Layph: Making Change Propagation Constraint in Incremental Graph Processing by Layering Graph

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Abstract-Real-world graphs are constantly evolving, which demands updates of the previous analysis results to accommodate graph changes. By using the memoized previous computation state, incremental graph computation can reduce unnecessary recomputation. However, a small change may propagate over the whole graph and lead to large-scale iterative computations. To address this problem, we propose Layph, a two-layered graph framework. The upper layer is a skeleton of the graph which is much smaller than the original graph, and the lower layer has some disjoint subgraphs. Layph limits costly global iterative computations on the original graph to the small graph skeleton and a few subgraphs updated with the input graph changes. In this way, many vertices and edges are not involved in iterative computations, which significantly reduces the computation overhead and improves the performance of incremental graph processing. Our experimental results show that Layph outperforms current state-of-the-art incremental graph systems by $9.08\times$ on average (up to $36.66\times$) in response time.

Index Terms—incremental graph processing, layered graph, graph skeleton

I. INTRODUCTION

Iterative graph algorithms, e.g., single source shortest path (SSSP) and PageRank, have been widely applied in many fields [1]-[5]. Real-world graphs are continuously evolving with structure changes, where vertices and edges are inserted or deleted arbitrarily. These changes are usually small, e.g., there were 6.4 million articles on English Wikipedia in 2021 [6], but the average number of new articles per day was only 580. Traditional classical graph processing systems [7]–[13] have to recompute the updated graph from scratch. However, there are considerable overlaps between computations before and after the graph updates. It is desirable to adopt incremental graph computation to cope with these small changes efficiently. That is, a batched iterative algorithm is applied to compute the result over the original graph G till convergence, and then an incremental algorithm is used to adjust the result in response to the input changes ΔG to G.

The incremental graph computation can reduce unnecessary recomputation by using the memoized iterative computation state, *e.g.*, intermediate vertex states or messages. The benefits of incremental graph computation have led to the development

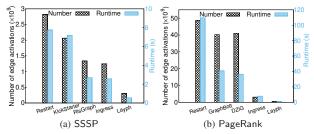


Fig. 1: Number of edge activations and runtime of different incremental graph processing systems for SSSP and PageRank.

of many incremental graph processing systems, such as Kick-Starter [14], GraphBolt [15], Ingress [16], DZiG [17], and RisGraph [18]. They memoize (intermediate or final) vertex states and organize them in a data structure that captures result dependencies, such as a tree (for critical path) [14], [18] or a multilayer network (for per-iteration dependencies) [15], [17]. With such a structure, the update of a vertex/edge will be propagated for updating the memoized intermediate/final states of vertices iteratively. However, an upstream vertex/edge update may incur a large number of updates to the downstream vertex/edge states in existing incremental graph processing systems. That is, a small change may propagate over the entire graph and lead to large-scale iterative computations.

With 5000 random edge updates on the UK graph (see Table I for details), we run SSSP and PageRank on five state-of-theart incremental graph processing systems (KickStarter [14], GraphBolt [15], DZiG [17], RisGraph [18], and Ingress [16]) and a Restart system that starts computations on the updated graph from scratch. The number of edge activations and runtime of these systems are reported in Figure 1. Even though the amount of updates is small $(|\Delta G|/|G|=5000/(9.4\times10^8)<0.001\%)$, these updates propagate widely and iteratively on the graph, resulting in a large number of edge activations in some systems, which is almost approaching the number in restarting iterative computations.

We empirically illustrate this observation with an example in Figure 2. Figure 2b shows an updated graph based on graph G, where the edge (v_3, v_4) is deleted and a new edge (v_3, v_2) is added. As shown in Figure 2c, when running SSSP, existing

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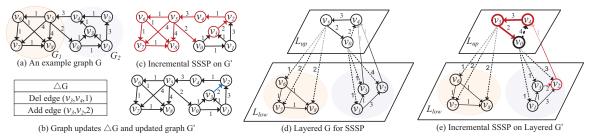


Fig. 2: An illustrative example of a layered graph for incremental SSSP, where v_0 is source vertex, and G_1 and G_2 are two dense subgraphs. The dashed lines are the shortcuts between two vertices, through which the shortest distance from a vertex to another one can be directly obtained. The number labeled on each link represents the weight of the edge or shortcut. In (c) and (e), the red links or circles represent the activated edges/shortcuts or vertices involved in iterative computations.

incremental graph processing systems [14], [16], [18] activate most of the vertices and edges. As the iteration proceeds, the activated vertices may be updated several times, e.g., v_4 and its downstream vertices are updated twice due to the update messages from v_2 at different iterations.

Challenge. Based on the above observations and illustration, we can see that very small graph changes can also lead to a large number of iterative computations, even on the basis of previous memoized vertex/edge states provided by incremental processing systems. The main reason is that, in real-world graphs, vertices are either directly or indirectly connected in several hops, which makes it hard to constrain the affected area. The native properties of real graphs fundamentally limit the effectiveness of incremental graph computation. Is it possible to reconstruct the graph structure to boost the performance of incremental graph computation?

Intuition. In incremental graph computation, the messages initiated by graph updates are propagated iteratively to update the states of vertices. When an update message enters into a dense subgraph from entry vertices, a large number of internal vertices and edges within the subgraph will be activated and involved in the iterative computation. The incoming messages probably require many iterations to get out of this dense subgraph from exit vertices. A natural idea is to extract the entry and exit vertices of the dense subgraph, and construct shortcuts between them to propagate messages directly through the dense subgraph, which can avoid the activations of a large number of internal vertices and edges. As shown in Figure 2d, we extract the entry vertex v_0 and exit vertex v_4 of G_2 and construct a shortcut between them. Then the messages can be propagated directly through G_2 via the shortcut. Furthermore, we construct a shortcut between the entry vertices and the internal vertices in each subgraph. The entry vertices can accumulate the incoming messages and eventually assign them to the internal vertices at a time via the shortcuts. As shown in Figure 2d, after v_5 accumulates all incoming messages, v_5 will send the update messages to v_6 - v_8 at a time. In this way, only the entry and exit vertices of subgraphs and outliers participate in the global iterative computations.

Our Solution. Based on the above intuition, we propose an incremental graph processing framework by <u>layering</u> the graph, Layph. As shown in Figure 2d, Layph divides the

graph into two layers, the upper layer (L_{up}) and the lower layer (L_{low}) . L_{up} is a skeleton of the original graph Gcomposed of the boundary vertices of subgraphs and outliers, the size of which is much smaller than that of G. L_{low} is composed of some disjoint subgraphs. Vertices on L_{up} and vertices on L_{low} are connected by shortcuts (dashed lines) or edges. After G is updated by ΔG , we first update the layered graph accordingly. The revision messages are generated and propagated only within the subgraphs on L_{low} that are updated by ΔG . As shown in Figure 2e, revision messages are generated from v_3 and are propagated within G_2 . Then the messages are uploaded to L_{up} , e.g., the messages are propagated from v_2 to v_4 in Figure 2e. The global iterative computations are performed on L_{up} . Compared with 10 edges participating in the iterative computation in Figure 2c, only 2 edges/shortcuts are involved on L_{up} in Figure 2e. Therefore, the global iterative computations on L_{up} are much faster than that on graph G'. Finally, the updates are assigned to the other subgraphs on L_{low} , e.g., G_2 . Vertex states are updated directly through shortcuts without iterative computations. We can see that Layph performs iterative computations only on the upper layer small skeleton and a few subgraphs (on L_{low}) that are updated by ΔG . Most vertices and edges on L_{low} are not involved in iterative computations. Thus Layph is able to accelerate the incremental graph computation efficiently.

To sum up, we make the following contributions.

