

Parallel Data Mining on Multicore Systems

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Abstract

The ever increasing number of cores per chip will be accompanied by a pervasive data deluge whose size will probably increase even faster than CPU core count over the next few years. This suggests the importance of parallel data analysis and data mining applications with good multicore, cluster and grid performance. This paper considers data clustering, mixture models and dimensional reduction presenting a unified framework applicable to bioinformatics, cheminformatics and demographics. Deterministic annealing is used to lessen effect of local minima. We present performance results on 8-core systems identifying effects from cache, runtime fluctuations, synchronization and memory bandwidth.

1. Introduction

There are many important trends influencing scientific computing. One is the growing adoption of the eScience paradigm which emphasizes the growing importance of distributed resources and collaboration. Another is the data deluge with new instruments, sensors, and the Internet driving an exponential increase of data and the associated data information knowledge wisdom pipeline which itself derives more bytes to worry about as in the results of simulations [1]. Multicore chips are challenging because they require concurrency to exploit Moore's law whereas the improved architectures and increasing clock speed of the last 15 years has allowed dramatic performance increase within a well established fixed (sequential) programming paradigm [2-4]. Understanding the data deluge is an important problem in all areas of computing from eScience to the commodity computing such as home PC's that are the main driver of the semiconductor industry. Thus we posit that it is important to look at data analysis and data mining and derive efficient multicore implementations. We would

like these to be relevant for both eScience and commodity applications. The former could involve data from high throughput instruments used in Life Sciences. The latter includes the analysis of environmental and surveillance monitors or the data fetched from the Internet that could characteristic a user's interests. The RMS (Recognition, Mining, Synthesis) analysis from Intel [5, 6] identified data mining and gaming as critical applications for multicore chips. Scientific data is likely to be so voluminous that we need any implementation to work well on clusters of multicore chips with preferably the same programming model for the inter-chip as well as the intra-chip parallelism. On the other hand commodity applications might well not need cluster implementations but probably would prefer thread-based runtimes involving managed code – Java or C#. In most cases the data is likely to be distributed and so good Grid compatibility is an important requirement. High performance (scientific) computing has never had very sophisticated programming environments as the field is not large enough to support a major commercial software activity. Multicore could change the situation because of its broad importance but we then need a scientific computing programming model that is based on one applicable to commodity systems.

Table 1. Machines used

AMD4: HPxw9300 workstation, 2 AMD Opteron CPUs Processor 275 at 2.19GHz, L2 Cache 2x1MB (for each chip), Memory 4GB, XP Pro 64bit and Server 2003
Intel8a: Dell Precision PWS690, 2 Intel Xeon CPUs E5320 at 1.86GHz, L2 Cache 2x4M, Memory 8GB, XP Pro 64bit
Intel8b: Dell Precision PWS690, 2 Intel Xeon CPUs x5355 at 2.66GHz, L2 Cache 2X4M, Memory 4GB, Vista Ultimate 64bit and Fedora 7
Intel8c: Dell Precision PWS690, 2 Intel Xeon CPUs x5345 at 2.33GHz, L2 Cache 2X4M, Memory 8GB, Redhat

Our work is performed on a variety of two CPU multicore systems defined in table 1 with a total of 4 or 8 cores and running variants of Linux and Windows operating systems.

In the following section we briefly discuss our programming model and refer the reader to other papers [10-12] for more details. In section 3, we discuss the data mining algorithms investigated and give some overall performance results. In section 4, we identify the key features of the application structure and the implications for the parallel run time. The performance is investigated in more detail in the following sections, 5 for cache and 6 for memory bandwidth effects. Section 7 has conclusions.

2. Programming Model

The trends discussed in the introduction motivate the SALSA (Service Aggregated Linked Sequential Activities) [7] at the Community Grids Laboratory. SALSA is exploring a set of data mining applications implemented in parallel on multicore systems. This is implemented in managed code C# with parallel synchronization from a runtime CCR (Concurrency and Computation Runtime) developed at Microsoft Research [13, 14]. CCR supports both MPI style synchronization and the dynamic threading essential in many concurrent commodity applications. Further there is a service model DSS (Decentralized System Services) built on top of CCR [15]. CCR is a possible choice of runtime that could bridge between scientific and commodity applications as it supports the key concurrent primitives used in both of them. SALSA proposes that one builds applications as a suite of services [8, 9] rather than traditional subroutine or class libraries. The service model allows one to support integration within grid, cluster and inter-chip environments. Thus SALSA is exploring a possible future application (data mining) on multicore chips using a programming model that could be used across a broad set of computer configurations and could be the basis of a programming model that links scientific computing to commodity applications. We note that we program in a low level style with user responsible for explicit synchronization in the fashion that is familiar from MPI. There certainly could be general or domain specific higher level environments such as variants of automatic compilation, OpenMP, PGAS or even the new languages from Darpa's HPCS program [6, 16]. Our work can still be relevant as it uses a runtime that is a natural target for such advanced high-level environments.

