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Big Data-HPC Bridge Design Document

FOR EXTREME-SCALE COMPUTING RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT (FAST FORWARD) STORAGE AND I/O

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Introduction

The scope of this document is limited to the design for the first set of deliverables related to the ACG solution architecture, i.e., generation and storage of big data graphs.

The ACG ingress pipeline starts with raw data at the ingress that must be pre-processed to extract graph structures and associated network information. To be used in the HPC world, these structures (graph and network information) will be represented in HDF5 format. The ingress will partition these structures appropriately, each partition or sub-partition small enough to fit in memory, so that the partitions can be distributed over HPC compute nodes for processing. The partitions can be split further whenever necessary in sliding windows slices (small enough to fit in-core).

The key component in establishing the Big Data-HPC bridge is an HDF5 adaptation layer (HAL). The HAL lays out arbitrarily connected graphs on a parallel or distributed storage system in HDF5 data-format, and acts as the interface for the proposed ACG-ingress and graph computational kernel with the storage system. Efficient representation of graph partitions is also a part of the HAL's design.

In addition to graph representation and partitioning, we further describe our plans for generating high quality synthetic data sets for comprehensive performance benchmarking.

The subsequent part of this pipeline, the actual graph analytics computation, is a subject of the next design document and not addressed here.

Definitions

- Arbitrarily Connected Graph (ACG): A graph with arbitrary edge relationships. The graph may be a tree, bipartite, undirected, directed, or any number of types. In any case, it will not be complete. Many graphs that model natural structures and real-world phenomena are arbitrarily structured. Many of them are scale-free, and some exhibit small-world and clustering characteristics.
- **ACG Ingress**: The process of constructing and loading an ACG into the exascale system. The ACG ingress process comprises the Big Data-ACG bridge in this research. The graph will be constructed by applying extract and transform rules to large unstructured and semistructured datasets.
- **Computational Kernel**: The application framework that supports the exascale structured machine learning and graph analytics. In this research, the computational kernel is based on GraphLab, an asynchronous distributed graph-parallel computational framework. GraphLab provides an in-memory data structure model, computational scheduling and synchronization, and a data consistency model.
- **Big Data Analytics (BDA)**: Big data analytics is the process of discovering latent patterns, understanding unknown correlations, or extracting meaningful information from data sets of which size and complexity are beyond the ability of traditional database management or data processing applications to process [1]. Some examples of big data include traffic sensory data (e.g., climate, traffic, etc.), stock and commercial transactions, social interaction data, and digitalized media (e.g., pictures and videos).

- **Big Data Graph**: An ACG with associated "network information" derived from a Big Data corpus. The network information is largely comprised of arbitrarily-typed vertex and edge data.
- **Network Information**: Arbitrarily-typed data structures associated with vertices and edges.
- **Sub-Partition**: A graph-partition is typically represented as an ordered list (adjacency lists, edge lists etc.). A sub-partition is the further division of a partition into smaller portion. When a partition is too large for memory or thread processing, it may be divided into sub-partitions.
- **Synthetic Graphs**: Graphs that are artificially generated by human or computer.

Changes from Solution Architecture

Currently our project is not deviating from the path laid out in the solution architecture. However, in order to perform more comprehensive benchmarking we are proposing an additional step – generation of synthetic raw data.

The solution architecture laid out our plans for generating synthetic graphs and attaching network information to these synthetic graphs in order to stress test our system. However, that set-up will not be able to test ACG-ingress and the Big-data-HPC bridge. We realized that a more comprehensive way to test the ingress pipeline is to start with raw data sets, which is now part of our plan. Note that this inclusion is perfectly in line with our original intent.

Specification

This section details on various elements of the ACG ingress design. Section 1.1 introduces the HDF5 adaptation layer (HAL). Section 1.2 describes our graph partitioning strategy. Section 1.3 provides further details on the HAL and graph representation in HDF5. Section 1.4 outlines our plans on generating synthetic datasets and graphs.

