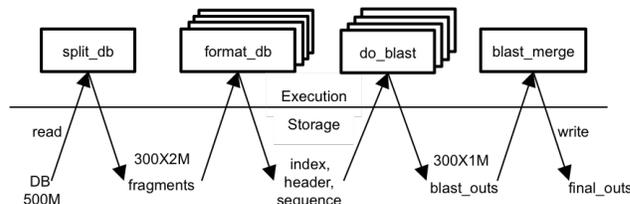


Figure 7: Blast application and its interaction with storage systems.

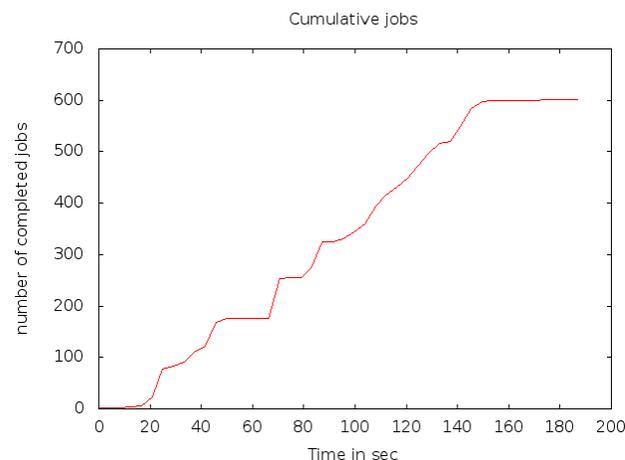


Figure 8: Blast application cumulative task execution plot with Swift/K data staging. A total of 602 tasks were run on 40 cloud instances.

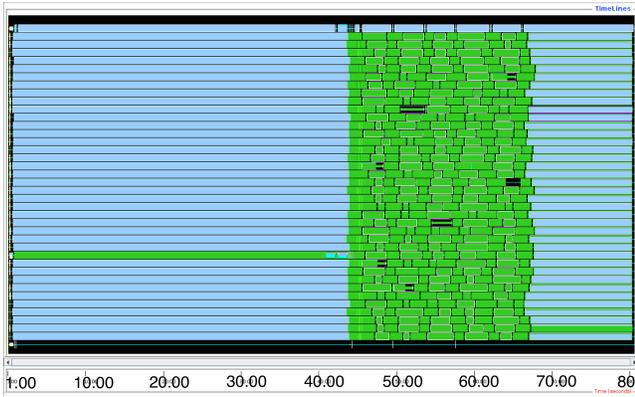


Figure 9: Blast application execution trace with Swift/T and MosaStore data staging; A total of 602 tasks run on 40 cloud instances. The light blue bars indicate worker-coordination wait; green bars indicate the executions.

7.3 EnergyPlus

The EnergyPlus application is a suite of energy analysis and thermal load simulation programs [4]. The application takes into account the local historical climate and materials properties data to calculate an estimated energy consumption of a building. The application can take an ensemble of parameters such as orientation and height and compute distinct sets of energy requirements. In our study, we vary the orientation of a building located in Chicago between 10 and 100 degrees at a step size of 10, combined with building height between 9 and 30 meters, resulting in 210 permutations. A postprocessing step after each EnergyPlus call converts the resulting data into a summarized json format. The total number of tasks in this application is 420 (figure 10).

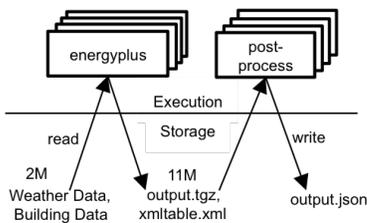


Figure 10: EnergyPlus application and its interaction with storage systems.

8. EVALUATION

In this section, we discuss the results and an evaluation of our study. Figure 13 shows the power grid application end-to-end makespan times for an increasing number of instances on global locations of EC2 instances starting from 20 to 120 with different virtual storage systems.

