

Speeding up K-Means Algorithm by GPUs

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Abstract—Cluster analysis plays a critical role in a wide variety of applications; but it is now facing the computational challenge due to the continuously increasing data volume. Parallel computing is one of the most promising solutions to overcoming the computational challenge. In this paper, we target at parallelizing k -Means, which is one of the most popular clustering algorithms, by using the widely available Graphics Processing Units (GPUs). Different from existing GPU-based k -Means algorithms, we observe that data dimensionality is an important factor that should be taken into consideration when parallelizing k -Means on GPUs. In particular, we use two different strategies for low-dimensional data sets and high-dimensional data sets respectively, in order to make the best use of GPU computing horsepower. For low-dimensional data sets, we design an algorithm that exploits GPU on-chip registers to significantly decrease the data access latency. For high-dimensional data sets, we design another novel algorithm that simulates matrix multiplication and exploits GPU on-chip shared memory to achieve high compute-to-memory-access ratio. Our experimental results show that our GPU-based k -Means algorithms are three to eight times faster than the best reported GPU-based algorithms.

Keywords - clustering, k -means, GPU computing, CUDA

I. INTRODUCTION

Clustering is a method of unsupervised learning that partitions a set of data objects into clusters, such that intra-cluster similarity is maximized while inter-cluster similarity is minimized [1, 2]. The k -Means algorithm is one of the most popular clustering algorithms and is widely used in a variety of fields such as statistical data analysis, pattern recognition, image analysis and bioinformatics [3, 4]. It has been elected as one of the Top 10 data mining algorithms [5]. The running time of k -Means algorithm grows with the increase of the size and also the dimensionality of the data set. Hence clustering large-scale data sets is usually a time-consuming task. Parallelizing k -Means is a promising approach to overcoming the challenge of the

huge computational requirement [6-8]. In [6], P-CLUSTER has been designed for a cluster of computers with a client-server model in which a server process partitions data into blocks and sends the initial centroid list and blocks to each client. It has been further enhanced by pruning as much computation as possible while preserving the clustering quality [7]. In [8], the k -Means clustering algorithm has been parallelized by exploiting the inherent data-parallelism and utilizing message passing.

Recently, as a general-purpose and high performance parallel hardware, Graphics Processing Units (GPUs) develop continuously and provide another promising platform for parallelizing k -Means. GPUs are dedicated hardware for manipulating computer graphics. Due to the huge computing demand for real-time and high-definition 3D graphics, GPUs have evolved into highly parallel many-core processors. The advances of computing power and memory bandwidth in GPUs have driven the development of general-purpose computing on GPUs (GPGPU).

In this paper, we design a parallel k -Means algorithm for GPUs by using a general-purpose parallel programming model, namely Compute Unified Device Architecture (CUDA) [9, 10]. CUDA has been used for speeding up a large number of applications [11, 12, 13, 14]. Some clustering algorithms have been implemented on the GPUs, including k -Means. There are mainly three existing GPU-based k -Means algorithms: *GPUMiner* [15], *UV_k-Means* [16], and *HP_k-Means* [17]. *UV_k-Means* achieves a speedup of ten to forty as compared with a four-threaded *Minebench* [18] running on a dual-core, hyper-threaded CPU. *HP_k-Means* claims another speedup of two to four as compared with *UV_k-Means* and twenty to seventy speedup as compared with *GPUMiner* [17]. These existing works have shown the promising high performance advantage of GPUs. However, the above GPU-based algorithms have not yet fully exploited the computing power of GPUs.

In this paper we conduct systematic research on parallelizing the k -Means using CUDA. Our first contribution is the observation that the dimensionality of the data set is an important factor to be considered. Our second contribution is the design, implementation, and evaluation of two different strategies. For low-dimensional data sets, we mainly utilize the GPU on-chip registers to minimize the memory access latency. Due to the limited size of on-chip registers, this method is not applicable to data sets with high dimensionality. For high-dimensional data sets, we design a novel and highly efficient algorithm that treats the most time-consuming part of k -Means as matrix multiplication, and then makes use of GPU on-chip shared memory together with on-chip registers. Our third contribution is analyzing the strategy for the large data set, which cannot be processed within a single GPU once. Our experimental results show that our parallel k -Means algorithm performs much better than existing algorithms, for both low-dimensional data sets and high-dimensional data sets.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section II introduces the GPU architecture and existing GPU-based k -Means algorithms. Section III presents our design of parallel k -Means algorithm on GPUs. Section IV presents our experimental results, and Section V concludes the paper and presents some future work.

II. RELATED WORK

To the best of our knowledge, there are mainly three existing GPU-based k -Means algorithms, namely *UV_* k -*Means*, *GPUMiner*, and *HP_* k -*Means*. We first briefly introduce the GPU architecture, and then review these three existing GPU-based k -Means algorithms.

A. The GPU architecture

We take NVIDIA GTX280 as an example to show a typical GPU architecture. GTX 280 has 30 Streaming Multiprocessors (SMs), and each SM has 8 Scalar Processors (SPs), resulting in a total of 240 processor cores. The SMs have a Single-Instruction Multiple-Thread (SIMT) architecture: at any given clock cycle, each SP executes the same instruction, but operates on different data. Each SM has four different types of on-chip memory, namely registers, shared memory, constant cache, and texture cache, as shown in Fig.1. Constant cache and texture cache are both read-only memories shared by all SPs. Off-chip memories such as local memory and global memory have relatively long access latency, usually 400 to 600 clock cycles [10]. The properties of the different types of memory have been summarized in [10, 12]. In general, the scarce registers and shared memory should be carefully utilized to amortize the global memory latency cost.

