
MUSS: Multilevel Subset Selection for Relevance and Diversity

Vu Nguyen^{*1}

Andrey Kan^{*1}

¹Amazon

Abstract

The problem of relevant and diverse subset selection has a wide range of applications, from recommender systems to retrieval-augmented generation (RAG). For example, in recommender systems, one is interested in selecting relevant items, while providing a diversified recommendation. Constrained subset selection problem is NP-hard, and popular approaches such as Maximum Marginal Relevance (MMR) are based on greedy selection. Many real-world applications involve large data, but the original MMR work did not consider distributed selection. This limitation was later addressed by a method called DGDS which allows for a distributed setting using random data partitioning. Here, we exploit structure in the data to further improve both scalability and performance on the target application. We propose MUSS, an efficient method that uses a multilevel approach to relevant and diverse selection. In a recommender system application, our method can not only improve the performance up to 4 percentage points in precision, but is also 20 to 80 times faster. Our method is also capable of outperforming baselines on RAG-based question answering accuracy. We present a novel theoretical approach for analyzing this type of problems, and show that our method achieves a constant factor approximation of the optimal objective. Moreover, our analysis also results in a $\times 2$ tighter bound for DGDS compared to the previously known bound. Our code is publicly available at <https://github.com/amazon-science/muss>.

1 INTRODUCTION

Relevant and diverse subset selection plays a crucial role in a number of machine learning (ML) applications. In such applications, relevance ensures that the selected items are closely aligned with task-specific objectives. E.g., in recommender systems these can be items likely to be clicked on, and in retrieval-augmented generation (RAG) these can be sentences that are likely to contain an answer. On the other hand, diversity addresses the issue of redundancy by promoting the inclusion of varied and complementary elements, which is essential for capturing a broader spectrum of information. Together, relevance and diversity are vital in applications like feature selection [Qin et al., 2012], document summarization [Fabbri et al., 2021], neural architecture search [Nguyen et al., 2021, Schneider et al., 2022], deep reinforcement learning [Parker-Holder et al., 2020, Wu et al., 2023b], and recommender systems [Clarke et al., 2008, Coppolillo et al., 2024, Carraro and Bridge, 2024]. Instead of item relevance, one can also consider item quality. Thus sometimes, we will refer to the problem as high quality and diverse selection.

Challenges of relevant and diverse selection arise due to combinatorial nature of subset selection and the inherent trade-off in balancing these two objectives. Enumerating all possible subsets is impractical even for moderately sized datasets due to exponential number of possible combinations [Gong et al., 2019, Maharana et al., 2023, Acharya et al., 2024]. In addition, the combined objective of maximizing relevance and diversity is often non-monotonic, further complicating optimization. For instance, the addition of a highly relevant item might significantly reduce diversity gains. In fact, common formulations of relevant and diverse selection lead to an NP-hard problem [Ghadiri and Schmidt, 2019].

Existing approaches consider different approximate selection techniques, including clustering, reinforcement learning, determinantal point process, and maximum marginal relevance (MMR). Among these MMR has become a widely used framework for balancing relevance and diversity [Xia

^{*}Equal contribution

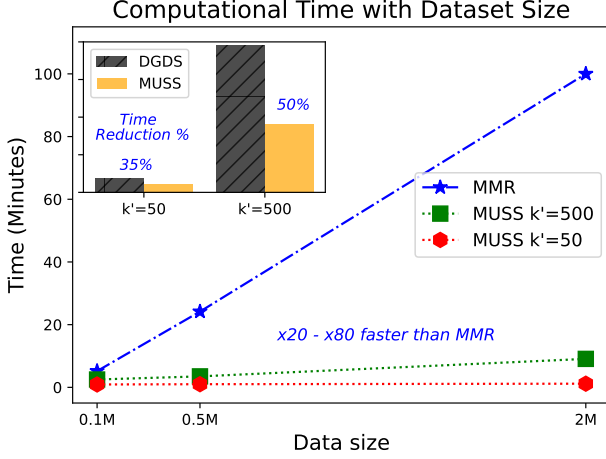


Figure 1: Our MUSS is not only capable of achieving better performance on the target task as baselines, but also can be $20\times$ to $80\times$ faster. The insert shows the relative speed improvement against DGDS. Note that MMR is not a distributed method. Here, the task has been to select k candidate items for recommendation from catalogs of different sizes and k' denotes the number of intermediate items to be selected within each cluster for MUSS and DGDS.

et al., 2015, Luan et al., 2018, Hirata et al., 2022, Wu et al., 2023a]. This greedy algorithm iteratively selects the next item that maximizes gain in weighted combination of the two terms. The diversity is measured with (dis-)similarity between the new and previously selected items.

MMR algorithm is interpretable and easy to implement. However, the original MMR work did not consider distributed selection, while many real-world ML applications deal with large-scale data. This limitation was later addressed by a method called DGDS [Ghadiri and Schmidt, 2019]. The authors of DGDS also provided theoretical analysis showing that their method achieves a constant factor approximation of the optimal solution. DGDS allows for a distributed setting using random data partitioning. Items are then independently selected from each partition, which can be performed in parallel. Subsets selected from the partitions are then combined before the final selection is performed. Thus, the final selection step becomes a performance bottleneck if the number of partitions and the number of selected items in each partition are large. We refer to Appendix Section A for further discussion on related work and summarize the computational complexity in Table 1.

In our work, we explore the question *whether we can further improve both scalability and performance on the target application by leveraging structure in the data*. We address the final selection bottleneck by introducing clustering-based data pruning. Moreover, our novel theoretical analysis, such as Lemmas 1 and 5, allowed us to relate the cluster-level and item-level selection stages and derive an approx-

imation bound for the proposed method. In summary, the contributions of our work are as follows

- We propose MUSS, a distributed method that uses a multilevel approach to high quality and diverse subset selection. We provide a rigorous theoretical analysis and show that our method achieves a constant-factor approximation of the optimal objective. We show how this bound is affected by clustering structure in the data.
- We use new theoretical findings to tighten the bound of DGDS, improving from the existing factor of $\frac{1}{31}$ to $\frac{1}{16}$. The improved bound does not rely on the condition of $k \geq 10$ needed in DGDS [Ghadiri and Schmidt, 2019].
- We demonstrate the utility of our method on popular ML applications of item recommendation and RAG-based question answering. For item recommendation, our method not only improves up to 4 percent points in precision upon baselines, but is also 20 to 80 times faster (Figure 1). MUSS has been deployed **in production** for real-world candidate retrieval on a large-scale e-commerce platform serving million customers daily.

2 MULTILEVEL SUBSET SELECTION

2.1 PROBLEM FORMULATION

Consider a universe of objects represented as set $\mathcal{U}$ of size $|\mathcal{U}| = n$. Let $q : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ denote a non-negative function representing either quality of an object, relevance of the object, or a combination of both. Next, consider a distance function $d : \mathcal{U} \times \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$. Here we implicitly assume that the objects can be represented with embeddings in a metric space. Appendix Table 5 summarizes our notation. Our goal is to select a subset $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{U}$ of size $|\mathcal{S}| = k \leq n$ from the universe $\mathcal{U}$, such that the objects are both of high quality and diverse. In particular, we consider the following optimization problem

$$\mathcal{O} = \arg \max_{\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{U}, |\mathcal{S}|=k} F(\mathcal{S} \mid k, \lambda) \quad (1)$$

where $\mathcal{O}$ is the global optimum, and the objective function is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} F(\mathcal{S}) &= \lambda \sum_{u \in \mathcal{S}} q(u) + (1 - \lambda) \sum_{u, v \in \mathcal{S}} d(u, v) \\ &= \lambda Q(\mathcal{S}) + (1 - \lambda) D(\mathcal{S}). \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

The first term Q measures the quality of selection, while the second term D measures the diversity of the selection. Coefficient $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$ controls the trade-off between quality (or relevance) and diversity. A higher value of λ increases the emphasis on quality, while a lower value emphasizes diversity thus reducing redundancy. We use $\mathcal{O}$ to denote the global maximizer of the above problem parameterized by

Table 1: MUSS reduces time complexity by only considering a subset of clusters. Here, we compare average-case time complexity of methods for selecting subsets of size k from a set of n items. We use l to denote the number of clusters, m for the number of selected clusters, k' for the number of items to be selected in each cluster and p for the number of parallel cores. Typically $n \gg l \gg m$; l for DGDS does not have to be the same as l for MUSS. We deliberately use $n \gg l$ so that cluster selection is cheap while still providing meaningful pruning. Complexity of MUSS is discussed in Section 2.2. For DGDS and MUSS partitioning and clustering steps can be performed once and are not considered here.

Method	Computational Complexity
K-DPP	$\mathcal{O}(k^2n + k^3)$
MMR	$\mathcal{O}(k^2n)$
DGDS	$\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{(k')^2n}{p} + k^2(k'l)\right)$
MUSS	$\mathcal{O}\left(m^2l + \frac{(k')^2nm}{lp} + k^2(k'm + k)\right)$

k and λ . For brevity, we may omit k and λ throughout the paper and write $F(\mathcal{S})$.

Note that the entire objective can be multiplied by a positive constant without changing the optimal solution. As such, different scaled variations of the diversity term can be represented with the same objective. For example, one can consider using an average distance for diversity, and this would lead to the same optimization problem with a different choice of λ .

The optimization involves maximizing a function with a cardinality constraint, which is a well-known NP-hard problem. Therefore, our solution uses a greedy selection strategy similar to MMR. However, a direct application of MMR might not be practical for large sets. Distributed approach of DGDS partially addresses this problem, but with a bottleneck in the final selection from the union of points selected from partitions.

2.2 MULTILEVEL SELECTION

We address this bottleneck by considerably reducing the size of this union without compromising quality of selection. To this end, we propose MUSS, a method that performs selection in three stages: (i) selecting clusters, (ii) selecting objects within each selected cluster, and (iii) selecting the final set from the union of objects selected from the clusters (Figure 2). We show that MUSS achieves a constant factor approximation of the optimal solution.

Step 1: While in previous literature greedy selection has been applied to items, our key observation is that greedy selection can also be used to select entire clusters that are both diverse and of high-quality while filtering out other clusters thus reducing the total pool of candidate items.

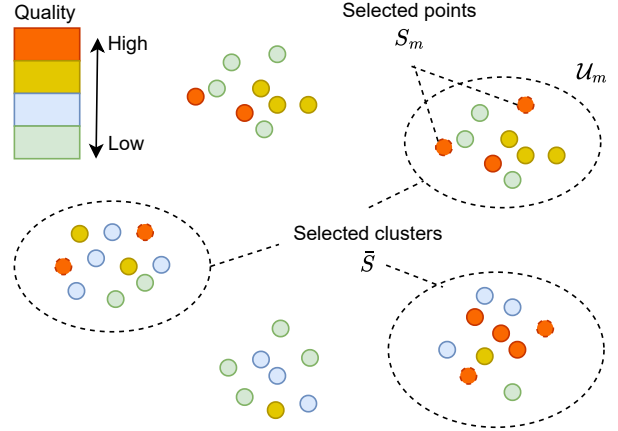


Figure 2: MUSS performs clustering following by a multilevel selection. Here, $\bar{\mathcal{S}}$ is a set of selected clusters, $\mathcal{U}_m$ denotes cluster m , and $\mathcal{S}_m$ denotes items selected from that cluster.

Algorithm 1 Greedy Selection

Input: set $\mathcal{T}$, #items to select k , parameter $\lambda \in [0, 1]$

Output: set $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$, s.t. $|\mathcal{S}| = k$

// start with the highest quality item

- 1 $\mathcal{S} = \{\arg \max_{t \in \mathcal{T}} q(t)\}$
- 2 **for** $i = 2, \dots, k$ **do**
- 3 $s = \arg \max_{t \in \mathcal{T} \setminus \mathcal{S}} \lambda q(t) + (1 - \lambda) \sum_{u \in \mathcal{S}} d(t, u)$
- 4 $\mathcal{S} = \mathcal{S} \cup \{s\}$

Therefore, we can use KMEANS algorithm to partition the data into clusters $\mathcal{U} = \bigcup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{U}_i$. Other clustering algorithms could also be used at this step. Next, we view clusters as a set of items $\mathcal{C} = \{c_1, \dots, c_l\}$. The distance $d(c_i, c_j)$ between two clusters is defined as the distance between cluster centroids. Next, the quality of the cluster is defined as the median quality score of items in this cluster, i.e., $q(c_i) = \text{median}(\{q(a) : a \in \mathcal{U}_i\})$. We then apply Algorithm 1 with the set of clusters $\mathcal{C}$ as input.

Step 2: Using greedy selection at the cluster level will result in a subset of m selected clusters, where each cluster c_i contains items $\mathcal{U}_i \subset \mathcal{U}$. For each selected cluster, we independently apply Algorithm 1 to select $\mathcal{S}_i = \text{ALG1}(\mathcal{U}_i | k')$ where $|\mathcal{S}_i| = k'$. We can set $k' < k$ for computational speed up (see Fig. 1). Importantly, selections within different clusters can be executed in parallel.

Step 3: Different from DGDS, our final selection includes the top k items with the highest overall quality.¹ That is, we collect $\mathcal{S}^* = \arg \max_{A \subset \mathcal{U}, |A|=k} \sum_{u \in A} q(u)$. We then select the final set of items by applying Algorithm 1 on the

¹The addition of the top k items has been motivated by Lemma 7. Empirically, our method achieves a similar performance with and without the top k addition (Appendix C.7).