- Layered Incremental Graph Processing Framework. It constraints the incremental iterative computation to a small area, *i.e.*, a few subgraphs affected by the graph update and a small skeleton, thus greatly reducing the number of edge activations in the iterative process. (Section III & V)
- Effective Skeleton Extraction and Automated Shortcut Deduction. We design an effective skeleton extraction method that reduces the size of the skeleton by replicating vertices. Based on the input vertex-centric program, our proposed framework can deduce the weight of shortcuts automatically. (Section IV)
- High-Performance Runtime Engine. We implement our runtime engine Layph based on Ingress [16] and Alibaba's libgrape-lite [19]. Comparing with current state-of-the-art incremental graph processing systems, Layph can achieve 3.13-15.82× speedup over Kickstarter [14], 2.54-8.49× speedup over RisGraph [18], 2.99-36.66× speedup over

GraphBolt [15], 2.92-32.93× speedup over DZiG [17], and 1.06-7.22× speedup over Ingress [16]. (Section VI)

II. PRELIMINARIES

This section provides the necessary preliminaries for iterative graph computation and incremental graph computation.

A. Iterative Graph Computation

Given an input graph G = (V, E), where V is a finite set of vertices and $E \subseteq V \times V$ is a set of edges. The weight of each edge $(u,v) \in E$ is $w_{u,v}$ in a weighted graph or a consistent value 1 in an unweighted graph. In general, an iterative graph algorithm A that executes in an accumulative model, includes two types of operations, i.e., message generation \mathcal{F} and message aggregation \mathcal{G} [9], [10], [20].

$$m_{u,v}^{i} = \mathcal{F}(m_{u}^{i-1}, w_{u,v}),$$

$$x_{v}^{i} = \mathcal{G}(x_{v}^{i-1}, \{m_{*,v}^{i} | (*, v) \in E\}).$$
(1)

where $m_u^{i-1} = \mathcal{G}(\{m_{*,u}^{i-1} | (*, u) \in E\}).$

The message generate operation \mathcal{F} applied on each vertex $u \in V$ prepares the message $m_{u,v}$ for each outgoing edge (u,v) based on the aggregation of received message m_u and the edge weight $w_{u,v}$. The aggregation operation \mathcal{G} is applied on each destination vertex v. It first aggregates the messages that terminate at v to obtain a new message m_v , then aggregates the old vertex state x_v and the aggregated message m_v to update the vertex state x_v . The two-step process is applied iteratively till convergence (when vertex states become stable). To sum up, an iterative graph computation can be expressed as $\mathcal{A}=(\mathcal{F},\mathcal{G},X^0,M^0)$ where \mathcal{F} and \mathcal{G} are the operations that specify the algorithm logic, and $X^0 = \{x_v^0 | v \in V\}$ and $M^0 = \{m_v^0 | v \in V\}$ are the initial values of vertex states and root messages respectively. A graph computation on the input graph G can be denoted as $\mathcal{A}(G)$.

Suppose A can be executed asynchronously, then it can be expressed as Equation (1) naturally, such as SSSP. Otherwise, the synchronous algorithms should be rewritten in accumulative mode and executed asynchronously, such as PageRank. There are some efforts [9], [10] that rewrite a synchronous algorithm in asynchronous accumulative mode.

Example 1: We show two example algorithms.

(a) SSSP. SSSP computes the shortest distance from a given source s to all vertices in a directed and weighted graph G. A is represented as follows

- $\begin{array}{l} \bullet \ \mathcal{F}(m_u,w_{u,v})=m_u+w_{u,v}; \quad \mathcal{G}=\text{min}; \\ \bullet \ x_v^0=0 \ \text{if} \ v=s, \ \text{otherwise} \ x_v^0=+\infty; \\ \bullet \ m_v^0=0 \ \text{if} \ v=s, \ \text{otherwise} \ m_v^0=+\infty. \end{array}$

Here the state x_v of v indicates the shortest distance from source s to v and $w_{u,v}$ represents the length of the edge (u,v). Initially, we have $x_v^0 = m_v^0 = 0$ for v = s, and $x_v^0 = m_v^0 = +\infty$ for all $v \neq s$. Each vertex u generates and sends a message $m_{u,v}$ to each neighbor v, which represents the current shortest distance from the source. Each destination vertex v aggregates the messages from its incoming neighbors and updates its state x_v by min. The algorithm terminates when the shortest distance values of all vertices are not changed.

(b) PageRank. PageRank computes the set of ranking scores $\overline{\{\mathsf{PR}_v = d \times \mathsf{sum}_{(u,v) \in E} \mathsf{PR}_u / N_u + (1-d) \mid v \in V\}}$. Here d is a constant damping factor and N_u denotes the number of outgoing neighbors of u. Different from the original PageRank algorithm that exploits the power method, an asynchronous PageRank algorithm [10] that has been proved to be equivalent to the original PageRank can be represented as follows

$$\begin{array}{ll} \bullet \ \mathcal{F}(m_u,w_{u,v}) = m_u \times d/N_u; & \mathcal{G} = \mathrm{sum}; \\ \bullet \ x_v^0 = 0, \ \forall v \in V; & m_v^0 = 1 - d, \ \forall v \in V. \end{array}$$

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$$x_v^0 = 0, \forall v \in V; \quad m_v^0 = 1 - d, \forall v \in V.$$

Intuitively, each vertex v uses its state x_v to store its PageRank score. Initially, we have $x_v^0 = 0$ and $m_v^0 = 1 - d$ for all $v \in V$. Every time when a vertex u receives a message m_u , it will send $m_u \times d/N_u$ to each neighbor v. Each neighbor v aggregates the messages from its incoming neighbors by sum and updates its state by accumulating the aggregated messages. The algorithm terminates when all vertex states are stable. \Box

Equation (1) defines the vertex-centric format of asynchronous iterative computation. On this basis, we can define a set-based iterative computation as follows

$$M^{i} = \mathcal{F}(M^{i-1});$$

$$X^{i} = \mathcal{G}(X^{i-1} \cup M^{i}).$$
(2)

 $X = \{x_v \mid v \in V\}$ is the set of vertex states. $M^0 = \{m_v^0 \mid v \in V\}$ V} is the set of root messages of each vertex and $M^{k\neq 0} =$ $\{m_v^k\}$ is the set of generated messages on all edges. It should be noticed that these are slight meaning changes of $\mathcal F$ and $\mathcal G$ in set-based format. \mathcal{F} is the message generate operation with edge information embedded so it only needs a single parameter M. \mathcal{G} is the group-by aggregator (group by vertex id). Based on this set-based computation, the vertex states set X after niterations is

$$X^{n} = \mathcal{G}\left(X^{0} \cup (\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F})(M^{0}) \cup \ldots \cup (\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F})^{n}(M^{0})\right)$$
$$= \mathcal{G}\left(X^{0} \cup \bigcup_{k=1}^{n} (\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F})^{k}(M^{0})\right), \tag{3}$$

where $\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F}(\cdot) = \overset{k=1}{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{F}(\cdot))$ and $(\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F})^k$ denotes k applications of $(\mathcal{G} \circ \mathcal{F})$.

Message Passing's Perspective. From message propagation's perspective, the final state x_v of each vertex v is obtained by accumulating the messages M^0 initiated from all vertices transferred along different paths. In each iteration, i.e., one time application of \mathcal{F} and \mathcal{G} , a message is processed and split into several messages from a vertex to its direct neighbors (under the effect of \mathcal{F}). The messages received from different incoming neighbors are aggregated into one message (under the effect of \mathcal{G}), which will be propagated again in the next iteration. At the same time, the aggregated message is applied to the vertex state (under the effect of \mathcal{G}). This is exactly the process described in Equation (1).

B. Incremental Graph Computation

Given an iterative graph computation A and its incremental counterpart $\mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{A}}$, the problem of incremental computation arises when the input graph G is updated with ΔG . Let $\mathcal{A}(G)$ denote the output of an old graph G with the effect of batch graph algorithm \mathcal{A} . The inputs of incremental computation include $\mathcal{A}(G)$ and graph updates ΔG . Then we have

$$\mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{A}}(\mathcal{A}(G), \Delta G) = \mathcal{A}(G \oplus \Delta G) \tag{4}$$

It means that the incremental computation $\mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{A}}(\mathcal{A}(G), \Delta G)$ that is performed based on the old result $\mathcal{A}(G)$ and the graph updates ΔG is expected to output $\mathcal{A}(G \oplus \Delta G)$, where $G \oplus \Delta G$ denotes applying the updates ΔG to G. It is noticeable that the incrementalization scheme $\mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{A}}$ is algorithm-specific and is deduced from its original algorithm \mathcal{A} .