1.1 The HDF5 Adaptation Layer (HAL)

Figure 1 describes the architecture of the proposed Big data – HPC bridge, and how the HAL is situated in the overall context. On the ingress side, the HAL transforms the output of the ACG-ingress to HDF5 data format. In the HPC world the HAL loads graph-partitions and associated network information to efficiently feed the graph computation kernel. Graph Builder, the starting point in our ACG ingress, is already designed to run on a Hadoop cluster, and hence we chose to follow the same set up in our HDF5-adapted ingress as well. The actual graph analytics will run on the target exascale machine. Both clusters will interact with the storage system as depicted in Figure 1.

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1.2 Graph Partitioning

1.2.1 Design Objective

Our design objective for exascale graph partitioning algorithm is as follows. First, minimize the amount of communication between compute nodes by minimizing the edge-cut. Second, balance the number of edges in partitions to distribute the load across the compute nodes.

For the initial phase, we plan to use the partitioning algorithms outlined in Section 1.2.4 and Section 1.2.5. These schemes, natively available in Graph Builder, will help us bootstrap the bridge. We plan to experiment further with more state-of-the art algorithms, as described in Section 1.2.2 and Section 1.2.3, to further optimize the partitioning performance.

1.2.2 Choice of Algorithms

In general, graph partitioning is accomplished by finding patterns such as cluster or community structure in the graph using spectral or topological analysis. Although spectral partitioning algorithms are known to produce very good partitions, the polynomial computational complexity ($O(n^{\omega})$, $2 < \omega < 2.376$) of eigenvalue decomposition puts a scalability limit for their use on exascale graphs [2]. To resolve such scalability issues, a multi-level graph partitioning method has been introduced in [3].It works in three steps: (1) transform an input graph into a smaller graph, (2) apply the partitioning algorithm on the smaller graph, and (3) recover the original graph while maintaining the partitions. However, such a multi-level partitioning method relies on a global view of the whole graph structure and involves multiple steps running different algorithms. Recently, some researchers started looking into a new approach that does not require any global view of graphs. In this approach, a graph partitioning algorithm passes through an entire graph just once and partitions the graph on-the-fly [4, 5]. Especially, the one pass graph partitioning algorithm described in [5] looks promising in terms of edge cut, work load balance, and computational complexity; the authors claim that their proposed algorithm performs better than any heuristic one pass graph partitioning algorithm and even achieves comparable performance to METIS.

1.2.3 Proposed Method: Cost Function based Graph Partitioning

Figure 2 shows the block diagram for the proposed one pass graph partitioning. The proposed one pass graph partitioning will scan the whole graph once and make online partitioning decision per edge basis. To make such an on-the-fly decision, we will design a cost for evaluating the cost of placing an edge to a certain partition.



Figure 2. Block diagram for proposed one pass graph partitioning method.

Because the proposed method has no *a priori* knowledge on the whole structure of an input graph, it solely relies on statistics and history of previous partitioning decisions. For example, as it makes partitioning decisions on the edges and vertices, the method keeps statistical information such as the number of in-edges and out-edges per partition, the number of vertices per partition, the size of each partition, *etc.*

1.2.4 Graph Builder Built-In Algorithm: Random Edge Assignment

Graph Builder's built-in partitioning strategies are also one-pass style, except it does not associate any cost for a sub-optimal placement. Each compute node of a Hadoop system places edges to a partition that is selected uniformly at random. Since the algorithm is not designed to minimize the edge cut between partitions, communication costs for graph computation may be sub-optimal.

1.2.5 Graph Builder Built-In Algorithm: Oblivious Greedy

Each compute node of a Hadoop system places edges using a greedy heuristic algorithm described in [6]. As the algorithm scans the edge list of a graph, it decides the partition an edge will be placed. The edge placement decision is based on the following four cases:

- Case 1: Both vertices of an edge have never been seen by the partitioning algorithm.
 - Randomly assign both vertices to a partition.
- Case 2: Both vertices have been seen by the partitioning algorithm and the two vertices are located on a single partition.
 - Assign to a partition that contains both ends.
- Case 3: Both vertices have been seen before but located on different partitions.
 - Assign to any partition that contains one of the two ends.

