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## Abstract

Recent developments in programmable, highly parallel Graphics Processing Units (GPUs) have enabled high performance implementations of machine learning algorithms. We describe a solver for Support Vector Machine training, using Platt's Sequential Minimal Optimization algorithm, which achieves speedups of  $5\text{-}32\times$  over LibSVM running on a high-end traditional processor. We also present a system for SVM classification which achieves speedups of  $120\text{-}150\times$  over LibSVM.

## 1. Introduction

Driven by the capabilities and limitations of modern semiconductor manufacturing, the computing industry is currently undergoing a massive shift towards parallel computing (Asanović et al., 2006). This shift brings dramatically enhanced performance to those algorithms which can be adapted to parallel computers.

One set of such algorithms are those used to implement Support Vector Machines (Cortes & Vapnik, 1995). Thanks to their robust generalization performance, SVMs have found use in diverse classification tasks, such as image recognition, bioinformatics, and text processing. Yet, training Support Vector Machines and using them for classification remains very computationally intensive. Much research has been done to accelerate training time, such as Osuna's decomposition approach (Osuna et al., 1997), Joachims' *SVM<sup>light</sup>* (Joachims, 1999), which introduced shrinking and kernel caching, Platt's Sequential Minimal Op-

timization (SMO) algorithm (Platt, 1999), and the working set selection heuristics used in LibSVM (Fan et al., 2005). Despite the extensive research that has been done to accelerate SVM training, it is still very significant for larger training sets.

In this paper, we show how Support Vector Machine training and classification can be adapted to a highly parallel, yet widely available and affordable computing platform: the graphics processor, or more specifically, the Nvidia GeForce 8800 GTX, and detail the performance gains achieved.

The organization of the paper is as follows. Section 2 describes the SVM training and classification problems briefly. Section 3 gives an overview of the architectural and programming features of the GPU. Section 4 presents the details of implementation of the parallel SMO approach on the GPU. Section 5 explains the implementation details of the SVM classification problem. We present our results in Section 6 and conclude in Section 7.

## 2. Support Vector Machines

We consider the standard two-class soft-margin SVM classification problem (C-SVM), which classifies a given data point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  by assigning a label  $y \in \{-1, 1\}$ .

### 2.1. SVM Training

Given a labeled training set consisting of a set of data points  $x_i, i \in \{1, \dots, l\}$  with their accompanying labels  $y_i, i \in \{1, \dots, l\}$ , the SVM training problem can

be written as the following Quadratic Program:

$$\begin{aligned} \max \quad & \sum_{i=1}^l \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \alpha^T Q \alpha \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C, \forall i \in 1 \dots l \\ & y^T \alpha = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is training data point  $i$ ,  $y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$  is the label attached to point  $x_i$ , and  $\alpha_i$  is a set of weights, one for each training point, which are being optimized to determine the SVM classifier.  $C$  is a parameter which trades classifier generality for accuracy on the training set, and  $Q_{ij} = y_i y_j \Phi(x_i, x_j)$ , where  $\Phi(x_i, x_j)$  is a kernel function. We consider the standard kernel functions shown in table 1.

Table 1. Standard Kernel Functions

LINEAR	$\Phi(x_i, x_j) = x_i \cdot x_j$
POLYNOMIAL	$\Phi(x_i, x_j; a, r, d) = (ax_i \cdot x_j + r)^d$
GAUSSIAN	$\Phi(x_i, x_j; \gamma) = \exp\{-\gamma \ x_i - x_j\ ^2\}$
SIGMOID	$\Phi(x_i, x_j; a, r) = \tanh(ax_i \cdot x_j + r)$

### 2.1.1. SMO ALGORITHM

The SVM Training problem can be solved by many methods, each with different parallelism implications. We have implemented the Sequential Minimal Optimization algorithm, first proposed by Platt (Platt, 1999), with the improved first-order variable selection heuristic proposed by Keerthi (Keerthi et al., 2001).

The SMO algorithm is a specialized optimization approach for the SVM quadratic program. It takes advantage of the sparse nature of the support vector problem and the simple nature of the constraints in the SVM QP to reduce each optimization step to its minimum form: updating two  $\alpha_i$  weights. The bulk of the computation is then to update the Karush-Kuhn-Tucker optimality conditions for the remaining set of weights and then reduce to find the two maximally violating weights, which are then updated in the next iteration until convergence.