In CUDA model, GPU is regarded as a coprocessor which is capable of executing a great number of threads in parallel. A single source program includes host codes running on CPU and also kernel codes running on GPU. Compute-intensive and data-parallel tasks have to be implemented as kernel codes so as to be executed on GPU. GPU threads are organized into thread blocks, and each block of threads are executed concurrently on one SM. Threads in a thread block can share data through the shared memory and can perform barrier synchronization. But there is no native synchronization mechanism for different thread blocks except by terminating the kernel. Another important concept in CUDA is *warp*, which is formed by 32 parallel threads and is the scheduling unit of each SM. When a warp stalls, the SM can schedule another warp to execute. A warp executes one instruction at a time, so full efficiency can only be achieved when all 32 threads in the warp have the same execution path. There are two consequences: first, if the threads in a warp have different execution paths due to conditional branch, the warp will serially execute each branch which increases the total time of instructions executed for this warp; second, if the number of threads in a block is not a multiple of warp size, the remaining instruction cycles will be wasted.

Besides, when accessing the memory, *half-warp* executes as a group, which has 16 threads. If the half-warp threads access the coalesced data, the data access operation will perform within one instruction cycle. Otherwise, the access operation will occupy up to 16 instruction cycles.

B. *UV_k-Means*

In order to avoid the long time latency of global memory access, *UV_k-Means* copies all the data to the texture memory, which uses a cache mechanism. Then, it uses constant memory to store the k centroids, which is also more efficient than using global memory. Each thread is responsible for finding the nearest centroid of a data point; each block has 256 threads, and the grid has $n/256$ blocks.

The work flow of *UV_k-Means* is straightforward. First, each thread calculates the distance from one corresponding data point to every centroid and finds the minimum distance and corresponding centroid. Second, each block calculates a temporary centroid set based on a subset of data points, and each thread calculates one dimension of the temp centroid. Third, the temporal centroid sets are copied from GPU to CPU, and then the final new centroid set is calculated on CPU.

UV_k-Means has achieved a speedup of twenty to forty over the single-thread CPU-based k -Means in our experiment. This speedup is mainly achieved by assigning each data point to one thread and utilizing the cache mechanism to get a high reading efficiency. However, the efficiency could be further improved by other memory access mechanisms such as registers and shared memory.

C. *GPUMiner*

GPUMiner stores all input data in the global memory, and loads k centroids to the shared memory. Each block has 128 threads, and the grid has $n/128$ blocks. The main characteristic of *GPUMiner* is the design of a bitmap. The workflow of *GPUMiner* is as follows. First, each thread calculates the distance from one data point to every centroid, and changes the suitable bit into true in the bit array, which stores the nearest centroid for each data point. Second, each thread is responsible for one centroid, finds all the corresponding data points from the bitmap and takes the mean of those data points as the new centroids.

The main problem of *GPUMiner* is the poor utilization of memory in GPU, since *GPUMiner* accesses most of the data (input data point) from global memory directly. As pointed out in [17], bitmap approach is elegant in expressing the problem, but not a good method for high performance, since bitmap takes more space when k is large and requires more shared memory.

D. *HP_k-Means*

HP_k-Means is by far the most efficient *k-Means* algorithm on GPUs [17]. However, the details of *HP_k-Means* are not reported in the paper. In general, *HP_k-Means* considers the GPU memory hierarchy: first, it arranges the data to make the best use of the memory bandwidth; second, it uses constant and texture memory to utilize the cache mechanism; third, it uses shared memory for the data that will be read multiple times.

III. DESIGN OF PARALLEL *k*-MEANS ON GPUS

The *k*-Means algorithm is one of the most popular clustering methods. Given a set of n data points $R = \{r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n\}$ in a d dimensional space, the task of *k*-Means is to partition R into k clusters ($k < n$) $S = \{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k\}$ such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{x_j \in S_i} \|x_j - \mu_i\|^2 \text{ is minimized, where } \mu_i \text{ is the centroid of } S_i.$$

The *k*-Means algorithm iteratively partitions a given dataset into k clusters. It first selects k data points as the initial centroids, which could be the first k data points in the data set, or a set of randomly chosen k data points. Then the algorithm iterates as follows: (1) Compute the Euclidean distance between each pair of data point and centroid, and then assign each data point to its closest centroid; (2) Find the new centroids by taking the mean of all the data points in each cluster. The iteration terminates when the changes in the centroids are less than some threshold or the number of iterations reaches a predefined threshold. The whole process is shown in Algorithm 1, assuming that all the operations could be processed within the main memory.

The computational complexity of a single round of *k*-Means is $O(nkd + nk + nd)$: lines 2-6 have a complexity of $O(nkd)$; lines 7-14 have a complexity of $O(nk)$; and lines 15-17 have a complexity of $O(nd)$. According to the value of data dimensionality d , we design two different GPU-based algorithms: one for low-dimensional data sets and another one for high-dimensional data sets. For low-dimensional data sets, we mainly exploit on-chip registers to minimize the latency of data access. For high-dimensional data sets, we use both registers and shared memory and apply a very efficient reduction method. Step (2) has a relatively low computational complexity of $O(nd)$, and is difficult to be fully parallelized due to write conflict. So we use GPU to speed up part of the task that is appropriate for parallelization, and leave the remaining part for CPU to execute.

The following parts contain three subsections. Section A and B are based on the dataset that can be fully stored in GPU device memory. Section A introduces a set of algorithms for *finding the closest centroid*: Algorithm 2 is a CPU-based version provided as a reference; Algorithm 3 and 4 are two GPU-based versions for low- and high- dimensional data respectively.