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- Case 4: Only one vertex has been seen before.
 - \circ $\;$ Assign to a partition that contains one of the two ends.

For example, assume that a compute node is running the algorithm on the shard depicted in Figure 3 to divide the shard in two partitions. As the algorithm scans the shard of the edge list, it makes edge placement decision as depicted in Figure 4 through Figure 8.



Figure 3. Compute node 1's shard.



Figure 4. Partitioning decision: Case 1.



Figure 5. Partitioning decision: Case 2.



Figure 6. Partitioning decision: Case 3.



Figure 7. Partitioning decision: Case 3.



Figure 8. Partitioning decision: Case 4.

1.3 Graph Representation

In this document we only describe how the HAL lays out an ingress output graph in the HDF5 format. The consumption of this HDF5 object by the computational kernel will be described in the next design document to be delivered at a more advanced stage of the project.

To lay out the graph generated by the ACG-ingress, the HAL creates an HDF5 container. On a POSIX system the container maps to a file, while on the proposed exascale storage stack it will map to an IOD container. In addition to capturing the graph topology information, the HAL will also store partition information, so that a compute node can load the appropriate partition including its vertex and edge related data in memory.

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Figure 9 Proposed representation of a graph and its associated network information in a HDF5 container.

Figure 9 describes the initial design of an HDF5 container to represent a graph and its partitions. The whole graph will be represented in a single container (or file) so that information related to vertices, edges, and partitions can be accessed seamlessly from any compute node. Within the HDF5 container, the HAL creates the following types of representational units.

- **Immutable data objects**: These objects constitute the part of the network information that never changes during a graph-computation. However, in general they evolve over time. The immutable data objects can be associated with both vertices and edges. Examples of this type include name and gender attributes of individual profiles in a social network, the images and video files associated with them, and so on. This type of information can be small or substantially large. However, typically these are not heavily accessed during a graph computation. Inside an HDF5 container, these objects will be represented as HDF5 datasets.
- **Mutable data objects**: These are variables associated with vertices and edges that are actually part of a graph computation's update cycle. Inside an HDF5 container the mutable objects will be represented as attributes which are to be mapped to IOD KV objects underneath for efficient updates and retrieval.
- **Topology representation**: Topology is captured in separate structures inside the HDF5 container. The reason for this twofold. First, this lets the vertex programs inside the computational kernel access the graph topology without moving large network information.

Second, it lets applications switch between different graph representations, again, without moving large amounts of data.

Based on the algorithms, the HDF5 container will have different (possibly concurrent) representations of the topology. Figure 9 illustrates the interchangeable representations inside the container – both adjacency-list and edge-list representations are captured.

Note that these two representations are fairly versatile and address the general needs of most of the algorithms in big data and HPC domains. They can directly represent both undirected and directed graphs. In the case of a directed graph, the in-edges and out-edges can be optionally kept in separate lists of identical structures.

• **Partitions and sub-partitions**: Partitions will be represented as either datasets or KV objects, or supported with both representations, subject to experimental findings.

Once the partitions are created by the ingress, the vertices will be relabeled so that the ones belonging to a partition get a contiguous set of labels (See Figure 10). The partition-friendly labels will ensure that the partition-id for any vertex can be derived completely inmemory (hence locally) without having to reach the storage or any other master node. The cost of re-labeling the vertex is incurred once, during the ingress. Translating the vertex labels back and forth, on the other hand, is an extremely quick in-memory operation.

With the help of contiguously labeled vertices, HDF will lay out these partition structures as contiguously as possible on the underlying storage (POSIX File or IOD container), and therefore, retrieval will be faster compared to scrambling together pieces from different parts of the storage.