A critical question for any system that spans multiple different domains is performance; integration of multiple paradigms is not so helpful unless the performance is reasonable in each paradigm. In previous papers [10-12], we have discussed CCR and DSS and given some core performance measurements that are encouraging. Here we focus on a broader set

of applications and discuss in more detail their structure and performance. We see they have a classic loosely synchronous structure [26] and require synchronization similar to that provided by MPI. We explicitly compared [12] the performance of CCR with MPI for a typical "exchange" pattern where each thread (process for MPI) exchanges information with its neighbors in a ring topology. In our implementations, we are however using threads and not processes as the "parallel unit". This approach brings some challenges with efficient use of cache but allows good use of shared memory and link to familiar commodity programming models. We note that our work uses Windows operating systems with Linux only used for (MPI) comparisons [11, 12]. We briefly note how our results extend to Linux and other languages besides C# in section 7.

3. Data mining

In this paper we focus on a set of data mining algorithms given by a common formalism [31], which is defined by a function F given in Equation (1) in terms of N data points $\underline{X}(x)$ labeled by x .

$$F = -T \sum_{x=1}^N a(x) \ln Z(x) \text{ where} \quad (1)$$

$$Z(x) = \sum_{k=1}^K g(k) \exp[-0.5(\underline{X}(x) - \underline{Y}(k))^2 / (Ts(k))]$$

Eqn. (1) covers clustering [17-19], Gaussian mixtures [22, 23] with or without annealing and the GTM dimensional reduction method. We look at clustering with deterministic annealing (DA) and GTM in this paper. F is either directly a cost function C to be minimized (negative of log likelihood) or in annealing methods $C-TS$, the "free energy" where T is a temperature and S is the Shannon Entropy [19]. Unlike simulated annealing, DA involves no Monte Carlo but rather optimizes (1) iteratively as temperature T is varied from high to low values. DA improves on the well known K-means clustering algorithm [20]. For DA clustering, the variables in (1) are given by:

$$a(x) = 1/N, g(k)=1, s(k) = 0.5 \quad (2)$$

and T is temperature decreased to 1 by some schedule. DA finds K cluster centers $\underline{Y}(k)$ where K is initially 1 and is incremented by algorithm as T decreases.

In this paper we also look at a second class of algorithms given by (1); namely dimensional scaling or the derivation of a set of vectors \underline{v}_i in a metric space where the distance between vectors i and j is given by a known discrepancy function δ_{ij} . Here δ_{ij} may come from the distance between points i and j in another

vector space or be a discrepancy derived from an algorithm like BLAST comparing sequences in bioinformatics. In particular, we look at a powerful algorithm GTM (Generative Topographic Mapping) developed in [21] and often used to map from high dimensional spaces to two or three dimensions for visualization. This is illustrated in fig. 1 showing the 2D GTM projection of a cheminformatics problem with two different labels showing the mapping of two deterministic annealing clusters found by applying (2) implemented in parallel (for DA and GTM) to points x corresponding to different chemical compound defined by properties in 155 dimensions.