The optimality conditions can be tracked through the vector  $f_i = \sum_{j=1}^l \alpha_j y_j \Phi(x_i, x_j) - y_i$ , which is constructed iteratively as the algorithm progresses. Following (Keerthi et al., 2001), we partition the training points into 5 sets, represented by their indices:

1. (Unbound SVs)  $I_0 = \{i : 0 < \alpha_i < C\}$
2. (Positive NonSVs)  $I_1 = \{i : y_i > 0, \alpha_i = 0\}$
3. (Bound Negative SVs)  $I_2 = \{i : y_i < 0, \alpha_i = C\}$
4. (Bound Positive SVs)  $I_3 = \{i : y_i > 0, \alpha_i = C\}$
5. (Negative NonSVs)  $I_4 = \{i : y_i < 0, \alpha_i = 0\}$

where  $C$  remains as defined in the SVM QP. We then define  $b_{high} = \min\{f_i : i \in I_0 \cup I_1 \cup I_2\}$ , and  $b_{low} = \max\{f_i : i \in I_0 \cup I_3 \cup I_4\}$ , with their accompanying indices  $I_{high} = \arg \min_{i \in I_0 \cup I_1 \cup I_2} f_i$ , and  $I_{low} = \arg \max_{i \in I_0 \cup I_3 \cup I_4} f_i$ .

As outlined in algorithm 1, at each step we search for  $b_{high}$  and  $b_{low}$ . We then then update their associated  $\alpha$  weights according to the following:

$$\alpha'_{I_{low}} = \alpha_{I_{low}} + \frac{y_{I_{low}}(b_{high} - b_{low})}{\eta} \quad (2)$$

$$\alpha'_{I_{high}} = \alpha_{I_{high}} + y_{I_{low}} y_{I_{high}} (\alpha_{I_{low}} - \alpha'_{I_{low}}) \quad (3)$$

where  $\eta = \Phi(x_{I_{high}}, x_{I_{high}}) + \Phi(x_{I_{low}}, x_{I_{low}}) - 2\Phi(x_{I_{high}}, x_{I_{low}})$ . To ensure that this update is feasible,  $\alpha'_{I_{low}}$  and  $\alpha'_{I_{high}}$  must be clipped to the valid range  $0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C$ .

After the  $\alpha$  update, the optimality condition vector  $f$  is updated for all points. This is done as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} f'_i = f_i &+ (\alpha'_{I_{high}} - \alpha_{I_{high}}) y_{I_{high}} \Phi(x_{I_{high}}, x_i) \\ &+ (\alpha'_{I_{low}} - \alpha_{I_{low}}) y_{I_{low}} \Phi(x_{I_{low}}, x_i) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

This update step is where the majority of work is performed in this algorithm.

### 2.2. SVM Classification

The SVM classification problem is as follows: for each data point  $z$  which should be classified, compute

$$\hat{z} = \text{sgn} \left\{ b + \sum_{i=1}^l y_i \alpha_i \Phi(x_i, z) \right\} \quad (5)$$

where  $z \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a point which needs to be classified,  $b$  is an offset derived from the solution to the SVM training problem (1), and all other variables remain as previously defined.

From the classification problem definition, it follows immediately that the decision surface is defined by referencing a subset of the training data, or more specif-

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#### Algorithm 1 Sequential Minimal Optimization

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**Input:** training data  $x_i$ , labels  $y_i$ ,  $\forall i \in \{1..l\}$

Initialize:  $\alpha_i = 0$ ,  $f_i = -y_i$ ,  $\forall i \in \{1..l\}$

Compute:  $b_{high}$ ,  $I_{high}$ ,  $b_{low}$ ,  $I_{low}$

Update  $\alpha_{I_{high}}$  and  $\alpha_{I_{low}}$

**repeat**

    Update  $f_i$ ,  $\forall i \in \{1..l\}$

    Compute:  $b_{high}$ ,  $I_{high}$ ,  $b_{low}$ ,  $I_{low}$

    Update  $\alpha_{I_{high}}$  and  $\alpha_{I_{low}}$

**until**  $b_{low} \leq b_{high} + 2\tau$

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ically, those training data points for which the corresponding  $\alpha_i > 0$ . Such points are called support vectors.

Generally, we classify not just one point, but a set of points. This can also be exploited for better performance, as explained in Section 5.

### 3. Graphics Processors

Graphics processors are currently transitioning from their initial role as specialized accelerators for triangle rasterization to general purpose engines for high throughput floating-point computation. Because they still service the large gaming industry, they are ubiquitous and relatively inexpensive.

