

A fast dynamic programming multi-objective knapsack problem

Marcos Daniel Valadão Baroni* Flávio Miguel Varejão

July 17, 2017

Abstract

This work addresses... The Multidimensional Objective knapsack programming.
The dynamic programming method... The data structure...

1 Introduction

2 The Multiobjective Knapsack Problem

A general multiobjective optimization problem can be described as a vector function f that maps a decision variable (solution) to a tuple of m objectives. Formally:

$$\begin{aligned} \min/\max \mathbf{y} &= f(\mathbf{x}) = (f_1(\mathbf{x}), f_2(\mathbf{x}), \dots, f_m(\mathbf{x})) \\ \text{subject to } \mathbf{x} &\in X \end{aligned}$$

where \mathbf{x} is the *decision variable*, X denotes the set of feasible solutions, and \mathbf{y} is the *objective vector* where each objective has to be minimized (or maximized).

Considering two decision vectors $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in X$, \mathbf{a} is said to *dominate* \mathbf{b} if, and only if \mathbf{a} is at least as good as \mathbf{b} in all objectives and better than \mathbf{b} in at least one objective. For shortening we will say that \mathbf{a} dominates \mathbf{b} by saying $dom(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$. Formally:

$$dom(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = \begin{cases} \forall i \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\} : f_i(\mathbf{a}) \geq f_i(\mathbf{b}) \text{ and} \\ \exists j \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\} : f_j(\mathbf{a}) > f_j(\mathbf{b}) \end{cases}$$

A feasible solution $\mathbf{a} \in X$ is called *efficient* if it is not dominated by any other feasible solution. The set of all efficient solutions of a multiobjective optimization problem is known as *Pareto optimal*. Solving a multiobjective problem consists in giving its Pareto optimal set.

An instance of a multiobjective knapsack problem (MOKP) with m objectives consists of an integer capacity $W > 0$ and n items. Each item i has a

*Research supported by Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Espírito Santo.

positive weight w_i and nonnegative integer profits $p_i^1, p_i^2, \dots, p_i^m$. Each profit p_i^k represents the contribution of the i -th item for k -th objective. A solution is represented by a set $\mathbf{x} \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$ containing the indexes of the items included in the solution. A solution is feasible if the total weight included in the knapsack does not exceed its capacity. Formally the definition of the problem is:

$$\begin{aligned} \max f(\mathbf{x}) &= (f_1(\mathbf{x}), f_2(\mathbf{x}), \dots, f_m(\mathbf{x})) \\ \text{subject to } w(\mathbf{x}) &< W \\ \mathbf{x} &\subseteq \{1, \dots, n\} \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} f_j(\mathbf{x}) &= \sum_{i \in \mathbf{x}} p_i^j \\ w(\mathbf{x}) &= \sum_{i \in \mathbf{x}} w_i \end{aligned}$$

The MOKP is considered a \mathcal{NP} -Hard problem since it is a generalization of the well-known 0–1 knapsack problem, in which $m = 1$. It is quite difficult to determine the Pareto optimal set for the MOKP, especially for high dimension instances, in which the Pareto optimal set tends to grow exponentially. Even for the bi-objective case, small problems may prove intractable. For this reason we are interested in developing efficient methods for handling large solution sets, which may bring tractability to previously intractable instances.

Considering two solutions $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$, \mathbf{y} is called *extension* of \mathbf{x} , denoted as $ext(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})$, iff $\mathbf{x} \subseteq \mathbf{y}$. Any set $\mathbf{e} \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$ such that $\mathbf{x} \cap \mathbf{e} = \emptyset$ is called an *extender* of \mathbf{x} . If $w(\mathbf{x}) + w(\mathbf{e}) \leq W$ then \mathbf{e} is called a *feasible extender* of \mathbf{x} . A solution \mathbf{x} is called *deficient* if it has available space to fit one or more item, i.e., $w(\mathbf{x}) + \min\{w_i : i \notin \mathbf{x}\} \leq W$. We say \mathbf{x} *knapsack-dominates* \mathbf{y} , denoted as $dom_k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$, if \mathbf{x} dominates \mathbf{y} and does not weight more than \mathbf{y} . Formally:

$$dom_k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \begin{cases} dom(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) & \text{and} \\ w(\mathbf{x}) \leq w(\mathbf{y}) \end{cases}$$

Figure 1 illustrates the concept of knapsack-dominance for a problem with $m = 1$. Any solution in the cross-hatched area knapsack-dominates the marked solution.

Theorem 1. Consider two solutions $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$ and \mathbf{e} an extender for \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} . If $dom_k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ then $dom_k(\mathbf{x} \cup \mathbf{e}, \mathbf{y} \cup \mathbf{e})$.

Proof.

□

3 The Dynamic Programming Algorithm

Paragrafo de introducao da secao, justificando toda a explicacao que segue..

The dynamic programming algorithm is based on the classical Nemhauser-Ullmann (NU) algorithm proposed in [6]. concept of domination for knapsack problems, proposed by Weingartner and Ness [10].