We use the local disk writes as a baseline for these experiments. While raw local writes are faster on the local file systems, the results are available only to the nodes where the computation was done. In order to gather results at the end of the computation, an additional expensive stage out

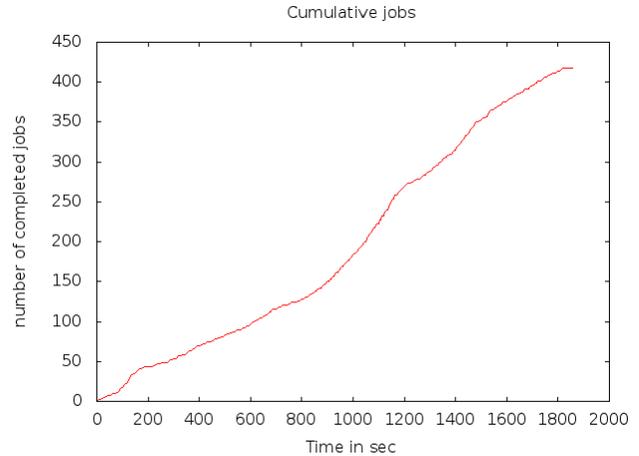


Figure 11: EnergyPlus application cumulative task execution plot with Swift/K data staging; A total of 420 tasks run on 40 cloud instances.

operation is required which is eliminated by virtue of the storage systems.

The general trend we see from the plot in figure 13 is a sharp improvement in execution performance in the initial increments of nodes from 20 to 60. We notice a knee in the performance curve at node count 60 because the allocation goes beyond the United States region after this point. A steady improvement is observed after this point followed by no significant improvements despite adding nodes as indicated by a near-plateau between 80 and 120 nodes especially in the case of Amazon S3. This behavior is expected because as the number of nodes increases the amount of communication to remote instances from a centrally located S3 servers is added on top of application communications. A general trend of steady performance (flat curve) after 60 nodes is expected for other storage systems because of the remote location of regions beyond 60 nodes drawn from the EU and Asian data centers.

Figures 8 and 11 show cumulative task completion plots for the Blast and EnergyPlus applications respectively, generated from the Swift/K execution log. The executions are carried out via Swift/K coasters setup and using an explicit staging mechanism. Figures 9 and 12 respectively show application completion results via Swift/T with MosaStore as storage solution in an alternative task trace representation obtained via MPE [24].

The difference between the Swift/T and Swift/K executions is data staging. While Swift/K performs explicit on-demand data movement, Swift/T assumes a shared data access across executions. In a distributed cloud environment this is made possible by virtue of the storage systems. Clearly, Swift/T storage system driven applications (Figs. 9 and 12) perform better than Swift/K explicit staging applications (Figs. 8 and 11).

9. RELATED WORK

In this section, we discuss projects related to storage, computation, and execution management in the cloud environments.

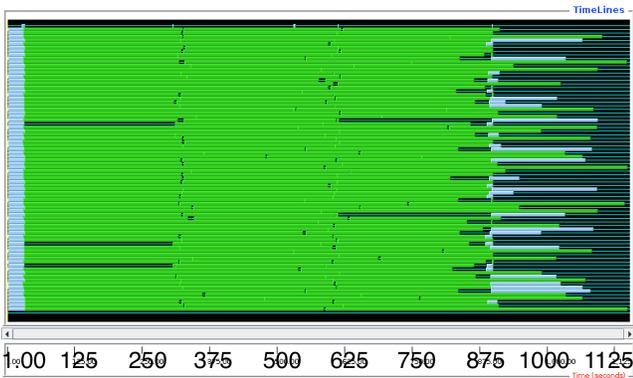


Figure 12: The Energy plus application execution trace with Swift/T and Mosastore as data staging platform; A total of 420 tasks run on 40 cloud instances. The light blue bars indicate worker-coordination wait, green bars indicate the executions.

