Solving the Top-K Problem with Fixed-Memory Heuristic Search

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Abstract

The *Top-K* problem is defined as follows. Given L lists of real numbers, find the top K scoring L-tuples. A tuple is scored by the sum of its components. Rare event modeling is often reduced to the Top-K problem.

In this paper, we present the application of a fixed-memory heuristic search algorithm (namely, SMA*) and its distributed-memory extension to the Top-K problem. Our approach has efficient runtime complexity and super-linear speedup in distributed-memory setting. Experimental studies on both synthetic and real-world data sets show the effectiveness of our approach.

Introduction

Given a set of events with real-valued features, an important task is to model rare events. By definition, rare events usually occur too infrequently to be classifiable using standard techniques. In this paper, we present the task of rare event modeling in terms of the Top-K problem; and describe how a fixed-memory heuristic search algorithm – namely, SMA* (Russell 1992) – and its distributed-memory extension effectively solve this problem.

Top-K Problem Definition

The Top-K problem is defined as follows. Given L lists of real numbers, possibly of different lengths, an *L-tuple* is a selection of one value from each list. The score of an L-tuple is equal to the sum of the selected values (i.e., sum of the tuple's components). For a given parameter K, we require an algorithm that efficiently lists the top K L-tuples ordered from best (highest score) to worst. We are particularly interested in input scenarios where both L and K are large (say, $L \in [10^2, 10^3]$ and $K \in [10^6, 10^9]$).

Given the above Top-K definition, the task of rare event modeling reduces to finding the top K L-tuples of a set of "normal" events, where each event is described by a vector of real-valued features. The L-tuple with the highest score corresponds to a theoretical event in which all features take on optimal values. The top K L-tuples represent a set of theoretical rare events, whose scores can be compared to observed data to detect rare events.

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Contributions

Due to the potentially huge number of results, any acceptable algorithm will not be able to store all of the generated L-tuples in memory. Therefore, a fixed (i.e., constant) memory-size algorithm, such as SMA* (Russell 1992), is needed.

SMA* and related algorithms require the specification of an additional parameter M for the maximum allotted memory-size. The choice for M has a dramatic effect on runtime (see the Experiments Section). However, parallelization of SMA* increases the effective memory size and produces super-linear speedups.

Related Work

Previous studies of the Top-K problem focus on cases where L is small (2 or 3) and each list is very long. Fredman (1976) studies the problem of sorting $X + Y = \{x + y | x \in X, y \in Y\}$ in better than $O(n^2 \cdot log(n))$ time (where $|X| = |Y| = n$). Frederickson and Johnson (1980) examine the slightly easier problem of discovering the K^{th} element of $X + Y$ in $O(n \cdot log(n))$ time. They also considers the problem of finding the K^{th} element of $\sum_{i=1}^{m} X_i$, proving that a polynomial algorithm in n for arbitrary $m \leq n$ and K would imply that $P = NP$.

The Top-K problem is related to the problem of determining order statistics for a collection of numbers. A well-known linear-time algorithm for computing the i^{th} order statistic of a list of numbers is presented in Blum et al. (1973) and Floyd and Rivest (1973).

Our approach uses fixed-memory heuristic search to enumerate L-tuples. In particular, we utilize and extend SMA* (Russell 1992). We found SMA* to be the best-suited fixed-memory heuristic search algorithm for the Top-K problem. SMA* is a simplification of MA* search (Chakrabarti et al. 1989), and is similar to RA* (Evett et al. 1990). Another member of this family of algorithms is IE (Russell 1992), but IE often leads to a higher re-expansion rate than SMA*. MREC (Sen and Bagchi 1989) and ITS (Ghosh, Mahanti, and Nau 1994) are extensions of IDA* (Korf 1985). They take advantage of extra available memory, but like IDA* they must search from the root node at each iteration. ITS is essentially another simplified version of MA* (Ghosh, Mahanti, and Nau 1994), while MREC can make poor use of

available memory due to inefficiencies in its allocation procedure.