Section B illustrates the algorithms for *computing new centroids*: Algorithm 5 is based on CPU provided as a reference, while Algorithm 6 is the GPU version. Section C discusses the strategies for large datasets that cannot be fully stored in GPU device memory: Algorithm 7 is a sequential method, which could be implemented on both the CPU and the GPU.

A. Finding closest centroid

The CPU-based algorithm of finding closest centroid is shown in Algorithm 2. Since the algorithm computes the distance between each data point and each centroid, our first method to parallelize Algorithm 2 is dispatching one data point to one thread, and then each thread calculates the distance from one data point to all the centroids, and maintains the minimum distance and the corresponding centroid, as shown in Algorithm 3. Line 1 and 2 show how the algorithm designs the thread block and grid. Our experiments show that a block size of 256 results in better performance than block size of 32, 64 and 128. Line 3 and 4 calculate the position of the corresponding data point for each thread in global memory. Line 5 loads the data point into the register. Lines 6-12 compute the distance and maintain the minimum one.

Algorithm 3 only has one level of loop instead of two levels in Algorithm 2, because the loop for n data points has been dispatched to n threads, which decreases the time consumption significantly because many threads are working in parallel. It is worth pointing out that the key step of achieving high efficiency is loading the data points into the on-chip registers, which ensures that reading the data point from global memory happens only once when calculating the distances between the data point and k centroids. Obviously, reading from register is much faster than reading from global memory. Besides, coalesced access to the global memory also decreases the reading latency. The experimental results in section IV verify the advantage of Algorithm 3 compared with the best published results. However, the problem of Algorithm 3 is the limited size of the registers. In fact, users are not able to fully control the registers, and could only utilize registers when the data size is small enough. When the data points cannot be loaded into the registers as the data dimension grows, they will be stored in local memory, which will increase the reading latency and decrease the performance significantly.

In fact, the input data point and the centroid could be viewed as two matrixes $data[n][d]$ and $centroid[d][k]$; the result distance could be denoted as $Result[n][k]$; and the distance computing process shares the same flow as matrix multiplication. Based on this observation, we design Algorithm 4 for high-dimensional data sets, by adopting the idea of matrix multiplication and utilizing registers and the shared memory together.

The main idea of Algorithm 4 is decreasing the global memory access time and latency by loading the data into the shared memory tile by tile. Thus, Algorithm 4 reads each data point from global memory only once, the same as Algorithm 3. The key point of Algorithm 4 is how to access the global memory and shared memory efficiently, which is achieved by adopting

coalescing reading which accesses sixteen continuous address for the threads in a half warp to avoid the bank conflict. The details are described as follows.

The three matrixes $data[n][d]$, $centroid[d][k]$ and $Result[n][k]$ are partitioned into $TH \times TW$, $TW \times TH$, and $TH \times TW$ tiles respectively. The resource of the GPU is partitioned as follows: the grid has $(k/TW) \times (n/TH)$ blocks, the ID of which is noted by $blockIdx.y$ (by in Fig.2) and $blockIdx.x$ (bx in Fig.2); each block has $TH \times TDimY$ threads, the ID of which is noted by $threadIdx.y$ (ty in Fig.2) and $threadIdx.x$ (tx in Fig.2). The computing task is dispatching as follows: each block calculates $TDimY$ tiles in the $Result$, which is noted as $SR[TH][TW \times TDimY]$; each thread computes a column of SR . For each thread, $indexD$ points to the right position of the $data$, which contains the following three parts as shown in line 4: $data$ is the beginning address of the data set; since the height of the $data$ is divided by TH , $blockIdx.y \times TH \times d$ is the address of the corresponding block; $threadIdx.y \times d$ adding $threadIdx.x$ is the offset address inside the block.

In line 5, $indexC$ points to the right position in $centroid$, which also has three parts: $centroid$ is the beginning address of the current centroid; $blockIdx.x \times TW$ points to the corresponding block address, since the width of the $centroid$ is divided by TW ; $threadIdx.y \times blockDim.x$ adding $threadIdx.x$ points to the address of the current thread inside the block. Obviously, the threads in one block would access centroid in continuous addresses, which is also called coalesced accessing. $indexR$ is calculated in the same way as in line 6: the beginning address of the result, the row address, and the offset address inside the block for the current thread.

In the loop from line 11 to 16, the algorithm loads a tile of data from global memory to the shared memory, and computes the temporary distance saved in $TResult$ which are stored in on-chip registers; the loop ends when the whole row has been calculated. Line 17-18 calculate the distance based on the results of multiplication. Line 19 waits for all the threads to finish their work. Line 20 writes the distance back from $TResult$ to SR . The details are shown in Fig.2, and take the process of calculating a $SR[TH][TW \times TDimY]$ as an example, which is equal to $data[TH][d] \times centroid[d][TW \times TDimY]$: load the first tile (in blue color) from the $data$ into the shared memory; multiply the blue tile in the $data$ with the blue tile in the $Centroid$, which is stored in the constant memory; accumulate the temporary results into $TResult$, whose initial value is all zero; repeat loading the next tile (in orange color), multiplying and accumulating, until $data[TH][d]$ and $centroid[d][TW \times TDimY]$ have been all accessed.