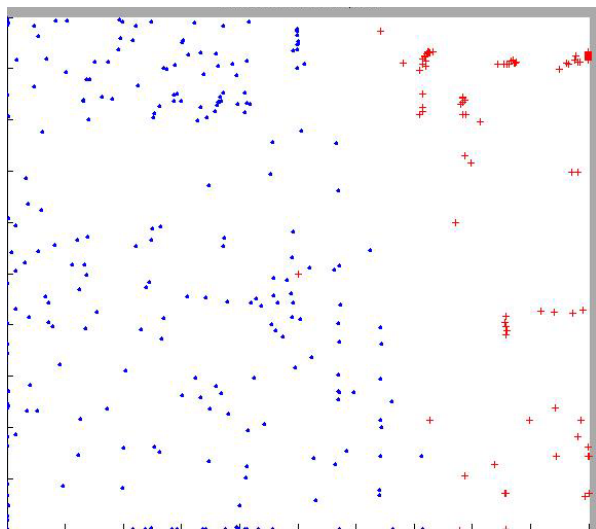


Figure 1. GTM Projections for 2 clusters found by DA in space of 155 Chemical Properties labeled as . or +

GTM is closely related to SOM (Self Organizing Maps) and one of several dimensional scaling algorithms [31] whose parallel implementation we will discuss in further papers. In equation (1), GTM corresponds to:

$a(x) = 1$; $g(k) = (1/K)(\beta/2\pi)^{D/2}$ where space D dimensional; $s(k) = 1/\beta$; $T = 1$ and β and \underline{W}_m are varied for fixed K , $\underline{L}(k)$, and M below. $\underline{L}(k)$, $\underline{\lambda}$ and $\underline{\mu}_m$ are vectors in the latent (2D) space.

$$\underline{Y}(k) = \sum_{m=1}^M \underline{W}_m \phi_m(\underline{L}(k)) \text{ with fixed } (3)$$

$$\phi_m(\underline{\lambda}) = \exp(-0.5(\underline{\lambda} - \underline{\mu}_m)^2 / \sigma^2) \quad (4)$$

The solution of (1) is implemented by a variation of the Expectation Maximization (EM) algorithm [22]:

$$\underline{Y}(k) = \sum_{x=1}^N \underline{X}(x) \Pr[\underline{X}(x) \in C(k)] / \sum_{x=1}^N \Pr[\underline{X}(x) \in C(k)] \quad (5)$$

$$\Pr[\underline{X}(x) \in C(k)] = \exp[-0.5(\underline{X}(x) - \underline{Y}(k))^2 / T] / Z(x) \quad (6)$$

written for the case of DA clustering (GTM is similar but more complicated) where new values of cluster centers $\underline{Y}(k)$ are calculated iteratively from probabilities of x belonging to cluster $C(k)$. Note these algorithms are attractive as they combine the guaranteed decrease of F each iteration characteristic of EM with the avoidance of local minima coming from DA. The annealing in temperature corresponds to a multiscale approach with $T^{1/D}$ as a distance scale. The formalism described above involves several well understood algorithms but we believe that their integration and parallelization is novel. Further the value of annealing which determines the number of clusters or the number of mixture components as a function of T is not very broadly recognized.

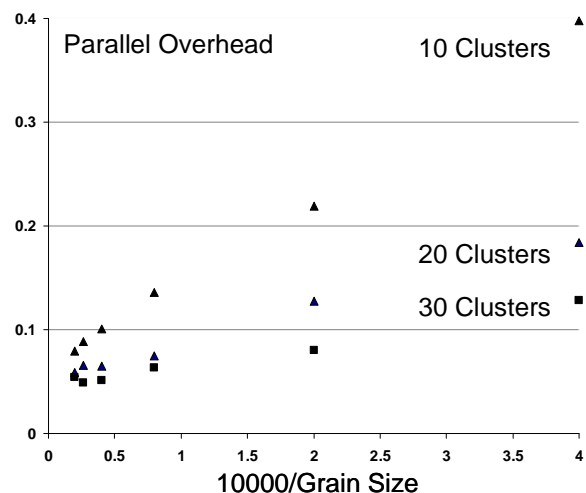


Figure 2. Parallel Overhead for GIS 2D DA Clustering on Intel8b using C# with 8 threads (cores) and CCR Synchronization. We use three values (10, 20,30) for the number of clusters and plot against the reciprocal of the number of data points per thread

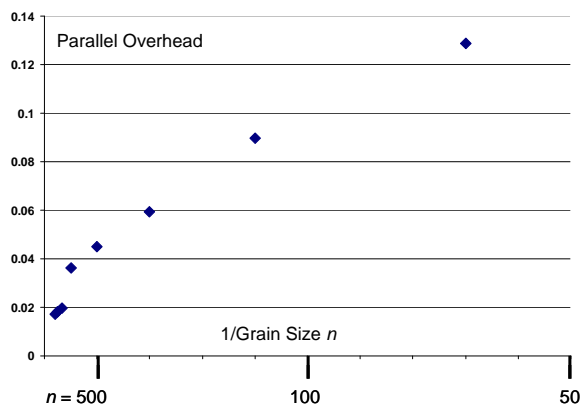


Figure 3. Total Parallel Overhead on Intel8b plotted against $8/N$ for GTM using $M=256$ and $K=4096$

