Parallel LDA Through Optimized Synchronous

Communication Methods

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Abstract—Selecting an appropriate distributed processing framework can be difficult for developers building large-scale machine learning applications. That is because all these tools

**Data Parallelism**

**Global Model**

**Asynchronous Communication Synchronous Communication**

**Sample**

provide various kinds of parallelism patterns and suggest dif- ferent communication strategies to synchronize local and global model data distributed among parallel nodes. There is no clear

**Worker**

**Worker Worker Worker**

**Model Parallelism**

**a word**

**Sample a word**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Local Model** | **Local Model** |  | **Local Model** |  | **Local Model** |
| **Training Data 1** | **Training Data 2** |  | **Training Data 3** |  | **Training Data 4** |

**Sample a word**

**Send the word Send the word Send the word**

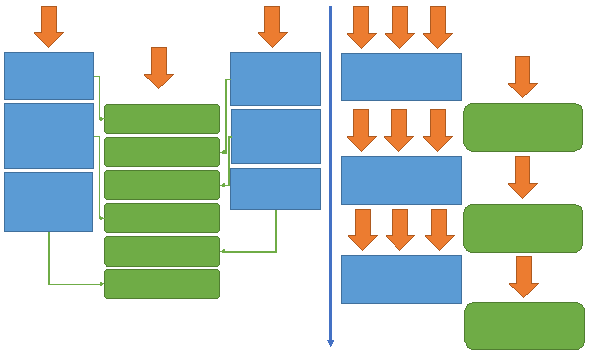
**Send the word**

**Sample**

**a word**

**Sample a word**

**Sample a word**



**Sample words**

**Sample words**

**Update words**

**Worker**

**Worker**

**Worker Worker**

**Update words**

answer to determine which strategy might be suitable depending

on the data and application. Taking Latent Dirichlet Allocation

**Global Model 1**

**Training Data 1**

**Global Model 2**

**Training Data 2**

**Global Model 3**

**Training Data 3**

**Global Model 4**

**Training Data 4**

**Send the word**

**Send the word**

**Sample words**

**Update words**

(LDA) as an example, contemporary implementations often

choose asynchronous communication methods to synchronize the model data. However, our observations show that the asyn-

**Model Data Update between**

**Parallel Workers or Client/Server**

(a)

**Global Model Rotation**

**Time**

**Threading Computation Communication**

(b)

chronous communication still has very high overhead and the characteristics of the LDA training datasets encourage us to use optimized synchronous collective communication methods instead. The results show that with data parallelism only, our

”lda-lgs” implementation can be (%) faster compared to Yahoo! LDA. With model parallelism, our ”lda-rtt” implementation has similar speed compared with Petuum LDA on a uni-gram model with 1 million words and 10k topics but (%) faster on a bi-gram model with 20 million words and 500 topics.

I. INTRODUCTION

One challenge of parallel machine learning applications is that while training data can be split into parallel workers, the model data that all local computations depend on is growing progressively and generates significant synchronization over- head. Currently two types of parallelism are used to solve this problem (see Fig. 1a):

Data Parallelism The global model is distributed on a set of servers or on existing parallel workers. Each worker samples on a local model and updates it through the synchronization between local models and the global model.

Model Parallelism In addition to using data parallelism, the global model data is split between parallel workers and rotated during the sampling.

In Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) [1], the model syn- chronization is important because a faster communication method not only reduces the resulting overhead, but also speeds up the model convergence rate, shrinks the model size, and shortens the computation time in later iterations. Though both synchronous and asynchronous methods (see Fig. 1b) can cause the model to converge without affecting the correct- ness of the algorithm, it is unclear which strategy performs better for LDA applications. Asynchronous communication is popular because it avoids the overhead of global waiting between parallel workers and that of local waiting between

Fig. 1. (a) Data Parallelism vs. Model Parallelism and (b) Asynchronous

Communication vs. Synchronous Communication in LDA

computation threads and communication threads. In data paral- lelism, asynchronous communication allows local computation to continue without waiting for the completion of updating the global model from all parallel workers per iteration. In model parallelism, though model rotation is synchronous, per word sampling and sending can still overlap without waiting on each worker, demonstrating asynchronous communication.

However, after studying the characteristics of LDA data, we have identified that the counts of each word in the training documents fall under the power-law distribution. As a result, when data parallelism is used, many words in the global model will display on all the workers’ local models, and this generates “one-to-all” communication patterns during the synchronization. Similarly, in model parallelism, as the size of the global model data expands, each worker needs to handle more data transference. These observations inspired us to apply routing optimized synchronous communication operations to improve the the LDA model update speed.

Our synchronous communication methods utilize the model data distribution characteristics and routing optimization in conjunction. Furthermore, we overlapped the computation and communication steps to reduce the overhead of the global/local waiting. These ideas are implemented in Harp [2], a collective communication library on Hadoop. Harp has already integrated several collective communication patterns from different par- allel processing frameworks in a unified abstraction. However, all the current patterns cannot abstract either the local/global model synchronization in data parallelism or the model ro- tation in model parallelism. As such, we abstracted three other communication patterns called “syncLocalWithGlobal”,

“syncGlobalWithLocal”, and “rotateGlobal” in which our new ideas are embedded. The new patterns are very general- izable so that they can be applied not only to LDA ap- plications but also to many other machine learning appli- cations. We implemented one LDA application which uses “syncLocalWithGlobal” and “syncGlobalWithLocal” to per- form data parallelism and another which uses “rotateGlobal” to perform model parallelism. We compared our implementations with other implementations based on asynchronous communi- cation methods, such as Yahoo! LDA [3] and Petuum LDA [4], on several datasets. The results show that optimized syn- chronous communication methods can reduce communication overhead and improve model convergence speed.

The following sections describe: the cost model of LDA algorithm (Section 2), the synchronous communication meth- ods (Section 3), the implementation of Harp-LDA (Section 4), the performance results of our implementation (Section 5), the related work on parallel LDA (Section 6), and our conclusions (Section 7).

II. COST MODEL

A. LDA model

LDA is a generative probabilistic data modeling technique. Training data are abstracted as a document collection where each document is a bag of words. LDA models the data by introducing latent topics, which tries to capture the underlining semantic connections and structures inside the data. In LDA model, a document is a mixture of latent topics, and each topic is a multinomial distribution over words. In the generative process, for document j, we first draw a topic distribution θj from a Dirichlet with parameter α. Then for each word i in this document, we draw a topic zij = k from the multinomial distribution with parameter θj . Finally, word xij is drawn from a multinomial φwk|k=zij , which also derives from a Dirichlet with parameter β. Here, the words xij are observed variables, θ, φ, z are latent variables, and α and β are hyper parameters.

The purpose of LDA inference is to compute the posterior distribution of the latent variables given the observed vari- ables. There are many approximate inference algorithms. In a practice on large data, Collapsed Gibbs Sampling (CGS) [5] displays high scalability. Collapse is a procedure used to integrate out θ,φ and sample only the latent variables z. Gibbs Sampling is one kind of Markov Chain Monte Carlo algorithm for inference. There are three phases, the initialization, burn- in, and stationary phase.

In initialization, each word is initialized by a random topic denoted as zij . Then it begins to reassign topics to each word wij according to the conditional probability of zij , which is henceforth called sampling.

of word w assigned to topic k, and Nkj is the count of topic k assigned in document j, which are sufficient statistics for the latent variable θ and φ. The latent variables can be represented by three matrices Zij , Nwk and Nkj , which are model data. Intuitively, by equation(1), with higher probability a word will be assigned to the topic that has been assigned to it’s co- occurring words. Therefore, sampling by the latest model data of co-occurring words is critical for convergence, and that is why synchronization is so important in a parallel LDA trainer.