State of the art GPUs provide up to an order of magnitude more peak IEEE single-precision floating-point than their CPU counterparts. Additionally, GPUs have much more aggressive memory subsystems, typically endowed with more than 10x higher memory bandwidth than a CPU. Peak performance is usually impossible to achieve on general purpose applications, yet capturing even a fraction of peak performance yields significant speedups.

GPU performance is dependent on finding high degrees of parallelism: a typical computation running on the GPU must express thousands of threads in order to effectively use the hardware capabilities. As such, we consider it an example of future "many-core" processing (Asanović et al., 2006). Algorithms for machine learning applications will need to consider such parallelism in order to utilize many-core processors. Applications which do not express parallelism will not continue improving their performance when run on newer computing platforms at the rates we have enjoyed in the past. Therefore, finding large scale parallelism is important for compute performance in the future. Programming for GPUs is then indicative of the future many-core programming experience.

In the past, GPUs have not provided sufficient floating-point accuracy to be generally useful. This is changing, now that Nvidia provides true round to nearest even rounding on IEEE single precision datatypes, and promises to implement IEEE double precision datatypes in the near future. However, neither AMD nor Nvidia currently supports the full set of IEEE rounding modes, or denormalized numbers. Additionally, accuracy on certain operations, such as division, square root, and the transcendental functions is not guaranteed to reach full IEEE standard accuracy. For many machine learning applications, such as the SVM training and classification applications that we present

in this paper, these caveats are not significant.

GPU architectures are specialized for compute-intensive, highly-parallel computation, and therefore are designed such that more resources are devoted to data processing than caching or flow control. In their current state GPUs are mainly used as accelerators for specific parts of an application, and as such are attached to a host CPU that performs most of the control-dominant computation.

#### 3.1. Nvidia GeForce 8800 GTX

In this project, we employ the NVIDIA GeForce 8800 GTX GPU, which is an instance of the G80 GPU architecture, and is a standard GPU widely available on the market. Pertinent facts about the GPU platform can be found in table 2. We refer the reader to the Nvidia CUDA reference manual for more details (Nvidia, 2007).

Table 2. Nvidia GeForce 8800 GTX Parameters

NUMBER OF MULTIPROCESSORS	16
MULTIPROCESSOR WIDTH	8
MULTIPROCESSOR LOCAL STORE SIZE	16 kB
# OF STREAM PROCESSORS	128
PEAK GENERAL PURPOSE IEEE SP	346 GFLOPS
CLOCK RATE	1.35 GHz
MEMORY CAPACITY	768 MB
MEMORY BANDWIDTH	86.4 GB/s
CPU↔GPU BANDWIDTH	3.2 GBIT/S

#### 3.2. CUDA

Nvidia provides a programming environment for its GPUs called the Compute Unified Device Architecture (CUDA). The user codes in annotated C++, accelerating compute intensive portions of the application by executing them on the GPU.

Figure 1 illustrates how the GPU appears to the programmer. The programmer organizes the computation into grids, which are organized as a set of thread blocks. The grids run sequentially on the GPU, meaning that all computation in the grid must finish before another grid is invoked. As mentioned, grids contain thread blocks, which are batches of threads that execute together, sharing local memories and synchronizing at programmer specified barriers. A maximum of 512 threads can comprise a thread block, which puts a limit on the scope of synchronization and communication in the computation. However, enormous numbers of blocks can be launched in parallel in the grid, so that the total number of threads that can be launched in parallel is very high. In practice, we need a large

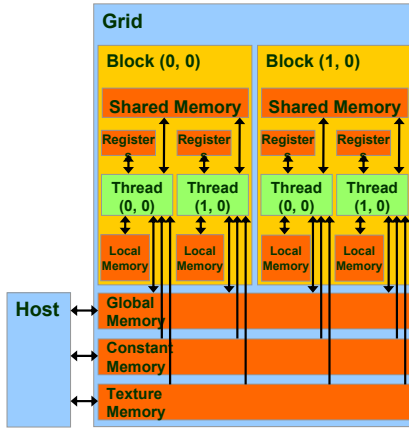


Figure 1. Logical organization of the GeForce 8800

number of thread blocks to ensure that the compute power of the GPU is efficiently utilized.

## 4. SVM Training Implementation

Since GPUs need a large number of threads to efficiently exploit parallelism, we create one thread for every data point in the training set. The task of each thread is to compute  $f'$  in (4), which reflects the impact of the optimization step on the optimality conditions of the remaining data points. We then apply the first order working set selection heuristic (Keerthi et al., 2001) to select the points to optimize in the next iteration. The details are explained in the following section.