Algorithm 2 MUSS

Input: set $\mathcal{U}$; item-level parameters: #items to select within each cluster k' and globally k , trade-off λ ; cluster-level parameters: #clusters l , #clusters to select m , trade-off λ_c

Output: $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{U}$ with $|\mathcal{S}| = k$

- 1 Apply KMEANS($\mathcal{U}, l$) to cluster $\mathcal{U}$ into $\{\mathcal{U}_i\}_{i=1}^l$
 - 2 Let $\mathcal{C}$ denote a set of clusters. The distance and quality of clusters are defined in Section 2.2.
 - 3 $\bar{\mathcal{S}} = \text{ALG1}(\mathcal{C}|m, \lambda_c)$
 - 4 **for** $\mathcal{U}_i \in \bar{\mathcal{S}}$ **do**
 - 5 // selection within in each cluster
 - 5 $\mathcal{S}_i = \text{ALG1}(\mathcal{U}_i|k', \lambda)$
 - 6 // the top k highest quality items
 - 6 $\mathcal{S}^* = \arg \max_{A \subseteq \mathcal{U}, |A|=k} \sum_{\mathbf{u} \in A} q(\mathbf{u})$
 - 6 // refinement for final selection
 - 7 $\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \cup \mathcal{S}^*|k, \lambda)$
-

union of item sets obtained in the previous step combined with $\mathcal{S}^*$. Our final selection is $\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \cup \mathcal{S}^*|k)$ where $|\mathcal{S}| = k$. The approach is summarized in Algorithm 2.

Computational complexity: We discuss the average-case time complexity of MUSS. Here “average-case” means assuming cluster sizes of $\frac{n}{l}$ when clustering n items into l clusters. The complexity of standard iterative implementation of KMEANS algorithm [Lloyd, 1982] is $\mathcal{O}(nkt)$, where t is the number of iterations. Selecting the top k highest quality items $\mathcal{S}^*$ is precomputed in the candidate retrieval task. In cases of computing them from scratch with a distributed setting, it costs $\mathcal{O}(n + pk \log k)$ using min-heap where p is the number of parallel cores. Greedy selection of k out of n items can be performed in $\mathcal{O}(k^2 n)$ time. Therefore, selecting m out of l clusters results in $\mathcal{O}(m^2 l)$. Next, selection of $k' \leq k$ points within one cluster gives $\mathcal{O}(\frac{(k')^2 n}{l})$. This will only be performed for m selected clusters and the computation can be distributed across p cores resulting in $\mathcal{O}(\frac{(k')^2 nm}{lp})$. Combining subsets from the clusters and the top k highest quality items results in a pool of $k'm + k$ items. Thus the final selection step results in $\mathcal{O}(k^2(k'm + k))$ complexity. Clustering and global top-k quality selection are performed once. Thus at query time, average-case complexity is $\mathcal{O}(m^2 l + \frac{(k')^2 nm}{lp} + k^2(k'm + k))$. Since our approach does not train a separate model for data selection, it does not require extra space. Therefore, the memory complexity is linear in the data size.

2.3 THEORETICAL PROPERTIES

We now present theoretical analysis of the proposed algorithm. We show that MUSS achieves a constant factor approximation of the optimal solution. Our main results are Theorem 4 and 8 which use additional lemmas to bound

diversity and quality terms. In addition to results for the proposed MUSS, we present new derivations tightening the known bound for DGDS with a factor of $\times 2$. Since MUSS uses both cluster and object-level selection, our bounds rely on Lemma 5 that relates objectives at different levels. This lemma is one of our main theoretical innovation points, along with new proof approach for Lemma 1. All proofs are provided in Appendix B.

Lemma 1. *Apply Algorithm 1 to select $\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\mathcal{T}|k)$. Let $\mathbf{t} \in \mathcal{T} \setminus \mathcal{S}$. The following inequalities hold*

$$\Delta(\mathbf{t}, \mathcal{S}) \equiv Q(\mathcal{S} \cup \{\mathbf{t}\}) - Q(\mathcal{S}) \leq \frac{1}{k\lambda} F(\mathcal{S}) \quad (3)$$

$$\min_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{S}} d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}) \leq \frac{2.5}{k(k-1)(1-\lambda)} F(\mathcal{S}). \quad (4)$$

We derive the next two lemmas enabling improved bounds for DGDS.

Lemma 2. *For each partition, apply Algorithm 1 to select $\mathcal{S}_i = \text{ALG1}(\mathcal{U}_i)$. We have*

$$D(\mathcal{O}) \leq 6F(\text{OPT}(\cup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{S}_i)). \quad (5)$$

Lemma 3. *For each partition, apply Algorithm 1 to select $\mathcal{S}_i = \text{ALG1}(\mathcal{U}_i)$. We have*

$$Q(\mathcal{O}) \leq 2F(\text{OPT}(\cup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{S}_i)). \quad (6)$$

Theorem 4. *With the above lemmas in place, we obtain the $\frac{1}{16}$ -approximation solution for maximizing $F(\mathcal{S})$ subject to $|\mathcal{S}| = k$.*

$$F(\text{DGDS}(\mathcal{U})) \geq \frac{1}{16} F(\mathcal{O}). \quad (7)$$

We emphasize that $F(\mathcal{S})$ does not need to be submodular. Instead, it can be characterized as a “submodular plus diversity” function ([Ghadiri and Schmidt, 2019]). Next, this theorem is not the first constant factor approximation for the problem. However, it results in a tighter bound compared to the $\frac{1}{31}$ factor from the previous work ([Ghadiri and Schmidt, 2019]).

We now return to MUSS. Using $\text{OPT}(\cdot)$ to denote the selection that maximizes the objective F , we proceed to the following lemma.

Lemma 5. *Let $k \geq m$, we have that*

$$F(\text{ALG1}(\mathcal{C}|m, \lambda_c, (1-\lambda_c))) \leq F(\text{OPT}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i)|k) + rm(m-1). \quad (8)$$

Lemma 5 connects objective functions at the cluster level and at the item level. In turn, this allows us to obtain lower bounds on the diversity term and the quality term when the multilevel Algorithm 2 is used to select $\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG2}(\mathcal{U})$.

Lemma 6. If $k \geq m$, we have

$$D(\mathcal{O}) \leq rk(k-1) \left[4 + \frac{5}{1-\lambda_c} \right] + F\left(\text{OPT}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i\right) | k\right) \left[\frac{5k(k-1)}{(1-\lambda_c)m(m-1)} + \frac{1}{(1-\lambda)} \right]. \quad (9)$$

Lemma 7. Let $\mathcal{S}^* = \arg \max_{A \subseteq \mathcal{U}, |A|=k} \sum_{u \in A} q(u)$ denote the set of k highest quality items from $\mathcal{U}$. We have

$$Q(\mathcal{O}) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda} F\left(\text{OPT}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \cup \mathcal{S}^*\right)\right). \quad (10)$$

Finally, our main theoretical result follows.

Theorem 8. In Line 7 of ALG2, instead of invoking ALG1 with λ and $1-\lambda$, let use parameters $\sigma\lambda, 1-\lambda$. Denote such an algorithm ALG2_σ . If $\sigma = 0.5$, $k \geq m$, ALG2_σ gives a constant-factor approximation to the optimal solution for maximizing $F(\mathcal{S})$ s.t. $|\mathcal{S}| = k$.

$$F(\text{ALG2}_\sigma(\mathcal{U})) \geq \frac{1}{\alpha} F(\mathcal{O}) - r \frac{\beta}{\alpha}. \quad (11)$$

Here, $\alpha(k, m, \lambda, \lambda_c)$, $\beta(k, m, \lambda, \lambda_c)$ are intermediate quantities defined in the proof in the interest of space. Note that $F(\mathcal{S})$ does not need to be submodular.

2.4 DISCUSSION

Theoretical considerations. The result in Eq. (7) can be used in two different comparisons. First, focusing only on the DGDS method, our Eq. (7) provides a tighter approximation bound compared to the original DGDS paper ([Ghadiri and Schmidt, 2019]). Second, we can consider the approximation bounds of DGDS and MUSS (Eq. (11)). Here, direct comparison is challenging, but we make the following observations.

Intermediate quantities α and β are functions of algorithm parameters k, m, λ, λ_c . For fixed parameter values, α and β are positive constants. In particular, if we set $k = m$ and $\lambda = \lambda_c$, we get $\alpha = 14$. This results in a better scaler compared to Eq. (7), but our bound also has the second term as the byproduct of the clustering and cluster selection.

We emphasize that our theoretical analysis does not make any assumptions about the quality of clustering. Instead, we note that the bound improves as r gets smaller. Growing the number of clusters l will make this radius smaller, but will increase time required for selecting clusters (Table 1). The ideal case is when the data naturally forms a small number of clusters, such that l and r are both low. On the other hand, for uniformly distributed data rather than failing catastrophically, MUSS largely resembles DGDS (see also experiments with “MUSS (rand.B)”).

Next, the bound can be explicitly maximized as a function of m and λ_c . However, in practice, we simply evaluate results for different values of λ_c , while m is selected to balance objective value with computational time.

Lastly, note that parameters k and λ are included in the objective function (Eq. 2). However, these parameters are application-driven, and should not be used to “optimize” the approximation bound. E.g., for a given application, the best λ value is the one that results in strongest correlation between an application-specific performance metric and the objective F .

Benefits of cluster selection. Since item selection within clusters can be performed in parallel, the main performance bottleneck is item selection from the union of subsets derived from different clusters. To reduce the size of this union, we introduce a novel idea of relevant and diverse selection of clusters. This step can dramatically reduce the number of items at the final selection with minimum impact on the selection quality. To the best of our knowledge, previous approaches did not consider the idea of “pruning” the set of clusters.

Preliminary elimination of a large number of clusters (Line 3 of Algorithm 2) will not only allow for more efficient selection from the union of points (running time and memory for Line 7 of Algorithm 2), but can lead to improved accuracy. This is because the greedy algorithm will be able to focus on relevant items after redundancy across clusters has been reduced. This is particularly useful for large scale dataset size, as shown in our experiments. Moreover, novel theoretical analysis, such as Lemma 5, allows us to relate cluster-level and item-level selection stages and derive an approximation bound for the proposed MUSS.

Theory-driven design. Theoretical results drive three concrete design choices. First, Lemma 7 motivates the addition of set $\mathcal{S}^*$ (Line 6 of Algorithm 2). Next, Lemma 5 connects cluster-level and item-level objectives via the cluster radius r and predicts that random partitioning (“MUSS (rand.B)” in Section 3) will under-perform clustering. Finally, Theorem 8 assumes $\sigma = 0.5$, i.e., a scaler in Line 7 of the Algorithm 2. Importantly, the approximation bound still holds when running the algorithm with different values of σ and selecting a result that maximizes F . Indeed, our preliminary results indicated that using $\sigma = 1$ (i.e., no scaling) leads to a stronger performance. Therefore MUSS is defined without the scaler. Also note that the original DGDS baseline does use scaling by 0.5. In our evaluation, removing this scaling resulted in better DGDS results which we report here.

Scalable clustering. One of the benefits of the proposed approach is that clustering can be performed in advance at a preprocessing stage. Each time a selection is required, a pre-existing clustering structure is leveraged. For large datasets, one can use scalable clustering methods, such as MiniBatchKmeans [Sculley, 2010] or FAISS [Douce et al.,

Table 2: Precision on the candidate retrieval task for $k = 500$ items. ✗ indicates that the method did not complete after 12 hours. Results are reported for λ that maximizes precision achieved by MMR (i.e., favoring the baseline). For any value of λ_c , our method achieves higher performance than baselines and faster running time.

Home ($ \mathcal{U} = 4737, \lambda = 0.9$)				Amazon100k ($ \mathcal{U} = 108,258, \lambda = 0.9$)			
Method	λ_c	Prec. $\uparrow$	Time $\downarrow$	Method	λ_c	Prec. $\uparrow$	Time $\downarrow$
random		50.3 ± 2.4	0.0	random		11.2 ± 1.5	0.0
K-DPP		56.3 ± 2.7	7.9	K-DPP		✗	✗
clustering		60.6 ± 1.8	0.7	clustering		28.2 ± 1.1	10
MMR		72.0	13.5	MMR		39.4	311
DGDS		73.5 ± 0.2	13.7	DGDS		39.4 ± 0.1	271
MUSS (rand.A)		73.9 ± 0.3	6.7	MUSS (rand.A)		42.8 ± 0.3	49
MUSS (rand.B)		74.1 ± 0.2	6.6	MUSS (rand.B)		41.6 ± 0.2	53
MUSS	0.1	74.5 ± 0.2	7.1	MUSS	0.1	44.8 ± 0.5	55
MUSS	0.3	74.2 ± 0.3	7.8	MUSS	0.2	42.8 ± 0.8	54
MUSS	0.5	74.0 ± 0.3	7.8	MUSS	0.5	43.5 ± 0.5	54
MUSS	0.7	74.1 ± 0.3	8.8	MUSS	0.7	44.4 ± 0.4	53
MUSS	0.9	74.8 ± 0.2	8.1	MUSS	0.9	45.2 ± 0.6	53

2024]. If new data arrives, an online clustering update can be used. For example, one can store pre-computed cluster centroids and assign each newly arriving point to the nearest center. Full re-computation of clustering can happen at a less frequent cadence, e.g., fortnightly. The assumption here is that within a relatively short period, data distribution can be considered stationary.