Hyper parameters α and β are also called concentration parameters, which control the topic density in the final model. The larger the α and β, the more topics can be drawn into a document and assigned to a word, and the more non-zero cells in each row of the Nwk and Nkj matrices. Although a useful LDA trainer often has the feature of α and β optimization dynamically tuned to fit the training data, in this paper, we skip such a feature and use symmetric α and β both fixed to a common used value 0.01 to exclude the complex effects on performance caused by their dynamics.

Latent variables will gradually converge in the process of iterative sampling. This is the phase where burn-in occurs and finally reaches the stationary state. From that point, we can draw samples from the sampling process and use them to calculate the posterior distribution.

To evaluate the quality of the final model learned by LDA, held-out testsets are often used, taking likelihood or perplexity as the accuracy metrics. In this paper, we only use the model data likelihood on the training dataset to monitor the convergence of the LDA trainer, which is consistent with the held-out testset results in our experiments, only much faster.

Sampling on zij in CGS is a strictly sequential process. AD-LDA [6] is the seminal work allowing us to relax this se- quential sampling requirement. It assumes that the dependence between one topic assignment zij and another zij is weak in that different words in different documents are sampled concurrently. In AD-LDA, training data are partitioned into n subsets, with n Gibbs Samplers running parallel on each collection, and each sampler synchronizing its model data with others at certain time points. This parallel version produces a useful model, establishing the foundation of large-scale parallel CGS implementations of LDA trainers on large-scale data in practice.

B. Performance Factors

Many factors are related to the performance of a LDA

trainer.

p zij = k | z¬ij , x, α, β ∝

N ¬ij + β

N ¬ij + α

kj

Sampling Algorithm Computation complexity of a sam- pling algorithm basically determines the overall performance.

Pw N ¬

wk

ij

wk + V β

(1)

Although there is a O(1) sampling algorithm, LightLDA [7],

proposed in the literature, we focus on SparseLDA [8], which

Here, superscript ¬ij means that the corresponding word is

excluded in the counts. V is vocabulary size. Nwk is the count

is an optimized CGS sampling algorithm mostly used in the state-of-the-art LDA trainers, in order to make a broader

comparison. SparseLDA splits the equation (1) into three parts:

sampling the training data. In synchronization, one iteration is

N ¬ij

¬ij

¬ij

one pass to synchronize all the model data. As we described

wk (Nkj + α) + β ∗ Nkj + αβ

ij

p (zij = k | rest) ∝

Pw N ¬

wk + V β

above, both parts are highly related to the model data size,

not in terms of the matrix dimension but the non-zero items

(2) count.

The denominator is a constant when sampling on one word. The third part of the numerator is also a constant; the second part is non-zero only when Nkj is non-zero, and the first part is non-zero only when Nwk is non-zero. In naive CGS sampling, the conditional probability will compute K times, while in SparseLDA, the computation can be decreased to non-zero items number in Nwk and Nkj , which are much smaller than K on average.

We found that in practice, the sampling performance is more memory bounded than computation bounded, for the computation is very simple and memory access to two large

C. Model Data

Model Size Power law distribution is a general phe- nomenon. It has another equal form for text data as Zipf’s law, where the frequency of a word is proportional to the reciprocal of its rank.

f req(i) = C ∗ i−λ (3) Here, i is word rank, and λ is near 1.

There are a total of V unique words in the training data.

We then have:

matrices is not by its nature cache friendly. Furthermore, V V

CGS has a feature of exchangeability that permits the order

W = X(f req(i))) = X(C ∗ i−λ )

of word sampling to be changed. In practice, sampling can take the order by row or column on the document-word

i=1

i=1

1

matrix. Equation(2) is the form optimized for row order, called sample-by-doc. In this case, Nkj can be cached for the words in the same row, and the computation complexity in terms of

amortized random memory access time is O(Pk ✶(Nwk =

0)). Symmetrically, sample-by-word will have the complexity of O(Pk ✶(Nkj = 0)).

Parallelism Strategy Data partition on the training data, which is a document-word matrix, can be done either in the rows or the columns. If data are partitioned by rows, each subset data has its local z, Nkj , Nwk model data and only Nwk needs to be synchronized with others. In general applications, the row number is much larger than the column number, so

≈ C ∗ (ln(V ) + γ + 2V ) (4)

If λ is 1, this is the partial sum of harmonic series which have logarithmic growth, where γ is the EulerMascheroni constant

≈ 0.57721.

Model data, V ∗ K , is a very large but sparse matrix. In a

general setting, V is 1M, K is 1K, while for big models it can

even reach 1M\*1M. The non-zero cell count of the matrix is the true model size, denoted as S, S << V ∗ K .

In the initialization of CGS, word-topic count matrix is initialized by random topic assignment for each work. So the word i will get max(K, f req(i)) non-zero cells. If f req(J ) = K , J = C/K , we get:

partition by rows will generate a smaller model data size. We J V J J

only refer to the shared word-topic matrix as model data.

Sinit = X K +

X f req(i) = W − X f req(i) + X K

There are many possible communication strategies which

i=1

i=J +1

i=1

i=1

control how to do model data synchronization between parallel

workers. Modern clusters allow two levels of parallelism: inter- node and inner-node parallelism. In this paper, we focus on inter-node parallelism by exploring the differences between the communication strategies.

Cluster configurations include nodes number N and net-

working bandwidth B, memory size M for each node, and thread number T for each node. As many-core technology brings forth more powerful machines to bear complicated computation applications, large-scale machine learning appli- cations will benefit. Relatively small numbers of N with a large number of T can reach high scale parallelism, which is more like a traditional HPC cluster than a cloud cluster.

Data Property Training data can be characterized by the

total numbers of tokens, denoted as W , and the number of documents, denoted as D. The model data Nwk is a V ∗ K matrix and Nkj is a D ∗ K matrix, where V is the vocabulary

size and K is the topic number.

LDA is an iterative algorithm. It keeps sampling on the training data and updating (synchronizing) the model data until it converges. In computation, one iteration is one pass on

= C ∗ (lnV + lnK − lnC + 1) (5)

The true model size Sinit is logarithmic to matrix size V ∗

K . This does not mean Sinit is small, for the constant C =

f req(1) can be very large; even C ∗ ln(V ∗ K ) can be huge.

An increase of dimension in the model will not increase the

model data size dramatically.

With the progress of iterations and algorithm convergence, the model data size will shrink. The concentration parameters α and β control the final sparsity of the topic distribution. When a stationary state is reached, the average count value will drop to a certain small constant ratio of K , with the constant δ determined by the properties of the training data itself. Sf inal = mean(word − topiccount) ∗ V = δ ∗ K ∗ V (6)

Model Data Partition After training data is partitioned to each node of the cluster, a local model data S0 will be built up

and used in local computation. This local model data should synchronize with global model data S frequently to make the training process converge. In fact, the synchronization frequency is highly relevant to the final model accuracy.

