6.895 Theory of Parallel Systems

Partial Parallelization of Graph Partitioning Algorithm METIS

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Abstract

The METIS graph partitioning algorithm has three stages. The first stage, coarsening, takes a large graph, with vertices $|V|$ and edges $|E|$, and creates successively smaller graphs that are good representations of the original graph. The second stage partitions the small graph. The third stage, refinement, projects and refines the partition of the smaller graph onto the original graph. We present implementation details of a parallel coarsening algorithm that adds $\Theta(|V|)$ parallelizable work to the original algorithm. we add $\Theta(|E|)$ serial work for optimal performance that limits our program to being 2.72 times faster on 8 processors than 1 processor, and 1.22 times faster on 8 processors than the original algorithm. We present issues with parallelizing refinement along with suggestions towards dealing with the issues.

1   Introduction

Consider a graph G_0 with sets of vertices V and edges E. Edges and vertices may have weights. Partitioning into n partitions entails dividing the vertices of V into n disjoint subsets such that the sum of the vertex weights in each partition is roughly equal. The goal is to find a partition with a low edge-cut. The ***edge-cut*** of a partition is the sum of the weights of edges whose vertices lie in different partitions.

1.1   METIS Algorithm [1]

METIS is a graph partitioning algorithm developed at the University of Minnesota by George Karypis. METIS consists of three stages: coarsening, initial partitioning, and refinement. The idea behind METIS is to create successively smaller graphs $G_1, G_2, \ldots, G_k$ from G_0, partition G_k in very little time, and project the partition back onto the G_0, while refining at each step. Figure 1 illustrates the method.
    METIS has three stages:

1. **Coarsening.** The original graph, G_0, is transformed into sequentially smaller graphs $G_1, G_2, \ldots G_k$ such that $|V_0| > |V_1| > |V_2| > \ldots > |V_k|$. G_k is meant to be a good representation of G_0. Theoretically, a great partitioning of G_k represents a fairly good partitioning of G_0. Coarsening along with refinement constitutes roughly 95% of the serial runtime.

2. **Initial Partition.** G_k is partitioned. G_k is small enough such that this stage is completed very quickly. This partitioning constitutes roughly 5% of the serial runtime, thus its details are unimportant.

3. **Refinement.** The partition P_k is projected back onto $P_{n-1}, \ldots, P_0$. After each projection P_i, the partitioning is refined using a greedy algorithm. Each partition P_i for $0 \le i \le k-1$ is refined before projecting to P_{i+1}.