Initial results on the parallel performance of DA clustering are shown in figure 2 for runs on the 8 core Intel machine labeled Intel8b in table 1. The figure shows that DA has a parallel overhead [18] that decreases asymptotically like $1/\text{grain size}$ as the data set increases. Here grain size n is the dataset size N divided by the number of processors (cores) which is here 8. Putting $T(P)$ as the execution time on P cores, we can define:

$$\text{Overhead } f = (PT(P) - T(1))/T(1) \quad (7)$$

$$\text{Efficiency } \varepsilon = 1/(1+f) = \text{Speedup } S(P)/P \quad (8)$$

Thus the overhead of 0.05 seen for large n in fig. 2 corresponds to an excellent speedup of 7.6. The results for GTM in fig. 3 show even smaller overheads even at small grain size due to the substantial additional computation (matrix multiplication and equation solving) in this case. In section 5, we emphasize that much of the critical overhead in multicore parallel code is not synchronization but rather due to interference between cores in the memory subsystem.

In some approaches GTM is used for both clustering and dimensional reduction. We use DA for clustering and GTM just for the projection to 2D. The clusters found in GTM are viewed as a convenient averaging of the high dimensional space. For example in figure 1 with 2 “real” clusters, our GTM used $K=225$ averaging clusters. As discussed above, DA clustering and GTM are essentially the same algorithm with different optimizations; one for mapping and the other for robust clustering.

4. Application structure

The algorithms illustrated in equations (1-6) have a structure familiar from many scientific computing areas [6, 24-26]. There is an iteration – in this case over the annealing schedule for T and the steps needed for the EM method to converge. Synchronization is needed at the end of each iteration. Further looking into more detail, we find that the iteration consists of sums like Equations (5) and (6) calculating vector and matrix elements combined with linear algebra [28]. The latter is identification of principal directions for DA clustering and matrix multiplication and linear equation solution for GTM. The sums themselves are first calculated in the memory of thread and then after synchronization, accumulated into “global” variables. This strategy assures good use of cache with negligible false sharing (see section 5). Thus we see that all these algorithms have a “loosely synchronous” structure where the parallel algorithm consists of “compute-synchronize” stages where synchronization typically implies all cores reach a barrier [6, 26]. CCR

supports the loosely synchronous paradigm with modest overheads analyzed in detail in earlier papers. Although CCR supports messaging like MPI we only use CCR for synchronization with the shared memory allowing data to be shared. This allows us highly efficient implementation of primitives such as the formation of global sums from those calculated locally; such primitives are some of the compute stages that our algorithms need. The results in figures 2 and 3 sum over all synchronizations and the overhead is proportional to $1/n$ as the dominant compute phase is the calculation of sums like (5) and (6) and these are directly proportional to $n = N/P$.

Comparing our multicore implementations with traditional parallel programming, we see that we are using essentially the same programming model with domain decomposition breaking up the application into parallel components that execute in a loosely synchronous fashion. However, the implementation of this model is different on multicore and clusters. On multicore we minimize memory bandwidth and maximize cache re-use; on clusters we need ingenious communication patterns (the MPI collectives) to move data around.

Realistic implementations must support both conventional real valued quantities in the above equations and also binary variables (for chemical fingerprints) and profiles in bioinformatics where the variables are the frequencies with which features occur.