1010

109

108

107

Word Frequency

106

105

104

103

102

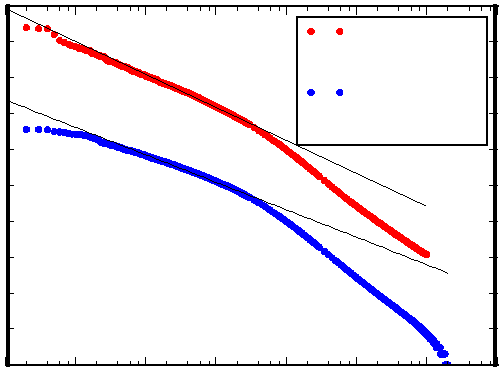
101

100

clueweb

y = 109.9 x−0.9

enwiki



y = 107.4 x−0.8

1.2

1.0

Vocabulary Size of Partition (%)

0.8

0.6

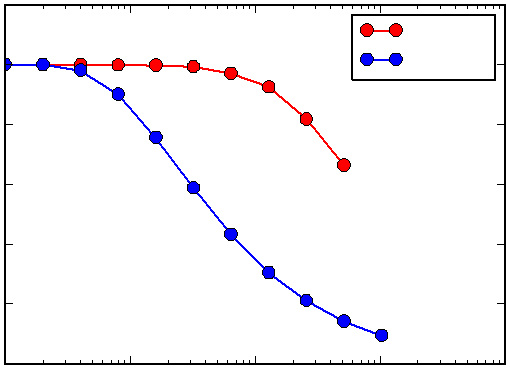
0.4

0.2

0.0

clueweb

enwiki



with high frequency. In the preprocess step for the LDA trainer, stop words and low frequency words are often removed. This results in a flatter slope and a denser model than expected from equation(5). In Fig. 2b, we represent the difficulty of controlling the vocabulary size by random partition of docu- ment collection. When 10 times more partitions are introduced, there is only a sub-linear portion decrease of the vocabulary

100 101 102 103 104 105 106 107

Word Rank

(a)

100 101 102 103 104

Document Collection Partition Number

(b)

size in each partition compared to the total one; e.g. on the

“clueweb” dataset, each partition gets 92.5% vocabulary size

Fig. 2. Model Size of (a) Zipf’s Law and (b) Vocabulary and Data Partition

This data partition strategy can decrease local training data W 0 linear to node number N . Therefore, we get W 0 = W/N . For computations proportional to the total word number W 0,

this strategy is friendly to computation, and the more nodes we have, the better performance we can expect. Assuming

when data is randomly distributed to 128 nodes. The “enwiki”

dataset is about 12 times smaller than “clueweb”, and it gets

90% at 8 nodes, keeping a similar ratio. This figure shows that local models will not be of the same size as the global one, though not much smaller.

III. SYNCHRONOUS COMMUNICATION METHODS

Past research has shown that collective communication op-

C 0 = C/N , the actual local model size S0

init

is:

erations are indispensable in iteration-based machine learning

algorithms. Chu et al. [9] mentions that many machine learn-

Sinit = C 0

0

∗ (lnV 0

+ lnK − lnC 0

+ 1)

ing algorithms can be implemented in MapReduce systems

C

≤ N (lnV + lnK − lnC + 1 + lnN )

[10]. The underlying principle of this conclusion is that each iteration in the algorithm is dependent on the synchronization

S C of the local models computed on each worker at the last

≤ N + N lnN (7)

In general configurations lnN is smaller than lnV + lnK −

iteration. However, MapReduce systems only provide a fixed

“shuffling” communication pattern. Thus, in Harp, a separate

N

lnC + 1, so local model size S0

init

is no more than 2 Sinit .

collective communication abstraction layer provides a set of

The initialized local model data size is controllable by data

partition.

When model data synchronization begins, all words in the local vocabulary need to fetch the corresponding global model

data. The local vocabulary size V 0 will then determine both

the communication data volume and local model size in the burn-in phase, which becomes the problem.

It is clear that when documents are partitioned to N nodes, every word with a frequency larger than N will get a high probability occurring on each node. If at rank L,

f req(L) = N , we get: L = W . On the “enwiki”

(lnV +γ)∗N

dataset, W =1B, V =1M, N =100, we get L = 0.69V ; on the

“clueweb” dataset, W =10B, V =1M, N =100, L > V . For a reasonably large training dataset, L should be easily larger than V , which means it will send/receive and hold almost all the global model data locally.

In sum, we conclude that because the power law distribution of data exists, general data parallelism can help distribute training data among nodes and parallelize the computation tasks accordingly, but it cannot effectively control the volume of the model data movements between nodes. When dealing with larger data and larger models, simply deploying more nodes will not prove an effective solution, for model data synchronization will eventually become a bottleneck.

D. Experiments

We first validate Zipf’s law of word distribution on “clueweb” and “enwiki” datasets, where the top 1M most frequent words are selected (see Fig. 2a). They both show considerable matching results, especially in the word region

data abstractions and related collective communication opera-

tion abstractions.

For LDA, both data parallelism and model parallelism benefit from optimized synchronous communication methods. In data parallelism, “one-to-all” communication patterns play a crucial role in the synchronization to enable the optimization of the communication performance with collective commu- nication operations. In model parallelism, using collective communication can maximize bandwidth usage between a worker and its neighbors in shifting the model partitions.

A. The Abstraction Of Global/Local Data Synchronization

Considering the sparsity of the local model data distribution on workers, the collective communication optimization, and the existing collective communication abstractions in Harp, we added two other data abstractions and related new collective communication operations.

The two types of data abstractions are the global table and the local table. The concept “table” has been defined in previous Harp collective communication abstractions [2]. Each table may contain one or more partitions, and the tables defined on different workers are associated in order to manage a distributed dataset. In global tables, each partition has a unique ID and represents a part of the whole distributed dataset; but in local tables, partitions on different workers can share the same partition ID. Each of these partitions sharing the same ID is considered a local version of a partition in the full distributed dataset.

We defined three communication operations on global tables and local tables, with the first two being paired operations.

First, “syncGlobalWithLocal” uses the data in local tables to synchronize the data in global tables. This operation will reduce the partitions from local tables to the global table.

**lda-lgs**

**(use syncLocalWithGlobal**

**& syncGlobalWithLocal)**

**lda-rtt**

**(use rotateGlobal)**

Secondly, “syncLocalWithGlobal” uses the data in global tables to synchronize local tables. Based on the needs of partitions in local tables, this operation will redistribute the partitions in the global table to local tables. If one partition is required by all the workers, it will be broadcasted.

Lastly, “rotateGlobal” will consider workers in a ring topol- ogy and shift the partitions in the global table owned by one worker to the right neighbor worker and then receive