1.2   Graph Representation in METIS

In METIS, graphs are represented with arrays. Given a graph of v vertices, vertices are implicitly labeled $0, 1, 2, \ldots, v-1$. Information on edges is held in two arrays: `xadj` and `adjncy`. For all vertices i, the list of vertices adjacent to i are listed in the array `adjncy` from elements `xadj`$[i]$ inclusive to `xadj`$[i+1]$) exclusive. Thus, for `xadj`$[i] \le j < $ `xadj`$[i+1]$, the value of `adjncy`$[j]$ is connected to the vertex i. The array `adjwgt` holds the edge weights, thus `adjwgt`$[j]$ holds the edge weight of `adjncy`$[j]$. Figure 2 illustrates an example of a graph. Figure 3 is its associated representation.
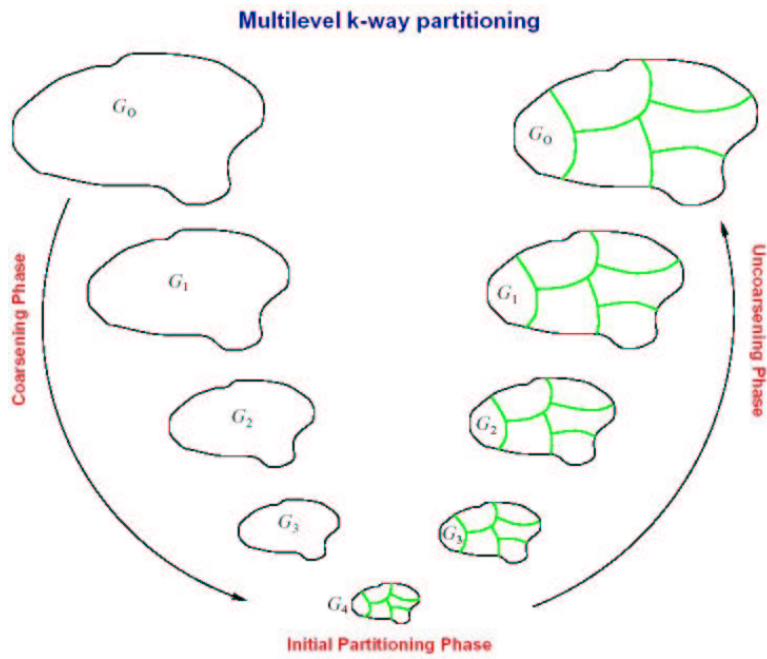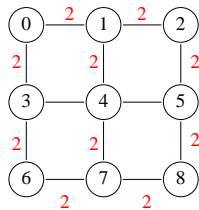
Figure 1: Various phases of partitioning algorithm.
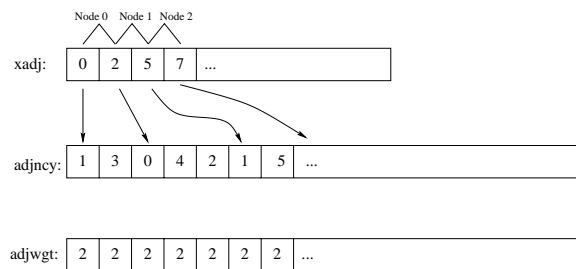

Figure 2: Sample graph.

Figure 3: Array representation of sample graph.

2 Implementation of Parallel Coarsening

As explained in Section 1, the coarsening stage of METIS consists of creating successive coarse representations of a graph. We focus on parallelizing the process of creating a coarse graph G_1 from graph G_0.

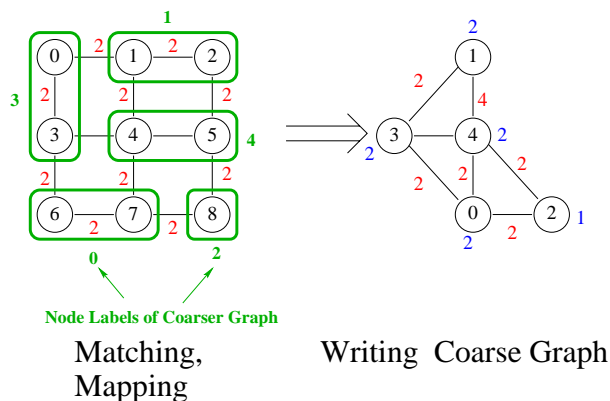## 2.1 Coarsening Algorithm.

Figure 4: Example of coarsening a grid to a smaller graph.

The graph G_1 is created by collapsing as many pairs of connected vertices of G_0. A simple example is illustrated in Figure 4. Formally, coarsening consists of three stages: matching, mapping and creating.

The first stage is matching. We greedily find as many pairs of connected vertices as possible, calling each pair a **match**. Selecting the pair (i, j), means i is matched with j and vice versa. Pairs of vertices are matched until no vertex with an unmatched adjacent vertex remains. If a vertex i has no unmatched adjacent vertices, i is matched with itself. The matching stage of Figure 4 is composed of finding pairs of vertices to circle.

Vertices are matched two ways. A vertex may be matched to a random unmatched adjacent vertex, (called **random matching**), or to the unmatched vertex with the heaviest edge weight (called **heavy-edge matching**). The information is stored in the array `match`. We require for all i such that $0 \leq i < |V|$, `match[match[i]] = i`. A **consistent matching** satisfies this requirement, an **inconsistent matching** does not. The `match` array of Figure 4 is in Figure 5.

match: | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 4 | 7 | 6 | 8 |

Figure 5: match array of earlier example.

