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# IMPROVING OPTIMALITY AND EFFICIENCY OF GREEDY GROUP RECURSION ALGORITHM

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## ABSTRACT

Recently (Liu et al., 2025) has presented efficient algorithm - Greedy Group Recursion (GGR) - for reordering the rows and the fields within each row of an input table to maximize key-value (KV) cache reuse when performing LLM serving. In this paper, we propose several adjustments to GGR algorithm that can improve optimality of the solution and reduce its execution time.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

There has been growing research on LLM inference optimization. In particular, recent work (Liu et al., 2025; Cheng et al., 2025) presents solutions to optimize relational data analytics workloads for offline LLM inference. It proposes Greedy Group Recursion (GGR), an approximate algorithm that leverages functional dependencies (such as primary and foreign key relationships from the data schema) and table statistics, which are readily available in many databases and analytics systems, to reduce the search space.

### 1.1 Greedy Group Recursion (GGR) Algorithm

The GGR algorithm is described in detail in (Liu et al., 2025). Let us briefly outline its main points.

The pseudocode specification of GGR is in Algorithm 1 listing and is taken from the original paper but with several critical corrections (and multiple little typo fixes).

GGR algorithm optimizes LLM queries by finding a  $(n \times m)$  table rearrangement that maximizes the LLM's KV cache prefix hit count (PHC). It achieves this goal by reordering the rows and the fields within each row to **maximize** the *prefix hit count*. Each row may have a different field order. The rearranged table is represented as a list of tuples  $L$ , where each tuple in  $L$  corresponds to a row, and the tuple elements contain the column values. A cell in the list of tuples is denoted as  $L[r][f]$ , indicating the value in tuple  $r$  at position  $f$ .

The hit count of a single cell  $L[r][c]$  is non-zero **only** if its value is the same as in the previous row  $L[r][c] = L[r - 1][c]$  **and** all preceding fields have the same property  $\forall f \leq c, L[r][f] = L[r - 1][f]$ . Then its hit count is computed as

the square of the value's string length:

$$hit(L, r, c) = \begin{cases} \text{len}(L[r][c])^2 & \text{if } \forall f \leq c, \\ & L[r][f] = \\ & L[r - 1][f] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

The squared string length reflects the quadratic complexity of token processing in LLM inference, where each token computation depends on every preceding token and increases computational cost quadratically with the input length.

The hit count for a single row  $r$  in  $L$  is then just a sum of hit counts for all cells in a row:

$$hit(L, r) = \sum_{c=1}^m hit(L, r, c) \quad (2)$$

The PHC for a list of tuples  $L$  with  $n$  rows and  $m$  fields is given by:

$$PHC(L) = \sum_{r=1}^n hit(L, r) \quad (3)$$

The  $PHC(L)$  is the objective function of a table reordering algorithm: it tries to find output  $L$  with maximum  $PHC(L)$  value.

The greedy part of GGR is based on finding a distinct value  $b_v$  (in the corresponding column  $b_c$ ) with the highest hit count and then rearranging the table so that all cells with that value appear in consecutive rows and in the first field of the output  $L$ . GGR then uses the group of  $b_v, b_c$  cells to split the table into two smaller sub-tables and recursively run GGR on each of them. See Figure 1 for illustration of this key step.

Compared to the brute-force algorithm that requires  $n! * (m!)^n$  potential orderings, GGR significantly reduces the search space by selecting the highest-hit value and then reducing the dimensions of the table at each recursive step with the maximum depth of recursion  $O(\min(n, m))$ . GGR

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**Algorithm 1** Greedy Group Recursion (GGR)

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1: Input: Table  $T$ , Functional Dependency  $FD$ 
2: Output: Prefix Hit Count  $S$ , Reordered List of Tuples  $L$ 

3: function HITCOUNT( $v, c, T, FD$ )
4:    $R_v \leftarrow \{i \mid T[i, c] = v\}$ 
5:    $\text{inferred\_cols} \leftarrow \{c' \mid (c, c') \in FD\}$ 
6:    $\text{inferred\_vals} \leftarrow \{T[R_v[1], c'] \mid c' \in \text{inferred\_cols}\}$ 
7:    $\text{tot\_len} \leftarrow \text{len}(v)^2 + \sum_{c' \in \text{inferred\_cols}} \left( \frac{\sum_{r \in R_v} \text{len}(T[r, c'])}{|R_v|} \right)^2$ 
8:    $HC \leftarrow \text{tot\_len} \times (|R_v| - 1)$ 
9:    $\text{cols} \leftarrow [c] + \text{inferred\_cols}$ 
10:   $\text{vals} \leftarrow [v] + \text{inferred\_vals}$ 
11:  return  $HC, \text{cols}, \text{vals}$ 
12: end function