After calculating the distances matrix $Result[n][k]$ between the data and the centroid, the next step is find the closest centroid for each data point. Obviously, based on the CPU, the computational complexity is $O(nk)$. On the GPUs, there are mainly two methods: firstly, each thread finds the closest centroid for one data point from one row of $Result$, whose

computational complexity is $O(k)$. Secondly, $O(k/\log k)$ threads find the closest centroid for one data point from one row of *Result*, and each thread deals with $O(\log k)$ elements in the row. The computational complexity is $O(\log k)$ [19]. In our this paper, we choose the first strategy because of the following two reasons: first, this step occupies less than 5% time in the whole process adopting the former strategy; secondly, the latter strategy is clearly more efficient than the former one only if k is large enough, and they perform nearly the same when k is smaller than 1000 in all the experiment in this paper.

B. Computing new centroids

The result of the first step, i.e., finding the closest centroid, is an array $index[n]$ which stores the closest centroid for each data point. The data points belonging to the same centroid constitute one cluster. Calculating the new centroids is by taking the mean of all the data points in each cluster. As shown in Algorithm 5, the computational complexity is $O(nd+kd)$, and it is difficult to be fully parallelized. If we assign each data point to a thread, it will generate write conflict when adding the data to the shared centroid. On the other hand, if we assign each centroid to a thread, the computing power of the GPU cannot be fully utilized.

In this paper, we design an algorithm which adopts “divide and conquer” strategy. The main notations of the strategy are M and n' : M is a multiple of stream multiprocessor number in the GPU, and n' is the number of groups, initialized by the value of n/M , and updated by the value of n'/M . We first divide the data into n' groups, then reduce each group and get temporary centroids. We then update n' , divide the temporary centroids into n' groups and reduce iteratively on the GPU until n' is smaller than M , indicating the GPU has no advantage than the CPU for further computing. Finally, we calculate the final centroids on the CPU. The full algorithm is shown in Algorithm 6. By dividing the data into groups, the write conflict decreases, since each group writes its own temporary centroids and has no influence on other groups. It is necessary to point out that M in Algorithm 6 line 1 should be a multiple of the number of SM in order to ensure high schedule efficiency on the GPU.

C. Dealing with large dataset

The above algorithms all assume that the dataset can be fully stored in the GPU’s on-board device memory. When the size of dataset grows larger than a single GPU’s on-board memory, we can adopt a divide-and-merge method as follows: load the dataset group by group, then compute the temporary results and merge them into the finally results. The details are shown in Algorithm 7: lines 1-3 divide the whole dataset into M groups, each of which has n' data points and could be loaded into the GPU’s on-board memory; lines 5-9 deal with the i th group of the data, which starts from $data[ixn]$, compute the distance,

find the nearest centroid and compute the new centroids based on the current group of data, until the end of the whole data, and based on the i th group of data, $n_centroid[i][k]$ stores the number of the points and $k_centroid[i][k]$ stores the summary of the points without calculating the mean in each cluster, while $k_centroid[0][0]$ stores the current centroids; lines 10-17 calculate the final summary and the number of the points for each cluster based on the whole data set; line 18 calculates the mean of the previous summary, which is the new centroids currently; line 19 checks the threshold containing the iteration time and the difference between the current centroids and the previous centroids. In fact, Algorithm 7 could be implemented on either CPU or GPU. For CPU version, we can adopt Algorithm 2 and 5 for computing distance, finding the closest centroids and computing new centroids; while for GPU version, we can adopt Algorithm 3 for the low-dimensional data, Algorithm 4 for the high-dimensional data, and Algorithm 6.

IV. EXPERIMENTS

We have implemented our parallel k -Means algorithm using CUDA version 2.3. Our experiments were conducted on a PC with an NVIDIA GTX280 GPU and an Intel(R) Core(TM) i5 CPU. GTX 280 has 30 SIMD multi-processors, and each one contains eight processors and performs at 1.29 GHz. The memory of the GPU is 1GB with the peak bandwidth of 141.7 GB/sec. The CPU has four cores running at 2.67 GHz. The main memory is 8 GB with the peak bandwidth of 5.6 GB/sec. We calculate the time of the application after the file I/O, in order to show the speedup effect more clearly.

The experiments contain three parts: first, we compare our results with the best published results of HP_k -Means, which is mainly on low-dimensional data sets. Second, we compare our k -Means with UV_k -Means and $GMiner$ on high-dimensional data sets. Third, we compare our CPU k -Means and GPU k -Means on the large data set. Each experiment is repeated ten times and the average results are reported.

A. On low-dimensional data sets

Here we choose exactly the same data sets as HP_k -Means as follows: n has two values, 2×10^6 and 4×10^6 ; k has two values, 100 and 400; d also has two values, 2 and 8. Each dimension is a single-precision floating point number, and generated randomly. The iteration time is fifty, and the algorithm will stop after fifty rounds, no matter what the change of the centroid is. Besides, the speeds of HP_k -Means, UV_k -Means and $GPUMiner$ are extracted from [17]. As we use the same experimental configurations as [17], our comparisons are fair and reasonable.

As shown in Table 1, our k -Means is the most efficient one among the four algorithms. It is three to eight times faster than the best published results from HP_k -Means, ten to twenty faster than UV_k -Means and one hundred to three hundred

faster than *GPUMiner*. Since *HP_k-Means* only provides some optimization rules without publishing the source code, we mainly discuss the difference between our *k-Means* and *UV_k-Means*.

The workflows of the two algorithms are very similar: each thread finds the minimum centroid for each data point. The main difference is the memory utilization: *UV_k-Means* puts the data on the texture and puts the centroids on the constant; our *k-Means* firstly loads the data on the register, and reads the data from the register each time when calculating the distance from each centroid, resulting in a low global memory access times and latency, since reading from register is by far faster than reading from other memories.