The cloud model of computing presents several distinct data management techniques. Work described in [11] addresses the need for data oriented services specific to cloud environments such as content specific access and security. Work described in [9] presents algorithms to augment the load balancing among file blocks on distributed storage systems such as HDFS.

Other projects have used clouds to extend high-end computing, for example a federated computing in the CometCloud project [3]. CometCloud offers a layered suite of services for managing multiple applications (via workflow, Master/Worker, and MapReduce services) on aggregated computational platforms (via accessibility, overlay and communication services). Benchmarks similar to ours have been documented in recent cloud evaluation [10] in a computational context.

A study by one of the authors of current work raised doubts about S3’s appropriateness as a live storage system for distributed applications [16], citing a lack of support for flexible access control and concerns about high-performance data access. However, the same study cite several features such as data durability, high-availability, and ease of access via POSIX (achievable on top of FUSE) or other APIs (e.g., the REST API) that can make S3 an appealing storage solution for scientific applications. Our work back the findings with application performance results as evidence and lays further motivation for usage of aggregated, node-local storage systems in the clouds.

10. CONCLUSIONS

We evaluate two representative storage systems each from scientific and commercial domain in the cloud. With an availability of local ephemeral storage and remote object storage in the form of S3, data handling in clouds poses intriguing challenges. We attempt to address these challenges by understanding the network characteristics of a commercial cloud implementation and setting up the cloud with Swift orchestrated computations over storage systems. We benchmark our approach with basic read and write patterns commonly observed in scientific applications. With the cur-

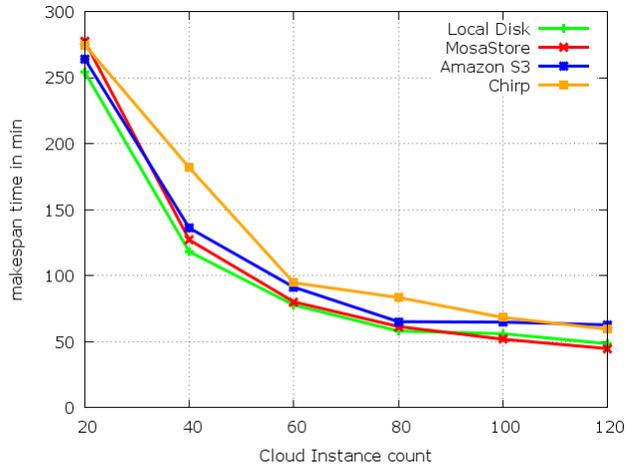


Figure 13: Application makespan times with results written to local disk and virtual storage systems on an increasing number of cloud instances.

rent state of the art of this work, we draw the following main conclusions:

- Globally implemented clouds rely heavily on internet backbone resulting in a non-uniform and variable network characteristics which application deployments must take into account. Storage solutions can mitigate resulting variabilities to some extent by techniques such as caching, replication and prediction.
- Applications with small to medium immediate storage requirements can be run effectively by aggregating the cloud node-local space with the help of storage solutions. These solutions almost always perform better compared to the dedicated object store provided by clouds such as S3 by Amazon.
- Storage solutions such as S3 are nonetheless important for large-scale data handling and archival purposes.
- Depending upon the application requirements, Swift can handle both implicit and explicit data motions in the cloud.

For data motion during an application execution, we study two approaches: explicit workflow engine staged data movement and implicit data movement via coupling the virtual storage systems with workflow systems. We chose HDFS for its popularity, MosaStore for its ability to offer a shared POSIX-compatible and at the same time support optimizations for workflow applications, and Chirp/Parrot for its ease of deployment. From the results obtained from benchmarking and actual application studies with different cloud configurations (local, single zone, and global) we were able to understand the effectiveness of storage systems. We show how real-world application data can be handled in the cloud by using storage systems. In particular, our experiments shed light on utility and performance of storage systems as an alternative to the de facto S3 storage offered by Amazon.

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