The input batch update ΔG consists of a set of *unit updates*. To simplify our discussion, we consider the insertion or deletion of a single edge as a unit update in a sequence, which can simulate certain modifications. For instance, each change to an edge weight can be considered as deleting the edge and followed by adding another edge with the new property. The incremental computation $\mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{A}}$ will identify the changes to the old output $\mathcal{A}(G)$ and make corrections of the previous computation in response to ΔG .

Message Passing's Perspective. From Equation (3) we know that the input changes will affect the message propagation since both \mathcal{F} and \mathcal{G} are correlated with the graph structure, and as a result, will change the final vertex states. Due to the insertion, update, or deletion of an edge, a set of messages might become invalid, and another set of messages might be missing. An old message transmitted during the run over the original graph G is called *invalid* if the path for passing the message disappears due to input updates ΔG . A new message transferred in the run over the $G \oplus \Delta G$ is called missing if it did not appear in the run over G. In incremental computation, we should first discover all the invalid and missing messages and then perform the corrections on the affected areas of $G \oplus \Delta G$ by generating cancellation messages (resp. compensation messages) to retract (resp. replay) effects of the invalid messages (resp. missing messages) [14]-[17]. In this paper, the cancellation and compensation messages are collectively called as revision messages.

III. FRAMEWORK OVERVIEW

In this section, we first present the workflow of the layered graph framework and then analyze the benefits of Layph.

Workflow of Layph. The overall workflow is illustrated in Figure 3. At the beginning of incremental graph processing, given a graph G, we first divide the graph into two layers. The upper layer (L_{up}) is the skeleton of the graph. L_{up} consists of the entry/exit vertices of all dense subgraphs, vertices that are not in any dense subgraph, and the shortcuts or edges between them. The lower layer (L_{low}) is composed of all disjointed dense subgraphs. The entry vertices (on L_{up}) and the internal vertices (on L_{low}) of each dense subgraph are connected with shortcuts between L_{up} and L_{low} . Please refer to Section IV for the details of constructing the layered graph. Then we perform incremental graph computations on the layered graph, which

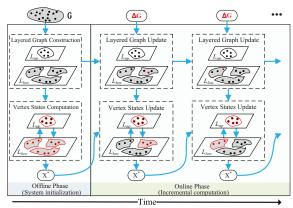


Fig. 3: Workflow of Layph.

includes two steps, i) the layered graph update (Section IV) and ii) the vertex states update (Section V).

Layered Graph Update. Given a layered graph \overline{G} of an original graph G, \overline{G} should be updated, when G is updated by ΔG . This is because the shortcuts, including the shortcuts on L_{up} and the shortcuts between L_{up} and L_{low} , may be changed as the graph changes. The shortcut update requires iterative computations and is only performed on the subgraphs updated by ΔG . Meanwhile, the shortcut update can be parallelized well as the subgraphs are independent of each other.

<u>Vertex States Update</u>. When the graph changes, we first deduce the revision messages based on the memoized information [14]–[16], then propagate the revision messages on the layered graph to revise the vertex states. The incremental computation on Layph is performed as follows.

- Revision messages upload. In order to apply the revision messages deduced by vertices on L_{low} to vertices on L_{up} , the revision messages on L_{low} should be uploaded to L_{up} . Similar to shortcut updates, the messages upload can also be performed in parallel and only performed on subgraphs affected by ΔG .
- Iterative computation on L_{up} . After receiving the revision messages from L_{low} , iterative computations are performed to propagate the revision messages and revise the states of the vertices on L_{up} .
- Revision messages assignment. After the iterative computations on L_{up} , the entry vertices (on L_{up}) of each subgraph accumulate all the revision messages. The accumulated revision messages are assigned from entry vertices to internal vertices (on L_{low}) through shortcuts to revise the states of vertices on L_{low} .

Analysis. From the above workflow of Layph, we can see that the iterative computations only perform on L_{up} and a few subgraphs on L_{low} . The vertices and edges within subgraphs that are not updated by ΔG are not involved in iterative computations, which saves significant computation overhead.

IV. LAYERED GRAPH CONSTRUCTION AND UPDATE

Layph is performed on a layered graph. This section presents how to construct a layered graph and update it incrementally.

A. Layered Graph Construction

In this section, we first introduce how to extract vertices on the upper layer. Then we provide an automated shortcut calculation method.

1) Upper Layer Vertices Extraction: As we have presented the intuition behind Layph in Section I and the workflow in Section III, we should extract the entry and exit vertices of the dense subgraphs and the vertices that are not in any subgraphs into the upper layer to construct the skeleton of the graph. This requires us to discover all the dense subgraphs from the original graph. Before introducing the method of dense subgraph discovery, we first provide the formal definition of entry/exit/internal vertices and dense subgraph.

Definition 1 (Entry/Exit/Internal Vertices). Given a subgraph $G_i(V_i, E_i)$ of the graph G(V, E), where $V_i \subseteq V$ and $E_i \subseteq E$. The entry vertices of G_i are defined as $V_i^I = \{v \mid (u, v) \in E, u \in V \setminus V_i, v \in V_i\}$, the exit vertices of G_i are defined as $V_i^O = \{v \mid (v, w) \in E, v \in V_i, w \in V \setminus V_i\}$, and the internal vertices of G_i are defined as $\hat{V}_i = V_i - V_i^I - V_i^O$.

Definition 2 (Dense Subgraph). Given an input graph G(V, E), the subgraph $G_i(V_i, E_i)$ of G is a dense subgraph such that the product of the number of entry vertices and that of exit vertices is smaller than the number of edges in G_i , i.e., $|V_i^I| \times |V_i^O| < |E_i|$.

Our definition of the dense subgraph is based on the following observation. For each entry vertex $v \in V_i^I$ of subgraph G_i , it is required to connect v with all exit vertices using shortcuts. Thus, the number of the shortcuts in G_i is the product of the number of entry and exit vertices, i.e., $|V_i^I| \times |V_i^O|$. If there are only a few edges in G_i , e.g., $|V_i^I| \times |V_i^O| > |E_i|$, then propagating messages from entry to exit vertices through the shortcuts is slower than that through the edges in G_i , because more shortcuts result in more message generation operations and aggregation operations.

From Definition 2, a dense subgraph requires as many internal edges as possible and as few boundary (entry/exit) vertices as possible. We found that the requirements of a dense subgraph are similar to that of the community. The community requires as many internal edges as possible and as few external edges as possible. This inspired us to adopt a community discovery algorithm to discover dense subgraphs. Therefore, in this paper, we use the community discovery algorithm to find dense subgraphs, such as Louvain [21]. However, the community discovery algorithms may find extremely large subgraphs, which decreases the performance of our system since extremely large graphs may result in an imbalance workload. Therefore, we add a threshold K to limit the size of each subgraph when discovering the subgraphs, i.e., the number of vertices in each subgraph is smaller than K. As a rule of thumb, K is set around 0.002-0.2% of the total number of vertices. We also employ the work stealing technique to handle the imbalance workload, in which an idle processing thread will actively search out work for it to complete. A community may not be a dense subgraph. We select the dense subgraphs according to Definition 2, i.e., $|V_i^I| \times |V_i^O| < |E_i|$, from the dense subgraphs candidate set discovered by the community discovery algorithm.

After discovering the dense subgraphs, the internal vertices and edges within them are put into the lower layer, the other vertices and edges *i.e.*, entry/exit vertices of subgraphs and the vertices that are not in any dense subgraphs and their edges are extracted into the upper layer.