### 4.1. Map Reduce

At least since the LISP programming language, programmers have been mapping independent computations onto partitioned data sets, using reduce operations to summarize the results. Recently, Google proposed a Map Reduce variant for processing large datasets on compute clusters (Dean & Ghemawat, 2004). This algorithmic pattern is very useful for extracting parallelism, since it is simple to understand, and maps well to parallel hardware, given the inherent parallelism in the map stage of the computation.

The Map Reduce pattern has been shown to be useful for many machine learning applications (Chu et al., 2007), and is a natural fit for our SVM training algorithm. The computation of  $f'$  in (4) is the map function, and the search for  $b_{low}$ ,  $b_{high}$ ,  $I_{low}$  and  $I_{high}$  is the reduction operation. The parallelism needed for extracting performance on the GPU comes from the

number of training points in the data set: for each data point, an element of  $f'$  must be computed, which is done by a dedicated thread. After the map function has been performed, the results are summarized by the reduction to compute the final result. In order to extract maximum parallelism, we structure the reduction as a tree, where the number of elements still participating in the reduction halves at each level of the reduction.

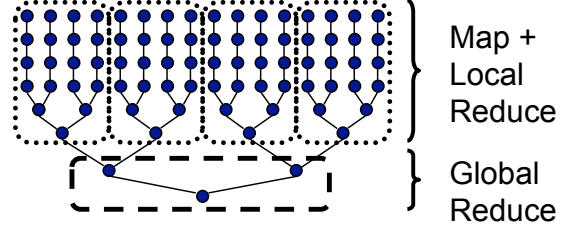


Figure 2. Structuring the Map Reduce

Because the CUDA programming model has strict limitations on synchronization and communication between thread blocks, we have organized the reduction in stages, as shown in figure 2. The first stage does the map computation, as well as a local reduce within a thread block. Subsequent stages implement the global reduce. Each stage of this process is implemented as a call to the GPU. For really large datasets, the global reduce is done in stages, with more than one call to the GPU.

### 4.2. Implementation Details

#### 4.2.1. CACHING

Since evaluating the kernel function  $\Phi(\cdot)$  is a dominant part of the computation, it is useful to cache as much as possible from the matrix of kernel function evaluations  $K_{ij} = \Phi(x_i, x_j)$  (Joachims, 1999). We compute rows of this matrix on the fly, as needed by the algorithm, and cache them in the available memory on the GPU.

When updating the vector  $f$ , we need access to two rows of  $K$ , since we have changed exactly two entries in  $\alpha$ . In our system, the CPU checks to see which of these two rows, if any, are present in the cache. If a row is not present, the CPU voids the least recently used row of the cache, and assigns it to the new row which is needed. For the rows which hit in the cache, the GPU avoids doing the kernel evaluations. Otherwise, the GPU writes out the appropriate row or rows after computing the kernel values.

### 4.2.2. DATA MOVEMENT

Programming the GPU requires manually copying data from the host computer to the GPU and vice versa, and it also requires manually copying data from the GPU’s global memory to the fast local stores. As mentioned previously, if the cache does not contain a particular row of  $K$  corresponding to the point  $x_j$ , that row will need to be generated, which means that we need to compute  $\Phi(x_i, x_j) \forall i \in 1..l$ . Since the vector  $x_j$  is shared between all computations, we load it into the GPU’s local store. This is key to performance, since accessing the local store is orders of magnitude faster than accessing the global memory.

### 4.3. Related Work

There have been previous attempts to parallelize the SVM training problem. The most similar to ours is (Cao et al., 2006), which parallelizes the SMO algorithm on a cluster of computers using MPI. Both our approach and their approach use the parallelism inherent in the KKT condition updates as the major source of parallelism. However, in terms of implementation, GPUs present a completely different model than clusters, and hence the amount of parallelism exploited, such as the number of threads, granularity of computation per thread, memory access patterns, and data partitioning are very different.

