

Context-aware MapReduce for Geo-distributed Big Data

Marco Cavallo, Giuseppe Di Modica, Carmelo Polito and Orazio Tomarchio

Department of Electrical, Electronic and Computer Engineering, University of Catania, Catania, Italy

Keywords: Big Data, MapReduce, Hierarchical Hadoop, Context Awareness, Partition Number.

Abstract: MapReduce is an effective distributed programming model used in cloud computing for large-scale data analysis applications. Hadoop, the most known and used open-source implementation of the MapReduce model, assumes that every node in a cluster has the same computing capacity and that data are local to tasks. However, in many real big data applications where data may be located in many datacenters distributed over the planet these assumptions do not hold any longer, thus affecting Hadoop performance. This paper addresses this point, by proposing a hierarchical MapReduce programming model where a toplevel scheduling system is aware of the underlying computing contexts heterogeneity. The main idea of the approach is to improve the job processing time by partitioning and redistributing the workload among geo-distributed workers: this is done by adequately monitoring the bottom-level computing and networking context.

1 INTRODUCTION

In the last few years, the pervasivity and the widespread diffusion of information technology services such as social computing applications and smart city services produced a significant increase of the amount of digital data, which in a single day may even reach a few petabytes (Facebook, 2012).

The new term “Big Data” has been created to indicate this phenomenon: it refers to collections of very large datasets, that require unconventional tools (e.g non-relational DBMS) to be managed and processed within a reasonable time (Zikopoulos, P. and Eaton, C., 2011). Big data analysis requires adequate infrastructure capable of processing so large amount of data: parallel and distributed computing techniques are commonly used to efficiently manipulate such data. MapReduce is probably the most known parallel programming paradigm that is nowadays used in the context of Big Data (Dean and Ghemawat, 2004). It is based on two functions, Map and Reduce: the first one generates data partitions based on a given user defined function, and the second one performs a sort of summary operation on Map outputs. Apache Hadoop is an open source implementation of the MapReduce approach (The Apache Software Foundation, 2011); in the last few years it has evolved by including many features and reaching a high level of adoption both in industry than in academic community. Hadoop has been designed mainly to work on clusters of homoge-

neous computing nodes belonging to the same local area network; data locality is one of the crucial factors affecting its performance. However, in many recent Big Data scenarios, it is not uncommon the need to deal with data which are geographically distributed. In fact, the design of geo-distributed cloud services is a widespread trend in cloud computing, through the distribution of large amounts of data among data centers located in different geographical locations. In these scenarios, the data required to perform a task is often non-local, which, as mentioned before, may severely affect the performance of Hadoop.

In this paper, we propose a novel job scheduling strategy that is aware of data location. The proposed approach takes into account the actual heterogeneity of nodes, network links and of data distribution. Our solution follows a hierarchical approach, where a top-level entity will take care of serving a submitted job: this job is split into a number of bottom-level, independent MapReduce sub-jobs that are scheduled to run on the sites where data reside. The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 provides some motivation for the work and also discusses some related work. In Section 3 we introduce the system design and provide the details of the proposed strategy. Section 4 provides the details of the strategy adopted to partition data and distribute the workload. Finally, Section 5 concludes the work.

2 BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE

Well known implementations of MapReduce have been conceived to work on a single or on a few clusters of homogeneous computing nodes belonging to a local area network. Hadoop (The Apache Software Foundation, 2011), the most famous open source implementation of the MapReduce paradigm, performs very poorly if executed on data residing in geographically distributed datacenters which are interconnected to each other by means of links showing heterogeneous capacity (Heintz et al., 2014).

The main problem is that Hadoop is unaware of both nodes' and links' capacity, nor it is aware of the type of application that is going to crunch the data. This may yield a very bad performance in terms of job execution time, especially in the case a huge amount of data are distributed over many heterogeneous datacenters that are interconnected to each other's through disomogeneous network links. In the literature two main approaches are followed by researchers to efficiently process geo-distributed data: a) enhanced versions of the plain Hadoop implementation which account for the nodes and the network heterogeneity (*Geo-hadoop* approach) ; b) hierarchical frameworks which gather and merge results from many Hadoop instances locally run on distributed clusters (*Hierarchical* approach).