We also analyze the GFLOPS of each algorithm. Since the computational complexity of *finding the closest centroid* is $O(nkd + nk)$, which is much larger than $O(nd)$ of *computing the new centroid*, a reasonable approximation on the total number of operations can be obtained by:

$$OP = n \times k \times (d + d + d - 1) \times iter \quad (1)$$

For each data point, the first d in Eq. (1) is the number of subtractions; the second d is the number of multiplications; the third term $d-1$ is the number of additions; and $iter$ is the number of iterations. Take the 7th row of Table 1 as an example (i.e., $n = 4\text{million}$, $k = 100$, $d = 8$), the number of operations is 4.6×10^{11} . So the GFLOPS of each algorithm are: 676, 93, 36 and 1.2. The maximum GFLOPS of GTX 280 is around 933, and our algorithm has achieved 72% of the peak GPU computing power, which could also show the advantage and high efficiency of our algorithm. We visually show the time and GLOPS in Fig.3, for the setting of the 7th line in Table 1.

As shown in Table 2, we can also observe that our *k-Means* is insensitive with dimensionality when it is relatively small, since the time differs a little when the dimensionality varies from 2 to 6. As the dimensionality keeps growing, the time consumption grows with a higher speed because we are not able to keep a data point in registers, which is the main reason we design a new strategy for high-dimensional data sets. As shown in Table 3, when k grows, the algorithm has to access the global memory more, which is proportional to k , and will spend more time. The computing time also grows with the increase of n , as shown in Table 4. Besides, we could also observe that the time consumption of “computing new centroids” changes slightly when the parameters change, due to the low computational complexity and our “divide and conquer” Algorithm 6.

In fact, through our experiment, when the dimensionality is larger than sixteen (assuming single-precision floating point data), the data point cannot be loaded into the register, and the speed decreases sharply because of accessing the global memory. So, we use Algorithm 5, shared memory based algorithm to deal with high-dimensional data sets.

B. On high-dimensional data sets

For high-dimensional data sets, we use the samples provided by the KDD Cup 1999 [20], and choose two data sets, with 51200 and 494080 data points respectively. Each data point contains 34 features, and each one is a single-precision floating point number. The default values of k and iteration time are 32 and 100, respectively. Since *HP_k-Means* does not report any experimental results on high-dimensional data sets, we can only compare our algorithm with *GPUMiner* and *UV_k-Means*.

The comparison results are shown in Table 5. Our k -Means is four to eight times faster than *UV_k-Means*, ten to forty times faster than *GPUMiner*, and one hundred to two hundred times faster than the single thread CPU based k -Means algorithm developed by us.

When dealing with high-dimensional data, i.e., d is larger than sixteen, our algorithm loads the data tile by tile into the shared memory. Thus it accesses the global memory only once for each data point. *UV_k-Means* adopts texture to store the data point and decreases the global memory reading latency. However, it depends on the cache mechanism, and if the cache missing grows, the efficiency would decrease. On the other hand, the shared memory could perform more stably.

As shown in Table 6, *finding the closest centroid* achieves a speedup of forty to two hundred compared with our CPU-based algorithm, while *computing new centroid* achieves a speedup around ten, which further prove the advantage of our algorithm. The GFLOPS of the second line in Table 5 are 137, 18, 4 for our k -Means, *UV_k-Means* and *GPUMiner*, as shown in Fig.4. Compared with Fig.3, the GFLOPS of our k -Means decreases, since the time consumption on *computing new centroids* occupies relatively more percentage, which does not have a good speedup effect. Besides, we also compare Algorithm 3 and 4: when $n = 1 \times 10^6$ and $k = 100$, Algorithm 3 needs 1.5 seconds to deal with a 16 dimensional data set, while Algorithm 4 needs 1.5 seconds to deal with a 32 dimensional data, which proves that it is necessary to design two strategies for different dimensional data.

As shown in Tables 7 and 8, the time consumption shares the same trend as in Tables 3 and 4, which is appropriately linear to k and n . Table 9 shows the speed changes on dimensionality, and the time of “finding the closest centroid” is also linear to d .

C. On large data sets

Here we use the data sets which are larger than the CPU and GPU’s main memory: for the low-dimensional data, we generate the data randomly; for the high dimensional-data, we generate the data based on the dataset used in section B, by randomly copying a data point and then randomly choosing half of the dimension and adding them with a random floating point number. The scale of the dataset is one hundred times larger than the previous data sets used in in Section A and B.

Algorithm 7 runs on the low-dimensional data, and the result is shown in Table 10 and Fig.5. First, the GPU-based version is more than one hundred times faster than CPU-based version. Second, Fig.5 shows the trend of time consumption increase with the number of the data point, which is approximately linear. The main reason is that computing the final centroids has only *Mkd* operations, which is very small compared with the total operation. For example, merging 51,200 temporary results only takes 0.1 second. In the first row of Table 10, we only need two hundred temporal results, and the time could be neglected. The green line in Fig. 5 is the time consumption on small dataset: the scale of the dataset is one hundred times smaller than that of red and blue lines; the time is calculated in ten milliseconds in order to show the figure clearly. The green line is nearly the same as the red line, which further shows that the merging part occupies a tiny percentage of the total time and the divide-and-merge strategy is very efficient. Algorithm 7 running on the high-dimensional data sets shows the similar result, as shown in Table 11.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper, we proposed a GPU-based parallel *k*-Means algorithm. It presents mainly two novel ideas: first, based on the dimensionality of the data set, our *k*-Means algorithm chooses one from two different strategies. For low-dimensional data set, our algorithm utilizes GPU registers and achieves a speedup of three to eight over *HP_k-Means*. For high-dimensional data, our algorithm firstly observes the similarity between *k*-Means and matrix multiplication, then adopts shared memory and registers to avoid multiple accesses of the global memory, and finally achieves a speedup of four to eight as compared with *UV_k-Means*. Besides, we also discuss the method for dealing with large data sets based on a single GPU.