Many other approaches for parallelizing SVM training have been presented. The cascade SVM (Graf et al., 2005) is another proposed method for parallelizing SVM training on clusters. It uses a method of divide and conquer to solve large SVM problems. (Zanni et al., 2006) parallelize the underlying QP solver using Parallel Gradient Projection Technique. Work has been done on using a parallel Interior Point Method for solving the SVM training problem (Wu et al., 2006). (Collobert et al., 2002) proposes a method where the several smaller SVMs are trained in a parallel fashion and their outputs weighted using a Artificial Neural Network. (Ferreira et al., 2006) implement a gradient based solution for SVM training, which relies on data parallelism in computing the gradient of the objective function for an unconstrained QP optimization at its core. Some of these techniques, for example, the training set decomposition approaches like the Cascade SVM are orthogonal to the work we describe, and could be applied to our solver. We implemented the parallel SMO training algorithm because of its relative simplicity, yet high performance and robust convergence characteristics.

## 5. SVM Classification Implementation

We approached the SVM classification problem by making use of the Map Reduce computations as well as vendor supplied Basic Linear Algebra Subroutines - specifically, the Matrix Matrix Multiplication routine (SGEMM), which calculates  $C' = \alpha AB + \beta C$ , for matrices  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  and scalars  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . For the Linear, Polynomial, and Sigmoid kernels, calculating the classification value involves finding the dot product between all test points and the support vectors, which is done through SGEMM. For the Gaussian kernel, we use the simple identity  $\|x - y\|^2 = x \cdot x + y \cdot y - 2x \cdot y$  to recast the computation into a Matrix Matrix multiplication, where the SGEMM computes  $D_{ij} = -\gamma \|z_i - x_j\|^2 = 2\gamma(z_i \cdot x_j) - \gamma(z_i \cdot z_i + x_j \cdot x_j)$ , for a set of unknown points  $z$  and a set of support vectors  $x$ . We then apply a map reduce computation to combine the computed  $D$  values to get the final result.

Continuing the Gaussian example, the map function exponentiates  $D_{ij}$  element wise, multiplies each column of the resulting matrix by the appropriate  $y_j \alpha_j$ . The reduce function sums the rows of the matrix and adds  $b$  to obtain the final classification for each data point as given by equation (5). Other kernels require similar map reduce calculations to finish the classification.

## 6. Results

The SMO implementation on the GPU is compared with LibSVM, as LibSVM uses Sequential Minimal Optimization for SVM training. We used the Gaussian kernel in all of our experiments, since it is widely employed.

### 6.1. Training

We tested the performance of our GPU implementation versus LibSVM on the following datasets:

Table 3. Dataset Size

DATASET	# POINTS	# DIMENSIONS
ADULT	32,561	123
WEB	49,749	300
MNIST	60,000	784
USPS	7,291	256
FOREST	561,012	54
FACE	6,977	381

**Adult** dataset (Asuncion & Newman, 2007) presents the task of classifying if a person’s income exceeds \$50000/year based on census data. Each data-

Table 4. Details from SVM training on the GPU and with LibSVM

DATASET	GPU		LIBSVM		% DIFFERENCE IN $b$
	# SV	ITERATIONS	# SV	ITERATIONS	
ADULT	18,666	115,838	19,058	43,735	0.006
WEB	35,220	81,721	35,232	85,299	0.01
MNIST	43,731	68,008	43,756	76,385	0.04
USPS	684	7,062	684	4,614	0.02
FOREST	270,373	2,064,502	270,311	275,516	0.08
FACE	3,310	6,024	3,322	5,342	0.01

point has 123 binary attributes. For this dataset, we used a value of  $C = 100$  and  $\gamma=0.5$ .

**Web** dataset (Platt, 1999) has a set of 300 binary attributes for every point in the dataset. These correspond to the attributes of a web page and the task is to decide if the web page belongs to a particular category or not.  $C=64$  and  $\gamma=7.8125$  were used (Cao et al., 2006).

**MNIST** dataset (LeCun et al., 1998) has a set of  $28 \times 28$  images, each of which has a handwritten digit. The task is to be able to classify a digit as one of the 10 categories. Since this is a multi-class classification problem, we converted it into a 2-class problem by doing a even-Vs-odd digit classification. The values of  $C$  and  $\gamma$  used were 10 and 0.125 respectively.

**USPS** dataset (Hull, 1994) is also a handwritten digit classification dataset on  $12 \times 12$  images. An even-Vs-odd classification was performed on the dataset.  $C=10$ ,  $\gamma = 2^{-8}$  were used.

**Forest cover type** (Asuncion & Newman, 2007) is a dataset of cartographic variables from US Geological survey data. The task is to predict forest cover type from the information. It is a multiclass classification problem. We have used a class-2-versus-the-rest problem for our experiments.  $C=10$  and  $\gamma=0.125$  were used.