Parameter settings. In practice, we use the same parameter λ when selecting items either within clusters (Line 5 of Algorithm 2) or from the union of selections (Line 7 of Algorithm 2). However, our method is flexible, and one can consider different λ values for these selection stages. Next, during greedy selection, we normalize the sum of distances by the current selection size $|\mathcal{S}|$ for robustness. In Section 3, we show that MUSS produces stable results even when parameter values vary by a factor of 4. From experience, we recommend starting with a setup with $n/l \approx 4000$, $l/m \approx 5$, $k/k' \approx 10$, and $\lambda_c = 0.5$. For a fixed λ_c , λ can be set using cross-validation.

3 EXPERIMENTS

The goals of our experiments have been to (i) test whether the proposed MUSS can be useful in practical applications; (ii) understand the impact of different components of our method, and (iii) understand scalability and parameter sensitivity of the proposed approach. Item recommendation and retrieval-augmented generation are among the most prominent applications of our subset selection problem. In the next two sections, we consider these applications, and compare MUSS with a number of baselines. We use the Euclidean distance throughout the experiments.

Baselines. We consider the following methods for the task of high quality and diverse subset selection: random selec-

tion, K-DPP [Kulesza and Taskar, 2011], clustering-based selection, MMR as per Algorithm 1, and the distributed selection method called DGDS [Ghadiri and Schmidt, 2019]. We do not consider RL baselines here because we focus on selection methods that are potentially scalable, and also can be easily incorporated within existing ML systems. RL-based selection approaches require setting up a feedback loop and defining rewards which might not be trivial in a given ML application.

Key differences between DGDS and MUSS are that (i) we propose clustering rather than random partitioning, (ii) we select a subset of clusters, rather than using all of them (iii) in the final selection, MUSS takes into account the top k highest quality items while DGDS does not. To understand the impact of these differences, we introduce two additional variations of our method. First, in “MUSS (rand.A)”, we perform clustering, but pick m clusters at random rather than using greedy selection. Second, in “MUSS (rand.B)”, we perform random partitioning instead of clustering, but otherwise follow our Algorithm 2.

We report mean $\pm$ st.err. from 5 independent runs. In each run, randomness is due to partitioning, clustering or sampling (K-DPP). There are no repeated runs for MMR, since this method doesn’t use partitioning nor randomness. Additional experimental details are given in Appendix C.1.

3.1 PRODUCT RECOMMENDATION

Context. Modern recommender systems typically consist of two stages. First, candidate retrieval aims at efficiently identifying a subset of relevant items from a large catalog of items [El-Kishky et al., 2023, Rajput et al., 2023]. This step narrows down the input space for the second, more expensive, ranking stage. Since the ranking will not even

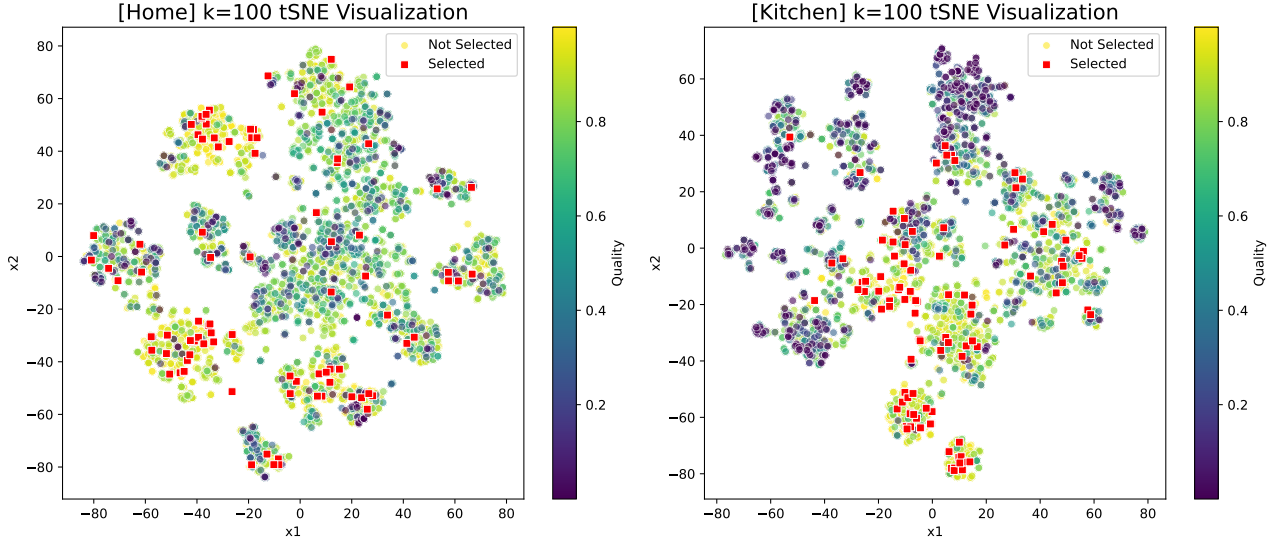


Figure 3: tSNE Visualization of selecting $k = 100$ items for “Home” and “Kitchen” datasets. Data forms clusters. Our method performs high-quality and diverse selection as shown by the red dots. The color scale indicates the quality score.

consider items missed by candidate retrieval, it is crucial for the candidate retrieval stage to maximize recall — ensuring that most relevant items are included in the retrieved subset — while maintaining computational efficiency. The proposed MUSS has been deployed in production at a large-scale ecommerce platform serving million customers daily, referring to Appendix C.2 for further information.

Setup. We use four datasets with sizes ranging from 4K to 2M (Table 2 and Appendix Table 6). These internally collected datasets represent either individual product categories, or larger collections of items across categories. Each data point corresponds to a product available at an online shopping service. For each product, an external ML model predicts the likelihood of an item being clicked on. The model takes into account product attributes, embedding, and historical performance. Likelihood predictions are treated as product quality scores, while actual clicks data is used as binary labels. We select $k = 500$ items from a given dataset. For a fixed k recall is proportional to precision@ k , and we evaluate selection performance using Precision@500.

Results are shown in Table 2, and Appendix Table 6. First, higher values of the objective from Eq. (2) generally indicate higher precision, which further justifies our problem formulation. Next, it is clear that random selection or naive clustering-based strategy are not effective for this task as all other methods significantly outperform these baselines. Here, we use $\lambda = 0.9$ which maximizes precision resulted from using MMR. Even with this λ choice, MUSS achieves consistently higher precision (+4%) across various λ_c values. This improvement is due to the property of MUSS to perform selection within each subgroup, allowing the selection process to better capture local structure and diversity

specific to each subgroup than handling all items globally. Importantly, MUSS achieves this results $80\times$ faster than MMR (Amazon2M) and 35% faster than DGDS. Improved scalability can be observed on datasets of different sizes (Figure 1 and Appendix Figure 8).

Visualization. we have performed tSNE Visualization [Van der Maaten and Hinton, 2008] for selecting $k = 100$ items for “Home” and “Kitchen” datasets (Figure 3). We observe that the data forms coherent clusters. Our method tends to select data points which are of high quality while being spread out within the space.

3.2 QUESTION ANSWERING USING RAG

Context. Recently, Large Language Models (LLM) have gained significant popularity as core methods for a range of applications, from question answering bots to code generation. Retrieval-augmented Generation (RAG) refers to a technique where information relevant to the task is retrieved from a knowledge base and added to the LLM’s prompt. Given the importance of RAG, we have also evaluated MUSS for RAG entries selection.

Setup. We consider the task of answering questions over a custom knowledge corpus, and we use two datasets of varying degrees of difficulty (Table 3). StackExchange and DevOps datasets represent more specialized knowledge.² These datasets were derived, respectively, from an online technical question answering service, and from AWS Dev Ops troubleshooting pages [Guinet et al., 2024].

Each dataset consists of a knowledge corpus and a number of

²<https://github.com/amazon-science/auto-rag-eval>

Table 3: Accuracy of question answering over different knowledge bases given a fixed LLM, but varying methods for RAG selection. λ values were optimized on MMR accuracy, thus favoring this baseline. For MUSS (rand.B) variation we use λ_c that maximized performance of this method. MUSS outperforms all baselines. We are interested in accuracy rather than timing, since the response time is dominated by the LLM call.

DevOps ($ \mathcal{U} = 4722, \lambda = 0.5$)			StackExchange ($ \mathcal{U} = 1025, \lambda = 0.5$)		
Method	λ_c	Accuracy $\uparrow$	Method	λ_c	Accuracy $\uparrow$
random		50.0 ± 1.1	random		41.6 ± 2.0
K-DPP		47.6 ± 1.8	K-DPP		40.4 ± 1.5
clustering		51.2 ± 0.5	clustering		54.8 ± 4.4
MMR		58	MMR		64
DGDS		58.0 ± 0.0	DGDS		62.8 ± 0.5
MUSS (rand.A)		52.0 ± 2.2	MUSS (rand.A)		55.2 ± 4.8
MUSS (rand.B)		53.2 ± 2.1	MUSS (rand.B)		55.6 ± 4.7
MUSS	0.1	58.8 ± 0.5	MUSS	0.1	65.2 ± 0.8
MUSS	0.3	58.8 ± 1.0	MUSS	0.3	65.2 ± 0.8
MUSS	0.5	58.8 ± 0.5	MUSS	0.5	65.6 ± 1.0
MUSS	0.7	59.6 ± 0.7	MUSS	0.7	64.8 ± 0.8
MUSS	0.9	58.0 ± 0.6	MUSS	0.9	64.8 ± 0.5

multiple choice questions. For a given question, we compute relevance to entities in the corpus, and then use different methods for selecting $k = 3$ relevant and diverse entities to be added to LLM’s prompt. For a fixed LLM we vary selection methods, and report proportion of correct answers over 50 questions.

In this section, we are interested in accuracy of the answers rather than timing. We assume that given a question, one can effectively narrow down relevant scope of knowledge and the response time might be dominated by the LLM call.

Results are presented in Table 3. In all cases, accuracy can be improved compared to random selection. Parameter λ (item-level selection trade-off) is optimized for MMR performance, thus favoring this baseline. Maximum accuracy is achieved with an intermediate value of the parameter, i.e., both relevance and diversity are important. Random selection and K-DPP baselines emphasize diversity over relevance and achieve the weakest performance.

We can see that our method is capable of outperforming all baselines, particularly at any λ_c value. Note that the two datasets involve complex technical questions, and RAG approach itself might stop being effective past certain performance level. Nonetheless, our findings suggest that as long as RAG continues to contribute to performance gains, our method can further enhance accuracy. Note that since the retrieved items are added to the LLM prompt — higher diversity enables broader knowledge coverage and higher accuracy. The consistent improvements of MUSS relative to the baselines serve as functional validation of diversity.

3.3 ABLATIONS AND SCALABILITY

Ablation Study. Note that variations “MUSS (rand.A)”, and “MUSS (rand.B)” constitute ablations of our method. In the former, we select clusters at random instead of using cluster-level greedy selection. We observe that using greedy selection consistently improves performance. Next, in “MUSS (rand.B)”, we use random partitioning instead of clustering. Again, we consistently observe improved performance when clustering is applied, and the gains can be significant. We conclude that leveraging natural structure in data is important for this problem. This is consistent with observed patterns discussed in Appendix C.3.

Sensitivity w.r.t. λ and λ_c . Table 2, Table 3, and Appendix Table 6 show performance at different levels of λ_c (cluster-level trade-off). Overall, for any dataset, there is little variation in performance. We also study how the diversity term $D(\mathcal{S})$, the quality term $Q(\mathcal{S})$, and the objective function $F(\mathcal{S})$ varies with λ and λ_c in Appendix C.4. Consistent with the previous observation, we find that for any fixed λ , the variation due to λ_c is relatively small. Next, as expected, small values of λ (item-level trade-off) favor $D(\mathcal{S})$ while larger λ promote $Q(\mathcal{S})$. The optimal choice of this parameter is application-specific. A practical way of setting the value could be cross-validation at some fixed λ_c .

Sensitivity w.r.t. number of clusters l and number of selected clusters m . We consider broad ranges for these parameter values. For example, we scale l by 4 to 5 times, and m by 2 to 4 times (while keeping both λ s fixed). Despite broad parameter ranges, in most cases, performance differences between different settings are within 3 percent points (Table 4). Larger deviations are typically observed as settings become more extreme (e.g., number of clusters is becoming too little for a dataset with 100k items).

Table 4: Precision (for Home and Amazon100k) or Accuracy (other datasets) achieved by MUSS with different number of clusters l , number of selected clusters m , and fixed $\lambda = \lambda_c = 0.7$.

l	m	Home	Amazon100k	l	m	DevOps	StackExchange
100	50	74.6	41.6	50	10	46	62
200	50	74.8	41.2	50	20	46	62
200	100	74.8	44.0	100	10	44	62
500	50	73.3	42.8	100	20	46	62
500	100	74.0	44.2	200	10	46	62
500	200	74.2	44.2	200	20	44	62

Scalability. Figure 1 demonstrates scalability of the proposed MUSS. Specifically, given the dataset of size $|\mathcal{U}| = 2M$, our method is up to 80 times faster than MMR achieving the same objective function of 0.97. Here, all methods use the same $\lambda = 0.5$ and we fix the hyperparameters to some constant values ($m = 100, l = 500, \lambda_c = 0.5$). Further analysis into scalability shows that compared to DGDS, our approach leads to time savings both during selection within partitions and during the final selection from the union of items (Appendix C.5 and Appendix Figure 8).