Problem Study. Although we can discover dense subgraphs by using the above method, it suffers from a key limitation: the shortcuts that need to be established are still numerous due to the massive number of entry/exit vertices. As shown in Figure 4, we find that most boundary vertices (entry/exit vertices) have high degrees and are likely to have many connections to/from other subgraphs, leading to many entry/exit vertices in the target/source subgraphs. For example, vertex v_9 is with high out-degree and has 3 out-edges connected to subgraph G_3 , leading to 3 entry vertices in subgraph G_3 , and vertex v_6 with a high in-degree and has 3 in-edges originating from subgraph G_1 , leading to 3 exit vertices in subgraph G_1 . A large number of entry/exit vertices incurs a large skeleton of the upper layer as shown in Figure 4b, which will hurt the performance of iterative computation and increase the computation cost for shortcut calculations/updates.

Solution: Vertex Replication. Figure 4 demonstrates that there exist some entry/exit vertices in a subgraph that share the same source/target vertex. This inspires us to propose a vertex replication approach for reducing the number of entry/exit vertices and shortcuts. The idea is illustrated in Figure 4c. After dense subgraph discovery, if the number of entry/exit vertices in a subgraph G_i that share the same source/target vertex v is larger than a threshold, the source/target vertex v (host vertex) will be replicated in subgraph G_i as a proxy vertex v'. A high-degree vertex could have many proxy vertices in multiple different dense subgraphs. Both entry and exit vertices can have proxy vertices in other dense subgraphs. For example, in Figure 4c, entry vertex v_6 has a proxy vertex v_6' acting as a new exit vertex in subgraph G_1 . Originally, there are 3 exit vertices in subgraph G_1 linking to the entry vertex v_6 , while now there is only one exit vertex v_6' . Exit vertex v_9 has a proxy vertex v_9' in G_3 as a new entry vertex. There are supposed to be 3 entry vertices in G_3 all originating from vertex v_9 , but now there is only one entry vertex v_9' .

By replicating exit or entry vertices between subgraphs, some boundary vertices of dense subgraphs become internal vertices and move from L_{up} to L_{low} . The size of the graph skeleton on L_{up} is greatly reduced.

2) Shortcuts Calculation: On the upper layer, there are only entry and exit vertices of each subgraph. It is required to connect them with shortcuts for propagating messages from entry vertices to exit vertices correctly and quickly. During the iterative computations on L_{up} , the entry vertices send messages to exit vertices directly through shortcuts and do not propagate the messages down to internal vertices. In order to revise the states of vertices on L_{low} , the entry vertices cache

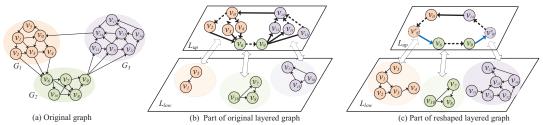


Fig. 4: An illustrative example of the upper layer reshaping. A dotted circle is a proxy vertex. A bold black link is a weighted/unweighted edge on original graph. A dotted link is a shortcut from an entry vertex to an exit vertex in a subgraph. A blue link is a connection between a vertex and its replicated proxy vertex. In (b) and (c), for simplicity, we use two-way hollow arrows to represent the set of shortcuts and edges between L_{up} and L_{low} .

these messages that should be propagated to internal vertices. then propagate them down to internal vertices after the iterative computations terminate. However, these messages spread to all internal vertices may require iterative computations. In order to propagate the messages from the entry vertices to internal vertices efficiently, we also connect them with shortcuts.

Based on the above discussion, there are two kinds of shortcuts in the layered graph, 1) the shortcuts from entry vertices to exit vertices of the dense subgraph, and 2) the shortcuts from entry vertices to internal vertices of the dense subgraph. Essentially, both of these shortcuts connect the entry vertices and other vertices of the dense subgraph. Therefore, they can be calculated simultaneously with the same method. Before introducing the shortcut calculation method, we first provide the formal definition of the shortcut.

Definition 3 (Shortcut). Given a subgraph $G_i(V_i, E_i)$ and the input messages vector $M = \{m_u \mid u \in V_i^I\}$ arriving at entry vertices V_i^I , the shortcuts S_i are the direct connections from entry vertices V_i^I to all vertices V_i , i.e., $S_i = \{\vec{w}_{u,v} \mid$ $u \in V_i^I, v \in V_i$ } where $\vec{w}_{u,v}$ is the weight of a shortcut from vertex u to vertex v, such that

$$\mathcal{G}_{V_i}\big(\mathcal{F}_{S_i}(M)\big) = \mathcal{G}_{V_i}\Big(\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} (\mathcal{G}_{V_i} \circ \mathcal{F}_{E_i})^k(M)\Big), \tag{5}$$

where \mathcal{F}_{S_i} and \mathcal{F}_{E_i} indicate the message propagation through the shortcuts S_i and the original edges E_i respectively, and \mathcal{G}_{V_i} indicates the message aggregation on vertex set V_i .

The shortcut weight $\vec{w}_{u,v}$ from entry vertex u to vertex vin G_i can be calculated by the following equation

$$\vec{w}_{u,v} = \mathcal{G}_v \Big(\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} (\mathcal{G}_{V_i} \circ \mathcal{F}_{E_i})^k (m_u) \Big), \tag{6}$$

where \mathcal{G}_v is the group-by aggregation on vertex v, m_u is the unit message. It means that we first initialize a unit message m_u for entry vertex u. Then we perform iterative computation on the subgraph G_i to propagate messages from u to v until all the vertices in G_i no longer receive any messages or the received messages can be ignored. Finally, the aggregated value of messages received by v can be treated as the weight of the shortcut from u to v, i.e., $\vec{w}_{u,v}$. The unit message m_u should be the identity element of the ${\cal F}$ operation to make initiation. As shown in Example 2, the identity element of '+' is 0. Then, in SSSP, the min value of the messages

received by v originated from u is the shortest path from uto v, i.e., the weight of the shortcut from u to v. To alleviate the burden of users, Layph can automatically complete the shortcut calculation by invoking the user-defined \mathcal{F} and \mathcal{G} functions without the user's intervention (see II-A).

Example 2: Consider running SSSP on the graph as shown in Figure 2a. When computing the shortcuts inside subgraph G_2 , a unit message $m_{v_0} = 0$ (as the identity element of '+' since $\mathcal{F}=m_u+w_{u,v}$ containing '+') is input into entry vertex v_0 . We iteratively perform $\mathcal{F}=m_u+w_{u,v}$ to propagate messages and use $\mathcal{G} = \min$ to aggregate the received messages for each vertex. Finally, as shown in Figure 2d, the aggregated values of the received messages on $\{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4\}$ are $\{1, 4, 1, 2\}$ respectively, *i.e.*, the weights of shortcuts are $\vec{w}_{v_0,v_1} = 1, \vec{w}_{v_0,v_2} = 4, \vec{w}_{v_0,v_3} = 1, \vec{w}_{v_0,v_4} = 2.$

Finally, we give the formal definition of the layered graph.

Layered Graph. Given an input graph G(V, E), a set of N dense subgraphs $\{G_1(V_1, E_1), \ldots, G_N(V_N, E_N)\}\$, the layered graph is formed by the upper layer $L_{up} = (L_V^{up}, L_E^{up})$, the lower layer $L_{low} = (L_V^{low}, L_E^{low})$ and the edges between L_{up} and L_{low} , where L_V^{up} (resp. L_V^{low}) is the vertex set on the upper layer (resp. the lower layer) and L_E^{up} (resp. L_E^{low}) is the edge set on the upper layer (resp. the lower layer).

- Upper layer (L_{up}) .
 - Vertex set $L^V_{up} = \bigcup_{i=1}^N \{V^I_i, V^O_i\} \cup \{V \cup_{i=1}^N V_i\}$ is composed of the entry and exit vertices of all dense subgraphs and the vertices that are not in any dense subgraphs.
 - Edge set $L^E_{up} = \bigcup_{i=1}^N \{\vec{w}_{u,v} | \vec{w}_{u,v} \in S_i, u \in V_i^I, v \in V_i^O\} \cup \{E \bigcup_{i=1}^N E_i\}$ is composed of the shortcuts from entry vertices to exit vertices in each dense subgraph and the edges that are not in any dense subgraphs.
- Low layer (L_{low}).

 - Vertex set $L^V_{low} = \bigcup_{i=1}^N \{\hat{V}_i\}$ is composed of the internal vertices of all dense subgraphs.