**Face detection** dataset (Rowley et al., 1998) has a set of  $19 \times 19$  images of faces and non-faces, which are histogram equalized and normalized. The task is to separate the faces from the non-faces. The training values used were  $C=10$  and  $\gamma=0.125$ .

The sizes of the datasets are given in table 3.

We ran LibSVM on an Intel Core 2 Duo 2.66 GHz processor, and gave LibSVM a cache size of 650 MB, which is slightly larger than our GPU implementation was allowed. File I/O time was not included in solver

runtime. Table 4 shows results from our solver. Since any two solvers give slightly different answers on the same optimization problem, due to the inexact nature of the optimization process, we show the number of support vectors returned by the two solvers as well as how close the final values of  $b$  were for the GPU solver and LibSVM, which were both run with the same tolerance value  $\tau = 0.001$ . As shown in the table, the deviation in number of support vectors between the two solvers is less than 2%, and the deviation in the offset  $b$  is always less than 0.1%. Our solver provides equivalent accuracy to the LibSVM solver, which will be shown again in the classification results section.

Table 5. Comparison of GPU vs LibSVM solve times

DATASET	GPU (SEC)	LIBSVM (SEC)	SPEEDUP
ADULT	36.312	550.178	15.1
WEB	181.334	2422.469	13.4
MNIST	525.783	16965.794	32.3
USPS	0.733	5.092	6.9
FOREST	13360.785	66523.538	5.0
FACE	2.57	27.61	10.7

Table 5 contains performance results for the two solvers. We see speedups in all cases from  $5 \times$  to  $32 \times$ . There is still room for improving these figures, since we have not yet implemented all the optimizations possible for this problem. For example, LibSVM uses a second order heuristic for picking the new points for doing a single iteration of QP optimization, while our GPU implementation uses a first order heuristic. In most cases, this leads to the GPU solver running many more iterations than LibSVM. Also, for large sparse datasets, our solver is disadvantaged because we currently represent the data in a dense format. Furthermore, we haven't yet implemented working set shrinking. Despite the relative immaturity of our solver, we still achieve significant performance gains. For problems with large dimensions and where the number of iterations are close to those of LibSVM, the GPU solver achieves significant speedups.



Table 6. Performance and accuracy of GPU SVM classification vs. LibSVM

DATASET	GPU		LIBSVM		SPEEDUP
	ACCURACY	TIME (S)	ACCURACY	TIME (S)	
ADULT	6619/8000	0.570	6619/8000	75.65	132.5
WEB	3920/4000	1.069	3920/4000	144.53	135.2
MNIST	2400/2500	1.98	2400/2500	258.751	130.7
USPS	1948/2007	0.0097	1948/2007	1.194	123.2
FACE	23664/24045	0.706	23665/24045	109.259	154.8

## 6.2. Classification

Results for our classifier are presented in table 6. We achieve 120-150x speedup over LibSVM on the datasets shown. As with the solver, file I/O times were excluded from overall runtime.

When performing the classification tests, we used the SVM classifier output by the GPU solver with the GPU classifier, and used the SVM classifier provided by LibSVM’s solver to perform classification with LibSVM. Thus, the accuracy of the classification results presented in table 6 reflect the overall accuracy of the GPU solver and GPU classifier system. The results are essentially identical. Only one out of 40552 test points were classified differently between the two systems, which shows that our GPU based SVM system is as accurate as traditional CPU based methods.

## 7. Conclusion

This work has demonstrated the utility of graphics processors for SVM classification and training. Training time is reduced by 5 – 32 $\times$ , and classification time is reduced by 120 – 150 $\times$  compared to LibSVM. These kinds of performance improvements can change the scope of SVM problems which are routinely solved, increasing the applicability of SVMs to difficult classification problems. For example, finding a classifier for an input data set with 60000 data points and 784 dimensions takes less than ten minutes on the GPU, compared with almost 5 hours on the CPU. Scanning images for faces with SVMs can be done at a rate of 34200 Faces/second versus only 220 Faces/second on the CPU.

The GPU is a very low cost way to achieve such high performance: the GeForce 8800 GTX fits into any modern desktop machine, and currently costs \$500, while the compatible GeForce 8800 GT provides 97% of the floating-point performance for only \$300. Problems which used to require a compute cluster can now be solved on one’s own desktop. New machine learning algorithms that can take advantage of this kind of performance, by expressing parallelism widely, will

provide compelling benefits on future many-core platforms.

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