Serial SMA* for the Top-K Problem

Given X, a list of L lists of real numbers, and an integer K, our application of SMA* will report the top K scoring L-tuples that can be selected from X. We assume that each list in X is sorted in decreasing order; then, begin by constructing D, another list of L lists of real numbers. Each list D_i has $|X_i| - 1$ entries, where $D_{ij} = X_{ij} - X_{i(j+1)}$. Note that the values in each D_i are all nonnegative real numbers; and D_i is unsorted.

The top-scoring L-tuple, R_1, can immediately be reported; it is simply the tuple generated by selecting the first element in each X_i. At this point, the problem can be divided into two subproblems whose structure is identical to the original problem (i.e. another instance of the Top-K problem). While there are several possible ways to make this division, we choose one that will allow us to search efficiently. In particular, we choose the list which would incur the least cost when its best element is discarded.[1] This can be determined by choosing the list i with the minimum D_{i1}. Given this index i, we generate two subproblems as follows. In the first subproblem, we discard the best element in list X_i. The resulting list of lists will be called X^1. In the second subproblem, we keep the best element in list X_i and remove all other elements from list X_i. The resulting list of lists here will be called X^0.

Let's illustrate this procedure with an example. Suppose X = {[10,8,5,2,1], [4,3,2,1], [30,25,24,23,22]}; so, D = {[2,3,3,1], [1,1,1], [5,1,1,1]}. (Recall that we assume lists in X are already sorted in decreasing order). The top-scoring L-tuple is $R_1 = \langle 10, 4, 30 \rangle$ with $score(R_1)$=10+4+30=44. Starting from X, the next best tuple can be generated by selecting the list i with the smallest D_{i1} and decrementing X_i in X: X^1 = {[10,8,5,2,1], [3,2,1], [30,25,24,23,22]}, D^1 = {[2,3,3,1], [1,1], [5,1,1,1]}, and $score(X^1)$=10+3+30=43. At this point, we can split the problem into two smaller problems. We can either "accept" the best decrement (X^1 above) or "reject" the best decrement and all future chances to decrement that list: X^0 = {[10,8,5,2,1], [4], [30,25,24,23,22]}, D^0 = {[2,3,3,1], [], [5,1,1,1]}, and $score(X^0)$=10+4+30=44.

Our procedure for generating subproblems has three important properties. First, every L-tuple generated from X is either R_1, from X^1, or from X^0. Second, no L-tuple generated from X^1 or X^0 has a score greater than $score(R_1)$. Third, the top-scoring L-tuple from X^0 has the same score as R_1.

Given the above formulation, a recursive solution to the Top-K problem is theoretically possible. In the base case, the input list X has L lists of length one, and there is only one possible L-tuple to report (namely, R_1). Given arbitrary length lists in X, we can divide the problem as above and merge the resultant top-K lists with R_1, discarding all but the top K elements of the merged list. This method, however, is impractical since each of the lists returned by the recursive calls could contain as many as K elements; hence, violating the requirement that space complexity must *not* be $O(K)$. But, a search-based approach allows us to generate the top K tuples one at a time. If we treat each Top-K instance as a node, and each subproblem generated from an instance as a child of that node, then we can treat the Top-K problem as search in a binary tree. The cost of traversing an edge is equal to the loss in score incurred by removing elements from X; thus the X^0 edge always has cost 0 and the X^1 edge has cost equal to $bestDiff(X) =_{def} min(D_{i1}|i = 1 \cdots L)$.

In this context, A* search (Hart, Nilsson, and Raphael 1972) clearly generates subproblems in order of their R_i scores. For the heuristic function $h(n)$, we use $bestDiff(X)$, which can be readily computed. Note that $bestDiff$ is monotone (and thus admissible) by the following argument:[2] If p is a 1-child of n (the X^1 subproblem), then $h(n) = cost(n, p)$ and $h(p) \geq 0$. Otherwise, $cost(n, p) = 0$ and $h(n) \leq h(p)$ by the definition of $bestDiff$.