The second stage is mapping. Each matched pairs of vertices of G_0 will represent one vertex of G_1. Thus, we need implicit vertex labels for the vertices of G_1. If G_1 is to have v_1 vertices, matched vertices i and j must map to a unique k such that $0 \leq k < v_1$. The numbers outside matched pairs in Figure 4 are the mapping. The information is stored in the array `cmap`. We require `cmap[i] = cmap[match[i]]`. The resulting array `cmap` of the example above is illustrated in Figure 6.

cmap: | 3 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 2 |

Figure 6: cmap array of earlier example.

The third stage is creating the coarser graph. The mapping determines the number of vertices of G_1. An upper bound on the number of edges of G_1 is the number of edges in G_0. All information needed is in

the arrays described above. Thus all that is required is to iterate through the edges of G_0 and write the appropriate information for G_1.

2.2 Parallelizing of Creating the Coarse Graph.

We focus on parallelizing the final stage first because its runtime is the longest of the three stages. We cross two issues while parallelizing this stage. The first issue is the data representation. The current data representation does not lend itself to parallelization, thus we modify it. The second issue is massive data writing in parallel. We analyze data allocation and data placement policies to increase parallelism and scalability.

2.2.1 Modifying the Data Representation

If the array `adjncy` for G_1 may be written, then so can the array `adjwgt` for G_1. So we focus on issues filling `xadj` and `adjncy`. Figure 3 the data representation of a graph. Suppose one processor is to write the adjacency list for vertex 0 and another processor is to write the adjacency list for vertex 2. We know the list for vertex 0 is at the beginning of the array `adjncy`, but without a preprocessed `xadj` array, a processor will not know where in `adjncy` to write the information for vertex 2. Thus, `xadj` must be preprocessed to parallelize this stage.

Preprocessing `xadj` is expensive. To know `xadj[i]`, we must know *exactly* how many edges vertices $0, 1, \ldots, i-1$ have. Thus, for each matched pair (j, k), this requires iterating through all vertices adjacent to j and k. The runtime of this additional work for all matched pairs is $\Theta(|E|)$.

Calculating an upper bound on the number of edges a vertex will have is simpler. For matched vertices (j, k) of G_0, the number of edges its mapped vertex of G_1 will have is at most the sum of the number of edges j and k have in G_0. This is easily calculated in `xadj`. Needing to only calculate an upper bound, as will be shown in Section 2.3, requires $\Theta(|V|)$ additional parallelizable work. Because $E > V$, this is preferable.

Consider the following representation. For graph G_0 with v_0 vertices, let `xadj` have $2v_0$ elements. Currently, for j such that $\texttt{xadj}[i] \leq j < \texttt{xadj}[i+1]$, $\texttt{adjncy}[j]$ is adjacent to i. Instead, let for j such that $\texttt{xadj}[2i] \leq j < \texttt{xadj}[2i+1]$, $\texttt{adjncy}[j]$ is adjacent to i. An illustrated example of the new representation is in Figure 7.
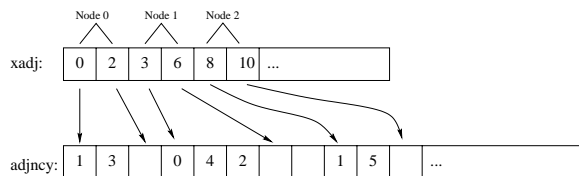

Figure 7: Modified graph representation with two pointers into adjncy array per vertex instead of one.

The advantage to this representation is $\texttt{xadj}[2i]$ needs to be *at least* how many edges the vertices $0, 1, \ldots, i-1$ have. Preprocessing such an array is simple. We preprocess the array in the mapping stage (Section 2.3).

In this stage, $T_1 = \Theta(|E|)$ and $\infty = \Theta(\lg |E|)$.