 Edge set $L^E_{low} = \bigcup_{i=1}^N \{E_i \{(u,v) \in E_i | u \in \hat{V}_i, v \in V_i^I \cup V_i^O\}\}$ is composed of the edges within each subgraph, except the edges from internal vertices to entry/exit vertices.
- Edges between L_{up} and L_{low} . $L_{up_low}^E = \bigcup_{i=1}^N \left\{ \{\vec{w}_{u,v} \in S_i \mid u \in V_i^I, v \in \hat{V}_i \} \cup \{(u,v) \in E_i \mid u \in \hat{V}_i, v \in \hat{V}_i \} \right\}$ $V_i^I \cup V_i^O$ } is composed of the shortcuts from entry vertices to internal vertices and the edges from internal vertices to

entry/exit vertices within each dense subgraph.

The size of the upper layer (with respect to $|L_{up}^V|$ and $|L_{up}^E|$) is expected to be much smaller than that of the original graph (with respect to |V| and |E|). For example, in Figure 2, the upper layer contains 3 vertices and 3 edges/shortcuts, which is smaller than the original graph with 9 vertices and 14 edges.

Analysis. Due to the introduction of shortcuts, Layph will require more space. The additional space overhead includes the shortcuts from entry vertices to all vertices within each subgraph, *i.e.*, $O(\sum_{i=1}^{N}(|V_i^I|\times|V_i|))$, where $|V_i^I|$ is the number of entry vertices of subgraph G_i and $|V_i|$ is the number of all vertices in G_i . In practice, the additional space overhead is always smaller than that of the original graph, as shown in Figure 11a (in Section VI-G).

B. Layered Graph Update

The layered graph needs to be updated when G is updated with ΔG . The vertices may move between the two layers, due to the generation or disappearance of dense subgraphs, e.g., the internal vertices of the newly generated subgraph move from L_{up} to L_{low} . In order to avoid the expensive overhead caused by repeated subgraph discovery, we incrementally update the dense subgraphs with incremental community detection methods, such as C-Blondel [22] or DynaMo [23]. In practice, the size of ΔG is very small compared with G. A small ΔG does not have a large effect on existing dense subgraphs. Thus we update the dense subgraphs only when enough ΔG are accumulated. However, even a very small ΔG can still change the weight of a number of shortcuts of the layered graph.

Shortcuts update. There are three kinds of shortcut updates. i) *Deletion*. If all of an entry vertex's in-edges from outside are deleted, *i.e.*, the connections from outside are cut off, this entry vertex will become an internal vertex, and the shortcuts originated from it should be removed. ii) *Addition*. If an inedge from outside is added to an internal vertex, this internal vertex will become an entry vertex. The shortcuts from it to other vertices in the subgraph should be calculated. iii) *Weight update*. If there are addition or deletion edges within a subgraph, the weight of the shortcuts should be updated.

The shortcut is built inside each dense subgraph according to the Definition 3. Moreover, from the Equation (6), we can see that the weight of each shortcut on G_i only depends on the edges and vertices in G_i , and the shortcuts on the different subgraphs are independent of each other. Therefore, we only need to update the shortcuts on the subgraphs affected by ΔG , and the shortcuts for each subgraph can be updated in parallel. For the shortcut deletion or addition, they can be done directly within the subgraph by removing or calculating the shortcut. For the weight update, in order to avoid redundant computation, we use an incremental method to update.

According to Equation (6), the weight of the shortcuts is calculated by iterative computations, and the weight of the shortcut from u to v is equal to the aggregate all the messages received by v through all paths from u to v. After the edge addition or deletion within the dense subgraph, some messages

received by v may become invalid or missing. Thus, the update of the shortcut can adopt the existing incremental computation methods [14]–[16]. The compensation and cancellation messages can be deduced based on the memoized information when calculating the old shortcut. These messages will be used to redo and undo the effect of missing and invalid messages on vertex v, in which there are some missing and invalid messages in the received messages of v due to the addition and deletion edges within the dense subgraph.

Example 3: Consider running SSSP on the updated graph as shown in Figure 2b. Since ΔG only changes G_2 , the shortcuts related to G_1 do not need to be updated. For G_2 , the vertices on L_{up} do not need to change, since only the inner edges change, and the shortcuts can be updated incrementally. Therefore, we can get the weights of the old shortcuts as the initial weights of the new shortcuts, i.e., the initial values of $\{\vec{w}_{v_0,v_1}, \vec{w}_{v_0,v_2}, \vec{w}_{v_0,v_3}\}$ are set to $\{1,4,1,2\}$. Since the edge $v_3 \rightarrow v_4$ is deleted and the state of v_4 depends on v_3 , it is necessary to generate a cancellation message $m_{v_3,v_4} = \perp$ (\perp means the vertex needs to be reset to the default state, i.e., ∞ for SSSP), and m_{v_3,v_4} sets the state of v_4 to ∞ [14], [16], [18]. Meantime, v_4 will get a message $m_{v_2,v_4}=5$ from its neighbor v_2 . In addition, since the edge $v_3 \rightarrow v_2$ is added, it is necessary to generate a compensation message m_{v_3,v_2} =3. Then all these revision messages will be propagated inside G_2 . Finally, as shown in Figure 2e, the aggregated values of the received messages on $\{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4\}$ are $\{1, 3, 1, 4\}$ respectively, *i.e.*, the new weights of the shortcuts are $\vec{w}_{v_0,v_1}=1, \vec{w}_{v_0,v_2}=3, \vec{w}_{v_0,v_3}=1, \vec{w}_{v_0,v_4}=4.$

V. INCREMENTAL PROCESSING WITH LAYERED GRAPH

This section will introduce how Layph performs incremental graph processing on the layered graph.

Revision messages deduction. As shown in Equation (3), the final vertex state is determined by the received messages that are from ALL vertices and transferred along different paths. When the graph is updated, the messages received by vertices may change due to the changes in the paths that messages propagate. The incremental graph processing framework can automatically [14], [16] or manually [15], [17] obtain the revision messages *i.e.*, compensation messages and cancellation messages, and propagate them to revise the effect of the missing and invalid messages on vertex states [15], [16]. For the revision messages, we can deduce them by employing the method proposed in our previous work [16].

After deducing the revision messages, we propagate them efficiently with the help of Layph. As we have introduced in Section III, the propagation of revision messages on Layph is in three steps, 1) messages upload, 2) iterative computation, and 3) messages assignment.

A. Messages Upload

The upper layer L_{up} only contains a subset of vertices, and the internal vertices inside each subgraph on L_{low} do not participate in iterative computation on L_{up} . To ensure that all

vertices on L_{up} converge with the effects of internal vertices, the iterative computation on L_{up} should collect not only the revision messages deduced by the vertices on L_{up} but also those by internal vertices. Thus, it is required to upload the revision messages deduced by the internal vertices of the dense subgraphs on L_{low} to L_{up} . Since the entry/exit vertices of each dense subgraph are on L_{up} , messages upload can be done by propagating the revision messages to entry/exit vertices.

Not all the internal vertices within each dense subgraph have connections with the entry/exit vertices, thus, we perform a local iterative computation to propagate internal revision messages to the entry/exit vertices of the subgraph. The iterative computation terminates when the messages received by entry/exit vertices can be ignored. After the upload of the messages, the accumulated messages on the entry vertices V_i^I and exit vertices V_i^O can be treated as their initial revision messages i.e., $\mathbb{M}^0_{V_i^I \cup V_i^O} = \mathcal{G}_{V_i^I \cup V_i^O} (\bigcup_{k=1}^\infty (\mathcal{G}_{V_i} \circ \mathcal{F}_{E_i})^k (\mathbb{M}^0_{V_i}))$. Together with the initial messages of vertices that are not in any dense subgraph on L^V_{up} , i.e., $\mathbb{M}^0_{V_i^I \cup V_i^I}$, the initial messages of vertices on L_{up} can be expressed as follows

$$\mathbb{M}_{L_{up}}^{0} = \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{N} \mathcal{G}_{V_{i}^{I} \cup V_{i}^{O}} \left(\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} (\mathcal{G}_{V_{i}} \circ \mathcal{F}_{E_{i}})^{k} (\mathbb{M}_{V_{i}}^{0})\right)\right)$$

$$\cup \mathbb{M}_{V - \bigcup_{i=1}^{N} V_{i}}^{0}, \tag{7}$$

where $\mathbb{M}_{V_s}^0$ represents the initial revision messages.