13: function GGR( $T, FD$ )
14:  if  $|T|_{\text{rows}} = 1$  then
15:    return 0,  $[T[1]]$ 
16:  end if
17:  if  $|T|_{\text{cols}} = 1$  then
18:     $S \leftarrow \sum_{v \in \text{distinct}(T[,1])} \text{HITCOUNT}(v, 1, T)$ 
19:    return  $S, \text{sort}([T[i] \mid i \in 1 \dots |T|_{\text{rows}}])$ 
20:  end if
21:   $b_v, b_c \leftarrow \text{None}, \text{None}$ 
22:   $\text{max\_HC}, b_{\text{cols}}, b_{\text{vals}} \leftarrow -1, [], []$ 
23:  for  $c \in \text{columns}(T), v \in \text{distinct}(T[, c])$  do
24:     $HC, \text{cols}, \text{vals} \leftarrow \text{HITCOUNT}(v, c, T, FD)$ 
25:    if  $HC > \text{max\_HC}$  then
26:       $b_v, b_c \leftarrow v, c$ 
27:       $\text{max\_HC}, b_{\text{cols}}, b_{\text{vals}} \leftarrow HC, \text{cols}, \text{vals}$ 
28:    end if
29:  end for
30:   $R_v \leftarrow \{i \mid T[i, b_c] = b_v\}$ 
31:   $A\_HC, A\_L \leftarrow \text{GGR}(T[\text{rows} \setminus R_v, \text{cols}], FD)$ 
32:   $B\_HC, B\_L \leftarrow \text{GGR}(T[R_v, \text{cols} \setminus b_{\text{cols}}], FD)$ 
33:   $C\_HC \leftarrow \text{max\_HC}$ 
34:   $S \leftarrow A\_HC + B\_HC + C\_HC$ 
35:   $L \leftarrow [b_{\text{vals}} + B\_L[i] \mid i \in 1 \dots |R_v|] + A\_L$ 
36:  return  $S, L$ 
37: end function

38: return GGR( $T, FD$ )
    
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achieves close-to-perfect PHC output with fast practical execution time.

### 1.1.1 Functional Dependencies

GGR algorithm leverages a table's functional dependencies (FD) to reduce the number of fields it needs to consider at each recursion step.

We say that two columns  $A$  and  $B$  are in functional dependency  $A \leftrightarrow B$  in a table  $T$  if, for any two rows  $r_1$  and  $r_2$ ,  $T[r_1][A] = T[r_2][A]$  implies  $T[r_1][B] = T[r_2][B]$  and vice versa.

In other words, for any distinct value  $a$  in the column  $A$ , there is a distinct value  $b$  in the column  $B$  such that they both are on the same rows. I.e., for  $R_a \leftarrow \{i \mid T[i, A] = a\}$

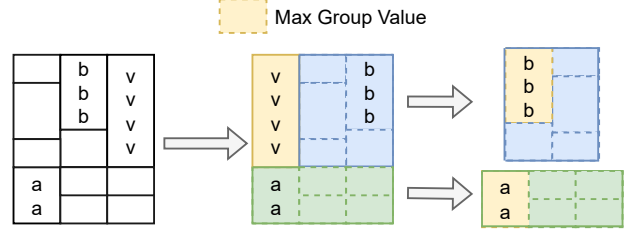


Figure 1. GGR picks the group with the maximum hit count at each step and calculates PHC as the sum of PHC of the elected group values (yellow box), the sub-table  $T$  excluding rows  $R_v$  (green box), and the sub-table of rows  $R_v$  excluding the field where the value is located in (blue box).

and  $R_b \leftarrow \{i \mid T[i, B] = b\}$  we have  $R_a = R_b$ .

FD rules can be specified as a list of disjoint sets containing column indices. For example, for the table with columns  $A, B, C, D, E, F$  where  $A \leftrightarrow B$  and  $C \leftrightarrow D \leftrightarrow E$ , the FD rules can be specified as  $[[A, B], [C, D, E]]$ .

### 1.1.2 GGR Specification

We can follow the pseudocode specification of GGR in Algorithm 1 listing.

At each recursive step, the GGR algorithm scans the table (lines 21–29) to find all distinct values with corresponding hit counts (lines 3–12). It then selects the highest-hit value  $b_v$  (in the column  $b_c$ ) and splits the table into two sub-tables - one with all the rows  $R_v$  containing  $b_v$  value but excluding the column  $b_c$  and its FD-associated columns (line 31:  $T[R_v, \text{cols} \setminus b_{\text{cols}}]$ ), and another sub-table with the remaining rows (line 32:  $T[\text{rows} \setminus R_v, \text{cols}]$ ). In the final step, GGR recurses on the two sub-tables (lines 31–32) and calculates the total PHC as the sum of PHCs computed for each sub-table and of hit count computed for  $b_v, b_c$  (line 34).

## REFERENCES

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