Sub-partitions are created on the fly based on partition sizes with respect to a compute node's memory. Their representation is similar to partitions. They get sequentially loaded and unloaded(see Figure 11). As the lower levels of the I/O stack mature further, we plan on addressing efficient pre-staging of sub-partitions into the burst buffers on the IONs to boost the load-compute-unload cycle.

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Figure 10. The vertices will be re-labeled such that vertices within each partition are labeled contiguously. The relabeling step will speed up distributed updates in the computational kernel as well as loading of partitions and sub-partitions.



Figure 11 A partition P_x which is too big to fit in memory, is further sliced into sub-partitions $(P_{x,0}, P_{x,1}, P_{x,2}, P_{x,3})$ and loaded and processed in sliding-window style on a compute node.

1.4 Synthetic Datasets and Graphs

In order to corner-test our pipeline we need a very large collection of benchmarking data sets. However, it is not easy to obtain quality data sets of very large sizes. Hence we will synthesize our data sets in two different ways.

- Synthetic Raw data set: By generating synthetic raw data sets, we will be able to explicitly test the performance of the ACG-ingress. Generating raw data is comprehensive, but quite time consuming as it requires the ingress to execute every time before running graph computation.
- Synthetic Graphs: In order to directly execute the computational kernel (*i.e.*, bypass the ingress) we will generate synthetic graphs that mimic real-life characteristics.

1.4.1 Synthetic Raw Dataset Generation

Figure 12 describes our methodology for generating synthetic raw data sets. For a large class of graph analytics computation, the analysis algorithm assumes a probabilistic generative model (M_{θ}) , where θ refers to a set of parameters that determines the model numerically. The algorithm eventually estimates θ by maximizing a likelihood function that best fits the problem. In Figure 12, this function is captured in the conditional probability distribution ($Prob(X, \theta \mid X)$) subject to maximization over the parameter space.

Once we run the graph analytics algorithms on a graph generated from real life data set and in the process recover the hidden parameter set (θ_m) , we will run the generative model backward to generate synthetic data points that follow the distributions dictated by the parameter set θ_m . This allows us to generate arbitrarily large data sets. We can slightly modify θ_m to generate variations of the original distributions in order to create benchmarks for corner-testing.



Figure 12 Creation of a synthetic data set that mimics a real-life data set sample, but is much larger than the sample itself. A typical ACG computation in BDA setting often assumes a probabilistic

generative model and estimates the underlying parameters. To stress-test the ingress performance, we will run the generative model backward using the parameters extracted from the real-life sample, and synthesize much larger data-sets.

1.4.2 Synthetic Power-Law Graph Generation

We use the stochastic Kronecker graph generation method in [7] to synthesize large-scale power-law graphs. Figure 13 shows the building blocks for generating synthetic large-scale graphs. The power-law graph model will generate a seed power-law graph based on user inputs including alpha value and the size of the seed graph. Then, the stochastic Kronecker graph generator produces a large scale synthetic graph with graph properties close to those of the seed graph.



Figure 13. Building blocks for synthetic graph generation.

1.4.2.1 Power-Law Graph Model

Power-law degree distribution can be found in many natural graphs. For example, Figure 14 shows the degree distribution of the bipartite graph for Wikipedia Topic Modeling with the power-law degree distribution parameter $\alpha = 2.23$.



Figure 14. Power-law degree distribution of bipartite graph for Wikipedia topic modeling (a=2.23) [8].

To produce small power law seed graphs with tunable alpha, we use the mathematical model to produce power-law degree distribution. In the model, the probability of a vertex to have degree k is defined as

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 $P(k) \sim k^{-\alpha}$. From the degree distribution, we will generate a random power-law graph which will be used as a seed graph for the Stochastic Kronecker graph generator.