Unfortunately, A* search requires storage of the $OPEN$ list in memory, and the size of $OPEN$ increases with every node expansion. This violates our memory requirements (of less than $O(K)$ storage), so we employ SMA* search (Russell 1992) which stores a maximum of M nodes in memory at any given time during the execution. SMA* expands nodes in the same order as A* until it runs out of memory. At that point, the least promising node is deleted and its f-value is backed up in its parent.[3] SMA* is guaranteed to generate the same nodes as A* and in the same order. However, it may generate some intermediate nodes multiple times as it "forgets" and "remembers" portions of the tree. In certain cases, especially when the parameter M is small compared to the size of the search fringe, SMA* can experience "thrashing." This thrashing results from large parts of the search tree being generated and forgotten with very few new nodes being discovered.

The serial Top-K algorithm is described in Algorithm 1, which is essentially the same as SMA* (Russell 1992) except for modifications to demonstrate the use of heaps in selecting which of the X_i lists to decrement at each node. Algorithms 2 through 5 describe Top-K's auxiliary routines.[4]

Parallel-SMA* for the Top-K Problem

The aforementioned serial algorithm is very sensitive to the choice of M, the maximum amount of memory that can be allocated (see the Experiments Section). Here we present a parallel SMA* algorithm that offers dramatic improvement in runtime.

For a machine with P processing nodes, we use A* search to generate the P–1 best candidate subproblems. This cov-

[1] If all lists in X contain exactly one element, no subproblems can be generated. In this case, the Top-K problem is trivial.

[2] Recall that a heuristic function $h(n)$ is monotone if $h(n) \leq cost(n, p) + h(p)$ for all nodes n and all successors p of n.

[3] The function f represents the total cost function, which equals the sum of the cost encountered so far and the estimated cost.

[4] We omit descriptions of auxiliary routines $backup()$ and $completed()$. See Russell (1992) for details.

Algorithm 1 Top-K

Require: integers K, L, M
Require: list of lists of positive reals D
  $count \leftarrow 0$
  $open \leftarrow makeQueue()$
  $root \leftarrow makeRoot()$
  $queueInsert(open, root)$
  $report(root)$
  while $OPEN$ is not empty and $count < K$ **do**
    if $length(open) == M$ **then**
      $worst \leftarrow$ highest f-value leaf node
      $queueRemove(open, worst)$
      $delete(worst)$
    end if
    $best \leftarrow$ lowest f-value node in $OPEN$
    $next \leftarrow successor(best)$
    $queueInsert(open, next)$
    if $completed(best)$ **then**
      $backup(best)$
      $queueRemove(open, best)$
    end if
    if $next$'s top tuple has not been seen **then**
      $report(next)$
    end if
  end while

Algorithm 2 makeRoot()

  $v \leftarrow node()$
  $v.heap \leftarrow makeHeap()$
  for $i = 1$ to L **do**
    $heapInsert(v.heap, \{key = D[i][0], val = (i, 0)\})$
  end for
  $v.g \leftarrow 0$
  $v.h \leftarrow heapMin(v.heap).key$
  $v.f \leftarrow v.g + v.h$
  $v.leftChild \leftarrow v.rightChild \leftarrow NULL$

Algorithm 3 successor(v)

  if v has a right child **then**
    return $left(v)$
  end if
  if v has a left child **then**
    return $right(v)$
  end if
  if v has generated children but they have been deleted **then**
    return least-recently generated child
  end if
  return $left(v)$

Algorithm 4 left(v)

  $u \leftarrow node()$
  $u.heap \leftarrow heapCopy(v.heap)$
  $\{diff, (i, j)\} \leftarrow heapPop(u.heap)$
  $heapPush(u.heap, \{key = D[i][j+1], val = (i, j+1)\})$
  $u.g \leftarrow v.g + diff$
  $u.h \leftarrow heapMin(u.heap).key$
  $u.f \leftarrow u.g + u.h$
  $u.leftChild \leftarrow u.rightChild \leftarrow NULL$
  $v.leftChild \leftarrow u$
  return u

Algorithm 5 right(v)

  $u \leftarrow node()$
  $u.heap \leftarrow heapCopy(v.heap)$
  $heapPop(u.heap)$ /* Discard list D_i in this branch. */
  $u.g \leftarrow v.g$
  $u.h \leftarrow heapMin(u.heap).key$
  $u.f \leftarrow u.g + u.h$
  $u.leftChild \leftarrow u.rightChild \leftarrow NULL$
  $v.rightChild \leftarrow u$
  return u

ers the entire search tree. Because each subproblem is independent of the others, each processing node can perform SMA* search on its subproblem and incrementally report results to the master processing node, where the incoming tuple lists are merged and results are reported.