Geo-hadoop approaches (Kim et al., 2011; Matess et al., 2013; Heintz et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2014) reconsider the phases of the job's execution flow (Push, Map, Shuffle, Reduce) in a perspective where data are distributed at a geographic scale, and the available resources (compute nodes and network bandwidth) are disomogeneous. In the aim of reducing the job's average *makespan*¹, phases and the relative timing must be adequately coordinated.

Hierarchical approaches (Luo et al., 2011; Jayalath et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2007) envision two (or sometimes more) computing levels: a bottom level, where several plain MapReduce computations occur on local data only, and a top level, where a central entity coordinates the gathering of local computations and the packaging of the final result. A clear advantage of this approach is that there is no need to modify the Hadoop algorithm, as its original version can be used to elaborate data on a local cluster. Still a strategy needs to be conceived to establish how to redistribute data among the available clusters in order to optimize the job's overall makespan.

¹The execution time of a job. It is measured from the time the job is submitted to the time results are gathered

The solution we propose belongs to the *hierarchical* category. We address the typical scenario of a big company which has many branches distributed all over the world producing huge amounts of business-sensitive data that need to be globally processed on demand. Examples of application domains that fall in this scenario are electronic commerce, content delivery networks, social networks, cloud service provisioning and many more. The Hadoop seems to offer the computing model that best suits this situation, because of its capability of providing parallel computation on multiple pieces of data. Unfortunately, company sites may be disomogeneous in terms of computing capabilities and the amount of stored raw data. Also, the inter-site network links have very limited and unbalanced bandwidth that is usually employed to support many types of inter-site communication. This makes the plain Hadoop unfit for the depicted scenario.

We believe a hierarchical computing model may help since it decouples the job/task scheduling from the actual computation. The approach we propose introduces a novel job scheduling algorithm which accounts for the discussed disomogeneity to optimize the job makespan. Basically, when a job is submitted, a top-level entity ("Orchestrator" in the remainder of the paper) will take care of serving the job. In particular, the job is split into a number of bottom-level, independent MapReduce sub-jobs that are scheduled to run on the sites where data reside. According to the original data localization, the computing capacity of involved sites and the available inter-site bandwidth, the Orchestrator may decide to migrate data (or pieces of them) from site to site before bottom-level MapReduce jobs are eventually started. Finally, the results of MapReduce sub-jobs are forwarded to a top-level Reducer that will package and deliver the final result. Unlike previous works, our job scheduling algorithm aims to exploit fresh information continuously sensed from the distributed computing context (available site's computing capacity and inter-site bandwidth) to guess each job's optimum execution flow.

3 DESIGN OVERVIEW

According to the MapReduce paradigm, a generic computation is called *job* (Dean and Ghemawat, 2004). A generic job is submitted to a *scheduling system* which is responsible for splitting the job in several *tasks* and mapping tasks to a set of available machines within a cluster. The performance of a job is measured by its completion time (some refers to it with the term

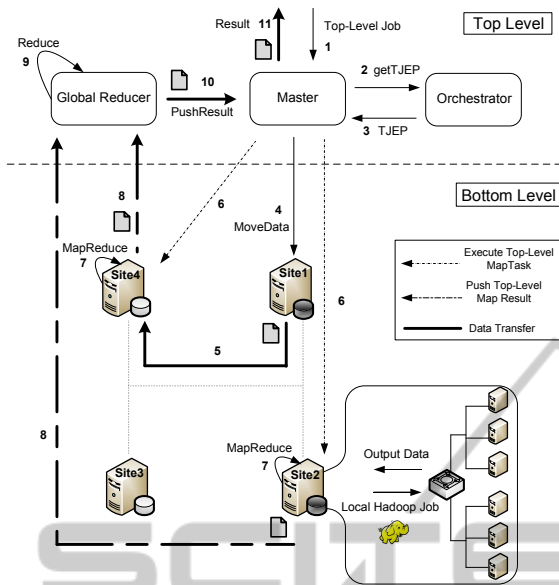


Figure 1: Overall architecture.

makespan), i.e., the time for a job to complete. That time heavily depends on the job’s *execution flow* determined by the scheduling system and the computing power of the cluster machines where the tasks are actually executed.