5. Cache Effects on Performance

We found it quite hard to get reliable timing and identified two sources – cache addressed here and runtime fluctuations described in [12]. The largest effect which is straightforward to address comes from the nature of the cache on all machines listed in table 1. If different cores access different variables but those are stored in the same cache line, then wild execution time fluctuations can occur. These are documented by a simple computation that calculates concurrent summations and stores them in an array element $A(i)$ for thread i . The summation used a random number generator to avoid being compiled away and can be downloaded from our web site [7]. This natural implementation leads to an order of magnitude increase in run time over an implementation that stores results in $A(Si)$ where the separator S is chosen so that adjacent elements of A are separated by 64 bytes or more. These results are documented in Table 2 that records the execution time as a function of S and as a function of several machine and operating system choices. One sees good performance with modest fluctuations as long as S corresponds to a separation of

64 bytes or more. On the other hand in most cases the performance is dreadful and fluctuations sometimes large for separations S less than 64 bytes (the columns labeled 1 and 4 in units of double variables – 8 bytes – in Table 2). This effect is independent of synchronization used (compare CCR and Locks in Table 2) and is presumably due to the cache design on these modern multicore systems. Looking at the separation of 8 or 1024 doubles in Table 2, one can see that with compilers we used, C was much faster

than C# and Linux faster than Windows. Most remarkably the Redhat Linux results do not show the degradation of performance seen for Windows for separation of 1 or 4 doubles. The Fedora Linux results on Intel 8b lie in between those of Windows and Redhat in Table 2 showing a factor of 5 difference between separation 1 and 8. Redhat has only a 5% effect while Windows varies widely with an up to a factor of 15 effect.

Table 2: Cache Line Computation Times

Machine	OS	Run Time	Thread Array Separation (unit is 8 bytes)							
			1		4		8		1024	
			Mean (μs)	Std Dev Mean (μs)	Mean (μs)	Std Dev Mean (μs)	Mean (μs)	Std Dev Mean (μs)	Mean (μs)	Std Dev Mean (μs)
Intel8b	Vista CCR	C# CCR	8.03	.029	3.04	.059	0.884	.0051	0.884	.0069
	Vista	C# Locks	13.0	.0095	3.08	.0028	0.883	.0043	0.883	.0036
	Vista	C	13.4	.0047	1.69	.0026	0.66	.029	0.659	.0057
	Fedora	C	1.50	.01	0.69	.21	0.307	.0045	0.307	.016
Intel8a	XP CCR	C#	10.6	.033	4.16	.041	1.27	.051	1.43	.049
	XP Locks	C#	16.6	.016	4.31	.0067	1.27	.066	1.27	.054
	XP	C	16.9	.0016	2.27	.0042	0.946	.056	0.946	.058
Intel8c	Redhat	C	0.441	.0035	0.423	.0031	0.423	.0030	0.423	.032
AMD4	WinServer 2003	C# CCR	8.58	.0080	2.62	.081	0.839	.0031	0.838	.0031
		C# Locks	8.72	.0036	2.42	.01	0.836	.0016	0.836	.0013
		C	5.65	.020	2.69	.0060	1.05	.0013	1.05	.0014
	XP	C# CCR	8.58	.0080	2.62	.081	0.839	.0031	0.838	.0031
		C# Locks	8.72	.0036	2.42	.01	0.836	.0016	0.836	.0013
		C	5.65	.020	2.69	.0060	1.05	.0013	1.05	.0014

Although the cache hardware architecture produces the effect of table 2, its impact is very systems software dependent. We are obviously able to program around this feature but it is unfortunate as using $A(i)$ to store results from thread i is surely a natural strategy. This effect is in fact well known [29, 30] but its implications are often not properly implemented. For example the C# sdk version 2.0 math random number generator uses such an array and so has unnecessarily poor performance.

In our current runs, matrix multiplication is the most computationally demanding linear algebra and we implemented this as usual with blocking to lessen memory bandwidth needs and to make good use of cache. In figure 4, we plot the execution time as a function of block size. At small block sizes, cache is not used well and the memory bandwidth demands are highest. At large block sizes, the performance declines as the primitive block matrix computation will not fit into cache. This effect is seen first for the fully parallel case as cache is shared. Excellent 1 and 8 core performance is seen for block sizes between 32 and 256; we used block size 32 in GTM results of figure 3. Note that parallel matrix multiplication has essentially zero synchronization overhead as each block of the result matrix can be calculated independently. Thus

we assign blocks to cores in a block scattered fashion and achieve load balance with no synchronization needed except at the end of the full computation. We stress that these results use straightforward C# code and have not been optimized for floating point performance with specialized kernels.