For small P, this algorithm works as expected and produces super-linear speedup. However as P increases, the performance boost can decrease quickly. This occurs because the runtime for this parallel algorithm is dominated by the single processing node with the longest runtime. If the initial allocation of subproblems to processing nodes is imbalanced, additional processing nodes may not improve performance at all. To ameliorate this problem, we adopt a load-balancing heuristic.

We run parallel SMA* on the input data with $K' \ll K$ as the threshold parameter. We then use the relative load from each subproblem as an estimate of the total work that will have to be done to solve that subproblem. We use these estimates to redistribute the initial nodes and repeat until there are no changes in the initial allocation of nodes. This distribution is then used to generate the top K L-tuples as described above. In our experiments, this heuristic correctly balanced the loads on the processing nodes. Moreover, the initial overhead to calculate the estimates was a negligible fraction of the overall runtime.

Experiments

Synthetic Data: Results and Discussion

To determine the runtime requirements for our Top-K algorithm, we generated a synthetic data set with $L = 100$ lists. Each list has between one and ten real values distributed uniformly in $[0, 1]$. Figure 1 shows runtime results for $M = 10^6$ nodes in memory. Note that as K increases, time complexity in K becomes near-linear. However, at approximately 20,000 tuples per second it is still too slow to be practical for large values of K.

Figures 2, 3, and 4 show the performance metrics for a strong scaling experiment with the parallel algorithm: *run-*

time, *speedup*, *efficiency*. Runtime is the wall-clock runtime. Speedup is defined as the time taken to execute on one process (T_1) divided by the time taken to execute on P processes (T_p). Linear speedup is the ideal case where 2 processes take half the time, 3 processes take a third of the time, and so forth. Efficiency is defined as speedup divided by the number of processors. Ideal efficiency is always 1, and anything above 1 is super-linear. Values less than 1 indicate diminishing returns as more processors are added.

For the parallel Top-K experiments, we use the same 100 lists described above but with $M = 10^5$, $K = 2 \cdot 10^6$, and $K' = 10^4$. There is no I/O time in these experiments, as tuples are simply discarded once they are discovered. Note that the runtime for $P = 2$ is the same as the serial runtime plus overhead because in this case one processing node is the master and simply "merges" the results from the compute node. We see super-linear speedup for values of P up to 17 processes. However, the runtime for $P = 17$ is nearly identical to the runtime for $P = 9$. This is because in the $P = 17$ experiment, one of the large subproblems is not correctly split and redistributed. Figure 5 reveals the cause. When $P > 9$, the subproblems are not being correctly distributed among the nodes. Figure 6 shows the same results for the load-balanced version of the algorithm. In this case, it is clear that the nodes are being correctly distributed.

Figures 7, 8, and 9 show the parallel efficiency results for the load-balanced case. As previously discussed, the load-balancing heuristic drastically improves performance as the number of processors increases. These results include the time required to calculate the load-balance estimates, which explains the slightly longer runtimes at $P \leq 9$.

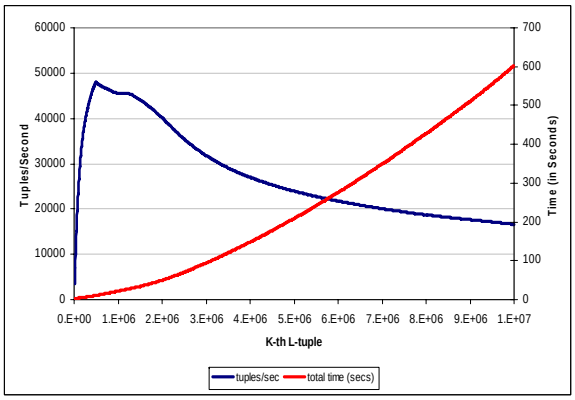

Figure 1: Serial Top-K: Runtime as a Function of K

Real Data: Results and Discussion

We tested the Top-K algorithm on three real-world data sets. The first is a collection of computer hardware configurations.[5] In this data set, 209 computers were annotated with six feature values: *maximum and minimum memory size*, *maximum and minimum number of channels*, *cache size*, and *cycle time*. We generate one list for each feature ($L = 6$),