In a scenario where computing machines belong to many geographically distributed clusters there is an additional parameter that may affect the job performance. Communication links among clusters (inter-cluster links) are often disomogeneous and have a much lower capacity than the communication links among machines within a cluster (intra-cluster links). Basically, if a scheduling system does not account for the unbalanced capacity of both machines and communication links, the overall job’s performance may degrade dramatically.

The key point of our proposal for a hierarchical MapReduce programming model is the need of a top-level scheduling system which is aware of the underlying computing context’s heterogeneity. We argue such awareness has to be created and augmented by periodically “sensing” the bottom-level computing context. Information retrieved from the computing context is then used to drive the generation of the particular job’s execution flow which maximizes the job performance.

In Figure 1 the basic reference scenario addressed by our proposal is depicted. Sites (datacenters) populate the bottom level of the hierarchy. Each site stores a certain amount of data and is capable of running plain Hadoop jobs. Upon receiving a job, a site transparently performs the whole MapReduce process chain on the local cluster(s) and returns the result of

the elaboration. All the system business logic devoted to the management of the geo-distributed parallel computing resides in the top-level of the hierarchy. Upon the submission of a Hadoop job, the business logic schedules the set of sub-jobs to be disseminated in the distributed context, gathers the sub-job results and packages the overall computation result.

In particular, the system business logic is composed of the following entities:

- **Orchestrator.** It is responsible for the generation of a *Top-level Job Execution Plan* (TJEP). A TJEP contains the following information:
 - the Data Logistic Plan (DLP), which states how data targeted by the job have to be re-organized (i.e., shifted) among sites;
 - the Sub-job Scheduling Plan (SSP), which defines the set of Hadoop sub-jobs to be submitted to the sites holding the data.
- **Master.** It is the entity to which Hadoop Jobs are submitted. It calls on the Orchestrator for the generation of the TJEP, and is in charge of enforcing the TJEP according to the information contained in the DLP and the SSP.
- **Global Reducer.** It performs the top-level reduction of the results obtained from the execution of Hadoop sub-jobs.

At design time two important assumptions were made. First, at the moment only one Global Reducer is responsible for collecting and reducing the data elaborated by bottom-level sites. One may argue this choice impacts on the overall performance, nevertheless it does not invalidate the approach. Anyway, this assumption is going to be relaxed in future work. Second, being this approach a pure hierarchical approach, the top-level MapReduce job must be coded in such a way that the applied operations are “associative”, i.e., may be performed recursively at each level of the hierarchy and the execution order of the operations does not affect the final result (Jayalath et al., 2014).

In the scenario of Figure 1 four geo-distributed sites are depicted that hold company’s business data sets. The numbered arrows describe a typical execution flow triggered by the submission of a top-level job. This specific case envisioned a shift of data from one site to another one, and the run of local MapReduce sub-jobs on two sites. Here follows a step-by-step description of the actions taken by the system to serve the job:

1. A Job is submitted to the Master, along with the indication of the data set targeted by the Job.
2. The Master forwards the Job request to the Orchestrator, to get the TJEP;

3. The Orchestrator elaborates and delivers a TJEP. For the elaboration of the plan the Orchestrator makes use of information like the distribution of the data set among sites, the current computing capabilities of sites, the topology of the network and the current capacity of its links. A TJEP is broken down in two section: 1) the DLP containing data-shift directives and 2) the SSP containing data-elaboration directives;
4. The Master enforce the DLP. In particular, *Site1* is ordered to shift data to *Site4*;
5. The actual data shift from *Site1* to *Site4* takes place.
6. The Master enforces the SSP. In particular, top-level Map tasks are triggered to run on *Site2* and *Site4* respectively. We remind that a top-level Map task corresponds to a Hadoop sub-job;
7. *Site2* and *Site4* executes local Hadoop jobs on their respective data sets;
8. Results obtained from local execution are sent to the Global Reducer;
9. The Global Reducer performs the reduction of partial data;
10. Final result is pushed to the Master;
11. Final result is returned to the Job submitter.