To process even larger data sets, utilizing a GPU cluster will be a promising method. We intend to adopt the master-worker (slave) mode as shown in Fig. 6. The master is in charge of dispatching the data to the workers, calculating the new centroid and checking the threshold; while each worker computes the distance between the current centroids and the subset of data received from the master, finds the closest centroid, computes the temporary new centroids and transfers the data back. On the GPU cluster, the computing distance process could adopt algorithm 3 and 4, while the computing new centroids process could use algorithm 6. The detailed workflows are described in Algorithm 8 and 9. In the future, we plan to systematically implement this parallel strategy and analyze the speedup effect.

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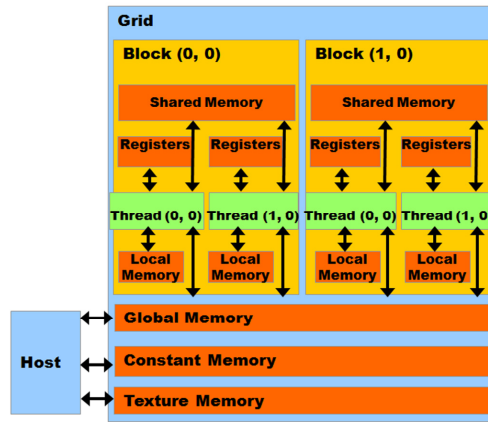


Figure 1. Hardware architecture of the GPU

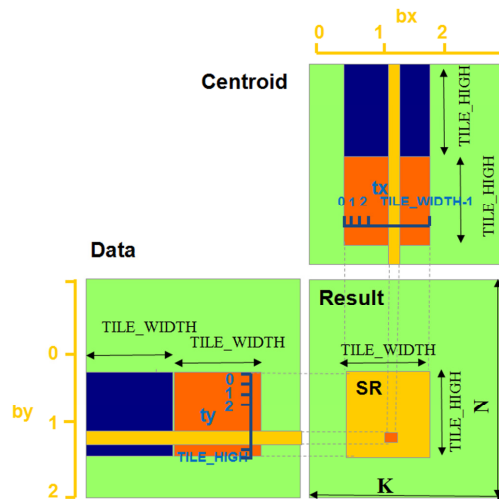


Figure 2. Tile-based distance computing process

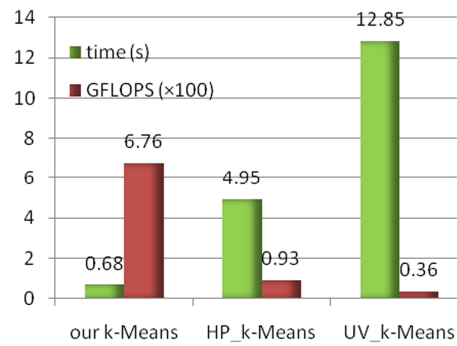


Figure 3. Time and GFLOPS performance on low-dimensional data

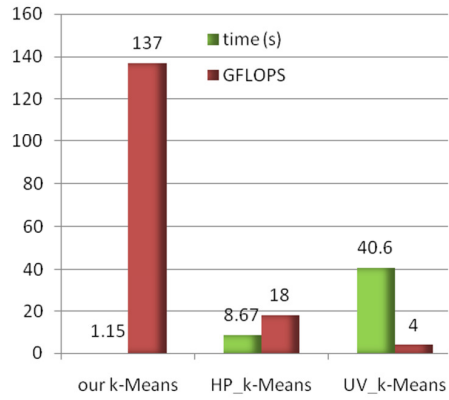


Figure 4. Time and GFLOPS performance on high-dimensional data

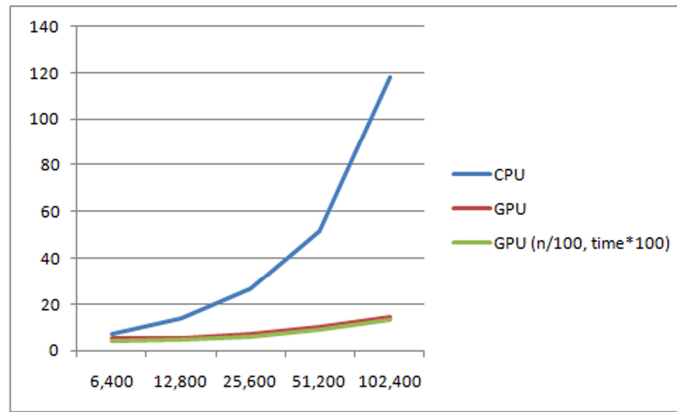


Figure 5. Time performance of Algorithm 7 on low-dimensional data

(the x-axis is the number of the data points in thousand, and the y-axis is the time in second)

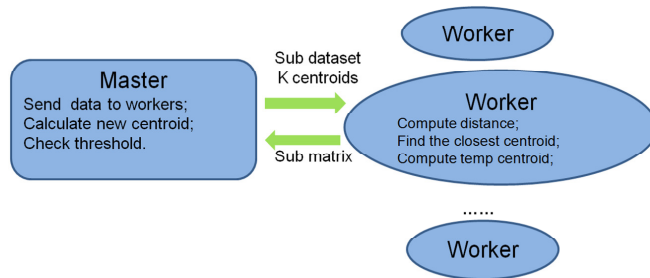


Figure 6. *k*-means on a GPU cluster

Algorithm 1: CPU-based k -Means

// *flag*: shows whether it still needs to iterate;
// *iter*: the current round of iteration;
// *Max_iter*: the maximum number of iterations;
// $d(r, s)$: the distance between r and the cluster s ;
// *min_D*: the temporal minimum distance;