[5]http://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/Computer+Hardware

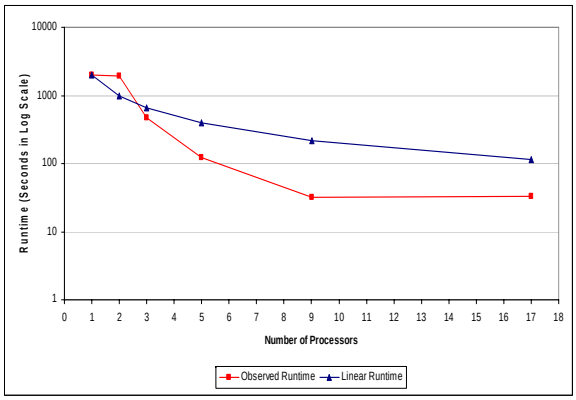

Figure 2: Unbalanced Parallel Top-K: Runtime Scaling

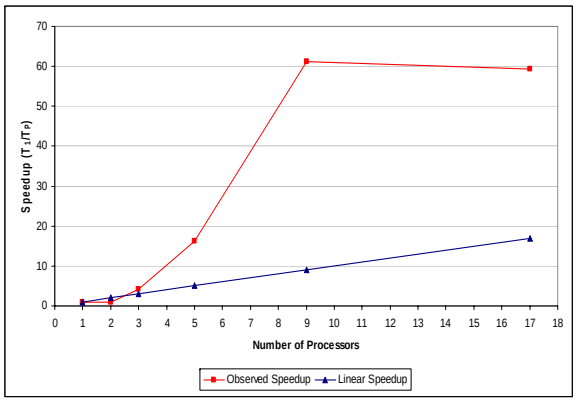

Figure 3: Unbalanced Parallel Top-K: Speedup

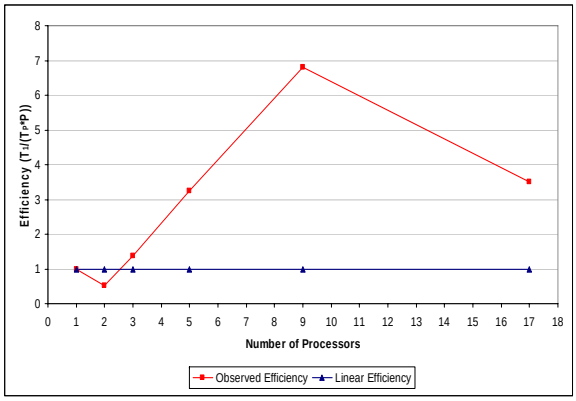

Figure 4: Unbalanced Parallel Top-K: Efficiency

with each list having 209 elements corresponding to each of the 209 computers. We normalize each attribute so that all values are between 0 and 1.[6] The second data set was col-

[6]For cycle time, which is optimized at small values, we use the additive inverse and normalized to values between -1 and 0.