4 CONCLUSION

We propose a novel method for distributed relevant and diverse subset selection. We complement our method with theoretical analysis that relates cluster-level and item-level selection and enables us to derive an approximation bound. Our evaluation shows that the proposed MUSS can considerably outperform baselines both in terms of scalability and performance on the target applications. The problem of relevant and diverse subset selection has a wide range of applications, e.g., recommender systems and retrieval-augmented generation (RAG). This problem is NP-hard, and popular approaches such as Maximum Marginal Relevance (MMR) are based on greedy selection. Later methods, such as DGDS considered a distributed setting using random data partitioning. In contrast, in our work, we leverage clustering structure in the data for better performance. Finally, the proposed MUSS has been deployed in production on a large-scale e-commerce retail platform.

Future directions of our work include considering continuous relaxation of the subset selection problem, deeper hierarchical clustering, and an empirical study using varying definitions of Q .

References

- Abhinab Acharya, Dayou Yu, Qi Yu, and Xumin Liu. Balancing feature similarity and label variability for optimal size-aware one-shot subset selection. In *Forty-first International Conference on Machine Learning*, 2024.
- Ricardo Baeza-Yates. Applications of web query mining.

In *European Conference on Information Retrieval*, pages 7–22. Springer, 2005.

Rafael Barbosa, Alina Ene, Huy Nguyen, and Justin Ward. The power of randomization: Distributed submodular maximization on massive datasets. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 1236–1244. PMLR, 2015.

Allan Borodin, Aadhar Jain, Hyun Chul Lee, and Yuli Ye. Max-sum diversification, monotone submodular functions, and dynamic updates. *ACM Transactions on Algorithms (TALG)*, 13(3):1–25, 2017.

Jaime Carbonell and Jade Goldstein. The use of mmr, diversity-based reranking for reordering documents and producing summaries. In *Proceedings of the 21st annual international ACM SIGIR conference on Research and development in information retrieval*, pages 335–336, 1998.

Diego Carraro and Derek Bridge. Enhancing recommendation diversity by re-ranking with large language models. *ACM Transactions on Recommender Systems*, 2024.

Charles LA Clarke, Maheedhar Kolla, Gordon V Cormack, Olga Vechtomova, Azin Ashkan, Stefan Büttcher, and Ian MacKinnon. Novelty and diversity in information retrieval evaluation. In *Proceedings of the 31st annual international ACM SIGIR conference on Research and development in information retrieval*, pages 659–666, 2008.

Erica Coppolillo, Giuseppe Manco, and Aristides Gionis. Relevance meets diversity: A user-centric framework for knowledge exploration through recommendations. In *Proceedings of the 30th ACM SIGKDD Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining*, pages 490–501, 2024.

Yashar Deldjoo, Zhankui He, Julian McAuley, Anton Korikov, Scott Sanner, Arnau Ramisa, René Vidal, Maheswaran Sathiamoorthy, Atoosa Kasirzadeh, and Silvia Milano. A review of modern recommender systems using generative models (gen-recsys). In *Proceedings of the 30th ACM SIGKDD Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining*, pages 6448–6458, 2024.

- Michal Derezhinski, Daniele Calandriello, and Michal Valko. Exact sampling of determinantal point processes with sublinear time preprocessing. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 32, 2019.
- Matthijs Douze, Alexandr Guzhva, Chengqi Deng, Jeff Johnson, Gergely Szilvassy, Pierre-Emmanuel Mazaré, Maria Lomeli, Lucas Hosseini, and Hervé Jégou. The faiss library. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2401.08281*, 2024.
- Ahmed El-Kishky, Thomas Markovich, Kenny Leung, Frank Portman, Aria Haghighi, and Ying Xiao. k nn-embed: Locally smoothed embedding mixtures for multi-interest candidate retrieval. In *Pacific-Asia Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining*, pages 374–386. Springer, 2023.
- Mohamed Elfeki, Camille Couprie, Morgane Riviere, and Mohamed Elhoseiny. Gdpp: Learning diverse generations using determinantal point processes. In *International conference on machine learning*, pages 1774–1783. PMLR, 2019.
- Günes Erkan and Dragomir R Radev. Lexrank: Graph-based lexical centrality as salience in text summarization. *Journal of artificial intelligence research*, 22:457–479, 2004.
- Alexander R Fabbri, Wojciech Kryściński, Bryan McCann, Caiming Xiong, Richard Socher, and Dragomir Radev. Summeval: Re-evaluating summarization evaluation. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 9:391–409, 2021.
- Matthew Fontaine and Stefanos Nikolaidis. Differentiable quality diversity. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 34:10040–10052, 2021.
- Hang Gao and Yongfeng Zhang. Vrsd: Rethinking similarity and diversity for retrieval in large language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2407.04573*, 2024.
- Yuan Ge, Yilun Liu, Chi Hu, Weibin Meng, Shimin Tao, Xiaofeng Zhao, Hongxia Ma, Li Zhang, Boxing Chen, Hao Yang, et al. Clustering and ranking: Diversity-preserved instruction selection through expert-aligned quality estimation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.18191*, 2024.
- Mehrdad Ghadiri and Mark Schmidt. Distributed maximization of submodular plus diversity functions for multi-label feature selection on huge datasets. In *The 22nd International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*, pages 2077–2086. PMLR, 2019.
- Zhiqiang Gong, Ping Zhong, and Weidong Hu. Diversity in machine learning. *Ieee Access*, 7:64323–64350, 2019.
- Gauthier Guinet, Behrooz Omidvar-Tehrani, Anoop Deoras, and Laurent Callot. Automated evaluation of retrieval-augmented language models with task-specific exam generation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2405.13622*, 2024.
- Kohei Hirata, Daichi Amagata, Sumio Fujita, and Takahiro Hara. Solving diversity-aware maximum inner product search efficiently and effectively. In *Proceedings of the 16th ACM Conference on Recommender Systems*, pages 198–207, 2022.
- Alex Kulesza and Ben Taskar. k-dpps: Fixed-size determinantal point processes. In *Proceedings of the 28th International Conference on Machine Learning (ICML-11)*, pages 1193–1200, 2011.
- Alex Kulesza, Ben Taskar, et al. Determinantal point processes for machine learning. *Foundations and Trends® in Machine Learning*, 5(2–3):123–286, 2012.
- Sergey Levine, Aviral Kumar, George Tucker, and Justin Fu. Offline reinforcement learning: Tutorial, review, and perspectives on open problems. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2005.01643*, 2020.
- Chengtao Li, Stefanie Jegelka, and Suvrit Sra. Efficient sampling for k-determinantal point processes. In *Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*, pages 1328–1337. PMLR, 2016.
- Stuart Lloyd. Least squares quantization in pcm. *IEEE transactions on information theory*, 28(2):129–137, 1982.
- WenJing Luan, GuanJun Liu, ChangJun Jiang, and MengChu Zhou. Mprr: A maximal-marginal-relevance-based personalized trip recommendation method. *IEEE Transactions on Intelligent Transportation Systems*, 19(11):3461–3474, 2018.
- Adyasha Maharana, Prateek Yadav, and Mohit Bansal. D2 pruning: Message passing for balancing diversity and difficulty in data pruning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.07931*, 2023.
- Baharan Mirzasoleiman, Amin Karbasi, Rik Sarkar, and Andreas Krause. Distributed submodular maximization. *The Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 17(1):8330–8373, 2016.
- George L Nemhauser, Laurence A Wolsey, and Marshall L Fisher. An analysis of approximations for maximizing submodular set functions—i. *Mathematical programming*, 14:265–294, 1978.
- Vu Nguyen, Tam Le, Makoto Yamada, and Michael A Osborne. Optimal transport kernels for sequential and parallel neural architecture search. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pages 8084–8095. PMLR, 2021.
- Antiope Panteli and Basilis Boutsinas. Improvement of similarity–diversity trade-off in recommender systems based on a facility location model. *Neural Computing and Applications*, 35(1):177–189, 2023.

- Jack Parker-Holder, Aldo Pacchiano, Krzysztof M Choromanski, and Stephen J Roberts. Effective diversity in population based reinforcement learning. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 33:18050–18062, 2020.
- Marc Pickett, Jeremy Hartman, Ayan Kumar Bhowmick, Raquib-ul Alam, and Aditya Vempaty. Better RAG using relevant information gain. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2407.12101*, 2024.
- L Qin, JX Yu, and L Chang. Diversifying top- κ results. *Proceedings of the VLDB Endowment*, 2012.
- Shashank Rajput, Nikhil Mehta, Anima Singh, Raghunandan Hulikal Keshavan, Trung Vu, Lukasz Heldt, Lichan Hong, Yi Tay, Vinh Tran, Jonah Samost, et al. Recommender systems with generative retrieval. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36:10299–10315, 2023.
- Lennart Schneider, Florian Pfisterer, Paul Kent, Juergen Branke, Bernd Bischl, and Janek Thomas. Tackling neural architecture search with quality diversity optimization. In *International Conference on Automated Machine Learning*, pages 9–1. PMLR, 2022.
- David Sculley. Web-scale k-means clustering. In *Proceedings of the 19th international conference on World wide web*, pages 1177–1178, 2010.
- Laurens Van der Maaten and Geoffrey Hinton. Visualizing data using t-sne. *Journal of machine learning research*, 9 (11), 2008.
- Xiaojun Wan and Jianwu Yang. Multi-document summarization using cluster-based link analysis. In *Proceedings of the 31st annual international ACM SIGIR conference on Research and development in information retrieval*, pages 299–306, 2008.
- Yutong Wang, Ke Xue, and Chao Qian. Evolutionary diversity optimization with clustering-based selection for reinforcement learning. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2021.
- Mark Wilhelm, Ajith Ramanathan, Alexander Bonomo, Sagar Jain, Ed H Chi, and Jennifer Gillenwater. Practical diversified recommendations on youtube with determinantal point processes. In *Proceedings of the 27th ACM International Conference on Information and Knowledge Management*, pages 2165–2173, 2018.
- Chun-Ho Wu, Yue Wang, and Jie Ma. Maximal marginal relevance-based recommendation for product customization. *Enterprise Information Systems*, 17(5):1992018, 2023a.
- Shuang Wu, Jian Yao, Haobo Fu, Ye Tian, Chao Qian, Yaodong Yang, Qiang Fu, and Yang Wei. Quality-similar diversity via population based reinforcement learning. In *The Eleventh International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2023b.
- Long Xia, Jun Xu, Yanyan Lan, Jiafeng Guo, and Xueqi Cheng. Learning maximal marginal relevance model via directly optimizing diversity evaluation measures. In *Proceedings of the 38th international ACM SIGIR conference on research and development in information retrieval*, pages 113–122, 2015.
- Ye Yuan and Kris M Kitani. Diverse trajectory forecasting with determinantal point processes. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2020.

A RELATED WORK

A.1 RELEVANT AND DIVERSE SELECTION

Given the importance of the problem, there has been a number of approaches proposed in the literature. **Determinantal Point Process (DPP)** is a probabilistic model that selects diverse subsets by maximizing the determinant of a kernel matrix representing item similarities [Kulesza et al., 2012]. DPPs are effective in summarization, recommendation, and clustering tasks [Wilhelm et al., 2018, Elfeki et al., 2019, Yuan and Kitani, 2020, Nguyen et al., 2021]. As discussed in reference [Li et al., 2016, Derezhinski et al., 2019], the computational complexity of k-DPP can be $\mathcal{O}(k^2n + k^3)$. Next, **clustering-based methods** ensure that different “regions” of the dataset are covered by the selection. Such methods cluster items (e.g., documents or features) and then select representatives from each cluster [Baeza-Yates, 2005, Wang et al., 2021, Panteli and Boutsinas, 2023, Ge et al., 2024]. This approach is commonly used in text and image summarization. We use clustering in our method, but we depart from previous work in many other aspects (e.g., how we select within clusters, pruning clusters, theoretical analysis).

Reinforcement learning (RL) frameworks can be used to optimize diversity and relevance in sequential tasks such as recommendation and active learning. However, achieving an optimal balance between exploring diverse solutions and exploiting high-quality ones can be challenging, often leading to suboptimal convergence or increased training time [Levine et al., 2020, Fontaine and Nikolaidis, 2021]. **Model-based methods** use application-specific probabilistic models or properties of relevance, quality, and diversity [Gao and Zhang, 2024, Pickett et al., 2024, Hirata et al., 2022, Acharya et al., 2024].

We have ruled out RL for our practical applications described in Section 3. RL methods require a feedback loop and a reward definition non-trivial to deploy in existing retrieval pipelines. Next, RL requires many environment interactions to converge, which is costly for millions of items. On the other hand, MUSS is a single-pass greedy method with no training phase. Finally, RL methods for subset selection (e.g. Wu et al. [2023b]) target sequential feedback settings unavailable in our batch retrieval setup.

Maximum Marginal Relevance (MMR) is one of the most popular approaches for balancing relevance and diversity [Carbonell and Goldstein, 1998]. Effectiveness of MMR has been demonstrated in numerous studies [Erkan and Radev, 2004, Wan and Yang, 2008, Xia et al., 2015]. The algorithm was introduced in the context of retrieving similar but non-redundant documents for a given query q . Let $\mathcal{U}$ denote document corpus and $\mathcal{S}$ denote items selected so far. In each iteration, MMR evaluates all remaining candidates and selects item $s \in \mathcal{U} \setminus \mathcal{S}$ that maximizes criterion:

$$\text{MMR}(s) = \lambda \cdot \text{Sim}(s, q) - (1 - \lambda) \cdot \max_{t \in \mathcal{S}} \text{Sim}(s, t),$$

where $\text{Sim}(\cdot, \cdot)$ measures similarity between two items, and λ controls the trade-off between relevance and diversity.