One of the Orchestrator's tasks is to monitor the distributed context's resources, i.e., the sites' available computing capacity and the inter-site bandwidth capacity. In Figure 2 the context monitoring infrastructure is depicted.

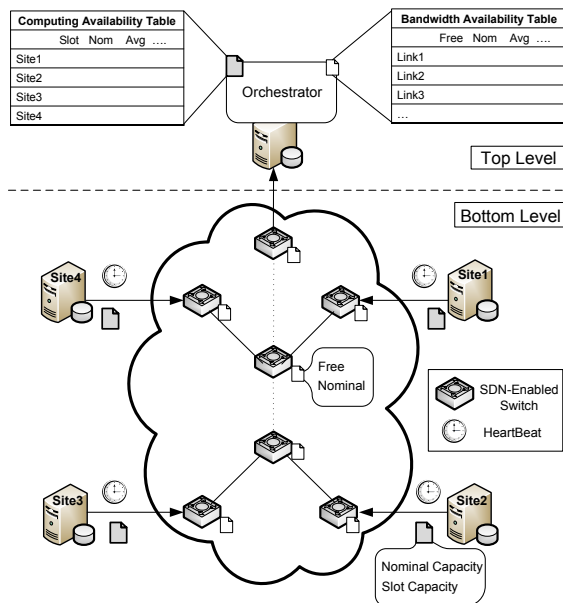


Figure 2: Context monitoring infrastructure.

As for the monitoring of the computing capacity, each site periodically advertises its capacity to the Orchestrator. Such capacity is expressed in teraFlops, and represents the overall computing capacity of the site for MapReduce purposes (overall nominal capacity). Further, we assume that sites enforce a computing capacity's allocation policy which reserves a given, fixed amount of capacity to any submitted MapReduce job. Since the amount of computing capacity potentially allocable to a single job (slot capacity) may differ from site to site, sites are also required to communicate that amount along with the overall nominal capacity. By using this information, the Orchestrator is able to build and maintain a *Computing Availability Table* that keeps track of every site's instant and future capacity, average capacity in time, and other useful historical statistics about the computing capacity. The available inter-site link capacity is instead "sensed" through a network infrastructure made of SDN-enabled (Open Networking Foundation, 2012) switches. Switches are capable of measuring the instant bandwidth occupied by incoming and outgoing data flows. The Orchestrator periodically enquires the switches to retrieve the bandwidth occupation that is then fed to a *Bandwidth Availability Table*, where statistics on the inter-site bandwidth occupation are reported.

Information contained in these two tables are extremely useful to the Orchestrator when it comes to elaborate an execution plan for a submitted job. The awareness of the underlying distributed computing context will guide the Orchestrator in defining a path which minimizes the overall job's makespan. The search for the path is committed to a scheduling system that is embedded in the Orchestrator. In the following section, details on the strategy implemented by the scheduling system are disclosed.

3.1 Job Scheduling System

Basically, the goal of the job scheduling system is to generate a number of possible execution paths, and to give each path a score. The path with the best score will eventually be chosen as the execution path to enforce. The calculation of the score for a given path consists in the estimation of the path's completion time; in the end, the path exhibiting the lowest completion time (best score) will be selected.

If it may appear clear that the sites' computing capacity and the inter-site bandwidth affect the overall path's completion time, some words have to be spent on the impact that the type of MapReduce application may have on that time. In (Heintz et al., 2014) authors introduce the expansion/compression factor α , that

represents the ratio of the output size of the Map phase to its input size. In our architecture focus is on the entire MapReduce process (not just the Map phase) that takes place in a site. Therefore we are interested in profiling applications as a whole. We then introduce a data **Compression factor** β_{app} , which represents the ratio of the output data size of an application to its input data size:

$$\beta_{app} = \frac{OutputData_{app}}{InputData_{app}} \quad (1)$$

The β_{app} parameter may be used to calculate the amount of data that is produced by a MapReduce job at a site, traverses the network and reaches the Global Reducer. Based on that amount, the data transfer phase may seriously impact on the overall top-level job performance. The exact value for β_{app} may not be a priori known (MapReduce is not aware of the application implementation). Section 3.2 will present an approximate function that provides a good estimate.