the partitions from the left neighbor. When the operation is

**Worker**

**3 Sync**

**Global**

**Model 1**

**Local**

**Model**

**2**

**Compute**

**4**

**Worker**

**3 Sync**

**Global**

**Model 2**

**Local**

**Model**

**2**

**Compute**

**Worker**

**3 Sync**

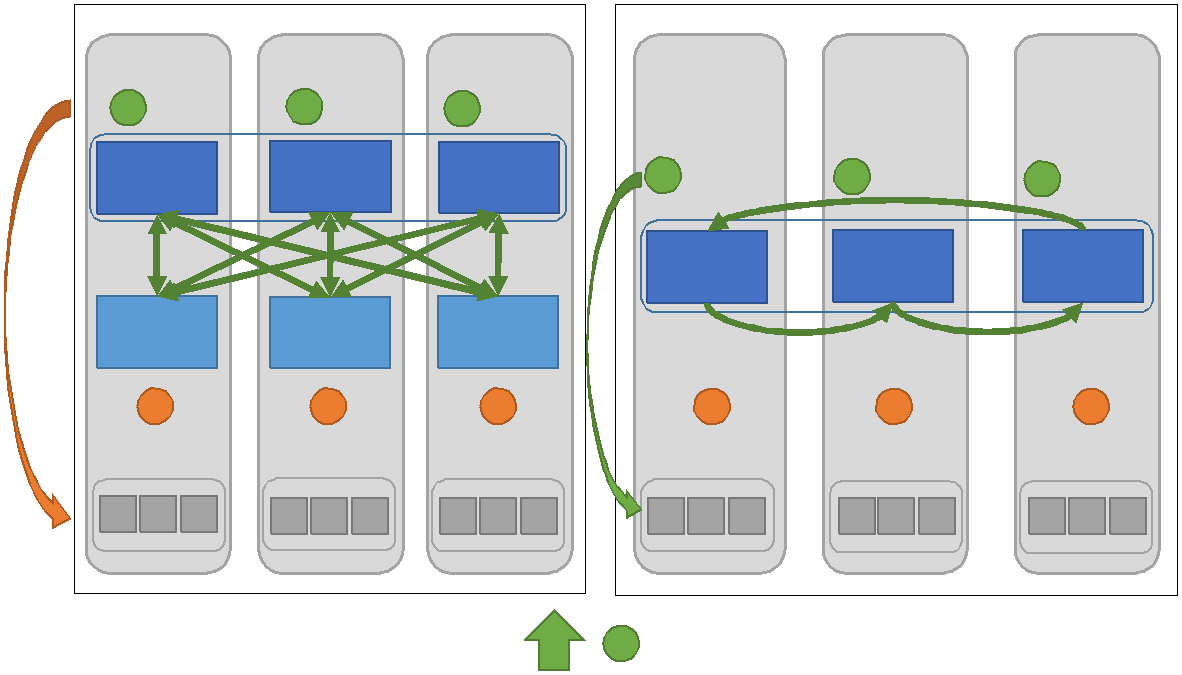
**Global**

**Model 3**

**Local**

**Model**

**2**



**Compute**

**Worker**

**3 Rotate**

**Global**

**Model 1**

**2**

**Compute**

**Worker**

**3 Rotate**

**Global**

**Model 2**

**2**

**Compute**

**Worker**

**3 Rotate**

**Global**

**Model 3**

**2**

**Compute**

completed, the contents of the distributed dataset in the global tables won’t change, but each worker will hold a different set of partitions. Since each worker only talks to its neighbors,

**Iteration**

**1 Load**

**Training Data**

“rotateGlobal” can transmit global data in parallel without any network conflicts.

B. The Applicability of Synchronous Communication Methods

“syncGlobalWithLocal” and “syncLocalWithGlobal” are abstracted from data parallelism, and “rotateGlobal” is ab- stracted from model parallelism. However, these operations are not limited to the communication patterns in parallel LDA. Instead, they can be applied to many other machine learning algorithms with big model data.

A matrix can be drawn to describe each worker’s require- ments on the global model data in the parallel computation per iteration. In this matrix, each row represents a worker, each column represents a global data partition, and each element shows the requirements of the partition in the lo- cal computation. Based on the density of this computation relation matrix, we can choose proper operations in different applications. If the matrix is dense, we suggest using the “rotateGlobal” operation. Using k-means clustering as an example, the global model data are the centroids, and the local computation needs all the centroids data. Thus “rotateGlobal” allows each worker to access all the centroids data effi- ciently. If the matrix is sparse, using “syncGlobalWithLocal” and “syncLocalWithGlobal” is a superior solution. For ex- ample, in graph algorithms such as PageRank, the global model data are the vertices’ page-rank values and counts of out-edges. The local computation goes through each edge and calculates the partial result of the new page-rank val- ues. Then “syncGlobalWithLocal” can be used to update global page-rank values. In the next iteration, we can use “syncLocalWithGlobal” to fetch the new global page-rank values to each local computation.

IV. HARP-LDA IMPLEMENTATION

A. Partition Training Data And Initialize Model Data

For the training data, we split the documents into files evenly. For the model data, since words with high frequency can dominate the computation and communication, we parti- tion the global model based on the frequency of words in the training dataset. During the preprocessing of the training data, each word is given an ID based on their frequency starting

Fig. 3. Internode Parallelism (data loading hstep 1i and iteration hstep 4i are common procedures for both implementations)

from 0. The lower the occurrence of the word, the higher the ID. Then we partition the words’ topic counts using range- based partitioning. Assuming each partition contains m words,

Partition 0 contains words with IDs from 0 to m − 1, and

Partition 1 contains words with IDs from m to 2m − 1, and

so on. As a result, the partitions with low IDs contain the

words with the highest frequency. The initial global model is generated by randomly assigning each token to a topic and aggregated through “syncGlobalWithLocal”. The mapping between partition IDs and worker IDs is calculated based on the modulo operation. Assuming there is a worker with ID w among a total of N workers, the partitions contained on this worker are Partition w, Partition w + N , Partition w + 2N , and so on. In this way, each worker contains a number of words whose frequencies rank from high to low.

B. Inter-node Parallelism

During iterations of the sampling, we use two different approaches to update the global model which results in two im- plementations (See Fig. 3). One implementation, named “lda- lgs”, follows data parallelism and uses “syncGlobalWithLocal” paired with “syncLocalWithGlobal” operations. The other im- plementation, named “lda-rtt”, follows model parallelism and uses “rotateGlobal” operation.

During the sampling of “lda-lgs”, each worker updates the local model and tracks the difference generated in another table. Once the sampling is done, “syncGlobalWithLocal” operation is used to update the global model with the changes of the local model. “syncLocalWithGlobal” operation is then used to download new local model data from the updated global table. At the end of the iteration, the sum of word counts for each topic is calculated with “allreduce” operation [11].

In “lda-rtt”, each worker will first conduct sampling with the global model partitions owned by itself and update them directly. Then it will call “rotateGlobal” operation to send the updated model data to the right neighbor and receive model

partitions from the left neighbor. Once all partitions of the global model are received and processed, the sampling of one iteration is completed. Similar to “lda-lgs”, “allreduce” operation is used at the end of the iteration to update the global sum of word counts on all topics.

C. Overlap Communication with Computation

Synchronous communication methods are often criticized for generating much overhead and making all workers wait for the completion of synchronization. We approached this problem in three steps. The first step is to balance the communication load on each worker through partitioning the global model based on word frequencies. The second step is to improve the speed with optimized collective communication. Here we discuss the third step, which is overlapping compu- tation and communication in execution.

In “lda-rtt”, we slice the global model partitions held on each worker into two sets. Slicing is conducted by first sorting the partition IDs in ascending order and then assigning the partitions to the two slices in alternate order. As a result, each slice will contain words with both high and low frequencies. During the sampling, when a worker finishes processing the first slice, it uses another thread to rotate this slice and simultaneously continues processing the second slice. Once the second slice is processed, the first slice may be ready for further processing. Once both slices have finished a round of rotation, the sampling of an iteration is completed. The overlapping between computation and communication occurs when the worker processes one slice and rotates another slice at the same time.

In “lda-lgs”, we split the local data table into two slices. During the sampling, when each worker samples a slice, it requests another thread to synchronize the other slice through “syncLocalWithGlobal” and “syncGlobalWithLocal” operations. We map partitions based on their IDs into slices so that local partitions with the same IDs are guaranteed to be synchronized in iterations.

D. Inner-node Parallelism

In Harp-LDA, we use the “Computation” component to manage multi-threading sampling within one worker. The sampling process follows a SparseLDA algorithm and can be performed in two ways. One approach is to go through each document and sample the topics of every token. The other approach is to go through each word and sample the topics for word occurrences in each document. To keep the sam- pling order consistent between implementations for unbiased performance comparisons in future experiments, we sample topics by documents in “lda-lgs” as Yahoo! LDA and sample topics by words in “lda-rtt” as Petuum LDA. Note that when sampling topics by words, we balance the computation load by assigning words to threads based on their frequencies.