Recall that computational complexity of MMR is $\mathcal{O}(k^2n)$ (see Table 1). To appreciate practical consequences of this complexity, note that this expression is linear in the dataset size, but quadratic in k . For $k = 500$ and $n = 2M$ this amounts to 5×10^{11} operations, which is why MMR took considerably longer time compared to MUSS on the 2M dataset (Table 6).

A.2 DISTRIBUTED GREEDY SELECTION

The problem of subset selection can be viewed as maximization of a set-valued objective that assigns high values to subsets with desired properties (e.g., relevance of elements). Submodular functions is a special class of such objectives that has attracted significant attention. In particular, for a non-negative, monotone submodular function $f : 2^{\mathcal{U}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and a cardinality constraint k , the solution $\mathcal{S}_g$ obtained by the greedy algorithm satisfies: $f(\mathcal{S}_g) \geq (1 - \frac{1}{e}) f(\mathcal{S}^*)$ where $\mathcal{S}^*$ is the optimal solution of size at most k [Nemhauser et al., 1978].

Distributed submodular maximization is an approach to solve submodular optimization problems in a distributed manner, e.g., when the dataset is too large to handle on a single machine [Mirzasoleiman et al., 2016, Barbosa et al., 2015]. The authors provide theoretical analysis showing that under certain conditions one can achieve performance close to the non-distributed approach.

Since the addition of the diversity requirement results in a non-submodular objective for relevant and diverse selection, researchers had to relax the requirement for submodularity.

Beyond submodular maximization Ghadiri and Schmidt consider distributed maximization of so-called “submodular plus

Table 5: Notation used throughout the paper.

Variable	Definition
$\mathbf{u}_i = (\mathbf{x}_i, q_i)$	an item as a pair (embedding $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$, quality score $q_i \in \mathbb{R}^+$)
$\mathcal{U} = \{\mathbf{u}_i\}_{i=1}^n$	universe of items, dataset of size n from which we select items
$\mathcal{U}_1, \dots, \mathcal{U}_m, \dots, \mathcal{U}_l$	partitioned data, i.e., $\cup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{U}_i = \mathcal{U}$
$r \geq 0$	maximum radii from an item to its cluster centre
$p \in \mathbb{N}$	the number of CPUs or computational threads for parallel jobs
$\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{U}, k$	a set of selected items; number of items to select, $ \mathcal{S} = k$
$\mathcal{C}, l, m$	a set of clusters (partitions); # clusters; # clusters to be selected, $l \geq m$.
$0 \leq \lambda, \lambda_c \leq 1$	trade-off parameters between quality and diversity at different levels
$\bar{\mathcal{S}} = \text{ALG1}(\mathcal{C} m)$	m clusters selected from $\mathcal{C}$ using Algorithm 1
$\mathcal{S}_i = \text{ALG1}(\mathcal{U}_i k)$	k items selected from $\mathcal{U}_i$ using Algorithm 1
$Q(\mathcal{S}), D(\mathcal{S})$	quality and diversity of subset $\mathcal{S}$
$\Delta(\mathbf{t}, \mathcal{S}) = Q(\mathcal{S} \cup \{\mathbf{t}\}) - Q(\mathcal{S})$	gain in quality score of subset $\mathcal{S}$ resulted from adding $\mathbf{t}$ to this subset

diversity” functions [Ghadiri and Schmidt, 2019]. The authors introduce a framework, called DGDS, for multi-label feature selection that balances relevance and diversity in the context of large-scale datasets. Their work addresses computational challenges posed by traditional submodular maximization techniques when applied to high-dimensional data. The authors propose a distributed greedy algorithm that leverages the additive structure of submodular plus diversity functions. This framework enables the decomposition of the optimization problem across multiple computational nodes, significantly reducing running time while preserving effectiveness.

However, items selected from different partitions are ultimately combined to perform the final selection step. Selecting objects in each partition, along with the final selection step becomes a performance bottleneck. Therefore, we further improve scalability of distributed selection by exploiting natural clustering structure in the data (Table 1).³ Moreover, we complement our method with a novel theoretical analysis of clustering-based selection.

Computational complexity of different methods is presented in Table 1 and discussed in the main text. Here, we make additional notes about the comparison of our method, DGDS, and MMR. First, for MUSS, setting $l = m$ eliminates the term $m^2 l$, since cluster selection is no longer needed. Setting $k' = k$ gives $O(\frac{nk^2}{p} + lk^3 + k^3)$. Compared to DGDS, the expression contains an extra k^3 due to the addition of top items per cluster. Second, without clustering both the cluster selection and union refinement terms vanish, recovering MMR’s complexity.

B PROOFS OF LEMMAS AND THEOREMS

In this appendix, we present proofs of lemmas and the theorem that represents our main result. Throughout the proofs, we make technical assumptions that $k > 1$, $\lambda \neq 0$, and $\lambda \neq 1$ to avoid zero denominators. Key notation used throughout the paper is summarized in Appendix Table 5.

B.1 PROOF OF LEMMA 1

Proof. Let ALG1 denote Algorithm 1. For any $\mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{U}$ and $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{U}$, let $\Delta(\mathbf{z}, \mathcal{S}) := Q(\mathcal{S} \cup \{\mathbf{z}\}) - Q(\mathcal{S})$. Next, let $\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_k$ denote items that the algorithm ALG1 selected in the order of selection. Define $\mathcal{S}_i := \{\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_i\}$ and $\mathcal{S}_0 := \emptyset$. Finally, let $\mathbf{t} \in \mathcal{T} \setminus \text{ALG1}(\mathcal{T}|k, \lambda)$.

³For particular relevance and diversity definitions, complexity of greedy selection used in MMR, DGDS, and MUSS can be reduced to $\mathcal{O}(kn)$, but the main benefit of MUSS, which is reducing dependency on n , still applies.

Due to the greedy selection mechanism, we have the following

$$\lambda\Delta(\mathbf{z}_1, \mathcal{S}_0) \geq \lambda\Delta(\mathbf{t}, \mathcal{S}_0) \quad (12)$$

$$\lambda\Delta(\mathbf{z}_2, \mathcal{S}_1) + (1 - \lambda)d(\mathbf{z}_2, \mathbf{z}_1) \geq \lambda\Delta(\mathbf{t}, \mathcal{S}_1) + (1 - \lambda)d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_1) \quad (13)$$

...

$$\lambda\Delta(\mathbf{z}_k, \mathcal{S}_{k-1}) + (1 - \lambda) \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} d(\mathbf{z}_k, \mathbf{z}_i) \geq \lambda\Delta(\mathbf{t}, \mathcal{S}_{k-1}) + (1 - \lambda) \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_i). \quad (14)$$

Adding these inequalities together gives us

$$\lambda Q(\mathcal{S}_k) + \frac{(1 - \lambda)}{2} D(\mathcal{S}_k) \geq (1 - \lambda) \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (k - i) d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_i) + \lambda \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \Delta(\mathbf{t}, \mathcal{S}_i). \quad (15)$$

Since $(1 - \lambda)D(\mathcal{S}_k) \geq \frac{(1 - \lambda)}{2} D(\mathcal{S}_k)$, we have

$$\lambda Q(\mathcal{S}_k) + (1 - \lambda)D(\mathcal{S}_k) \geq (1 - \lambda) \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (k - i) d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_i) + \lambda \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \Delta(\mathbf{t}, \mathcal{S}_i) \quad (16)$$

$$F(\mathcal{S}_k) \geq (1 - \lambda) \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (k - i) d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_i) + \lambda k \Delta(\mathbf{t}, \mathcal{S}_k) \quad (17)$$

where the second inequality is due to submodularity of Q . This immediately gives $\Delta(\mathbf{t}, \mathcal{S}_k) \leq \frac{1}{k\lambda} F(\mathcal{S}_k)$ which concludes the first part of the Lemma.

Next, introduce intermediate quantities $T_A = \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (k - i) d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_i)$ and $T_B = \sum_{i=2}^k (i - 1) d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_i)$.

Since $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a metric, we have the triangle inequalities

$$\begin{aligned} d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_k) &\leq d(\mathbf{z}_k, \mathbf{z}_1) + d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_1) \\ d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_k) &\leq d(\mathbf{z}_k, \mathbf{z}_2) + d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_2) \\ d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_k) &\leq d(\mathbf{z}_k, \mathbf{z}_3) + d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_3) \\ &\dots \\ d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_k) &\leq d(\mathbf{z}_k, \mathbf{z}_{k-1}) + d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_{k-1}) \\ &\dots \\ d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_{k-1}) &\leq d(\mathbf{z}_{k-1}, \mathbf{z}_1) + d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_1) \\ d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_{k-1}) &\leq d(\mathbf{z}_{k-1}, \mathbf{z}_2) + d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_2) \\ &\dots \\ d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_2) &\leq d(\mathbf{z}_2, \mathbf{z}_1) + d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_1) \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

Adding these inequalities together gives $T_B \leq \frac{1}{2} D(\mathcal{S}_k) + T_A$.

We plug this result into Eq. (17) to have

$$F(\mathcal{S}_k) \geq (1 - \lambda) T_A \quad (19)$$

$$F(\mathcal{S}_k) + (1 - \lambda) T_B \geq (1 - \lambda) T_A + (1 - \lambda) T_B \quad (20)$$

$$F(\mathcal{S}_k) + \frac{1 - \lambda}{2} D(\mathcal{S}_k) + (1 - \lambda) T_A \geq (1 - \lambda) T_A + (1 - \lambda) T_B \quad (21)$$

$$F(\mathcal{S}_k) + \frac{1 - \lambda}{2} D(\mathcal{S}_k) + F(\mathcal{S}_k) \geq (1 - \lambda) T_A + (1 - \lambda) T_B \quad (22)$$

$$2.5 F(\mathcal{S}_k) \geq (1 - \lambda) T_A + (1 - \lambda) T_B \quad (23)$$

$$2.5 F(\mathcal{S}_k) \geq (1 - \lambda) (k - 1) \sum_{i=1}^k d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_i) \quad (24)$$

$$\frac{2.5}{k - 1} F(\mathcal{S}_k) \geq (1 - \lambda) \sum_{i=1}^k d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_i) \quad (25)$$

where we apply Eq. (19) to obtain Eq. (22). We utilize $T_A + T_B = (k-1) \sum_{i=1}^k d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_i)$ in Eq. (24).

Finally, we have that

$$\frac{2.5}{k(k-1)} F(\mathcal{S}_k) \geq (1-\lambda) \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_i) \geq (1-\lambda) \min_{i=1, \dots, k} d(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{z}_i). \quad (26)$$

This is because the minimum of positive values is not greater than their average. This concludes the proof.

The same way as ALG1 can be used for selection of both clusters and individual items, this Lemma applies at both cluster and individual item levels. $\blacksquare$

B.2 PROOF OF LEMMA 2

Proof. Let $h(\mathbf{u})$ denote a mapping where each data point $\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{O} \cap \mathcal{U}_i$ is mapped to the nearest selected point from the same partition, thus $h(\mathbf{u}) \in \mathcal{S}_i$. Note that for points already in $\mathcal{O} \cap \mathcal{S}_i$ this is the identity mapping.

Since $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a metric, we have

$$D(\mathcal{O}) = \sum_{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{O}} d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) \quad (27)$$

$$\leq \sum_{\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{O}} \sum_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{O}, \mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{u}} \left(d(\mathbf{u}, h(\mathbf{u})) + d(\mathbf{v}, h(\mathbf{v})) + d(h(\mathbf{u}), h(\mathbf{v})) \right) \quad (28)$$

$$= (k-1) \sum_{\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{O}} d(\mathbf{u}, h(\mathbf{u})) + (k-1) \sum_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{O}} d(\mathbf{v}, h(\mathbf{v})) + \sum_{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{O}} d(h(\mathbf{u}), h(\mathbf{v})). \quad (29)$$

Consider the first term. For any point $\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{O} \cap \mathcal{U}_i$, if $\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{O} \cap \mathcal{S}_i$ then $d(\mathbf{u}, h(\mathbf{u})) = 0$. Else, according to Lemma 1 we have that $d(\mathbf{u}, h(\mathbf{u})) \leq \frac{2.5}{k(k-1)} F(\mathcal{S}_i)$. Thus, the first term is bounded by $2.5 F(\cup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{S}_i)$. The same argument applies to the second term.

Finally, consider the last term. By definition of mapping $h(\cdot)$, we have that $h(\mathbf{u}) \in \cup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{S}_i$ for any $\mathbf{u}$. Thus we have $\sum_{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{O}} d(h(\mathbf{u}), h(\mathbf{v})) \leq D(\cup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{S}_i) \leq F(\cup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{S}_i)$.

We conclude that

$$D(\mathcal{O}) \leq 6F(\cup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{S}_i) \leq 6F(\text{OPT}(\cup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{S}_i)). \quad (30)$$

$\blacksquare$

B.3 PROOF OF LEMMA 3

Proof. Denote $\Delta(q, \mathcal{S}) = Q(\mathcal{S} \cup \{q\}) - Q(\mathcal{S})$. Let $o_1, \dots, o_k$ be an ordering of elements of the optimal set $\mathcal{O}$. For $\mathbf{z} = o_i \in \mathcal{O}$ define $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{z}} = \{o_1, \dots, o_i - 1\}$ and $\mathcal{O}_{o_1} = \emptyset$. Finally, recall that $\mathcal{U}_i$ denotes a data partition, and $\mathcal{S}_i = \text{ALG1}(\mathcal{U}_i)$.