We adopt a graph model to represent the job's execution path. Basically, a graph node may represent either a data computing element (site) or a data transport element (network link). Arcs between nodes are used to represent the sequence of nodes in an execution path. A node is the place where a data flow arrives (input data) and another data flow is generated (output data). A node representing a computing element elaborates data, therefore it will produce an output data flow whose size is different than that of input; a node representing a data transport element just transports data, so input and output data coincide. Nodes are assigned an attribute that describes the **Throughput**, i.e., the rate at which node is capable of "processing" the input data. In the case of a *computing* node the throughput represents the speed at which the application's input data are actually processed, whereas in the case of a *transport* node the throughput coincides with the link capacity. Actually, the throughput of a *computing* node is the rate at which the node is capable of "processing" data when running that specific application. This parameter is strictly application bound, as it depends on how heavy is the type of computation requested by the application. Like for the β_{app} value, the exact Throughput value is not a priori known; Section 3.2 discusses a sample based procedure employed to derive the throughput of a *computing* node for a certain application.

Nodes are also characterized by the β_{node} attribute, which in the case of a *computing* node is an application-dependent parameter measuring the ratio between input data and output data (β_{app}), while in the case of a *transport* node it will assume the fixed

value 1 (in fact, a network link applies no data compression).

Arcs between nodes are labeled with a number representing the size of data leaving a node and reaching the next one. The label value of the arc connecting the j -th node with the $(j+1)$ -th node is given by:

$$DataSize_{j,j+1} = DataSize_{j-1,j} \times \beta_j \quad (2)$$

In Figure 3 an example of a branch made of two nodes and a connecting arc is depicted:

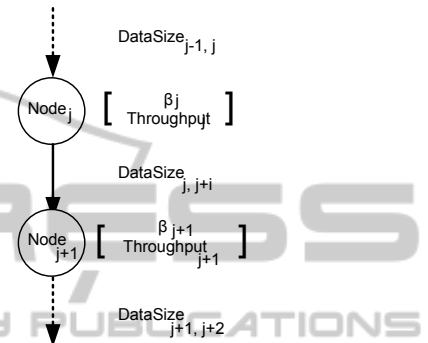


Figure 3: Nodes' data structure.

Next, for the generic node j we define the execution time as:

$$T_j = \frac{DataSize_{j-1,j}}{Throughput_j} \quad (3)$$

When a top-level job is submitted to the Master, the scheduling system is requested to search for the best execution path. The hard part of the scheduling system's work is the generation of all the potential execution paths, each of which is going to be modeled as a graph. The algorithm used to generate execution paths is discussed in Section 4. We now put the focus on how to calculate the execution time of a specific execution path.

Figure 4 depicts a scenario of seven distributed sites (S_1 through S_7) and a geographic network which interconnects the sites. One top-level job is requesting to run a MapReduce application on the data sets (5 GB sized each) located in the site S_5 and S_6 respectively. Let us assume that one of the execution-paths generated by the scheduling system involves the movement of data from S_6 site to S_3 , which will perform the bottom-level MapReduce sub-job. Data placed in site S_5 , instead, will be processed by the site itself; this case does not require any data transfer. The Global reduce of the partial results produced by local MapReduce sub-jobs will be executed in the node S_1 (so partial results will have to move to that site before the reducing occurs).