1. **while** *flag* && *iter* <= *Max_iter*
2. **for** each r **in** R
3. **for** each s **in** S
4. Compute $d(r, s)$;
5. **end of for**
6. **end of for**
7. **for** each r **in** R
8. **for** each s **in** S
9. **if** $d(r_i, s_j) < min_D$
10. r belongs to s_j ;
11. $min_D \leftarrow d(r_i, s_j)$;
12. **end of if**
13. **end of for**
14. **end of for**
15. **for** each S_i **in** S
16. find new centroid of S_i
17. **end of for**
18. **if** the change of the centroid is less than threshold
19. $flag \leftarrow false$;
20. $iter \leftarrow iter + 1$;
21. **end of if**
22. **end of while**

Algorithm 2: finding closest centroid based on CPU

//*min_D*: a temp variable, stores the minimum distance;

// *index*: stores the min centroid ID for each data point;

1. **for** r_i **in** R
2. **for** s_j **in** S
3. **if** $d(r_i, s_j) < min_D$
4. $min_D \leftarrow d(r_i, s_j)$;
5. $index[i] \leftarrow j$;
6. **end of if**;
7. **end of for**;
8. **end of for**;

Algorithm 3: computing distance and finding closest centroid based on the register of the GPU

// *threadDim*: the dimension of the thread in each block;

// *blockDim*: the dimension of the block in each grid;

// *blockIdx.x*: the current block ID;

// *threadIdx.x*: the current thread ID;

// *data*: the address of R ;

// *i*: the ID of data point;

// *d*: the dimension of the data;

// *Gdata*: the address of the corresponding data point;

// S : the set of the centroid;

1. $threadDim \leftarrow 256$;
2. $blockDim \leftarrow n/256$;
3. $i \leftarrow blockIdx.x \times blockDim + threadIdx.x$;
4. $Gdata \leftarrow data + i \times d$;
5. Load the data point from $Gdata$ to the register;
6. **for** s_j **in** S
7. Compute $d(r_i, s_j)$;
8. **if** $d(r_i, s_j) < min_D$
9. $min_D \leftarrow d(r_i, s_j)$;
10. $index[i] \leftarrow j$;
11. **end of if**
12. **end of for**

Algorithm 4: computing distance based on the shared memory of the GPU

```

// TH: the high of the tile;
// TW: the width of the tile;
// thread: the dimensions of the block;
// grid: the dimensions of the grid;
// indexD points to the corresponding data;
// indexC points to the corresponding centroid;
// indexR points to the corresponding result;
// SMDData: stores the tile in shared memory;
// TResult: stores the temp distance in registers;
// SR: stores the distance in global memory;
// Alast: the upper bound address of data point;
// d: the dimension of the data;
// CTile: the row pointed by indexC,
//       the length is TW × TDimY;
// The centroids are on the constant memory;

```

1. $TH \leftarrow 16, TW \leftarrow 16, TDimY \leftarrow 2;$
2. $\dim thread(TH, TDimY);$
3. $\dim grid(k/TW, n/TH);$
4. $indexD = data$
 $\quad + blockIdx.y \times TH \times d$
 $\quad + threadIdx.y \times d + threadIdx.x.$
5. $indexC = centroid$
 $\quad + blockIdx.x \times TW$
 $\quad + threadIdx.y \times blockDim.x + threadIdx.x.$
6. $indexR = SR$
 $\quad + blockIdx.y \times TH \times k + blockIdx.x \times TW$
 $\quad + threadIdx.y \times blockDim.x + threadIdx.x.$
7. $SMDData[TW][TH]$ in shared memory;
8. $TResult[TW]$ in registers;
9. $Alast \leftarrow indexD + d;$
10. **do**
11. {
12. Load data from global memory to $SMDData$;
13. $indexD$ is added by TW ;
14. **for** each column **in** $SMDData$
15. $TResult[i] += d^2(SMdata[i], CTile)$
16. } **while** ($indexD < Alast$);
17. **for** each element **in** $TResult$
18. $TResult[i] = \sqrt{TResult[i]}$;
19. $__syncthreads();$
20. Writet $TResult$ back to SR ;

Algorithm 5: CPU_based method for computing new centroids

// *count*: stores the number of data points in each clusters;

// *new_cen*: the address of the new centroid;

// *data*: is the address of data point set *R*;

1. **for** *i* **from** 1 **to** *n*
2. ++*count*[*index*[*i*]];
3. **for** *j* **from** 1 **to** *d*
4. *new_cen* [*index*[*i*]][*j*] += *data*[*i*][*j*];
5. **end of for**
6. **end of for**
7. **for** *i* **from** 1 **to** *k*
8. **for** *j* **from** 1 **to** *d*
9. *new_cen* [*i*][*j*] /= *count*[*i*];
10. **end of for**
11. **end of for**

Algorithm 6: GPU_based method

for computing new centroids

// *n'*: is the number of groups to be divided;

1. *M* is the multiple of the number of SM;
2. $n' \leftarrow n/M$;
3. Divide *n* data points in to *n'* groups;
4. Compute *n'* temp centroids on the GPU;
5. **while** $n' > M$
6. Divide *n'* temp centroids into n'/M groups;
7. $n' \leftarrow n'/M$;
8. Compute *n'* temp centroids on the GPU;
9. **end of while**
10. Reduce *n'* temp centroids into final centroids on CPU;