The local model is shared between threads. When sampling topics by documents, the word-topic model is required to access with locks. Symmetrically, when sampling topics by words, the document-topic model is required to access with

locks. We provide a read lock and a write lock on each document/word’s topic count map. Before sampling, a token’s document/word topic counts are read out, and after sampling, the updates are written back. If the next token for sampling is the same word, the sampling thread will keep using the thread local cached topic counts to avoid repeating fetching the shared data. During the update, we separate “updating an existing topic entry” and “adding a count to a new topic entry”. In “updating an existing topic entry”, because the map structure is not altered during updating and reading a primitive integer is an atomic operation in modern x86 architecture, it is safe to execute “read” and “update” concurrently with a shared read lock. However, in order to ensure the correctness of the topic count values, “update” operations are still required to be exclusive. In the operation of “adding a count to a new topic entry”, since the map structure is modified, we have to use a write lock.

Though the concurrency is greatly improved, our current implementation is still slower compared with Yahoo! LDA and Petuum in the first iteration of sampling. This could be caused by the difference in the implementation language (Java/C++) and the performance of the data structure (primitive int based hashmap [12]/primitive int array). As many-core architecture is becoming more common, high performance concurrent sam- pling with many-threads is a challenge to all implementations. However, in this paper our aim is not to provide the fastest LDA implementation but to show the advantages of using syn- chronous communication methods in LDA model convergence compared with asynchronous communication methods.

V. EXPERIM ENTS

A. Experiment Settings

Experiments are done on the Juliet cluster [13], which contains 32 18-core 72-thread nodes and 96 24-core 48-thread nodes. All the nodes have 128GB memory and are connected with two types of networks: 1Gbps Ethernet (eth) and 16Gbps Infiniband (ib). For testing, we use 31 18-core nodes and 69

24-core nodes to form a cluster of 100 nodes with 40 threads each for computation. Most tests are done with Infiniband through IPoIB support unless otherwise specified.

Several datasets are used (see Table I). The total number of model parameters is kept as 10 billion on all datasets. α and β are both fixed at 0.01. We test several implementations (see Table II) on these datasets. We compare synchronous communication methods with asynchronous communication methods on both model parallelism and data parallelism. By studying the convergence speed and execution time, we learned how the difference in communication methods affects the performance of LDA.

B. Convergence Speed Per Iteration

First, we compare the convergence speed of the LDA word- topic model on iterations by analyzing model results learned on iterations 1, 10, 20, 30... 200. It is fair to use iterations to measure the performance of model convergence because it does not consider the performance difference in execution.

TABLE I

TR A I N I N G DATA SE T T I N G S US E D IN TH E EX P E R I M E N T S

−0.5 ×10

11

−0.6

−0.7

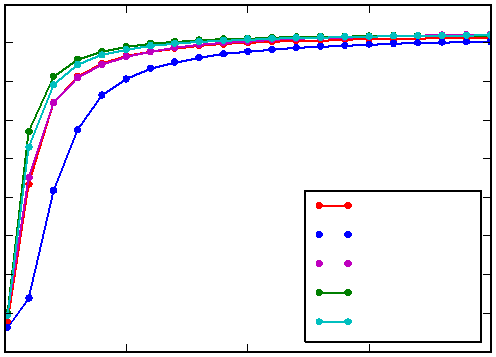
Model Likelihood

−0.8

−0.9

−1.0

lgs-opt



−0.5

−0.6

−0.7

Model Likelihood

−0.8

−0.9

−1.0

×1010

−1.1

−1.2

−1.3

Yahoo!LDA

rtt Petuum lgs-opt-4s

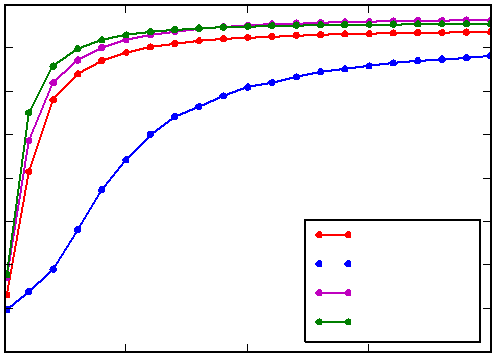
−1.1

−1.2

lgs-opt

Yahoo!LDA

rtt



Petuum

−1.4

0 50 100 150 200

Iteration Number

(a)

−1.3

0 50 100 150 200

Iteration Number

(b)

Note: Both “enwiki” and “bi-gram” are English articles from Wikipedia. “clueweb” is a 10% dataset from ClueWeb09, which is a collection of English web pages [14]. “gutenberg” is comprised of English books from Project GutenBurg [15].

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Dataset | enwiki | clueweb | bi-gram | gutenberg |
| Num. of Docs | 3.8M | 50.5M | 3.9M | 26.2K |
| Num. of Tokens | 1.1B | 12.4B | 1.7B | 836.8M |
| Vocabulary | 1M | 1M | 20M | 1M |
| Doc Len.  AVG/STD | 293/523 | 224/352 | 434/776 | 31879/42147 |
| Lowest Word  Freq. | 7 | 285 | 6 | 2 |
| Num. of Topics | 10K | 10K | 500 | 10K |
| Init. Model Size | 2.0GB | 14.7GB | 5.9GB | 1.7GB |

TABLE II

LDA IM P L E M E N TAT I O N S US E D IN TH E EX P E R I M E N T S

Note: Our implementations are indicated in bold.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| DATA PARALLELISM | |
| lgs | - “lda-lgs” impl. with no routing optimization  - Slower than “lgs-opt” |
| lgs-opt | - “lgs” with routing optimization  - Faster than Yahoo! LDA on “enwiki” with higher model likelihood |
| lgs-opt-4s | - “lgs-opt” with 4 rounds of model synchronization  per iteration; each round uses 1/4 of the training data  - Performance comparable to Yahoo! LDA on  “clueweb” with higher model likelihood |
| Yahoo!  LDA | - Master branch on GitHub [3] |
| MODEL PARALLELISM | |
| rtt | - “lda-rtt” impl.  - Speed comparable with Petuum on “clueweb” but  4 times faster on “bi-gram” and “gutenbuerg” |
| Petuum | - Version 1.1 [4] |

On the “clueweb” dataset (see Fig. 4a), Petuum has the highest model likelihood on all iterations. Though “rtt” also uses model parallelism, due to its preference of using the thread-local data and not the up-to-date local shared model, the convergence speed is slower. “rtt” and “lgs-opt” have similar convergence speeds, and their lines on the chart are overlapped. In contrast to “lgs-opt”, the convergence speed of “lgs-opt-4s” is as high as Petuum. This shows that increasing the rounds of model synchronization thereby increases the convergence speed. Yahoo! LDA has the slowest convergence speed because asynchronous communication does not guaran- tee a full model synchronization in a iteration.

On the “enwiki” dataset (see Fig. 4b), as before, Petuum achieved the highest accuracy out of all iterations. “rtt” converges to the same model likelihood level as Petuum at iteration 200. “lgs-opt” demonstrates slower convergence speed but still achieved high model likelihood, while Yahoo! LDA has both the slowest convergence speed and lowest model likelihood at iteration 200.

All these results show that when the model update rate is increased (either using the model parallelism or using multiple-rounds model synchronization in data parallelism), the model converges faster.