We bound the quality term by decomposing the optimal set $\mathcal{O}$ into points being selected and points not being selected.

$$Q(\mathcal{O}) = Q\left(\mathcal{O} \cap \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{S}_i\right)\right) + \sum_{z \in \mathcal{O} \setminus \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{S}_i\right)} \Delta\left(z, \mathcal{O}_z \cup \left(\mathcal{O} \cap \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{S}_i\right)\right)\right) \quad (31)$$

$$\leq F\left(\text{OPT}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{S}_i\right)\right) + \sum_{z \in \mathcal{O} \setminus \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{S}_i\right)} \Delta(z, \mathcal{O}_z) \quad (32)$$

$$= F\left(\text{OPT}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{S}_i\right)\right) + \sum_{i=1}^l \sum_{z \in \mathcal{O} \cap \mathcal{U}_i \setminus \mathcal{S}_i} \Delta(z, \mathcal{O}_z \cup \mathcal{S}_i) + \Delta(z, \mathcal{O}_z) - \Delta(z, \mathcal{O}_z \cup \mathcal{S}_i) \quad (33)$$

$$\leq F\left(\text{OPT}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{S}_i\right)\right) + \sum_{i=1}^l \sum_{z \in \mathcal{O} \cap \mathcal{U}_i \setminus \mathcal{S}_i} \frac{1}{k} F(\mathcal{S}_i) \quad (34)$$

$$\leq 2F\left(\text{OPT}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{S}_i\right)\right). \quad (35)$$

In Eq. (34), we use the fact that $\Delta(z, \mathcal{O}_z) - \Delta(z, \mathcal{O}_z \cup \mathcal{S}_i) = Q(z) - Q(z) = 0$ and $\Delta(z, \mathcal{O}_z \cup \mathcal{S}_i) \leq \Delta(z, \mathcal{S}_i)$ and also apply Lemma 1. $\blacksquare$

B.4 PROOF OF THEOREM 4

Proof. Recall that $F(\mathcal{O}) = D(\mathcal{O}) + Q(\mathcal{O})$. Using new results from Lemma 2 and Lemma 3 we readily obtain $F(\mathcal{O}) \leq 8F(\text{OPT}(\bigcup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{S}_i))$. Let $\text{AltGreedy}()$ and $\text{DGDS}()$ denote, respectively, Algorithm 2 and Algorithm 3 from the DGDS paper [Ghadiri and Schmidt, 2019]. We can use Theorem 1 from Borodin et al. [Borodin et al., 2017] to obtain $F(\text{OPT}(\bigcup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{S}_i)) \leq 2F(\text{AltGreedy}(\bigcup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{S}_i))$. This gives $F(\mathcal{O}) \leq 16F(\text{DGDS}(\mathcal{U}))$. $\blacksquare$

B.5 PROOF OF LEMMA 5

Proof. Without loss of generality, suppose that $\text{ALG1}(\mathcal{C}|m, \lambda_c)$ selected clusters $c_1, \dots, c_m$. For each cluster i , let $\mathcal{U}_i \subseteq \mathcal{U}$ denote objects that belong to that cluster, and let s_i^* denote an object with the highest quality score in that cluster, i.e., $s_i^* = \arg \max_{s \in \mathcal{U}_i} q(s)$.

Next, let $\mathcal{S}_i$ denote objects selected from that cluster by the algorithm, i.e., $\mathcal{S}_i = \text{ALG1}(\mathcal{U}_i|k, \lambda)$. It is clear that $s_i^* \in \mathcal{S}_i$. Also recall that we define quality score for the clusters as $q(c_i) = \text{median}(\{q(a) : a \in \mathcal{U}_i\})$. This gives $Q(\text{ALG1}(\mathcal{C})) \leq Q(\{s_1^*, \dots, s_m^*\})$.

Location of cluster i is represented with cluster centroid μ_i . We have $d(s_i^*, \mu_i) \leq r$ due to the definition of the radius r as the distance from cluster centroid to the furthest point in the cluster. Therefore,

$$D(\text{ALG1}(\mathcal{C})) = D(\{\mu_1, \dots, \mu_m\}) \leq D(\{s_1^*, \dots, s_m^*\}) + rm(m-1). \quad (36)$$

We have that

$$F(\text{ALG}(\mathcal{C})|m) \leq F(\{s_1^*, \dots, s_m^*\}|m) + rm(m-1). \quad (37)$$

Suppose $\{s_1^*, \dots, s_m^*\} \subseteq \text{OPT}(\bigcup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i)$. Then, due to the nature of our objective function

$$F(\{s_1^*, \dots, s_m^*\}|m) \leq F(\text{OPT}(\bigcup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i)|k). \quad (38)$$

Finally, suppose $\{s_1^*, \dots, s_m^*\} \not\subseteq \text{OPT}(\bigcup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i)$, and $k \geq m$. Then if $F(\{s_1^*, \dots, s_m^*\}|m) > F(\text{OPT}(\bigcup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i)|k)$, we could have replaced m arbitrary points in $\text{OPT}(\bigcup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i)$ to get a higher value of $F(\cdot|k)$. This would contradict the definition of $\text{OPT}(\bigcup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i)$ being the optimal set. Thus, again, we have

$$F(\{s_1^*, \dots, s_m^*\}|m) \leq F(\text{OPT}(\bigcup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i)|k). \quad (39)$$

Combining this inequality with Eq. (37) gives the statement of the Lemma. $\blacksquare$

B.6 PROOF OF LEMMA 6

Proof. Our method clusters embeddings of objects in $\mathcal{U}$. Let $\mathcal{C}$ denote the set of clusters, and λ_c denote the hyperparameter for cluster selection. We select clusters using $\text{ALG1}(\mathcal{C}|m, \lambda_c)$. We then select objects from each cluster, and finally select objects from the union of selections. We use λ to denote the hyperparameter for objects selection.

Consider the union of points from selected clusters. The subset selected from this union that maximizes the objective is denoted as $\text{OPT}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i)$.

Next, consider any item $\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{U}$, and let $\mu_{\mathbf{u}}$ denote the centroid of the cluster $\mathbf{u}$ belongs to. We introduce an auxiliary mapping $h_{\mathbf{u}}$ defined as follows. If the cluster of $\mathbf{u}$ is selected, $h_{\mathbf{u}}$ equals to $\mu_{\mathbf{u}}$. If the cluster of $\mathbf{u}$ is not selected, $h_{\mathbf{u}}$ equals to the nearest centroid among the selected clusters.

With these definitions in mind, and recalling that $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a metric, we have

$$D(\mathcal{O}) = \sum_{\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{O}} \sum_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{O}, \mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{u}} d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) \quad (40)$$

$$\leq \sum_{\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{O}} \sum_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{O}, \mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{u}} \left(d(\mathbf{u}, \mu_{\mathbf{u}}) + d(\mu_{\mathbf{u}}, h_{\mathbf{u}}) + d(h_{\mathbf{u}}, h_{\mathbf{v}}) + d(h_{\mathbf{v}}, \mu_{\mathbf{v}}) + d(\mu_{\mathbf{v}}, \mathbf{v}) \right) \quad (41)$$

$$= 2(k-1) \sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{O}} d(\mathbf{z}, \mu_{\mathbf{z}}) + 2(k-1) \sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{O}} d(\mu_{\mathbf{z}}, h_{\mathbf{z}}) + \sum_{\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{O}} \sum_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{O}, \mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{u}} d(h_{\mathbf{u}}, h_{\mathbf{v}}). \quad (42)$$

We now bound the three terms separately. Let r denote the maximum radius among all clusters. We have that

$$2(k-1) \sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{O}} d(\mathbf{z}, \mu_{\mathbf{z}}) \leq 2k(k-1)r. \quad (43)$$

Now consider the middle term. If the cluster of $\mathbf{z}$ is selected, $h_{\mathbf{z}}$ equals to $\mu_{\mathbf{z}}$ and $d(\mathbf{z}, \mu_{\mathbf{z}}) = 0$. If the cluster of $\mathbf{u}$ is not selected, Lemma 1 gives an upper bound. Therefore

$$2(k-1) \sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{O}} d(\mu_{\mathbf{z}}, h_{\mathbf{u}}) \leq \frac{5k(k-1)}{(1-\lambda_c)m(m-1)} F(\text{ALG1}(\mathcal{C})) \quad (44)$$

$$\leq \frac{5k(k-1)}{(1-\lambda_c)m(m-1)} \left(F(\text{OPT}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i)) + rm(m-1) \right). \quad (45)$$

Finally, we bound the third term $\sum_{\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{O}} \sum_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{O}, \mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{u}} d(h_{\mathbf{u}}, h_{\mathbf{v}})$.

Let $i = 1, \dots, m$ index selected clusters in arbitrary order. Recall that $\mathcal{S}_i$ denotes objects selected from cluster i . Now consider an auxiliary set $\mathcal{S}_{\text{aux}}$, such that $|\mathcal{S}_{\text{aux}}| = k$, $\mathcal{S}_{\text{aux}} \subseteq \cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i$, and $|\mathcal{S}_{\text{aux}} \cap \mathcal{S}_i| > 0$ for any i . In other words, $\mathcal{S}_{\text{aux}}$ contains at least one object from each selected cluster.

Due to the above definitions, for any $h_{\mathbf{u}}$ we know that (i) it is a centroid of a selected cluster, and (ii) we can find an object within that cluster that is included in $\mathcal{S}_{\text{aux}}$. Let $\mathbf{u}'$ and $\mathbf{v}'$ be such objects from clusters of $h_{\mathbf{u}}$ and $h_{\mathbf{v}}$, respectively.

We have that

$$\sum_{\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{O}} \sum_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{O}, \mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{u}} d(h_{\mathbf{u}}, h_{\mathbf{v}}) \leq \sum_{\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{O}} \sum_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{O}, \mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{u}} [d(\mathbf{u}'(h_{\mathbf{u}}), \mathbf{v}'(h_{\mathbf{v}})) + 2r] \quad (46)$$

$$\leq 2rk(k-1) + \frac{1}{(1-\lambda)} F(\mathcal{S}_{\text{aux}}|k) \quad (47)$$

$$\leq 2rk(k-1) + \frac{1}{(1-\lambda)} F(\text{OPT}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i)|k). \quad (48)$$

Combining the three bounds gives

$$D(\mathcal{O}) < \left(\frac{5k(k-1)}{(1-\lambda_c)m(m-1)} + \frac{1}{1-\lambda} \right) F(\text{OPT}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i)) + \left(\frac{5}{1-\lambda_c} + 4 \right) rk(k-1). \quad (49)$$

■

B.7 PROOF OF LEMMA 7

Proof. Let $\mathcal{S}^*$ denote the set of k highest quality items from $\mathcal{U}$, i.e., $\mathcal{S}^* = \arg \max_{A \subseteq \mathcal{U}, |A|=k} \arg \max \sum_{u \in A} q(u)$. Clearly, we can upper bound

$$Q(\mathcal{O}) \leq Q(\mathcal{S}^*) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda} F(\mathcal{S}^*) \quad (50)$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{\lambda} F(\text{OPT}(\mathcal{S}^*)) \quad (51)$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{\lambda} F\left(\text{OPT}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \cup \mathcal{S}^*\right)\right). \quad (52)$$

■

B.8 PROOF OF THEOREM 8

Proof. Using Lemma 7, we have $Q(\mathcal{O}) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda} F\left(\text{OPT}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \cup \mathcal{S}^*\right)\right)$. Next, Lemma 6 gives $D(\mathcal{O}) \leq rk(k-1)\left[4 + \frac{5}{1-\lambda_c}\right] + F\left(\text{OPT}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i\right)\right)\left[\frac{5k(k-1)}{(1-\lambda_c)m(m-1)} + \frac{1}{(1-\lambda)}\right]$.

Note that $F\left(\text{OPT}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i\right)\right) \leq F\left(\text{OPT}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \cup \mathcal{S}^*\right)\right)$.

Let denote $\frac{\alpha}{2} \equiv 5 \frac{k(k-1)}{m(m-1)} \frac{(1-\lambda)}{(1-\lambda_c)} + 2$ and $\beta = k(k-1)\left[4(1-\lambda) + 5 \frac{1-\lambda}{1-\lambda_c}\right]$, we have that

$$F(\mathcal{O}) = \lambda Q(\mathcal{O}) + (1-\lambda)D(\mathcal{O}) \quad (53)$$

$$\leq \frac{\alpha}{2} F\left(\text{OPT}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \cup \mathcal{S}^*\right)\right) + r\beta. \quad (54)$$

In other words,

$$F\left(\text{OPT}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \cup \mathcal{S}^*\right)\right) \geq \frac{2}{\alpha} F(\mathcal{O}) - 2r \frac{\beta}{\alpha}. \quad (55)$$

According to Borodin et al. [Borodin et al., 2017], greedy selection where the quality term is scaled by 0.5 is the half approximation of the optimal selection. We conclude that when $\sigma = 0.5$

$$F(\text{ALG}_{2\sigma}(\mathcal{U})) \geq \frac{1}{\alpha} F(\mathcal{O}) - r \frac{\beta}{\alpha}. \quad (56)$$

■

C ADDITIONAL EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

C.1 TECHNICAL DETAILS

The candidate retrieval task is performed using AWS instance *ml.r5.16xlarge* with 64 CPUs, 10 computational threads and 512 GB RAM. For Figure 1, we also utilize another larger AWS instance *ml.r5.24xlarge* with 96 CPUs, 25 computational threads and 512 GB RAM. The embedding dimension for candidate retrieval is $d = 1024$.