2.2.2 Data Writing

Consider the following piece of cilk code that allocates and fills a large amount of memory with some value. Because the current stage of the coarsening algorithm requires mostly data writing, analysis of a procedure such as this is necessary to achieve speedup in this stage.

```
cilk void fill(int *array, int val, int len){
  if(len <= (1<<18)){
```

```
    memset(array, val, len*4);
  } else {
    spawn fill(array,      val, len/2);
    spawn fill(array+len/2, val, len-len/2);
  }
}
enum { N = 200000000 };
int main(int argc, char *argv[]){
  x = (int *)malloc(N*sizeof(int));
  mt_fill(context, x, 25, N);/*******Print time taken***********/
  mt_fill(context, x, 25, N);/*******Print time taken***********/
}
```

Note we run the procedure `fill` twice. Table 1 has results achieved.

	1 proc	2 proc	4 proc	8 proc
First Run	6.94	5.8	5.3	5.45
Second Run	3.65	2.8	1.6	1.25

Table 1: Experimental timing results of both runs of fill on array of length $2 \cdot 10^8$. All values are in seconds.

Note that the procedure `fill` scales better when being run on memory that has already been set to some value. As a result, before writing the coarse graph, we initially set the data that will represent the coarse graph to 0. This adds $\Theta(|E|)$ serial work to the coarsening algorithm. Reasons for this are not fully known. It is possible this action is not required on other multi-processor machines.

Data placement policies are also an issue. The default policy, ***first touch placement***, allocates pages of memory on the memory module on which the process that first touches it is run. Note that in the above code, one processor allocates memory. Thus, with first touch placement, the memory is allocated on one memory module. When all other processors try accessing the memory, memory contention occurs.

A better policy is ***round-robin placement***, which allocates pages of memory on all memory modules in a round-robin fashion. Table 2 has results achieved using round-robin placement.

	1 proc	2 proc	4 proc	8 proc
First Run	6.9	6.2	6.5	6.6
Second Run	4.0	2.6	1.3	.79

Table 2: Experimental timing results of both runs of fill on array of length $2 \cdot 10^8$ using round-robin placement. All values are in seconds.

We achieve best performance with round-robin placement run on memory that has already been set to some value.

2.3 Parallelizing Matching

Pseudo-code for random matching and heavy-edge matching are similar:

```
foreach vertex u
if(vertex u unmatched){
  find unmatched adjacent vertex v; /***whether v random or heaviest such vertex irrelevant**/
  match[u] = v;
```

```
    match[v] = u;
}
```

Determinacy races are the only issue. If u tries to match with v while v concurrently tries to match with some other vertex w, our `match` array may have inconsistencies. We choose to correct inconsistencies in the mapping stage as opposed to use locks to ensure inconsistencies do not occur. In the mapping stage, for each vertex i, we check if `match[match[i]] == i`. If not, we set `match[i] = i`. This adds $\Theta(|V|)$ parallelizable work, which is preferable to using locks. Using locks requires initialization and allocation overhead, along with meticulous coding to avoid deadlock contention. Lock contention, an inevitable result from using locks, limits speedup.

2.4   Parallelizing Mapping

Three tasks compose this stage: correcting inconsistencies in `match` array, creating `cmap` array, and preprocessing information for `xadj` of G_1. For now, let us assume the `match` array has no inconsistencies and `xadj` of G_1 need not be preprocessed. Consider the following psuedo-code that performs mapping and matching concurrently:

```
if(node u unmatched){
  find unmatched adjacent node v;
  LOCK(maplock);
  match[u] = v;
  match[v] = u;
  cmap[u] = cmap[v] = num;
  num++;
  UNLOCK(maplock);
}
```

This code does not scale well on multiple processors because each processor will try to access the same lock. For this reason we separate the matching and mapping phases. Given a consistent `match` array, we can create `cmap` using a variant on a parallel prefix algorithm.