Note. It is unnecessary to perform messages upload on all subgraphs on L_{low} , because the revision messages are only generated on subgraphs that are affected by ΔG [14]–[17]. In general, since the size of ΔG is small, the number of affected subgraphs is small, too. For all subgraphs affected by ΔG , messages upload can be efficiently performed in parallel since each subgraph is independent of the other.

Example 4: Running SSSP to convergence on the layered graph with v_0 as the source vertex in Figure 2d. When the graph changes as shown in Figure 2b, the layered graph is updated as shown in Figure 2e. At this time, the convergence states of all vertices on the original graph are taken as the initial states of the vertices on the updated graph, i.e., $\{x_{v_0},...,x_{v_8}\}$ are $\{0,1,4,1,2,5,6,7,7\}$. Since G_1 is not directly affected by ΔG , there is no need to derive revision messages on G_1 . On G_2 , a cancellation message $m_{v_3,v_4}=\perp$ and two compensation messages $m_{v2,v4}$ =5 and m_{v_3,v_2} =3 will be generated. For the cancellation message $m_{v_3,v_4}=\perp$, it will cause v_4 to be reset to the default state (i.e., ∞), and all the vertices that depend on v_4 will be reset to the default state according to the dependency tree [14], [16], [18]. Then all the rest of the revision messages will be propagated inside G_2 , and finally all messages will also be aggregated to the exit vertex v_4 on L_{up} , i.e., m_{v_4} =4. At this time, L_{up} obtains all the revision messages of L_{low} , and v_2 and v_4 of G_2 get new states $x_{v_2}=3$ and $x_{v_4}=4$.

B. Iterative Computation On The Upper Layer

After the upload of the messages, the revision messages deduced by internal vertices of the subgraphs on L_{low} have

been propagated to L_{up} . However, these uploaded messages are only cached in entry and exit vertices of the dense subgraphs according to Equation (7). Iterative computations are required to be performed on L_{up} to propagate the revision messages so that the other vertices on L_{up} can receive all the revision messages to revise their states.

The iterative computations only perform on L_{up} , i.e., only L_{up}^{V} and L_{up}^{E} are involved in iterative computations, and the entry and exit vertices of dense subgraphs will participate in the iterative computations because they are on L_{up}^{V} . When the entry vertices receive messages, they do not send messages to internal vertices, but propagate messages to exit vertices via shortcuts. After the iterative computations, the states of vertices on L_{up} can be expressed as follows

$$X_{L_{up}}^* = \mathcal{G}_{L_{up}^V} \Big(X_{L_{up}^V}^0 \cup \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} (\mathcal{G}_{L_{up}^V} \circ \mathcal{F}_{L_{up}^E})^k (\mathbb{M}_{L_{up}^V}^0) \Big).$$
 (8)

Based on the following Theorem 1, We can see that after the iterative computations on L_{up} , the vertices converge to the same state as performing the iterative computation on the original graph.

Theorem 1: With initial messages $\mathbb{M}^0_{L^V_{up}}$ defined in Equation (7) and initial states $X^0_{L^V_{up}}$, the converge states $X^*_{L^V_{up}}$ of the vertices on the upper layer after iterative computation on the upper layer $L_{up}(L^V_{up}, L^E_{up})$ are equal to that after iterative computation on updated graph $G \oplus \Delta G$.

Proof sketch: By replacing $\mathbb{M}_{L_{up}^V}^0$ with Equation (7), the initial messages from each updated subgraph's internal vertices are propagated out via boundary vertices. By iteratively applying $\mathcal{F}_{L_{up}^E}$ and $\mathcal{G}_{L_{up}^V}$, these initiated messages no matter from the internal vertices or from the vertices of L_{up} are propagated on L_{up} and will be finally accumulated to vertices on L_{up} . \square

Example 5: Figure 2e has introduced the iterative computation on L_{up} . Based on Example 4, we get the states $\{x_{v_0}=0,x_{v_4}=4,x_{v_5}=\infty\}$ and revision message $\{m_{v_4}=4\}$ of all the vertices on L_{up} . Then the iterative computation is performed on L_{up} based on these initial states. First only v_4 is an exit vertex because it has revision message $\{m_{v_4}=4\}$. v_4 is an exit vertex, and the message $m_{v_4,v_5}=m_{v_4}+w_{v_4,v_5}=7$ is generated through the outgoing edge (v_4,v_5) . v_5 is an entry vertex, it aggregates the message $m_{v_4,v_5}=7$, and stores m_{v_5} for messages assignment (Section V-C). v_5 then generates a message $m_{v_5,v_0}=m_{v_5}+w_{v_5,v_0}=9$ and sends it to v_0 . Then v_0 cannot update the message m_{v_0} after receiving m_{v_5,v_0} . Therefore, all vertices on L_{up} reach a convergent state, i.e., $\{v_0^*=0, v_4^*=4, v_5^*=7\}$.

C. Revision Messages Assignment

Since the iterative computation is only performed on L_{up} , the revision messages will not touch the internal vertices of each subgraph on L_{low} , *i.e.*,, the internal vertices will not receive revision messages from outside. It is essential to launch another step to apply outside messages to internal vertices.

Though the internal vertices do not receive the revision messages from outside, the entry vertices of each dense subgraph have received all the revision messages from vertices in other dense subgraphs and L_{up} according to Theorem 1. In order to enable the internal vertices to receive outside revision messages, the entry vertices cache the received messages before propagating them to exit vertices via shortcuts during the iterative computations. After many iterations, the entry vertices may cache a large number of messages, and we only store the aggregated messages. The cached messages can be expressed as follows

$$\mathbb{M}_{V^I} = \bigcup_{i=1}^N \mathcal{G}_{V_i^I} \Big(\bigcup_{k=1}^\infty (\mathcal{G}_{L_{up}^V} \circ \mathcal{F}_{L_{up}^E})^k (\mathbb{M}_{L_{up}^V}^0) \Big). \tag{9}$$

Finally, we send the messages that have been cached in entry vertices to the internal vertices via shortcuts between entry vertices and internal vertices. The states of the vertices on L_{low} can be expressed as follows

$$X_{L_{low}}^* = \mathcal{G}_{L_{low}^V} \Big(X_{L_{low}^V} \cup \bigcup_{i=1}^N (\mathcal{G}_{\hat{V}_i} \circ \mathcal{F}_{\hat{S}_i}) (\mathbb{M}_{V_i^I}) \Big), \quad (10)$$

where $\hat{S}_i = \{\vec{w}_{u,v} \in S_i \mid u \in V_i^I, v \in \hat{V}_i\}$ is a set of shortcuts between two layers, $X_{L_{low}^V}$ are vertex states on L_{low} after local iterative computation for uploading revision messages to vertices of L_{up} , *i.e.*,

$$X_{L_{low}^V} = \mathcal{G}_{L_{low}^V} \left(X_{L_{low}^V}^0 \cup \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} (\mathcal{G}_{V_i} \circ \mathcal{F}_{E_i})^k (\mathbb{M}_{V_i}^0) \right). \tag{11}$$

We have the following theorem to guarantee correctness.

Theorem 2: After iterative computation on the upper layer, by assigning the accumulated messages of entry vertices to internal vertices through shortcuts, the resulted internal vertex states are the same as that after iterative computation on updated graph $G \oplus \Delta G$.

Proof sketch: According to Equation (11), after local iterative computation for uploading revision messages to vertices on L_{up} , the effects from internal vertices have been applied to each other. The accumulated outside messages $\mathbb{M}_{V_i^I}$ include the effects from all other vertices outside the subgraph, which are accumulated at the entry vertices V_i^I . By assigning these outside messages to internal vertices, *i.e.*, $\mathcal{G}_{\hat{V}_i}(\mathcal{F}_{\hat{S}_i}(\mathbb{M}_{V_i^I}))$, the outside effects are applied on internal vertices. The aggregation results of these outside messages and the internal vertex states $X_{L_{low}^V}$ are equal to that obtained by iterative computation on the entire graph.