1.4.2.2 Stochastic Kronecker Graph Generator on Hadoop

The Stochastic Kronecker graph generator is known to produce good power-law graphs and adopted by Graph500 benchmark to produce large-scale synthetic graph. The stochastic Kronecker graph generator uses a likelihood optimization method described in [7] to produce the following a 2-by-2 initiator matrix from the seed graph as follows:

$$\mathbf{K_1} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}, \ 0 \le a, b, c, d \le 1$$

Next, the stochastic Kronecker graph generator performs Kronecker multiplication on the initiator matrix until it reaches the desired size. Thus the *n*-th Kronecker product of initiator matrix forms the recursive multiplication,

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{K}_2 &= \mathbf{K}_1 \ \otimes \ \mathbf{K}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} a \ \mathbf{K}_1 & b \ \mathbf{K}_1 \\ c \ \mathbf{K}_1 & d \ \mathbf{K}_1 \end{bmatrix}, \\ \mathbf{K}_3 &= \mathbf{K}_1 \ \otimes \ \mathbf{K}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} a \ \mathbf{K}_2 & b \ \mathbf{K}_2 \\ c \ \mathbf{K}_2 & d \ \mathbf{K}_2 \end{bmatrix}, \end{split}$$

$$\mathbf{K}_{n} = \mathbf{K}_{1} \otimes \mathbf{K}_{n-1} = \begin{bmatrix} a \mathbf{K}_{n-1} & b \mathbf{K}_{n-1} \\ c \mathbf{K}_{n-1} & d \mathbf{K}_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}.$$

...

The *n*-th Kronecker product is the probability matrix where each matrix element is the edge probability between a pair of vertices signified by row and column indices. We will use the Hadoop cluster to parallelize stochastic Kronecker graph generation process. Since obtaining the *n*-th Kronecker product is embarrassingly parallel [9], parallelized graph generation using the Kronecker product is easily parallelized as well.

1.5 Use Case: Topic Modeling

This section may be moved to the next design documentation milestone.

To test every step in our computational pipeline, we will run a large-scale probabilistic graphical modeling experiment, in which we conduct topic modeling on a large corpus of textual data. This experiment will provide three primary benefits. First, it will demonstrate that our system is able to carry out a real-world computation over a large-scale ACG. Second, it will provide us with initial benchmarks for the performance of our system on this particular problem, allowing us to further improve our topic modeling algorithms for scaling up to exascale computations. Finally, it will be a proof-of-concept to the high performance computing community that topic modeling can be conducted in an efficient way over an exascale data set.

1.5.1 Data Set Selection & Acquisition

We had several considerations in selecting our real-world data set. Of primary importance to us is size: the data set we use here must be big enough to test our graph partitioning algorithms and storage architecture—if we selected a corpus of a size that could fit in memory, it would hardly be a realistic test of our infrastructure. For the present experiment, we were only interested in using a document corpus

that exceeds 100 GB in size. A second consideration was accessibility: the data must be freely-available to the public, either under an open source licensure (e.g., Creative Commons). Finally, since we are pushing the boundaries of what has been done with topic modeling algorithms, it would be desirable if our data set had some inherent topic-like structure to it, which we could use to evaluate the accuracy of our algorithm. Along these lines, we wanted to avoid using a synthetic data set, as it would be easier to get an intuitive sense of the accuracy of our topic modeling algorithm if the data were not created via some statistical generative system. Taking all this into account, we narrowed the data sets we considered down to three: ClueWeb09-English, Google tri-grams, and MEDLINE (Table 1).

Data Set	Open Source	Uncompressed Size	Number of Documents
ClueWeb09- English	Yes	13.4 TB	5.03 <i>x</i> 10 ⁸
Google tri- gram	Yes	218.1 GB	$2.45 \ x \ 10^{10}$
MEDLINE	Partially	90 GB (estimated)	$2.25 \ x \ 10^7$

 Table 1. Descriptive statistics for the document corpora considered for use in the exascale topic modeling experiment.