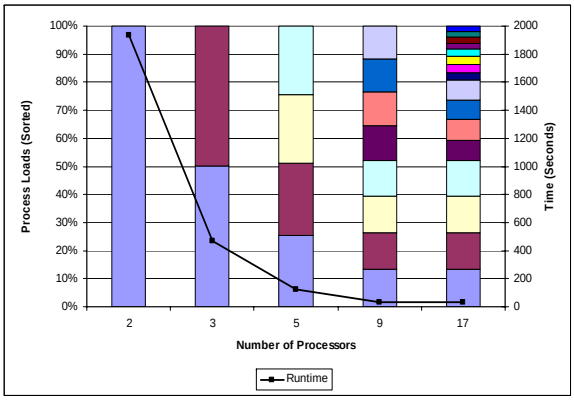

Figure 5: Unbalanced Parallel Top-K: Load Balance

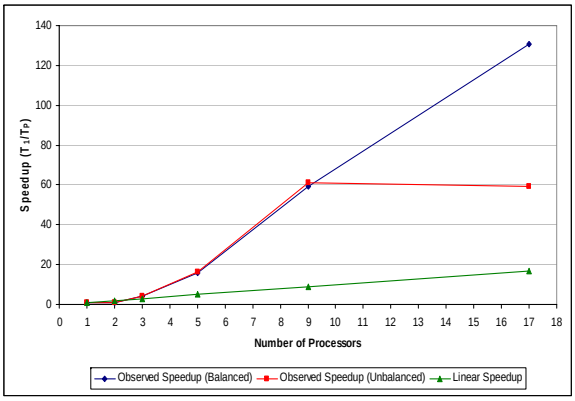

Figure 8: Balanced Parallel Top-K: Speedup

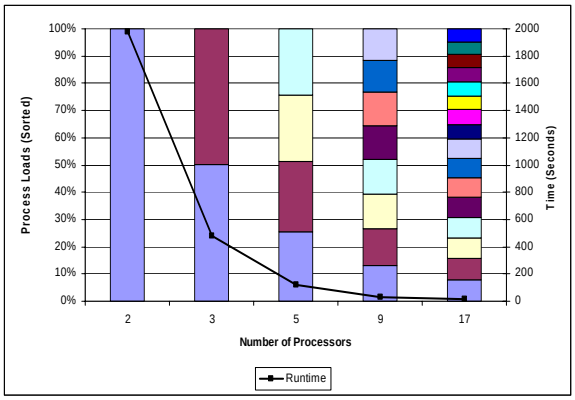

Figure 6: Balanced Parallel Top-K: Load Balance

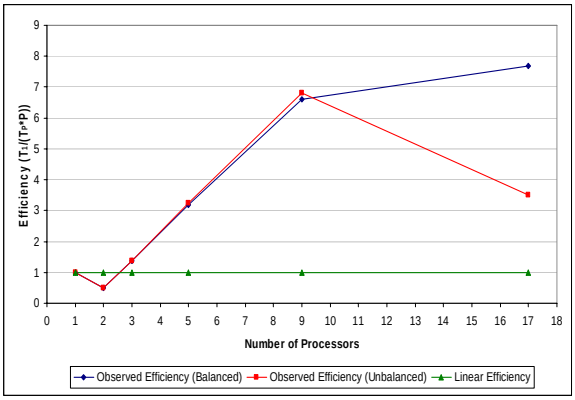

Figure 9: Balanced Parallel Top-K: Efficiency

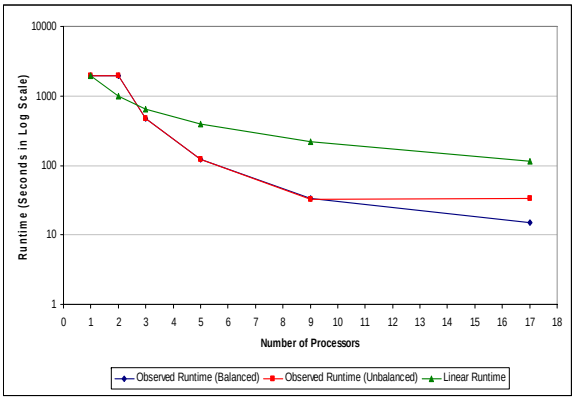

Figure 7: Balanced Parallel Top-K: Runtime Scaling

lected as people entered and exited a building on a college campus.[7] Here the raw data are presented as flows, with each half-hour – over a 12-week period – being labeled with an in-flow and an out-flow value. There are $L = 48$ lists, one for each half hour of the day. Each list contains 12 values, one for each week in the study. The j^{th} value of the i^{th} list is the sum of the building occupancy (calculated from the flows) during week j at the end of half-hour i. Each list X_i is pruned of duplicate values, making the final length of some of the lists less than 12. The third data set is based on a trace of IP network traffic captured at an event. Sensors at the perimeter and inside the local network recorded all IP traffic over the course of one day. The period between 9:00 AM and 5:00 PM is divided into half-hour intervals. Any IP address that did not send data during all 16 intervals is discarded. The resulting trace contains 770 unique IP addresses, resulting in $L = 770$ lists. The values X_{ij} in each list correspond to the total number of bytes sent by IP address i during half-hour j. Again, duplicate values are removed from each list. Table 1 summarizes the properties of the three data sets. The values for L vary widely among the three instances, as do the lengths of the lists X_i. We report only the maximum length (i.e., $max(|X_i|)$), though in the IP data and the building occupancy data some of the lists are shorter due to removal of duplicate values.