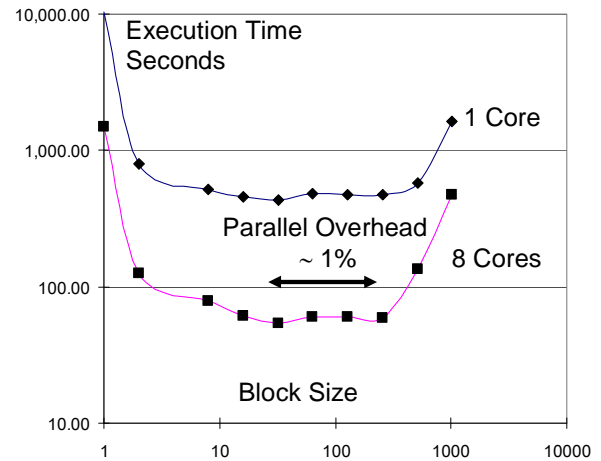


Figure 4: Timing of 4096X4096 Parallel Matrix Multiplication as a function of block size for 1 and 8 cores on Intel8b

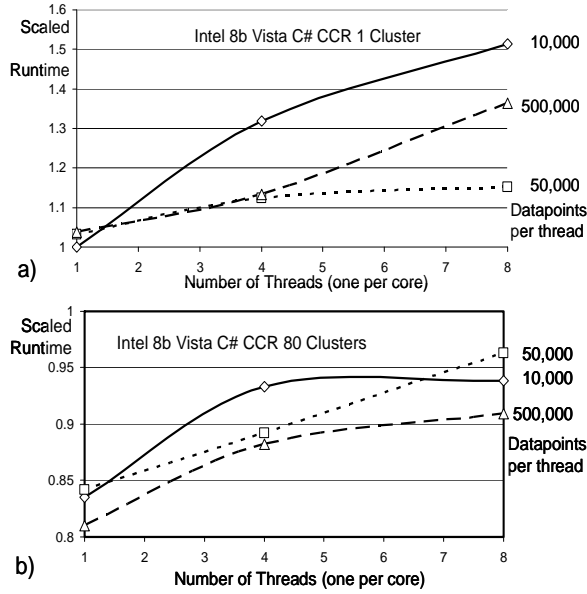


Figure 5. Scaled Run time on Intel8b using Vista and C# with CCR for synchronization on Clustering Kernel for three dataset sizes with 10,000 50,000 or 500,000 points per thread(core). Each measurement involved averaging over at least 1000 computations separated by synchronization whose cost is not included in results

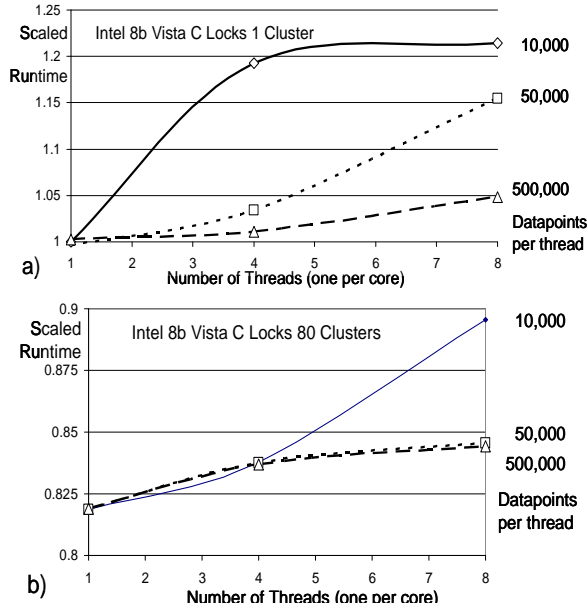


Figure 6. Scaled Run time on Intel8b using Vista and C with locks for synchronization on Clustering Kernel for three dataset sizes with 10,000 50,000 or 500,000 points per thread (core)

We used some simple principles to ensure reasonable use of cache. Variables being updated frequently (such as those in equations 5 and 6 updated for each data

point x) are stored locally to each thread i.e. to each core. This for example includes the blocks of matrix \underline{C} in multiplication $\underline{C} = \underline{A} \underline{B}$. Variables that are only read such as the matrices \underline{A} and \underline{B} , are not copied locally but accessed directly from shared memory. Variables are padded if needed to avoid the cache interference effects of table 2.