2.4.1   Parallel Prefix Algorithm

Given an array a, of n elements, the goal is to modify a such that $a[i] \leftarrow \sum_{j=1}^{i} a[j]$. If all elements in a are initially 1, once modified, $a[i] = i + 1$ for $0 \leq i < n$. A trivial serial algorithm is presented below:

```
void prefix_serial(int* array, int len){
  int i;
  for(i = 1; i < len; i++){
    array[i] += array[i-1];
  }
}
```

We present a parallel algorithm. We use a divide and conquer algorithm. For array a_0 and base case of size b, run `prefix_serial` on blocks of size b and store the sum of each block in another array a_1. Recursively solve the parallel prefix of the array a_1. Lastly, increment all values in a block of size b by its associated value in a_1. An illustrated example on an array of length 9 and base case of size 3 is in Figure 8.

The parallel algorithm has twice as much work as the serial algorithm, but has critical path $\Theta(\lg n)$. The total work is $\Theta(n)$.
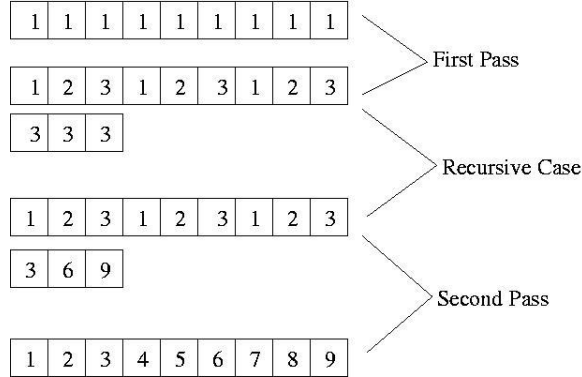
```
1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
                          First Pass
1 2 3 1 2 3 1 2 3
3 3 3
                          Recursive Case
1 2 3 1 2 3 1 2 3
3 6 9
                          Second Pass
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
```

Figure 8: Example of parallel prefix.

2.4.2 Mapping Scheme

Our *scheme* for mapping is as follows.

1. Initially, for all i, let $\mathtt{cmap}[i] = 1$ if $\mathtt{match}[i] \leq i$, -1 otherwise.

2. Run a parallel prefix algorithm on values of $\mathtt{cmap}$ that are *not* -1.

3. For all i such that $\mathtt{cmap}[i] = -1$, let $\mathtt{cmap}[i] = \mathtt{cmap}[\mathtt{match}[i]]$.

2.4.3 Mapping Algorithm

Our algorithm uses a variant on the parallel prefix algorithm presented in Section 3.4.1. It makes three passes over the data. For clarity purposes, we assume a consistent $\mathtt{match}$ array.

1. First Pass:

   - For blocks of size b, sequentially enumerate values of $\mathtt{cmap}[i]$ for i such that $i \leq \mathtt{match}[i]$.
   - For all other i in block, set $\mathtt{cmap}[i] = $ -1.
   - Store number of such i in array $\mathtt{helper}$.

2. Recursive Case: Run prefix algorithm on resulting array.

3. Second Pass:

   - For i such that $i \leq \mathtt{match}[i]$, increment $\mathtt{cmap}[i]$ by its associated value in *helper*, thus setting the correct value for $\mathtt{cmap}[i]$.

4. Third Pass:

   - For i such that $i > \mathtt{match}[i]$, set $\mathtt{cmap}[i] = \mathtt{cmap}[\mathtt{match}[i]]$.

For a matched pair (i, j), assuming $i < j$, define i to be the **major component** and j to be the **minor component**. We take a third pass over the data to set $\mathtt{cmap}$ of minor components of matchings to avoid false sharing. During the second pass, a minor component has a $\mathtt{cmap}$ value of -1. We cannot set the correct value of $\mathtt{cmap}$ at that moment because the $\mathtt{cmap}$ value of the major component may or may not be evaluated by another processor yet. Thus, to correctly set the value in the second pass, we would need it to be set along with the major component. That is, we not only increment $\mathtt{cmap}[i]$, but then set $\mathtt{cmap}[\mathtt{match}[i]] = \mathtt{cmap}[i]$. $\mathtt{cmap}[\mathtt{match}[i]]$ may be in another processor's cache. Changing its value would invalidate that processor's cache, thus leading to false sharing.