For both candidate retrieval and question answering tasks, MMR performance was evaluated on λ values in $\{0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7, 0.9\}$.

For question answering task, we used *us.anthropic.claude-3-5-haiku-20241022-v1:0*, with the idea that a smaller model complemented with RAG is a more cost-effective solution compared to using a much larger model. Also using a smaller model enabled us to see the effect of RAG more clearly. Next, prompt instructions included the following words:

Table 6: Comparison on candidate retrieval to select $k = 500$ items. ✗ denotes that the algorithm did not complete within 12 hours of running. Our method achieves competitive performance and is faster than MMR and DGDS. Note that we focus on the Precision and Time as the main metrics for comparison while the other metrics are complementary. The highest precision score is in **bold**. The groundtruth for Amazon2M dataset is not available for evaluating Precision. Thus, it is used to compare running time.

Kitchen ($ \mathcal{U} = 3872, \lambda = 0.9$)						
Method	λ_c	Precision $\uparrow$	Objective $\uparrow$	Quality $\uparrow$	Diversity $\uparrow$	Time $\downarrow$
random		50.0	0.687	0.693	0.638	0
K-DPP		46.4	0.749	0.762	0.636	5.88
clustering		61.6	0.879	0.906	0.641	0.59
MMR		83.6	0.959	0.998	0.625	12.1
DGDS		83.6	0.959	0.998	0.625	12.2
MUSS(rand.A)		84.0	0.960	0.998	0.631	5.42
MUSS(rand.B)		83.6	0.960	0.998	0.632	7.01
MUSS	0.1	95.5	0.954	0.998	0.644	6.34
MUSS	0.3	95.5	0.959	0.999	0.636	7.54
MUSS	0.5	95.7	0.959	0.999	0.633	8.11
MUSS	0.7	95.7	0.960	0.999	0.622	8.30
MUSS	0.9	95.7	0.960	0.999	0.618	8.24

Amazon100k ($ \mathcal{U} = 108, 258, \lambda = 0.9$)						
Method	λ_c	Precision $\uparrow$	Objective $\uparrow$	Quality $\uparrow$	Diversity $\uparrow$	Time $\downarrow$
random		11.2	0.730	0.736	0.674	0.0
K-DPP		✗	✗	✗	✗	✗
clustering		28.2	0.963	0.995	0.677	9.92
MMR		39.4	0.970	0.999	0.711	311
DGDS		39.4	0.970	0.999	0.711	271
MUSS(rand.A)		42.8	0.969	0.999	0.698	49
MUSS(rand.B)		41.6	0.969	0.999	0.700	53
MUSS	0.1	44.8	0.969	0.999	0.702	56
MUSS	0.3	42.8	0.970	0.999	0.705	54
MUSS	0.5	43.5	0.970	0.999	0.706	54
MUSS	0.7	44.4	0.970	0.999	0.704	53
MUSS	0.9	45.2	0.970	0.999	0.704	53

Amazon2M ($ \mathcal{U} = 2M, \lambda = 0.9$)					
Method	λ_c	Objective $\uparrow$	Quality $\uparrow$	Diversity $\uparrow$	Time $\downarrow$
random		0.659	0.515	0.659	0.0
K-DPP		✗	✗	✗	✗
clustering		0.666	0.983	0.666	17
MMR		0.971	0.999	0.716	5870
DGDS		0.971	0.999	0.716	114
MUSS(rand.A)		0.970	0.999	0.710	72
MUSS(rand.B)		0.971	0.999	0.716	73
MUSS	0.1	0.968	0.998	0.713	76
MUSS	0.3	0.969	0.998	0.715	74
MUSS	0.5	0.971	0.999	0.716	74
MUSS	0.7	0.971	0.999	0.716	73
MUSS	0.9	0.971	0.999	0.715	73

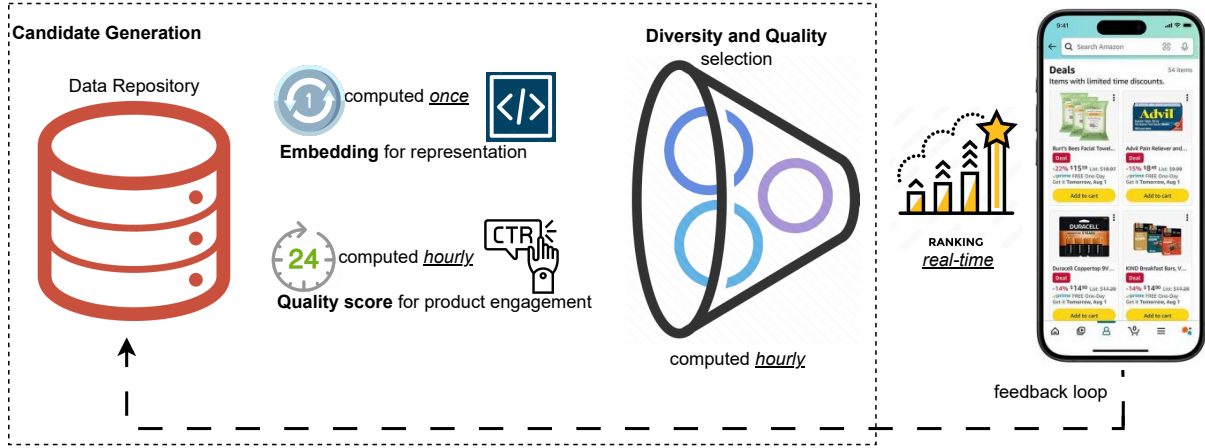


Figure 4: Flow chart of candidate retrieval module within the real-time ranking framework. The goal is to select the subset of k products which are high quality and diverse every hour. We run this retrieval step per category and is non-personalized.

```
You will be given a question and additional information to consider. This
information might or might not be relevant to the question. Your task is to
answer the question. Only use additional information if it's relevant.... (
RAG results) ... (question) ... In your response, only include the answer
itself. No tags, no other words.
```

For question and corpus embeddings, we used `HuggingFaceEmbeddings.embed_documents()` with default parameters. The embedding dimension is $d = 768$. Number of questions for each dataset was 50.

In the results, MMR denotes greedy selection as per Algorithm 1. We have also evaluated greedy selection using the original maximum similarity criterion [Carbonell and Goldstein, 1998]. Overall the results are slightly worse compared to the sum-based criterion, see Appendix Section C.6.

C.2 ADDITIONAL INFORMATION ON CANDIDATE RETRIEVAL TASK

Our setting comes from the large-scale e-commerce platform where the real-time recommendation system [Deldjoo et al., 2024] includes two major steps: candidate retrieval (considered in this paper) and candidate ranking. The proposed MUSS has been deployed in real-world production for candidate retrieval, as part of the real-time recommendation, serving million customers daily.

We summarize the system in Figure 4. The first step: the candidate retrieval step returns 500 products that are diverse and high quality. This candidate retrieval step is refreshed after every hour. The **quality score** is defined using an external ML model predicting the likelihood of an item being clicked on. This quality scores are precomputed offline and also refreshed after every hour. The entire corpus will be scored using this likelihood prediction.

The second step: the real-time ranking (less than 100ms) will be run on top of the above 500 products to return a sorted list of 20 products.

Moreover, please note that items can typically be split into largely independent subsets (e.g., categories, such as books, baby food, etc.). Particularly, in our system, we retrieve 500 candidates per product category.

C.3 ADDITIONAL RESULTS FOR CANDIDATE RETRIEVAL TASK

Full results for candidate item selection are presented in Table 6. The proposed MUSS consistently performs the best while significantly reduce the computational time. We note that while MMR will still find the highest objective function score since it directly maximizes Eq. (1), our MUSS also achieves comparable objective scores across four datasets. We visualize the

selected products for Home and Kitchen datasets in Fig. 5.

C.4 VARYING λ AND λ_c

In this study, we varied the trade-off parameters λ_c (cluster-level selection) and λ (item-level selection). We report the values of quality term $Q(\mathcal{S})$, diversity term $D(\mathcal{S})$, and the overall objective function $F(\mathcal{S})$ as defined in Eq. (1). Results are shown in Figures 6, and 7. As expected, when λ increases, our objective function favours the quality term. Interestingly, for a fixed λ , the objective remains relatively stable at all values of λ_c .

C.5 COMPUTATIONAL TIME FOR EACH COMPONENT IN DGDS AND MUSS

In Figure 8, we measure and report computational time spent in each component of Algorithm 2. This includes clustering (Line 1), greedy cluster selection (Line 3), greedy item selection in each selected cluster (Line 5), and the final selection $\mathcal{S}$ (Line 7). In this setting, we select $k = 500$ items from Amazon2M datasets. We use different colors to indicate time spent in different steps. We consider two cases $k' = 50$ and $k' = 500$.

We can see that the running time is significantly faster when using $k' = 50$ (73 secs) against $k' = 500$ (510 secs), resulting in comparable objective function score of 0.971 in Amazon2M dataset. Thus, it is preferable in practice to use a smaller value of $k' < k$.

While the DGDS does not spend time on clustering, it is slower than MUSS for two reasons: (i) there are more partitions ($l > m$) to be selecting from, and (ii) accordingly, after the union step $\cup_{i=1}^l \mathcal{S}_i$, the number of items is larger ($l \times k' > m \times k' + k$). In this setting, with the choices of $k = 500, l = 500, m = 100, k' = 50$, the number of items for DGDS (25,000) is significantly larger than MUSS (5,500) in the final selection. We note that point (i) can be potentially addressed for DGDS by using number of CPUs $p = l$. However, point (ii) remains a bottleneck for DGDS irrespective of getting more CPUs.

C.6 COMPARING GREEDY OBJECTIVES

In our results, MMR denotes the sum-based greedy selection criterion as per Algorithm 1 (“sum-distance” criterion). We have also evaluated greedy selection using the original maximum similarity criterion [Carbonell and Goldstein, 1998].

$$\text{MMR}'(s) = \lambda \cdot \text{Sim}(s, z) - (1 - \lambda) \cdot \max_{t \in \mathcal{S}} \text{Sim}(s, t). \quad (57)$$

Here, z is the query for which MMR is performed, and $\mathcal{S}$ is the subset selected so far. For our quality and distance functions this criterion becomes

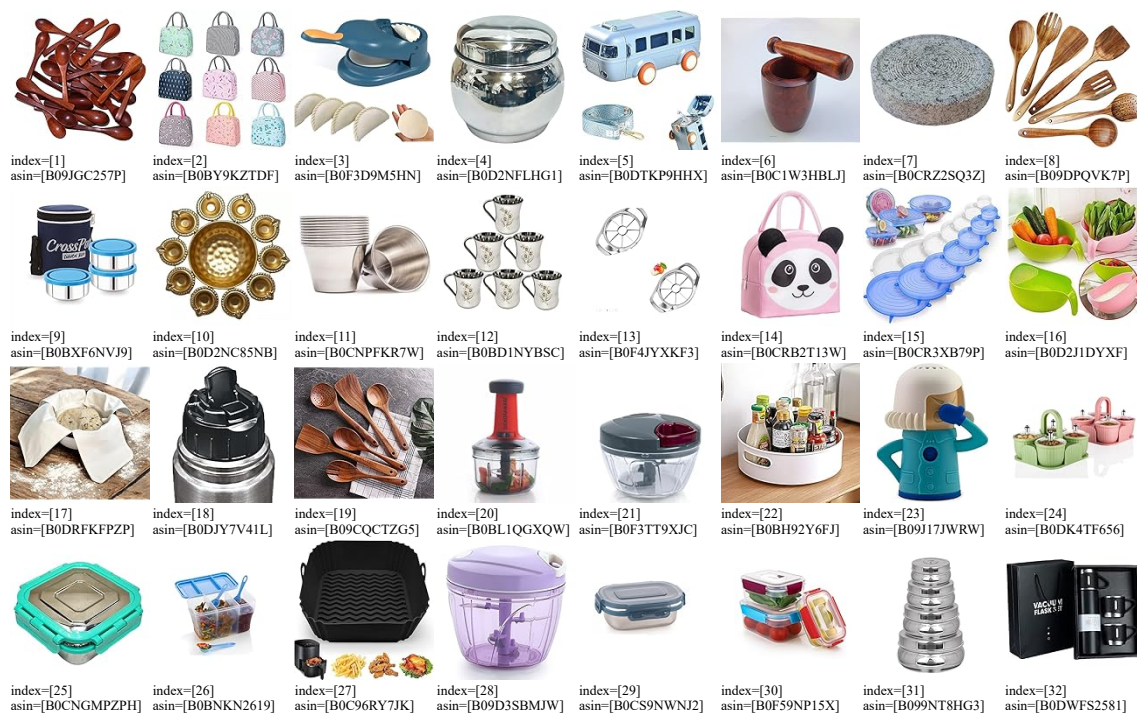
$$\text{MMR}'(s) = \lambda \cdot q(s) + (1 - \lambda) \cdot \min_{t \in \mathcal{S}} d(s, t). \quad (58)$$

Overall the results were slightly worse compared to the “sum-distance” criterion, see Table 7.