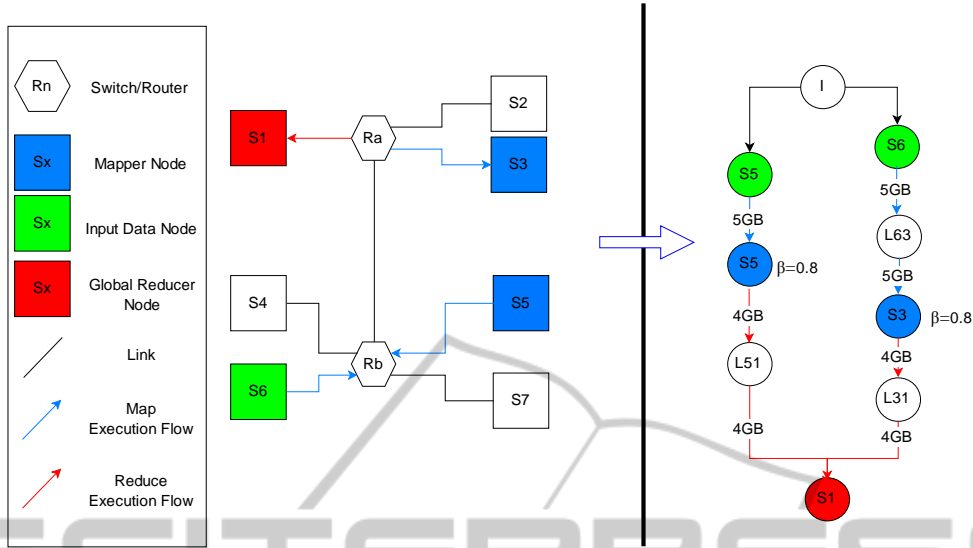


Figure 4: Example of graph modeling an execution path.

In the right part of the picture the graph that models the execution-path for the just discussed configuration is represented. Basically, a graph has as many branches as the number of bottom-level MapReduce. Branches are independent from each other's and execute in parallel. Every branch starts at the node I (initial node) and ends at the Global reducer's node. Next to node I is the node where the data set interested by the MapReduce computation initially resides. In the example, the graph is composed of two branches. The left branch models the elaboration of data initially residing in the node S_5 , that are map-reduced by node S_5 itself, and results are finally pushed to node S_1 (the Global reducer) through link L_{51} . Similarly, on the right branch data residing in node S_6 are moved to node S_3 through link L_{63} , are map-reduced by node S_3 and results are pushed to node S_1 through link L_{31} .

We define the execution time of a branch to be the sum of the execution times of the nodes belonging to the branch; note that the Global reducer node's execution time is left out of this sum. In particular, for the left and the right branches of Figure 4 the execution times will be respectively:

$$T_{left} = \frac{5}{Throughput_{S_5}} + \frac{4}{Throughput_{L_{51}}}$$

$$T_{right} = \frac{5}{Throughput_{L_{63}}} + \frac{4}{Throughput_{S_3}} + \frac{4}{Throughput_{L_{31}}}$$

So in general, the execution time of a branch is expressed as:

$$T_{branch} = \sum_{j=1}^{N-1} \frac{DataSize_{j,j+1}}{Throughput_{j+1}} \quad (4)$$

being N the number of nodes in the branch.

Next we calculate the execution time for the Global reducer node. The data pushed to that node is the sum of the data coming from the two branches. In the example, the execution time is given by:

$$T_{GR} = \frac{4 + 4}{Throughput_{S_1}}$$

So generalizing, the execution time of the Global reducer is given by the summation of the sizes of the data sets coming from all the branches over the node's estimated throughput. Let $DataSize(K)_{N-1,N}$ be the data size of the k -th branch reaching the Global reducer node. The execution time for the Global reducer will be:

$$T_{GR} = \frac{\sum_{K=1}^P DataSize(K)_{N-1,N}}{Throughput_{GR}} \quad (5)$$

being P the total number of branches in the graph. Finally, the overall execution time estimated for the specific execution path represented by the graph is defined as the sum of the Global reducer's execution time and the maximum among the branches' execution times:

$$T_{path} = \max_{1 \leq K \leq P} (T(K)_{branch}) + Throughput_{GR} \quad (6)$$

In this formula we are assuming that the global reduce phase will start as soon as the slowest (i.e., the one with the highest execution time) branch has finished its execution.

The scheduling system can generate many job's execution paths. For each, the execution time is calculated. In the end, the best to schedule will be, of course, the one showing the lowest execution time.

3.2 Application Profiling

As mentioned earlier, both the computing node's Throughput, and the Compression factor β_{app} are two parameters strictly dependent on the type of application requested by the top-level job. The estimate of these parameters is determined by an application profiling procedure executed prior to the run of the job on the requested data. The adopted approach, that recalls the one proposed in (Jayalath et al., 2014), is to request sites that hold the data sets to run the job's application on a sample of data. The results will provide an estimate of the parameters that will be used by the scheduling system to calculate the best execution path for the job.