Fig. 4. Model Convergence of (a) “clueweb” And (b) “enwiki” On Iterations

C. Performance Analysis on Data Parallelism

We compare the model convergence speed on “lgs” and Yahoo! LDA by injecting the real execution time on iterations. On the “clueweb” dataset, we first show the convergence speed based on elapsed execution time (see Fig. 5a). Yahoo! LDA needs more time to obtain the model result of iteration 1 due to its slow model initialization. Since model initialization is mainly communication rather than computation and cannot be overlapped with sampling, Yahoo! LDA has a sizable overhead on the communication end. In later iterations, though “lgs” converges faster, Yahoo! LDA catches up after 30 iterations. This observation can be explained by our slower concurrent sampling speed and the fact that we only allow one round of model synchronization per iteration, while Yahoo! LDA does not have this restriction and allow multiple instances of synchronization whenever possible. Our computation takes quite long and the network is often in an idle state, therefore, we can increase the rounds of model synchronization per iteration. Although the execution time of 200 iterations for “lgs-opt-4s” is still slightly longer than Yahoo! LDA, it obtains higher model likelihood and maintains faster convergence speed in the whole execution.

Due to the slowness of the local concurrent sampling, our

implementations show much higher iteration execution time at the first iteration compared with Yahoo! LDA (see Fig.

5b). However, with optimized synchronous communication methods, we quickly reduced the difference in execution time compared with Yahoo! LDA. Similar results are also shown on the “enwiki” dataset. “lgs-opt” not only achieves higher model likelihood but also has faster model convergence speed throughout the whole execution (see Fig. 5d). Though our execution time at iteration 1 is twice as slow as Yahoo! LDA, later on it takes less execution time per iteration than Yahoo! LDA (see Fig. 5e). Yahoo! LDA only exceeds “lgs-opt” when both models converge to a similar likelihood level.

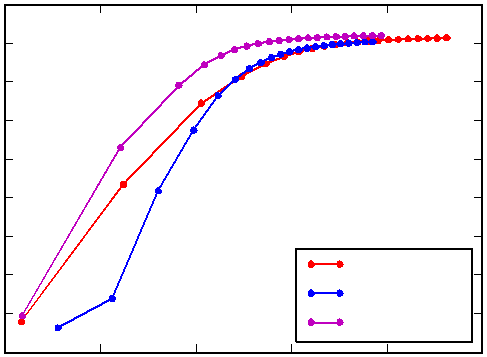
In addition, we examined the effectiveness of using routing

optimization in our “lgs” solution. Fig. 5c and Fig. 5f show that on Ethernet, “lgs-opt” is obviously faster than “lgs”; with Infiniband, due to its high bandwidth, the performance is very close to one another.

D. Performance Analysis on Model Parallelism

Here we compare “rtt” and Petuum on 3 different datasets: “clueweb”, “bi-gram”, and “gutenburg”. Since both implemen-

−0.5 ×10



11

−0.6

−0.7

Model Likelihood

−0.8

−0.9

−1.0

−1.1

−1.2

−1.3

lgs-opt Yahoo!LDA lgs-opt-4s

800

700

ExecutionTime Per Iteration (s)

600

500

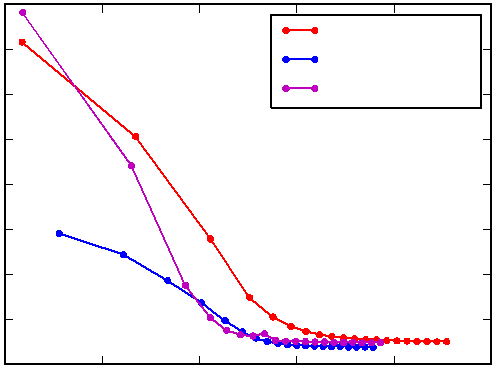
400

300

200

100

lgs-opt-iter Yahoo!LDA-iter lgs-opt-4s-iter



30000

25000

Overall Execution Time (s)

20000

15000

10000

5000

24618

26294

23140

23283

lgs-opt

−1.4

0 5000 10000 15000 20000 25000

Execution Time (s)

(a)

0

0 5000 10000 15000 20000 25000

Execution Time (s)

(b)

lgs

0

1Gbps-Ethernet 16Gbps-Infiniband

(c)

−0.5 ×10

10

−0.6

−0.7

Model Likelihood

−0.8

−0.9

−1.0

−1.1

−1.2

80

70

ExecutionTime Per Iteration (s)

60

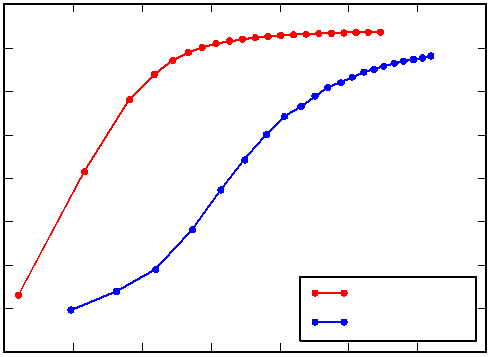
50

40

30

20

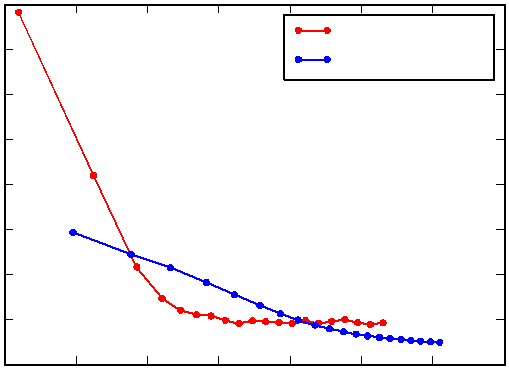
lgs-opt



10

Yahoo!LDA

lgs-opt-iter



Yahoo!LDA-iter

4500

4000

3500

Overall Execution Time (s)

3000

2500

2000

1500

1000

500

3330

4264

2732

2849

lgs-opt

−1.3

0 500 1000 1500 2000 2500 3000 3500

Execution Time (s)

(d)

0

0 500 1000 1500 2000 2500 3000 3500

Execution Time (s)

(e)

lgs

0

1Gbps-Ethernet 16Gbps-Infiniband

(f)

Fig. 5. Performance comparison on data parallelism between “lgs” and Yahoo! LDA (a) Elapsed Execution Time vs. Model Likelihood on “clueweb” (b) Elapsed Execution Time vs. Iteration Execution Time on “clueweb” (c) Total 200-Iteration Execution Time with Routing Optimization vs. without Routing Optimization on “clueweb” with ib/eth (d) Elapsed Execution Time vs. Model Likelihood on “enwiki” (e) Elapsed Execution Time vs. Iteration Execution Time on “enwiki” (f) Total 200-Iteration Execution Time with Routing Optimization vs. without Routing Optimization on “enwiki” with ib/eth

−0.5 ×10

11

−0.6

300

250 57

ExecutionTime Per Iteration (s)

rtt-compute rtt-overhead

35

10 11

30 10 10

3 3

ExecutionTime Per Iteration (s)

9 10 9 9

3 3 3

10 10

3

250

200

rtt-compute

rtt-iter

−0.7

Model Likelihood

−0.8

200

Petuum-compute

Petuum-overhead

3

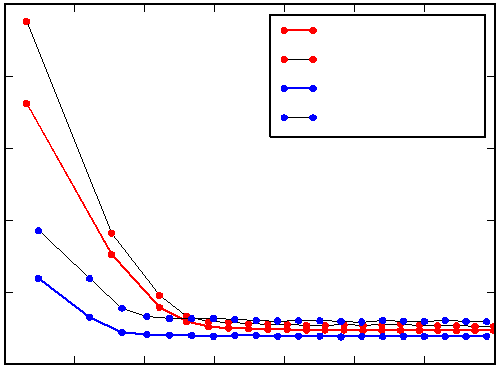
25

2

2 3

Petuum-compute

Petuum-iter



ExecutionTime Per Iteration (s)