Table 2 lists the score for the top-1 L-tuple, $score(R_1)$;

[7] http://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/CalIt2+Building+People+Counts

Table 1: Summary of Real Data Sets

Data Set	L	$max(\{\|X_1\|, \ldots, \|X_L\|\})$
Hardware	6	209
Occupancy	48	12
IP	770	16

and the difference between the score for the top-1 L-tuple and the score for the top-10^6 L-tuple, $\Delta(R_1, R_{10^6}) = score(R_1) - score(R_{10^6})$. The top-scoring L-tuples (R_1) correspond to theoretical rare events. For the computer hardware data, R_1 can be interpreted as an ideal computer, given the observed values of various components. For the building occupancy data, R_1 corresponds to a maximum expected occupancy during a given week. For the IP traffic data, R_1 corresponds to a theoretical half-hour in which all IP addresses communicated at maximum observed levels.

Table 2: Score for the Top-1 L-tuple in Real Data and the Difference between it and the Score for the Top-10^6 L-tuple

Data Set	$score(R_1)$	$\Delta(R_1, R_{10^6})$
Hardware	6	0.92
Occupancy	707	8
IP	1.2×10^9	114

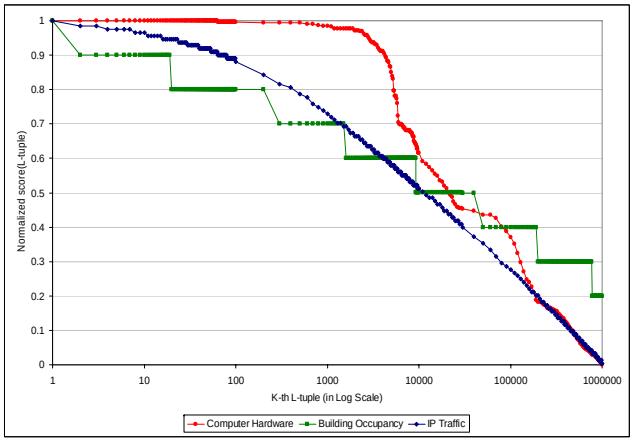

Figure 10: Top 10^6 L-tuple Scores for Three Real Data Sets

Figure 10 shows the top 10^6 L-tuple (normalized) scores on our three real-world data sets. These top 10^6 tuples represent a set of events that would be extremely rare given the observed data. Our first observation is that the scores for top tuples decrease in a variety of different ways based on the data set. In the building occupancy data set, for which scores must be integers, the tuple values descend in a discrete step fashion with each subsequent score belonging to exponentially more tuples. The scores for the IP traffic data set decrease in a smooth, gradual curve, while the scores for the computer hardware data set decrease through alternating rapid and slow periods. Second, it is apparent from the IP traffic and building occupancy results that when the total number of L-tuples is large, the top K tuples for even very large values of K are all very close in score to the maximum-scoring tuple. This makes it challenging to detect all but the rarest events using a simple threshold method that is guided by the slope of the Top-K L-tuple score curves (such as the ones depicted in Figure 10. Finally, the computer hardware data set presents a unique challenge in that the values in each list have different meaning. It is not clear how to weight each component. For our experiments, each feature value was normalized by dividing it by the maximum observed value for that feature. This decision was arbitrary, however; in applications with mixed observation types, it is important to use domain knowledge and good heuristics when deciding what weight should be given to each feature.

Conclusions

In this paper, we demonstrated that the Top-K problem can be solved efficiently using fixed memory by converting the problem into a binary search tree and applying SMA* search. We also parallelized SMA* for the Top-K problem in order to achieve super-linear speedup in a distributed-memory environment. Lastly we validated our approach through experiments on both synthetic and real data sets.

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