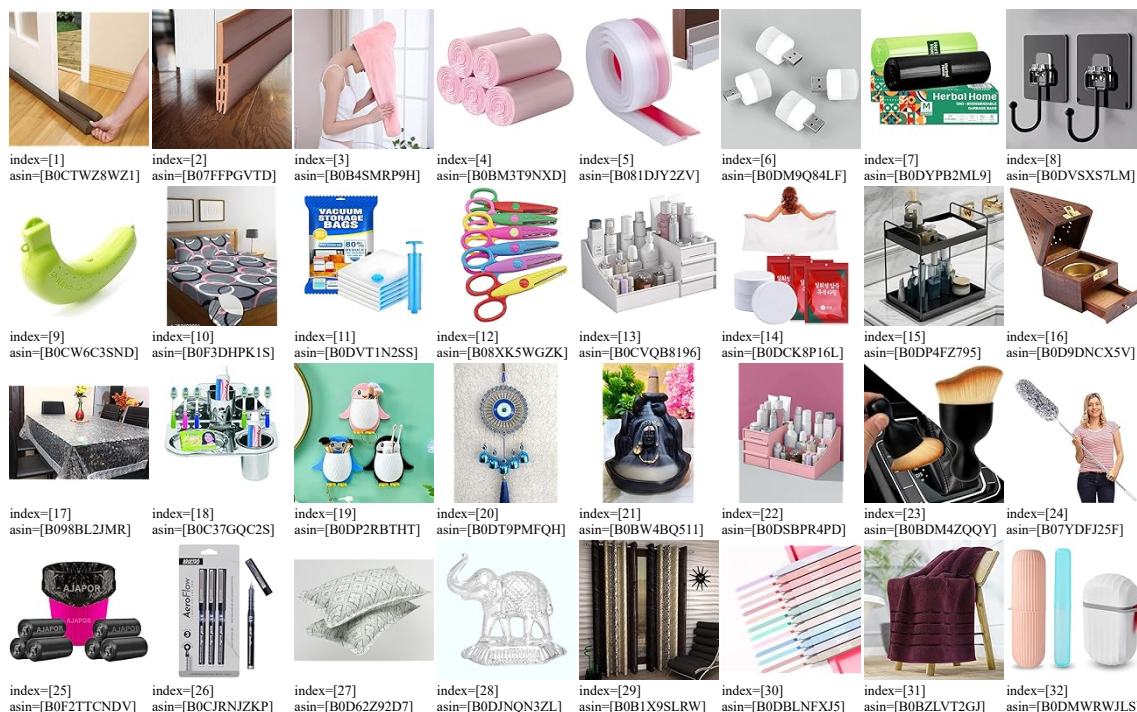
C.7 ABLATION OF MUSS WITHOUT TOP k QUALITY ITEMS ADDITION

To facilitate the approximation bound analysis, the top k highest quality items $\mathcal{S}^*$ have been added in Line 7 of Algorithm 2, $\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \cup \mathcal{S}^*)$ for the refinement of the final selection.

We design an ablation study to test the empirical effect of this addition on Home and Amazon100k datasets. The comparison is presented in Table 8 using Precision as the key metric. Adding $\mathcal{S}^*$ in the final refinement results in a similar empirical performance. We propose to keep this addition as this step helps to tighten the Lemma 7.



(a) Kitchen dataset



(b) Home dataset

Figure 5: Examples of the selected products for Kitchen and Home. The products are diverse covering different types of products in different colors and materials. These products are also at high quality and popular, likely to attract clicks and purchases from customers.

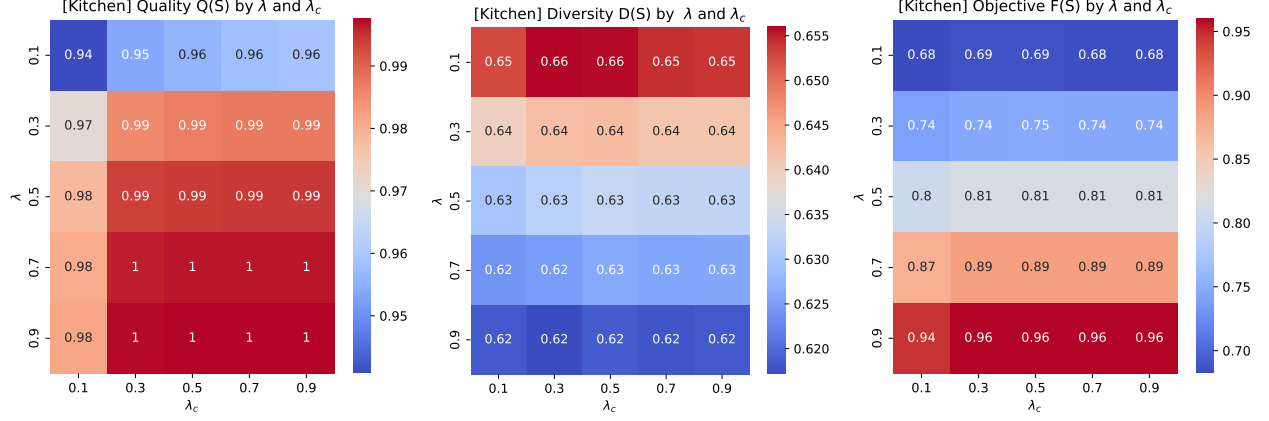


Figure 6: Diversity, quality, and the objective as the function of λ_c and λ for Kitchen dataset

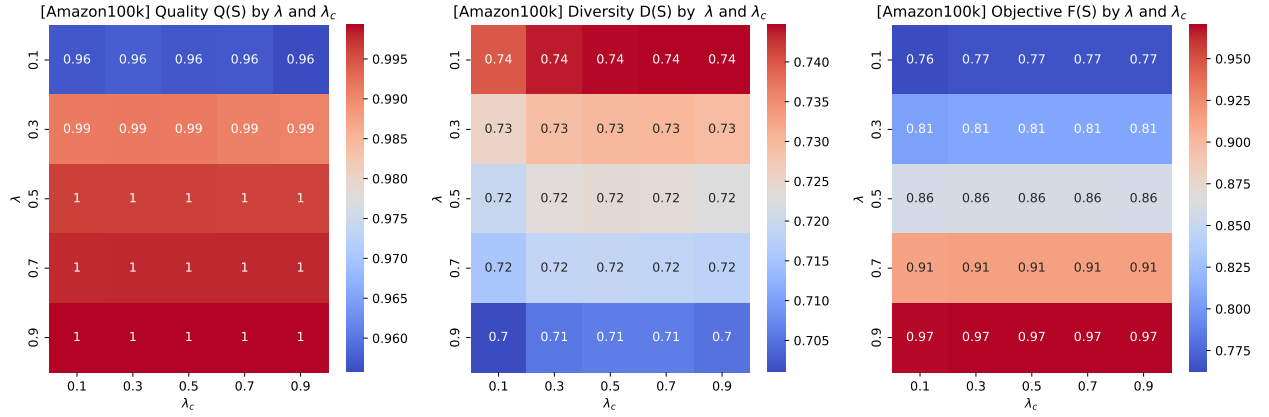


Figure 7: Diversity, quality, and the objective as the function of λ_c and λ for Amazon100k dataset

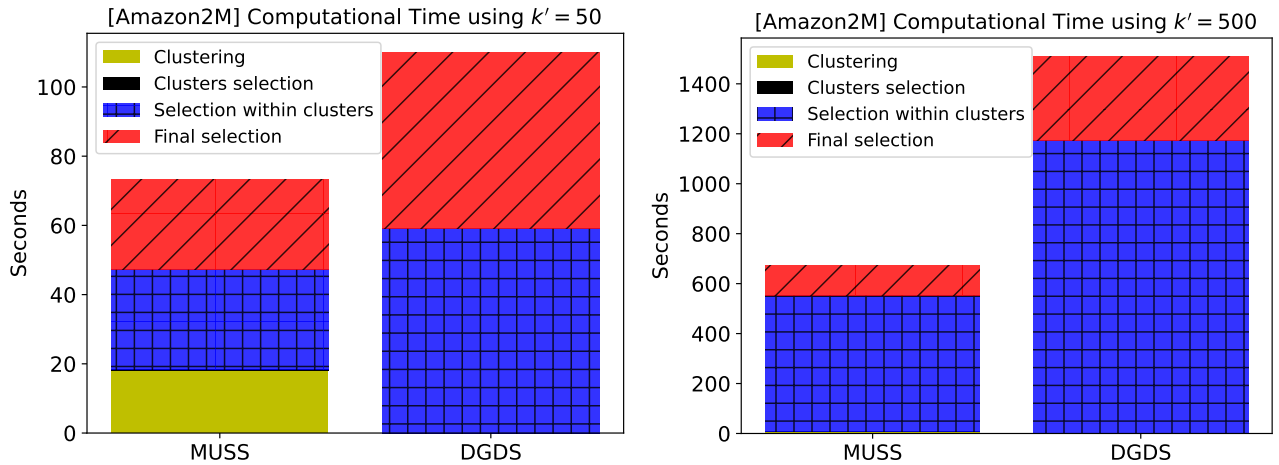


Figure 8: Computational time taken by each component of the Algorithm 2, compared against similar steps of DGDS. Our method is more computationally efficient due to having a smaller number of partitions and fewer data points in the final selection step (Line 7 Algorithm 2). Here, k' is the number of data points selected within each cluster (Line 5 Algorithm 2). We note that if more number of CPUs $p = l$ is available for DGDS, then the time spent for selection within cluster (blue) will be similar for both DGDS and MUSS. However, the final selection (red) is still the bottleneck for DGDS.

Table 7: Precision achieved by MUSS using either “sum distance” or “min distance” as the greedy selection criterion.

Home ($ \mathcal{U} = 4737, \lambda = 0.9$)						
λ_c	Diversity Distance	Precision $\uparrow$	Objective $\uparrow$	Quality $\uparrow$	Diversity $\uparrow$	Time $\downarrow$
0.1	sum distance	74.5	0.962	0.996	0.643	7.12
	min distance	73.2	0.961	0.979	0.654	7.30
0.3	sum distance	74.2	0.962	0.997	0.646	7.86
	min distance	72.2	0.961	0.989	0.647	7.71
0.5	sum distance	74.0	0.962	0.997	0.646	8.91
	min distance	74.0	0.962	0.994	0.642	8.97
0.7	sum distance	74.1	0.962	0.997	0.647	9.17
	min distance	73.4	0.962	0.994	0.638	9.14
0.9	sum distance	74.8	0.962	0.997	0.648	8.18
	min distance	74.0	0.962	0.995	0.639	8.06

Amazon100K ($ \mathcal{U} = 108, 258, \lambda = 0.9$)						
λ_c	Diversity Distance	Precision $\uparrow$	Objective $\uparrow$	Quality $\uparrow$	Diversity $\uparrow$	Time $\downarrow$
0.1	sum distance	44.8	0.970	0.999	0.703	56
	min distance	40.8	0.967	0.999	0.687	55
0.3	sum distance	42.8	0.970	0.999	0.705	55
	min distance	36.0	0.967	0.999	0.688	54
0.5	sum distance	43.5	0.970	0.999	0.706	55
	min distance	38.4	0.968	0.999	0.687	54
0.7	sum distance	44.4	0.970	0.999	0.706	53
	min distance	38.8	0.968	0.999	0.688	53
0.9	sum distance	45.2	0.970	0.999	0.705	53
	min distance	39.2	0.970	0.999	0.710	53

Table 8: Precision achieved by considering different versions of MUSS: in Line 7 of Algorithm 2 using either (i) $\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^* | k, \lambda)$ or (ii) $\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^* | k, \lambda)$

Home ($ \mathcal{U} = 4737, \lambda = 0.9$)						
λ_c	Diversity Distance	Precision $\uparrow$	Objective $\uparrow$	Quality $\uparrow$	Diversity $\uparrow$	Time $\downarrow$
0.1	$\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^*)$	74.5	0.962	0.996	0.643	7.12
	$\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^*)$	72.7	0.961	0.979	0.654	7.30
0.3	$\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^*)$	74.2	0.962	0.997	0.646	7.86
	$\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^*)$	74.2	0.962	0.989	0.647	7.71
0.5	$\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^*)$	74.0	0.962	0.997	0.646	8.91
	$\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^*)$	73.7	0.961	0.994	0.642	8.97
0.7	$\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^*)$	74.1	0.962	0.997	0.647	9.17
	$\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^*)$	75.2	0.962	0.994	0.638	9.14
0.9	$\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^*)$	74.8	0.962	0.997	0.648	8.18
	$\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^*)$	74.8	0.962	0.995	0.639	8.06

Amazon100K ($ \mathcal{U} = 108, 258, \lambda = 0.9$)						
λ_c	Setting	Precision $\uparrow$	Objective $\uparrow$	Quality $\uparrow$	Diversity $\uparrow$	Time $\downarrow$
0.1	$\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^*)$	44.8	0.970	0.999	0.703	56
	$\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^*)$	40.4	0.967	0.999	0.686	54
0.3	$\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^*)$	42.8	0.970	0.999	0.705	55
	$\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^*)$	42.8	0.967	0.999	0.694	55
0.5	$\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^*)$	43.5	0.970	0.999	0.706	55
	$\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^*)$	44.6	0.969	0.999	0.693	56
0.7	$\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^*)$	44.4	0.970	0.999	0.706	53
	$\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^*)$	45.8	0.968	0.999	0.685	54
0.9	$\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^*)$	45.2	0.970	0.999	0.705	53
	$\mathcal{S} = \text{ALG1}(\cup_{i=1}^m \mathcal{S}_i \text{US}^*)$	45.0	0.968	0.999	0.686	56