23 23 23 23 23 23 23 23 23 23

−0.9

150

181

23

21

20 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19

150

131 18

19

−1.0

18

112

121 116

17 15

18

100

100

16

15

−1.1

100 33

30

92

85

rtt-compute

~~2~~8  ~~3~~2

~~2~~9

80 10

29 31

−1.2

59 54 52

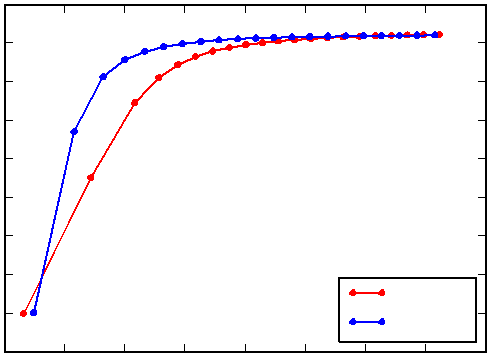
~~2~~9

~~3~~0 26

rtt-overhead

50

rtt



50

~~5~~0

~~4~~8

~~4~~4

~~4~~2

Petuum-compute

−1.3

Petuum

39

~~3~~6

~~3~~5

5

Petuum-overhead

−1.4

0 1000

2000 3000 4000 5000

Execution Time (s)

(a)

6000 7000

8000

0

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Iteration

(b)

0

191 192 193 194 195 196 197 198 199 200

Iteration

(c)

0

0 1000 2000 3000 4000 5000 6000 7000

Execution Time (s)

(d)

−1.7 ×10

10

120 1 10

100

86 86 86

86 87

88

120

−1.8

−1.9

Model Likelihood

100

~~7~~1

ExecutionTime Per Iteration (s)

80

87

84

82

81

86 86 85

ExecutionTime Per Iteration (s)

102

84

82

80

84

81

83

100

ExecutionTime Per Iteration (s)

80

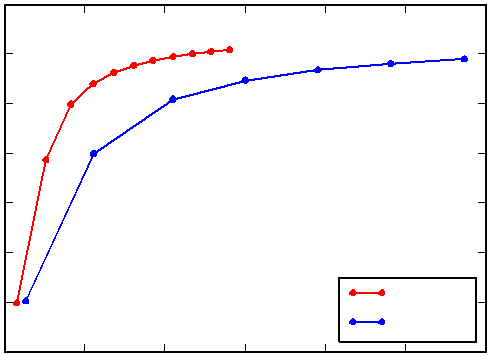
−2.0

−2.1

−2.2

−2.3

rtt



60

38

40

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Iteration |  |  |  | Iteration |  |
| 140 | (f) |  | 14 |  | (g) | 140 |

28

20 16

31 36 36

29

rtt-compute

rtt-overhead Petuum-compute Petuum-overhead

27

25 25 25

60 rtt-compute

rtt-overhead

60

Petuum-compute

40 Petuum-overhead

40

21

21

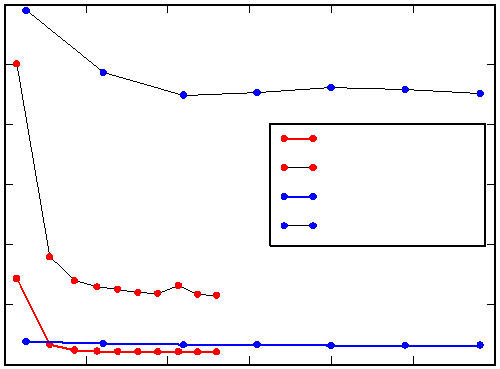
19 20 19 19 19 19 19 20

20

20

rtt-compute

rtt-iter



Petuum-compute

Petuum-iter

Petuum

7 7

12 11 10

7 7 6 9 6 8 6 7 6 7 6 6 6

6

~~6~~  6  ~~6~~

~~6~~

6  ~~6~~   ~~6~~

6

6

−2.4

0 1000 2000 3000 4000 5000 6000

Execution Time (s)

(e)

0

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4

0

53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62

0

0 1000 2000 3000 4000 5000 6000

Execution Time (s)

(h)

−5.5 ×10

9

−6.0

−6.5

120

ExecutionTime Per Iteration (s)

100

80

9

108

90

85

73 75

rtt-compute rtt-overhead Petuum-compute Petuum-overhead

65

61

rtt-compute

5 5

5 5

12 rtt-overhead

Petuum-compute

10

Petuum-overhead

8

5

6

5

5 5 6

120

100

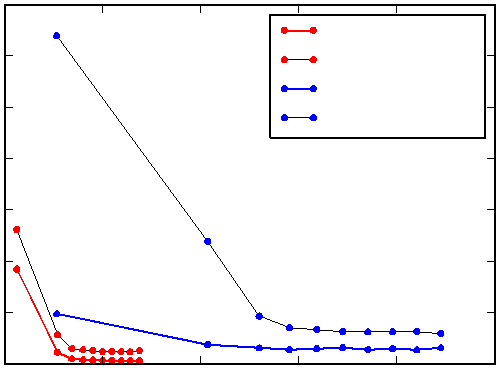
80

rtt-compute

rtt-iter

Petuum-compute

Petuum-iter



−7.0

60

15

57

54

49 6

ExecutionTime Per Iteration (s)

6

6 6 6 6 6 6 6

5 60

ExecutionTime Per Iteration (s)

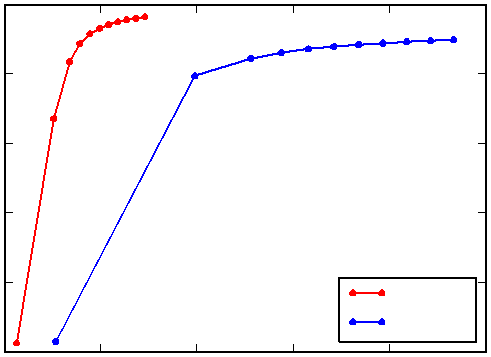
3 3 5

3

−7.5

Model Likelihood

rtt



40 36

24

~~8~~

~~8~~

~~8~~

3 3 3 3 3 3 3

4 40

20 19 17 20 16

8 8

7

2 20

15 14 12 11

7 7

1 1  ~~1~~   ~~1~~   ~~1~~

~~1~~   ~~1~~   ~~1~~   ~~1~~   ~~1~~

Petuum

−8.0

0 500 1000 1500 2000 2500

Execution Time (s)

(i)

14 12

8 9 8 8

7

10 10

5

0

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

(j)

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  | Iteration |  |

0

91 92 93 94 95 96 97 98 99 100

Iteration

(k)

0

0 500 1000 1500 2000 2500

Execution Time (s)

(l)

Fig. 6. Performance comparison on model parallelism between “rtt” and Petuum (a) Elapsed Execution Time vs. Model Likelihood on “clueweb” (b) First

10 Iteration Execution Times on “clueweb” (c) Final 10 Iteration Execution Times on “clueweb” (d) Elapsed Execution Time vs. Iteration Execution Time on “clueweb” (e) Elapsed Execution Time vs. Model Likelihood on “bi-gram” (f) First 10 Iteration Execution Times on “bi-gram” (g) Final 10 Iteration Execution Times on “bi-gram” (h) Elapsed Execution Time vs. Iteration Execution Time on “bi-gram” (i) Elapsed Execution Time vs. Model Likelihood on “gutenburg” (j) First 10 Iteration Execution Times on “gutenburg” (k) Final 10 Iteration Execution Times on “gutenburg” (l) Elapsed Execution Time vs. Iteration Execution Time on “gutenburg”

tations use model parallelism, the performance difference is caused by the execution speed per iteration.