Although it is sufficiently large, the content of the Google tri-gram data set is such that the results of any topic modeling studies are likely to be meaningless. The MEDLINE data set, which consists of every MEDLINE record on the National Library of Medicine's PubMed search engine (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed) is near the desired size, and contains documents that have been manually labeled with MeSH terms (Medical Subject Heading terms), which would allow us to easily assess the validity of our topic modeling results. However, the data set, though freely-available through the NLM's search engine, is not available for single batch downloading. To obtain the MEDLINE corpus, we would have to access their search api through a custom Python script for downloading the data in chunks. Although such scripts have already been used in some of our previous research, the time it would take to download 22.5 million articles without violating the NLM's access guidelines may be prohibitive. Thus, we selected the ClueWeb09-English data set for the present experiment. This corpus consists of the English language subset of ClueWeb09, a data collection consisting of the html of websites obtained from one year of web crawling by a group at Carnegie Mellon University. 13.4 TB of textual data will be an ambitious amount of data, but it will allow us to get a sense of the efficiency of our pipeline. One downside of the ClueWeb09-English is that there are no pre-existing topic labels associated with the documents it contains. To address this, we will use other methods of evaluating topic modeling algorithms, such as perplexity, and manual examination of the most-common words used in documents contained in the various topics identified by our approach. In addition, other researchers have already analyzed subsets of the ClueWeb09-English corpus, which we may be able to use to compare with our results.

1.5.2 Topic Modeling Algorithm

There are several approaches to topic modeling that are available to us, including *k*-means clustering, Latent Semantic Indexing (LSI), and Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA). For testing our pipeline, we opted

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to use LDA. There were several reasons for this, the most prevalent of which was that LDA has already been implemented for graph data in the open source GraphLab software.

1.5.3 Topic Modeling in the Medline Dataset

Since the MeSH vocabulary has a natural hierarchical layout, organizing the documents in the Medline dataset according to the tags assigned to each was the obvious approach for organizing our data in the EFF stack. This also provided an intuitive data model for conducting topic-modeling experiments that would be of interest to biomedical informaticians. Take, for example, our version of the entire Medline data set. This collection of 25 million documents contains a mixture of publications on a variety of medically-relevant topics. While one certainly could run a topic-modeling algorithm over these data, the output wouldn't be especially informative, as, one would expect, the output would be the broad topics comprising the biomedical literaturebase. More interesting is running topic modeling experiments on well-defined subsets of data already having a coherent topic. In Figure 15, for example, running a topic modeling experiment on the lower-level MeSH tags, like *Arousal* or *Attention* could reveal interesting findings about the literature comprising attention- or arousal-related research. Thus, we organized or hdf5 hierarchy to mirror this structure. Queries for a specific vertex returned both the document id/word id edge list for that point, as well as a subset of the global word dictionary for the entire dataset corresponding to the relevant documents.



Figure 15: Example path in the Medical Subject Heading (MeSH) hierarchy. Titles in the boxes are the human-readable names for the vertices depicted, while those colored blue denote the chosen path down the hierarchy. The top grey bar indicates increasing depth down the hierarchy, spanning from the root vertex to five levels down, while the corresponding numbers on the lower maroon bar indicate the number of unique documents contained in all possible vertices that are children of the level above. At the lowest level, the number in the red cloud indicates the number of documents having the *Attention* MeSH term alone.

Final comments

- In course of the project, we realized that we had real-life datasets to test the EFF stack to the extent that we wanted and address the design questions. It was also realized that testing the analytics applications are more important than the graph-ingests. As a result, we did not pursue the generation of synthetic-datasets, and limited our synthesis process to graph synthesis only.
- We also chose to divide graphs in partitions. We did not have time to implement out-of-core graph computing (which was not mandatory, but only a desirable requirement); as a result we have not tested graph computations with sub-partitions as out-lined above. However, our APIs in the HDF5-adaptation layer would support dividing graphs into sub-partitions.

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