6. Memory Bandwidth Effects

In figures 5, 6 and 7 we isolate the kernel of the DA clustering algorithm of section 3 and examine its performance as a function of grain size n , number of clusters and number of cores. In all cases we use the scaled speed up approach and measure thread dependence at three fixed values of grain size n (10,000, 50,000 and 500,000). All results are divided by the number of clusters, the grain size, and the number of cores and scaled so the 10,000 data point, one cluster, one core result becomes 1. These figures then immediately allow us to identify key features of the computation as deviations from 1. We display cases for 1 cluster (figures 5(a) 6(a) 7(a)) where memory bandwidth effects could be important and also for 80 clusters (figures 5(b) 6(b) 7(b)) where such effects are small as one performs 80 floating point operations on every variable fetched from memory. The three figures have typical results covering respectively Windows and C# (fig. 5), Windows and C (fig. 6) and finally Linux and C (fig. 7). Always we use threads not processes and C uses locks and C# uses CCR synchronization. Data is stored so as to avoid any of cache line effects discussed in the previous section.

The results for one cluster clearly show the effect of memory bandwidth with scaled run time increasing significantly as the number of cores used is increased. In this benchmark the memory demands scale directly with number of cores. Indeed a major concern with multicore system is the need for a memory bandwidth that increases linearly with the number of cores. In figure 6 we see a 50% increase in the run time with 8 cores with a grain size of 10,000. This is for C# and Windows and the overhead is reduced to 22% for C on Windows and 13% for C on Linux. Further we note that naively the 10,000 data point case should get excellent performance as the dataset can easily fit in cache and minimize memory bandwidth needs. We do not observe this which illustrates that the current multicore hardware and software cache architecture is not optimized for the style of application discussed in this paper. As we believe data mining is likely to be a critical type of

application on future machines, our results suggest that serious attention be given to these problems.

We get modest overheads for 80 clusters in all cases which is in fact why the applications of section 3 run well. There are no serious memory bandwidth issues in cases with several clusters and it is this case that dominates the computation. This is usual parallel computing wisdom; real size problems run with good efficiency as long as there is plenty of computation. [6, 24-26] The data mining cases we are studying (Clustering, EM based Mixture models, Hidden Markov Models, Support Vector Machines) satisfy this and will run well on machines expected in next 5 years.

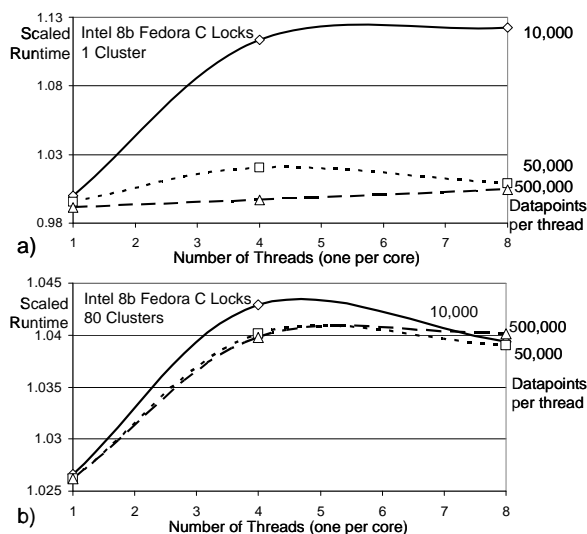


Figure 7. Scaled Run time on Intel8b using Fedora Linux and C with locks for synchronization on Clustering Kernel for three dataset sizes with 10,000 50,000 or 500,000 points per thread (core).

7. Conclusions

We have looked at a class of interesting data mining algorithms and shown efficient parallel implementations with speedups on large “production” problems of greater than 7.5. We are currently tackling applications with millions of data points (PubChem for example has 18 million chemical compounds) each with thousands of properties (dimension D in equations 1-6); the data deluge will only increase the challenge! Simple approaches like K-means and the basic EM approach often find local minima. Here we are developing a suite of robust data mining algorithms that can be applied to large problems and use techniques like annealing to mitigate the local minima issue. We believe our initial results are encouraging and show that managed code can deliver

high performance algorithms. In the future we will investigate further algorithms and apply them with collaborators to interesting applications. This will hopefully contribute to e-Science and quantify the important programming principles for multicore systems. We will also extend our work to cover clusters of multicore systems and compare with systems built around general purpose graphics units such as Cell or NVIDIA chips. Our results are focused on C# for Windows but the basic message is valid for other languages and the Linux O/S. In fact as seen in sections 5 and 6, Linux shows typically less overhead than Windows.

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