On the “clueweb” dataset, the execution times after 200 iterations were similar between both implementations, and they achieved similar model likelihood (see Fig. 6a). The first 10 iterations show that “rtt” has high computation time compared with Petuum (see Fig. 6b), however, its overhead on communication per iteration becomes lower than Petuum. When the execution arrives at the final 10 iterations, while computation overhead per iteration in “rtt” is still higher, the whole execution time per iteration becomes lower (see Fig.

6c). The trend of the iteration execution time on 200 iterations is shown in Fig 6d.

Unlike our “rotateGlobal” operation which batches trans- mission of model data partitions, Petuum sends model data word by word asynchronously, causing high communication overhead. On the “bi-gram” dataset, the results show that Petuum cannot perform well when the number of words in the model increases. The high overhead in communication causes the convergence speed to be very slow, and Petuum cannot even continue executing after 60 iterations due to a memory outage (see Fig. 6e). Fig. 6f and Fig. 6g show that in the first/final 10 iterations, Petuum consistently has higher execution time per iteration compared with “rtt”. The trend of the iteration execution time on 200 iterations also shows this phenomenon (see Fig. 6h).

Though the data size of “gutenburg” is similar to “enwiki”, it is clear that there is a difference in execution speed per iter- ation (see Fig. 6i). High standard deviation indicates that the iteration execution time per worker varies significantly. Unlike the results on “bi-gram” where Petuum’s performance suffers from the communication overhead, here it suffers from waiting for the slowest worker. The high iteration execution time may be explained by “gutenburg” containing many long documents and thereby resulting in unbalanced training data distribution on the workers. In addition, when sampling by words, frequent access to the shared huge doc-topic model leads to inefficient concurrent sampling. “rtt” is not much affected because it prefers using thread-local data in concurrent sampling and balances per-thread computation through assigning words to threads based on the frequencies. Fig. 6j, Fig. 6k, and Fig.

6l display that the unbalanced computation in Petuum results in high overhead per iteration. In model parallelism, model rotation is a synchronous operation; therefore, this experiment demonstrates that unbalanced computation on workers causes huge overhead in global waiting and results in high iteration execution time. In sum, when applying synchronous commu- nication methods, the computation load should be carefully balanced.

VI. RELATED WORK

Prior research has studied the parallelization of the LDA algorithm extensively. Some studies focused on using the Collapsed Variational Bayes (CVB) algorithm [1]. Mahout LDA [16] and Spark LDA [17] both use this algorithm.

TABLE III

LDA WO R K US I N G CGS AL G O R I T H M

Note: “D. P.” refers to Data Parallelism. “M. P.” refers to Model

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| App. Name | Algorithm | Parallelism | Comm. |
| PLDA | CGS (sample by docs) | D. P. | allreduce  (sync) |
| Dato | CGS (sample by doc-  word edge) | D. P. | GAS  (sync) |
| Yahoo! LDA | CGS (SparseLDA &  sample by docs) | D. P. | client-  server  (async) |
| Peacock | CGS (SparseLDA &  sample by words) | D. P. (M. P. in local) | client-  server  (async) |
| Parameter  Server | CGS (combined with other methods) | D. P. | client-  server  (async) |
| Petuum 0.93 | CGS (SparseLDA &  sample by docs) | D. P. | client-  server  (async) |
| Petuum 1.1 | CGS (SparseLDA &  sample by words) | M. P. (include  D. P.) | ring/star  topology  (async) |

Parallelism.

However, research also shows that this approach leads to high memory consumption and slow convergence speed [6][18].

Other studies use the CGS algorithm (see Table III). PLDA [19] is such an implementation. There are two versions of PLDA, one based on MPI [20] using the “allreduce” operation [11], and the other based on on MapReduce[10][21] using “shuffle” operation.

Yahoo! LDA [22][23] uses the CGS algorithm with SparseLDA optimization, and its architecture is client-server with asynchronous communication. Local models are dis- tributed in the star model, and local computation threads use optimized locking mechanisms when accessing the shared lo- cal model. The synchronization between local models and the global model is done through asynchronous delta aggregation. Dato [24] uses the GAS model [25] to implement the LDA algorithm [26]. Currently, it uses a CGS algorithm without SparseLDA optimization. GAS model’s edge-based computation patterns cause the training data to be partitioned based on document-word pairs instead of the documents. As a result, during the sampling process, both the topic counts of words and documents have to be gathered and updated. This results in additional communication costs in synchronization. Peacock [18] uses a hierarchical distributed architecture

to organize the LDA computation. The first layer uses the SparseLDA algorithm with a lock-free parallel strategy to exploit local model parallelism. The design of this layer is similar to “rotateGlobal” but differs by sending documents to where the model locates rather than rotating model partitions between documents. The second layer also uses client-server architecture with asynchronous communication.

Parameter Server [27] and Petuum [28] both provide a framework to allow programming machine learning algorithms in client-server architecture with “push” and “pull” operations. Parameter Server puts the global model on servers and uses range-based “push” and “pull” operations for synchronization.

These operations allow workers to update a row or a segment of parameters directly and provides a chance to batch the com- munication of model updates. The computation of Parameter

DAL grant.

REFERENCES

Server’s LDA implementation uses a combination of stochastic variational methods, collapsed Gibbs sampling, and distributed gradient descent. Another operation of Petuum, “schedule”, allows model parallelism through scheduling model partitions to workers. Lee et al. [29] describes that the communication to fetch model data goes between clients and servers, but in the real code on GitHub [4], workers are actually directly sending data to neighbors with optimized routing.

VII. CONCLUSION

Through experiments on several datasets, we showed that synchronous communication methods perform better than asynchronous methods on both data parallelism and model parallelism. In data parallelism, our implementation with syn- chronous communication methods resulted in faster model convergence and higher model likelihood at the final iteration compared to Yahoo! LDA using asynchronous communication methods. In model parallelism, our implementation with syn- chronous communication methods also showed significantly lower overhead than Petuum LDA. On “bi-gram” dataset, the total execution time of “rtt” is four times faster than Petuum. Even though the computation speed of the first iteration is

2- to 3-fold slower on “clueweb” dataset, the total execution time of “rtt” remains similar with Petuum. These results prove that with optimized synchronous communication methods, we can increase the model update rate, allowing the model to converge faster, shrinking the model size, and further reducing the computation time in later iterations.

In general, despite the implementation differences in per- formance between “rtt”, “lgs”, Yahoo! LDA, and Petuum LDA, the advantages of synchronous communication methods are obvious. Compared with asynchronous communication methods, synchronous communication methods can optimize routing between a set of parallel workers and maximize bandwidth utilization in point-to-point communication. Syn- chronous communication methods may result in global/local waiting. However, since the word frequencies in the LDA training data is under the power-law distribution and a con- siderable amount of words have high frequencies, balancing the computation on all parallel workers is feasible, and the overhead of waiting is not as high as speculated. The chain reaction set off by improving the LDA model update speed amplifies the benefit of using synchronous communication methods.

In future work, we will focus on improving inner-node model synchronization speed in many-core systems to pro- vide a high performance LDA implementation and apply our model synchronization strategies to other machine learning algorithms facing difficulties in handling big model data.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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hadoop,” in IC2E, 2015.

[3] “Yahoo! LDA.” [Online]. Available: https://github.com/sudar/Yahoo

LDA

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