2.4.4 Fixing match and preprocessing xadj

We can fix `match` in the first pass of our mapping algorithm. During the first pass, we check if $i \leq$ `match`$[i]$. Before doing so, we can check if `match`[`match`$[i]$] $== i$. If not, we set `match`$[i] = i$.

To preprocess `xadj`, we create another array `numedges`. `numedges`$[k]$ holds an upper bound on the number of edges vertex $k-1$ of G_1 will hold. Set `numedges`$[0]$ to 0. Say matched pair (i, j) maps to k. Thus `cmap`$[i]$ $= k$. In the second pass of our mapping algorithm, we set `numedges`$[k]$ to be the number of edges of i in addition to the number of edges of `match`$[i]$. This information can be found in constant time from `xadj` of G_0.

We run a prefix algorithm on `numedges` to attain the preprocessed list we desire. Thus, `numedges[i]` $=$ `xadj`$[2i]$ for `xadj` of G_1. The prefix algorithm we run can be serial because its total runtime is very small compared to the rest of the coarsening algorithm.

2.4.5 Mapping Conclusions

In serial coarsening, mapping and matching are done concurrently, thus this entire stage is additional necessary work to parallelize the algorithm. The work of this stage is $\Theta(|V|)$ and the critical path is $\Theta(\lg |V|)$.

3 Parallelizing Refinement

As explained in Section 1, refinement entails projecting a partition of a coarse graph, G_1 to a finer graph G_0 and refining the partition of G_0. We present the serial algorithm for refinement, issues with parallelizing refinement, and possible ideas to explore for solving them.

3.1 Refinement algorithm

The first step is projecting the partition of G_1 onto G_0. Say G_1 is partitioned into n disjoint subsets. For i such that $0 \leq i < |V_1|$, we have `where`$[i] = x$, where $0 \leq x < n$. x represents the partition vertex i belongs to. `where` holds the partitioning information. Given matched pair (i, j) of G_0 maps to k of G_1, projecting the partition entails setting `where`$[i]$ and `where`$[j]|$ to `where`$[k]$.

The second step is refining the partition of G_0. Define a **boundary vertex** to be connected to some vertex in a different partition and an **internal vertex** to be connected to only nodes in the same partition. We iterate over all boundary vertices, testing if moving the vertex to another partition lowers the edge-cut. If so, we move the vertex to the partition that reduces the edge-cut the most. We iterate over the boundary vertices a constant number of times.

To facilitate this step, during projection, we preprocess the list of boundary vertices into an array. For each boundary vertex, we calculate the sum of the weights of edges that lie in its partition, called its **internal degree**. For each other partition the boundary vertex is connected to, we calculate the sum of the weights of edges that lie in that partition, called the **external degree**. Each boundary vertex has one internal degree and up to $n-1$ external degrees. These degrees are stored in an array.

3.2 Algorithmic Parallelizing Issues

Projecting the partition entails only data writing and very little computation. A straightforward parallelization of this step seems feasible using the same methods in parallelizing the graph writing stage of coarsening.

Parallel refinement can lead to increasing the edge-cut. Consider Figure 9. Concurrently moving nodes 2 and 3 leads to an increase in the edge-cut.

To ensure moving vertex i does not increase the edge-cut, we must lock i along with all adjacent vertices. This creates huge locking overhead and is not recommended. Any parallel refinement solution should assume such cases are infrequent (assume $|V| >> p$ where p is the number of processors). Should something like this
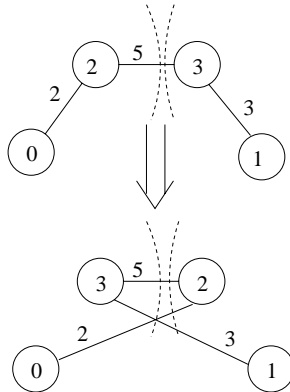
Figure 9: Example of problem with parallel refinement.

occur, not only will its effect to the edge-cut most likely by minimal, but future refinements of the graph will likely correct the error. Thus, we suspect allowing such errors are tolerable.

3.3 Implementation Parallelizing Issues

The current implementation lends itself very well for serial execution, but has issues for parallelization.