Algorithm 7: k -Means for large dataset on Master

// n' : is the number of each sub dataset;
// $k_centroid[M+1][k][d]$: is the temporal result from each worker;
// $n_centroid[M+1][k]$: is the number of each cluster in each worker;
// $threshold$: a Boolean value to show whether it need further compute;

1. M is the number of workers;
2. $n' \leftarrow n/M$, each worker deals with n' data;
3. Divide n data points in to M groups;
4. **while** $threshold$
5. **for** each group data i
6. Compute distance between $data[i*n']$ and $k_centroid[0][0]$
7. Find closest centroid;
8. Compute new centroid $k_centroid[i][k]$ and $n_centroid[i][k]$;
9. **end of for**
10. **for** i from 1 to M
11. **for** j from 0 to k
12. **for** p from 0 to d
13. $k_centroid[0][j][p] += k_centroid[i][j][p]$;
14. **end of for**
15. $n_centroid[0][j] += n_centroid[i][j]$;
16. **end of for**
17. **end of for**
18. $k_centroid[0][k] /= n_centroid[0][k]$;
19. Check($threshold$);
20. **end of while**

Algorithm 8: k -Means for large dataset on Master

// j : the initial value is M , and it stands for the number of waiting workers;
// the other variables are the same with Algorithm 7;

1. **while** $threshold$
2. **while** $i < M$
3. SendData2Worker($i++$, $data[i*n']$, $k_centroid[0]$);
4. **end of while**
5. **While** $j > 0$
6. **if**(GetConnectionFromWorker(i)
7. $--j$;
8. ReceivedDataFromWorker($k_centroid[M][i]$, $n_centroid[i][k]$);
9. **end of if**
10. **end of while**
11. **for** i from 1 to M
12. Update $k_centroid[0]$;
13. Update $n_centroid[0]$;
14. **end of for**
15. $k_centroid[0][k] /= n_centroid[0][k]$;
16. Check($threshold$);
21. **end of while**

Note: lines 2-4 send the current centroids $k_centroid[0][0]$ and the subset of data $data[ixn']$ to the i -th worker; lines 5-8 receive the results including $k_centroid[i][k]$ and $n_centroid[i][k]$ from the i -th worker; lines 11-14 calculate the final summary and the number of point for each cluster, which is the same as lines 9-17 in Algorithm 7; line 15 calculates the mean of the previous summary.

Algorithm 9: k -Means for large dataset on Worker

// i : is the ID of the worker

```

1. while true
2.   if(GetConnection (  $i$  )
3.     ReceiveDataFromMaster( $k\_centroid[0]$ ,  $data[i * n]$ );
4.     Computing distance;
5.     Find closest centroid;
6.     for each cluster  $j$ 
7.       Calculate  $k\_centroid[i][j]$ ;
8.       Calculate  $n\_centroid[i][j]$ ;
9.     end of for
10.    SendData2Master( $k\_centroid[i]$ ,  $n\_centroid[i]$ );
11.   end of if
12. end of while

```

Note: line 1 means the worker keeps waiting for the connection from the master; line 3 receives data from master, containing the current centroids and the subset of data points; line 4 calculates the distance between the data points and the centroids; line 5 finds the closest centroid for each data point; line 6-9 calculate the summary of the data points and the number of the points in each cluster; line 10 sends the results back to the master and then waits for the next connection.

Table 1: Speed of k -Means on low-dimensional data, in second

n	k	d	<i>Our</i> <i>k-Means</i>	<i>HP</i> <i>k-Means</i>	<i>UV</i> <i>k-Means</i>	<i>GPU</i> <i>Miner</i>
2 million	100	2	0.22	1.45	2.84	61.39
	400	2	0.79	2.16	5.96	63.46
	100	8	0.35	2.48	6.07	192.05
	400	8	1.23	4.53	16.32	226.79
4 million	100	2	0.34	2.88	5.64	130.36
	400	2	1.22	4.38	11.94	126.38
	100	8	0.68	4.95	12.85	383.41
	400	8	2.26	9.03	34.54	474.83

Note: the time is in second. The hardware environment of HP is as follows:
NVIDIA GTX280 GPU; Intel Xeon CPU, 2.33GHz; 4GB memory.

Table 2: Speed changes on dimension, in millisecond

d	Finding the closest centroid	Computing new centroids
2	72	64
4	75	63
6	83	64
8	138	67
10	405	64

Note: $n = 10^6$, and $k = 100$.

Table 3: Speed changes on centroid, in millisecond

k	Finding the closest centroid	Computing new centroids
100	75	64
200	138	66
400	272	67

Note: $n = 10^6$, and $d = 4$.Table 4: Speed changes on n , in millisecond

n	Finding the closest centroid	Computing new centroids
1,024,000	77	60
2,048,000	130	66
3,072,000	512	62
4,096,000	284	64
6,144,000	431	69
8,192,000	567	68

Note: $d = 4$, and $k = 100$.Table 5: Speed of k -Means on high-dimensional data, in second

Data set	Our k -Means	UV k -Means	GPU Miner	CPU k -Means
51,200	0.34	1.86	4.26	35.79
494,080	1.15	8.67	40.6	224.47

Table 6: Time distribution of our k -Means algorithm, in second

Function/data set	Finding the closest centroid	Computing new centroids
51,200	GPU	0.10
	CPU	33.5
494,080	GPU	0.87
	CPU	207.78

Table 7: Speed changes on k , in millisecond

k	Finding the closest centroid	Computing new centroids
32	99	248
64	138	251
128	167	250
256	204	252
512	637	253

Note: $n = 51,200$, and $d = 34$.