The estimate is performed on a reference machine having a computing power of 1 Gflops. Regarding the Throughput, the objective is to evaluate the nominal capability of a 1 Gflops machine to process the data sample. So, the *nominal Throughput* is obtained by dividing the sample data size by the data processing time; the *nominal* β_{app} , as well, is given by the ratio between the output result size and the input sample data size.

The nominal values obtained from the sites are adequately averaged, and will constitute the official estimate parameters for that specific application. In particular, when it comes to calculate the Throughput of a certain computing node of the graph (representing a site), that value is calculated by multiplying the *nominal Throughput* times the number of Gflops advertised by the node. This estimate makes the assumption that the Throughput is a linear function of the computing power.

4 EXECUTION PATHS GENERATION

The scheduling system is in charge of generating a number of potential execution paths for each top-level job that is submitted. The variables that impact on the generation of paths are the number of sites devoted to the running of MapReduce and the amount of data each of those sites will be assigned. The number of potential paths may be very huge (and thus very hard to compute in an acceptable time) if you consider that data sets targeted by an application might be fragmented at any level of granularity, and each fragment

might potentially be moved to any of the available sites for bottom-level computation.

We now formulate the problem of data fragmentation and discuss the combinatorial approach we adopted to generate the execution paths. Let us assume that n , m and D be the number of nodes, the number of mappers and the Application data size respectively. In order to limit the number of potential paths, the basic assumption we make is that all data fragments must have the same size, and that the number of data fragments must be equal to the number of sites available for computation ($N_{frag} = n$). The resulting fragment size will then be:

$$Frag_{size} = \frac{D}{n} \quad (7)$$

A node may be assigned zero, one or more fragments to work on. Our algorithm will schedule which nodes have to be appointed top-level mappers and how many data fragments to assign each Mapper. In order to generate all possible combinations of mappers and the related assigned data fragments, we leverage on the combinatorial and on the partition number theory (Andrews, 1976).

By the notation $P(n, m)$ we refer to the number of partitions of the integer number n in the order m , where m is the number of addends in which n is to be partitioned. For instance, $P(5, 2)$ is the number of partitions of the number 5 in 2 addends. It is easy to understand that $P(5, 2) = 2$ (being the two combinations $1 + 4$ and $2 + 3$). If we had to partition the number 5 in 3 addends we would obtain $P(5, 3) = 2$ (combinations $1 + 2 + 2$ and $1 + 3 + 1$). We are going to use this technique to guess the number of possible ways the data of an application may be partitioned into a bunch of fragments. So, in the case that we have 5 data fragments to distribute over 2 sites, two configurations are possible: 1) 1 fragment on one site, 4 fragments on the other one; 2) 2 fragments on one site, 3 on the other one. Generalizing, the overall number of partitions of a number n in all the orders $m=1, 2, \dots, n$ is:

$$P(n) = \sum_{m=1}^n P(n, m) \quad (8)$$

Of course, the fragment configuration tell us just the ways to "group" fragments for distribution, but the distribution phase complicates the problem, as there are many possible ways to distribute group of fragments among sites. In the example concerning the $P(5, 2)$, 1 fragment may go to *mapper1* (in *site1*) and 4 fragments may go to *mapper2* (in *site2*), or viceversa. So for the distribution of fragments we have to call on the partial permutation theory. The number of possible ways of placing m mappers in n nodes is:

$$D_{n,m} = \frac{n!}{(n-m)!} \quad (9)$$

In the end, the calculus of the **number of all the execution paths** for a certain application has to consider both the fragment distribution configuration (eq. 8) and the partial permutation of mappers (eq. 9):

$$N_{exepath} = \sum_{m=1}^n P(n,m) \times \frac{n!}{(n-m)!} \quad (10)$$

For example, in the case of $n=7$ the number of generated paths will be around 18.000. For $n=8$ more than 150.000 configurations were obtained. Treating the problem of the generation of execution paths as an integer partitioning problem allowed us to apply well known algorithms working in constant amortized time that guarantee acceptable time also on off-the-shelf PCs (Zoghbi and Stojmenovic, 1994). For each configuration generated by the algorithm, a corresponding graph is built. On each graph's node, parameters (computing capacity, link capacity, β) are then assigned. Finally the graph's execution time is computed.