3.3.1 Maintaining List of Boundary Vertices

Currently, boundary vertices are stored in an array. When a vertex's partition changes, all previously internal adjacent vertices become boundary vertices. We wish to check these vertices in future iterations. Appending them to the end of an array will be difficult because other processors will be trying to append other vertices as well, causing concurrency issues. This seems only to be resolved with a unique lock. Once again, this will cause a bottleneck and limit parallelism.

If possible, we would like to be able to maintain some data structure that holds all boundary vertices such that it may be iterated in parallel and appending is cheap. A simple array does not satisfy these requirements. When the number of partitions is small, in practice, the number of boundary vertices will be significantly less than the number of total vertices. If possible, we would like to avoid iterating through all vertices.

3.3.2 Keeping Degrees Updated

Examples such as Figure 9 create determinacy races for external and internal degrees of vertices. Inaccurate degree information may prevent necessary vertex moves or lead to harmful vertex moves. We do not know how often this might occur during refinement. We wish to avoid inaccuracies in degree information because correcting them would be expensive. We may use lock each degree before modifying it, but this entails allocating and initializing $|V|n$ locks.

Degrees are created to save repeated computation over repeated iterations. An efficient parallel implementation of refinement that uses these degrees is currently open to research.

4 Timing Results

Table 3 presents timing results on the total work and critical path of the parallel stages of coarsening a 1600x1600 grid. Because critical path is being measured, the values measured are higher than the values in practice. Still, they demonstrate potential for parallelism.

Table 4 presents timing results of coarsening a 1600 by 1600 grid.

One experiment uses first-touch placement and memset all arrays to 0 before operating. Table 5 breaks down runtime of each stage.

Another experiment uses round-robin placement and memset all arrays to 0 before operating. Table 6 breaks down runtime of each stage.

Note that despite having more total work than first-touch placement, round-robin placement achieves better speedup and as good performance on multiple processors.

5   Conclusion

We present implementation details of a parallel coarsening algorithm. We add $\Theta(|V|)$ parallelizable work to the coarsening stage to enable parallelization. To run efficiently we add $\Theta(|E|)$ serial work so that the algorithm scales more efficiently. The $\Theta(|E|)$ work severely limits scalability.

We present issues with parallelizing refinement and present paths for future research towards handling the issues. For a Masters of Engineering thesis, I propose to develop and test an efficient parallel refining algorithm along with explore optimizations to the current coarsening algorithm.

References

[1] George Karypis and Vipin Kumar. Multilevel k-way partitioning scheme for irregular graphs. *Journal of Parallel and Distributed Computing*, 48(1):96–129, 1998.

	T_1	T_∞	T_1/T_∞
matching	1.82 s	517 us	3111
mapping	1.44 s	1.09 ms	692
coarsening	2.67 s	1.7ms	1565

Table 3: Total work and critical path timing results of a 1600x1600 grid.

	serial runtime	1 proc	2 proc	4 proc	8 proc
1600x1600	3.57	6.35	4.05	2.92	2.33

Table 4: Experimental timing results of coarsening a 1600 x 1600 grid. All values are in seconds.

	1 proc	2 proc	4 proc	8 proc
memset for matching	.39	.39	.39	.39
matching	.87	.44	.27	.16
mapping	1.07	.56	.33	.24
numedges	.07	.07	.07	.07
memset for writing	.95	.95	.95	.95
writing coarse graph	2.51	1.30	.74	.41

Table 5: Experimental timing results of coarsening a 1600x1600 grid using first-touch placement. All values are in seconds.

	1 proc	2 proc	4 proc	8 proc
memset for matching	.43	.43	.43	.43
matching	.99	.49	.28	.15
mapping	1.13	.59	.36	.22
numedges	.07	.07	.07	.07
memset for writing	1.08	1.08	1.08	1.08
writing coarse graph	2.65	1.39	.70	.38

Table 6: Experimental timing results of coarsening a 1600x1600 grid using round-robin placement. All values are in seconds.