Example 6: Following Example 5, for the activated entry vertex v_5 , it assigns revision messages to internal vertices via shortcuts. Specifically, $m_{v_5,v_6} = m_{v_5} + \vec{w}_{v_5,v_6} = 8$, $m_{v_5,v_7} = m_{v_5} + \vec{w}_{v_5,v_7} = 9$, and $m_{v_5,v_8} = m_{v_5} + \vec{w}_{v_5,v_8} = 9$. Finally, $\{v_6,v_7,v_8\}$ get the convergence states $\{x_{v_6}^* = 8, x_{v_7}^* = 9, x_{v_8}^* = 9\}$ by the message aggregation operation.

TABLE I: Datasets used in the experiments

Graph	Vertices	Edges	Size
UK-2005 (UK) [24]	39,459,925	936,364,282	16GB
IT-2004 (IT) [25]	41,291,594	1,150,725,436	19GB
SK-2005 (SK) [26]	50,636,154	1,949,412,601	33GB
Sinaweibo (WB) [27]	58,655,850	261,323,450	3.8GB

VI. EXPERIMENTS

We implement Layph on top of Ingress [16], an automated incrementalization framework equipped with different memoization policies to support vertex-centric graph computations. In this section, we evaluate Layph and compare it with existing state-of-the-art incremental graph processing systems.

A. Experimental Setup

We use AliCloud ecs.r6.13xlarge instance (52vCPU, 384GB memory, 64-bit Ubuntu 18.04 with compiler GCC 7.5) for these experiments.

<u>Graph Workloads</u>. We use four typical graph analysis algorithms in our experiments, including Single Source Shortest Path (SSSP), Breadth-First Search (BFS), PageRank (PR), and Penalized Hitting Probability (PHP) [28]. SSSP and BFS can be written in the form shown in Equation (1). We also rewrite PHP and PageRank into the form shown in Equation (1) using the method in [9], [10]. The former two are considered converged when all vertex states no longer change. The latter two are considered converged when the difference between the vertex states in two consecutive iterations is less than $1e^{-6}$.

Datasets and Updates. We use four real graphs (see Table I) in our experiments, including three web graphs UK-2005 (UK) [24], IT-2004 (IT) [25], and SK-2005 (SK) [26], and a social network Sinaweibo (WB) [27]. We constructed ΔG by randomly adding new edges to G and removing existing edges from G. The number of added edges and deleted edges are both 5,000 by default unless otherwise specified. ΔG refers to the edge changes by default, besides, we randomly generate a ΔG with 1,000 changed vertices (including 500 added vertices and 500 deleted vertices) to evaluate the performance of handling vertex updates.

Competitors. We compare Layph with five state-of-the-art incremental graph processing systems, GraphBolt [15], Kick-Starter [14], DZiG [17], Ingress [16], and RisGraph [18]. In fact, KickStarter and RisGraph do not support PageRank and PHP due to their single-dependency requirement. GraphBolt and DZiG do not provide the implementations of SSSP and BFS. In light of this, we only run PageRank and PHP (resp. SSSP and BFS) on GraphBolt and DZiG (resp. KickStarter and RisGraph). All of these systems are running with 16 worker threads.

B. Overall Performance

We first compare Layph with the competitors in response time of each workload executed on different datasets. The *Normalized* results are reported in Figure 5, where the response time of Layph is treated as the baseline, *i.e.*, Layph finishes in unit time 1. In particular, Figure 5e reports the response

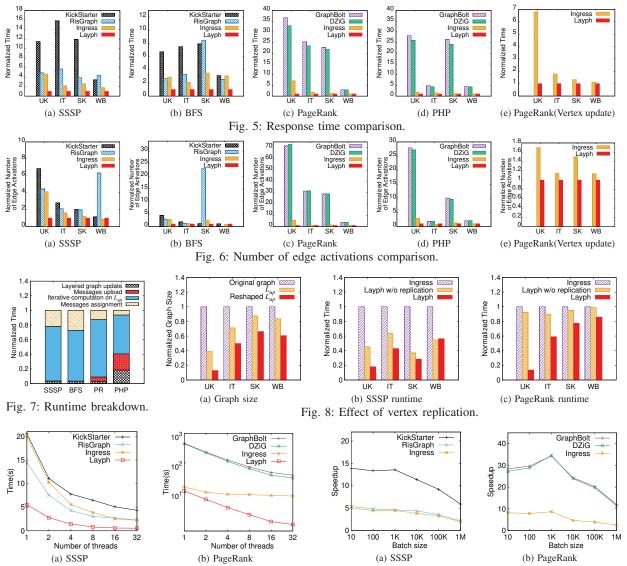


Fig. 9: Scaling number of threads from 1 to 32.

Fig. 10: Speedup over competitors when varying batch size.

time for processing vertex updates, while the rest is used for edge updates. We can see that the improvement in handling vertex changes in Layph is consistent with the improvement in handling edge changes. When updating vertices, the other systems meet runtime errors, thus we only compare Ingress with Layph. It is shown that Layph consistently outperforms others in most cases. Specifically, Layph achieves 3.13-15.82× (8.49× on average) speedup over KickStarter, 2.54-8.49× $(4.49\times \text{ on average})$ speedup over RisGraph, $2.99-36.66\times$ (18.99× on average) speedup over GraphBolt, 2.92-32.93× $(17.53 \times \text{ on average})$ speedup over DZiG, and $1.06-7.22 \times$ (2.54× on average) speedup over Ingress. To explain the reason for the above results, we also report the total number of edge activations in Figure 6. An edge activation represents an \mathcal{F} operation. In most graph workloads, the cost of \mathcal{F} is much greater than that of $\mathcal G$ operation, because the number of \mathcal{F} and the unit cost of \mathcal{F} are often both larger than that of \mathcal{G} .

From Figure 5 and Figure 6, we can see that the normalized number of edge activations is a similar trend to the normalized response time of each system.

Regarding SSSP and BFS, RisGraph is faster than Kick-Starter since it allows more parallelism during incremental updates and allows for localized data access. Ingress and RisGraph are comparable because the memoization-path engine in Ingress follows a similar idea. Layph outperforms the other competitors by leveraging the layered graph. Note that, when performing BFS on WB, RigGraph is slower than Layph but with fewer edge activations. This is because that RisGraph can identify the safe and unsafe updates to reduce edge activations. It just so happens that most of the updates on WB are safe for BFS. However, the additional cost of identifying the safe or unsafe is relatively expensive since WB is very small. While in SSSP, compared with Ingress, Layph also requires less response time but with more edge activations.

This is because there are some large dense subgraphs in WB, requiring more shortcut updates, which increase the number of edge activations. Since Layph is parallel-friendly for shortcut updates, it will only have a small effect on the response time.

Regarding PageRank and PHP, DZiG is faster than Graph-Bolt since DZiG has a sparsity detection mechanism, based on which it can adjust the incremental computation scheme. Besides, Ingress is faster than DZiG and GraphBolt. This can be attributed to its memoization-free engine which is more efficient than others. Layph is built on top of Ingress, and can further limit the iterative computation scope with the layered graph, which reduces the number of activation edges, as shown in Figure 6. We find that Layph exhibits less improvement on WB. The reason is that the subgraphs in WB are much larger than that in other graphs, which increases costs and weakens gains. The reason will be further explained in Section VI-F.

C. Runtime Breakdown

During incremental computation, Layph consists of four phases: the layered graph update, revision messages upload, iterative computation on the upper layer, and messages assignment. To study the time spent in each phase, we run four algorithms on UK and record the runtime of each phase. The proportion of runtime for different phases is shown in Figure 7. We can see that the iterative computation takes up most of the runtime. The messages assignment is the second most expensive phase. The layered graph update and revision messages upload are both very fast except in PHP. This is because the iterative computation of PHP is very fast, say 418 ms, which makes those two phases relatively longer. The results indicate that the additional cost in our system, i.e., the maintenance of the layered graph, is lightweight. Based on the above experimental analysis, it is worth adopting the layered graph in incremental graph processing.