5 CONCLUSION

The increasing rate at which data grow have stimulated through the years the search for new strategies to overcome the limits showed by legacy tools that have been used so far to analyze data. MapReduce, and in particular its open implementation Hadoop, has attracted the interest of both private and academic research as the programming model that best fit the need for coping with big data. In this paper we address the peculiar need to handle big data which by their nature are distributed over many sites geographically distant from each other. Plain Hadoop was proved to be inefficient in that context. We propose a strategy which inspires to hierarchical approaches prior presented in other literature's works. The strategy leverages on the partition number and the combinatorial theory to partition big data into fragments and efficiently distributes the workload among datacenters. With respect to previous works, this exploits fresh context information like the available computing and the inter-site link capacity.

REFERENCES

Andrews, G. E. (1976). *The Theory of Partitions*, volume 2 of *Encyclopedia of Mathematics and its Applications*.

- Dean, J. and Ghemawat, S. (2004). MapReduce: simplified data processing on large clusters. In *OSDI04: Proceeding of the 6th Conference on Symposium on operating systems design and implementation*. USENIX Association.
- Facebook (2012). Under the Hood: Scheduling MapReduce jobs more efficiently with Corona. <https://www.facebook.com/notes/facebook-engineering/under-the-hood-scheduling-mapreduce-jobs-more-efficiently-with-corona>.
- Heintz, B., Chandra, A., Sitaraman, R., and Weissman, J. (2014). End-to-end Optimization for Geo-Distributed MapReduce. *IEEE Transactions on Cloud Computing*, PP(99):1–1.
- Jayalath, C., Stephen, J., and Eugster, P. (2014). From the Cloud to the Atmosphere: Running MapReduce across Data Centers. *IEEE Transactions on Computers*, 63(1):74–87.
- Kim, S., Won, J., Han, H., Eom, H., and Yeom, H. Y. (2011). Improving Hadoop Performance in Intercloud Environments. *SIGMETRICS Perform. Eval. Rev.*, 39(3):107–109.
- Luo, Y., Guo, Z., Sun, Y., Plale, B., Qiu, J., and Li, W. W. (2011). A Hierarchical Framework for Cross-domain MapReduce Execution. In *Proceedings of the Second International Workshop on Emerging Computational Methods for the Life Sciences, ECMLS '11*, pages 15–22.
- Mattess, M., Calheiros, R. N., and Buyya, R. (2013). Scaling MapReduce Applications Across Hybrid Clouds to Meet Soft Deadlines. In *Proceedings of the 2013 IEEE 27th International Conference on Advanced Information Networking and Applications, AINA '13*, pages 629–636.
- Open Networking Foundation (2012). Software-Defined Networking: The New Norm for Networks. White paper, Open Networking Foundation.
- The Apache Software Foundation (2011). The Apache Hadoop project. <http://hadoop.apache.org/>.
- Yang, H., Dasdan, A., Hsiao, R., and Parker, D. S. (2007). Map-reduce-merge: Simplified relational data processing on large clusters. In *Proceedings of the 2007 ACM SIGMOD International Conference on Management of Data, SIGMOD '07*, pages 1029–1040.
- Zhang, Q., Liu, L., Lee, K., Zhou, Y., Singh, A., Mandagere, N., Gopisetty, S., and Alatorre, G. (2014). Improving Hadoop Service Provisioning in a Geographically Distributed Cloud. In *Cloud Computing (CLOUD), 2014 IEEE 7th International Conference on*, pages 432–439.
- Zikopoulos, P. and Eaton, C. (2011). *Understanding Big Data: Analytics for Enterprise Class Hadoop and Streaming Data*. McGraw Hill.
- Zoghbi, A. and Stojmenovic, I. (1994). Fast algorithms for generating integer partitions. *International Journal of Computer Mathematics*, 80:319–332.