D. Varying Number of Threads

We vary the number of execution threads from 1 to 32 to see the runtime reduction. We run SSSP on UK and compare Layph with KickStarter, RisGraph, and Ingress. The results are shown in Figure 9a. We can see that as the threads increase, the runtime decreases steadily in all systems as expected. The reduction is smoother when the number of threads is larger than 8. This is because all these systems use atomic operations to guarantee correctness, hence threads will lead to more write-write conflicts which will hurt parallelism. Compared with the runtime with 1 thread, Layph with 32 threads can achieve 10.1× speedup, which is higher than KickStarter $(4.7 \times \text{speedup})$, RisGraph $(6.2 \times \text{speedup})$, and Ingress $(9.0 \times \text{speedup})$ speedup). We also run PageRank on UK and compare Layph with GraphBolt, DZiG, and Ingress. The results are reported in Figure 9b where a base-10 log scale is used for the Y axis. We can observe that GraphBolt, DZiG, and Layph show better scaling performance than Ingress. The reason is that the problem of the write-write conflict in PageRank is more serious than that in SSSP. In GraphBolt and DZiG, vertex states need to be recorded during each iteration, which can alleviate the conflict problem with massive space cost in sacrifice. In Layph, both the shortcut update process and the local assignment process contain many independent local computations, making Layph more parallel-friendly. Therefore, Layph can benefit more from parallelism.

E. Varying Amount of Updates

To study the performance with different amounts of updates, we vary the size of the updates set (a.k.a. batch size) from 10 to 10 million on UK and compare Layph with the competitors when running SSSP and PageRank. Figure 10 shows the speedup results of Layph over the competitors. The speedup is more significant with a smaller batch size because Layph utilizes the layered graph to effectively reduce the scope of global iterations. In PageRank, if the batch size is too small, e.g., 10, the effects of these updates might only be applied within subgraphs, thus the iterative computations are constrained in affected subgraphs. However, the speedup is less significant when the batch size gets larger. This is because more updates are likely to affect more subgraphs in our system, which increases the shortcut update cost and undermines the benefits of the layered graph. However, large batches of updates will prolong the response time and lose the realtime property, so smaller batches of updates are preferable for delay-sensitive applications or online applications.

F. Effect of Vertex Replication

To verify the effectiveness of vertex replication proposed in Section IV-A1, we measure the sizes of the original graphs, the original upper layers, and the reshaped upper layers as shown in Figure 8a. We can see that the sizes of the original graphs are greatly reduced (by 12%-60%) by using the layered graph, and the sizes of the original upper layers are further reduced (by 34%-87%) through vertex replication. We also run SSSP and PageRank on the original graph with Ingress, the original upper layer with Layph (without vertex replication), and the reshaped upper layer with Layph. The runtime results are reported in Figure 8b and Figure 8c, respectively. We can see that most of the runtime results are proportional to their graph sizes or the upper layer sizes. It is noticeable that the runtime of SSSP on WB by Layph is longer with vertex replication than without vertex replication. By digging into the graph property, we find that the sizes of subgraphs in WB are very large. With vertex replication, an edge update could incur multiple local recomputations on multiple subgraphs that are correlated to this updated edge. Therefore, if many large subgraphs are affected, the layered graph update cost for shortcut calculations is evident, which may overweigh the benefits. On the contrary, if the size of the affected subgraph is small, this will not impact performance as the shortcut calculation will be very fast.

G. Analysis of Additional Overhead

To evaluate the effect of additional space and offline operations on Layph, we first report the additional space cost of Layph in Figure 11a. We can see that the additional space cost brought by the layered graph is 37.89%, 61.53%, 19.79%,

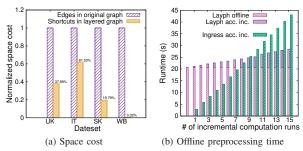


Fig. 11: Additional space cost and offline preprocessing time.

and 0.32% of the original graph, which is acceptable. We then report the offline preprocessing time (Layph offline), the accumulative incremental computation time of Layph (Layph acc. inc.), and that of Ingress (Ingress acc. inc.) in Figure 11b when performing SSSP on UK. It is shown that after 9 runs of incremental computation, the runtime of Layph, including the offline time and the accumulative incremental computation time, becomes less than Ingress. This is because the offline operation is performed only once but can bring a significant performance gain on each incremental computation.

VII. RELATED WORK

Incremental Graph Processing Systems. Incremental processing for evolving graphs has attracted great attention in recent years [14]-[18], [29]-[41]. Tornado [29] provides loop-based incrementalization support for the fix-point graph computations. KickStarter [14] maintains a dependency tree to memorize the critical paths for converged states and performs necessary adjustments to accommodate changes. RisGraph [18] deduces safe approximation results upon graph updates and fixes these results via iterative computation. GraphBolt [15] keeps track of the dependencies via the memorized intermediate states among iterations and adjusts the dependencies iterationby-iteration to achieve incremental computation. i²MapReduce [38], [39] extends Hadoop MapReduce to support incremental iterative graph computations by memorizing the intermediate map/reduce output. Similarly, many other works, e.g., DZiG [17] and HBSP model [41], also memorize and reuse the previous computations to minimize useless re-execution. Ingress [16] can automatically select the best memoization scheme according to algorithm property. The above systems propagate the effects of graph updates over the whole graph, which causes a large number of vertices and edges to be activated, and ultimately leads to a large number of computations.

Hardware Accelerators for Incremental Graph Processing. A number of solutions based on new hardware to accelerate dynamic graph processing have been proposed recently [37], [42]–[45]. GraSU [42] provides the first FPGA-based high-throughput graph update library for dynamic graphs. It accelerates graph updates by exploiting spatial similarity. Jet-Stream [43] extends the event-based accelerator [20] for graph workloads to support streaming updates. It works well on both accumulative and monotonic graph algorithms. [44] proposes

input-aware software and hardware solutions to improve the performance of incremental graph updates and processing. TDGraph [45] proposes efficient topology-driven incremental execution methods in accelerator design for more regular state propagation and better data locality.

Incremental Graph Algorithms. There are also a number of incremental methods proposed for specific algorithms, e.g., regular path queries [46], strongly connected components [47], subgraph isomorphism [48], k-cores [49], graph partitioning [50], [51] and triangle counting [52]. In contrast to these algorithm-specific methods, our Layph framework extends Ingress [16], which can automatically deduce incremental algorithms from the batch counterparts by a generic approach. It supports a series of incremental graph algorithms with different computation patterns, i.e., traversal-based (e.g., SSSP and BFS) and iteration-based (e.g., PageRank and PHP).

<u>Partition-based Methods</u>. Some partition-based methods have been proposed to improve graph processing, such as Blogel [53], Giraph++ [54], Grace [55], GRAPE [13]. They employ a block-centric (or subgraph-centric) framework to process graphs and try to reduce the communication overhead between threads or processors (reducing the information flow between subgraphs). However, these systems are designed for static graph processing. Different from these existing approaches, the novelty of Layph lies in that we propose a layered graph structure to improve the incremental graph processing for dynamic graphs, which aims to reduce the computation caused by massive message propagation.

VIII. CONCLUSIONS

We have proposed Layph, a framework to accelerate incremental graph processing by layering graph. It relies on limiting global iterative computations on the original graph to a few independent small-scale local iterative computations on the lower layer, which is used to update shortcuts and upload messages, and a global computation on the upper layer graph skeleton. This greatly fits incremental computation for evolving graphs since the number of vertices and edges involved in iterative computations is effectively limited by our layered graph. Specifically, only the dense subgraphs affected by ΔG on the lower layer and the graph skeleton on the upper layer perform iterative computations. Layph is implemented on top of our previous work Ingress to support message-driven incremental computation. Our experimental study verifies that Layph can greatly improve incremental processing performance for dynamic graphs.

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