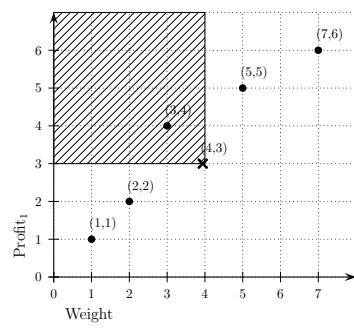


Figure 1: A knapsack-dominated solution.

Some property of the MOKP will be explored... three filter as optimizations for the trying to reduce the number of solutions handled on mid stages of the algorithm... We will introduce the dynamic programming (DP) algorithm for the MOKP proposed in [1].

3.1 The NU algorithm – the knapsack dominance

The knapsack-dominance is the concept that mainly driver the algorithm... The pseudocode for the algorithm is presented in Algorithm 1. At the k -th

Algorithm 1 Basic dynamic programming algorithm for MOKP

```

1: function DP( $\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{w}, W$ )
2:    $S^0 = \{\emptyset\}$ 
3:   for  $k \leftarrow 1, n$  do
4:      $S_*^k = S^{k-1} \cup \{\mathbf{x} \cup k \mid \mathbf{x} \in S^{k-1}\}$  ▷ solutions extension
5:      $S^k = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \nexists \mathbf{a} \in S_*^k : \text{dom}_k(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{x})\}$  ▷ partial dominance filter
6:   end for
7:    $P = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \nexists \mathbf{a} \in S^n : \text{dom}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{x})\}$  ▷ dominance filter
8:   return  $P$ 
9: end function

```

stage the algorithm receives a set S^{k-1} of solutions and generates the set S^k of solutions that correspond to subsets containing exclusively the first k items, i.e., $\forall \mathbf{x} \in S^k, \mathbf{x} \subseteq \{1, \dots, k\}$.

This is done by expanding S^{k-1} by adding a copy of each solution with the inclusion of k -th item (line 4). We will refer as *partial solutions* all the solutions handled by stages prior to n -th stage.

The clever part of the algorithm is that it uses the concept of knapsack dominance to filter solutions that will not lead to efficient solutions (line 5). Considering two partial solutions $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in S^k$, if \mathbf{x} is knapsack-dominated by \mathbf{y} then we may discard \mathbf{x} since all solutions generated from \mathbf{x} will be dominated by those generated from \mathbf{y} .

3.2 Avoiding deficient solutions

The first optimization that can be made on Algorithm 1 is avoiding the generation of deficient solutions. At k -th stage all previous solution is copied to the new solution set without adding k -th item (line 4). However preserving solutions with a lot of space left, concerning the remaining itens, may lead to deficient solutions.

Theorem 2. *Considering the k -th stage of the algorithm and $\mathbf{x} \in S^{k-1}$. If $w(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{i \in \{k, \dots, n\}} w_i \leq W$ than*

Considering the k -th stage, if a partial solution $\mathbf{x} \in S^{k-1}$ has enough space to fit all remaining items, i.e., $w(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{i=k}^n w_i \leq W$, \mathbf{x} may be discarded and only $\mathbf{x} \cup \{k\}$ kepted, once keeping \mathbf{x} will certainly lead to deficient solutions.

3.3 Removing unpromissing solutions

Another optimization that can be applied on later stages is filtering unpromissing solutions by computing upper bounds for its objectives functions and comparing it with the set of available lower bounds. An upper(lower) bound of a solution is an upper(lower) limit each objective value can achieve given its remaining capacity and the remaining items. If the upper bound of a solution is dominated by an existing lower bound, that solution can be discarded since it will not generate an efficient solution.

A lower bound of a solution can be easily computed...

Formally:

$$lb(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{s}) = \mathbf{x} \cup \{o_i \mid w(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{j=1}^i w_{o_j} \leq W\}$$

where

$$(o_1, \dots, o_k) = O_{max}(\mathbf{s})$$

3.4 Item order

Algorithm 2 Bazgan's DP algorithm for the MOKP

```

1: function BAZDP( $\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{w}, W$ )
2:    $S^0 = \{\emptyset\}$ 
3:   for  $k \leftarrow 1, n$  do
4:      $S_*^k = \{\mathbf{x} \cup \{k\} \mid \mathbf{x} \in S^{k-1} \wedge (w(\mathbf{x}) + w_k \leq W)\}$ 
5:      $\cup \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{x} \in S^{k-1} \wedge (w(\mathbf{x}) + w_k + \dots + w_n) > W\}$ 
6:      $S^k = \{\mathbf{x} \in S_*^k \mid (\nexists \mathbf{a} \in S_*^k)[dom_k(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{x}) \vee dom(lb(\mathbf{a}), up(\mathbf{x}))]\}$ 
7:   end for
8:   return  $S^n$ 
9: end function

```

4 The use of k -d tree

The k -d tree is a type of binary search tree for indexing multidimensional data with simple construction and low space usage. Despite its simplicity it efficiently supports operations like nearest neighbour search and range search [2]. For those reasons k -d tree is widely used on spacial geometry algorithms [8, 3], clustering [5, 4] and graphic rendering algorithms [7].

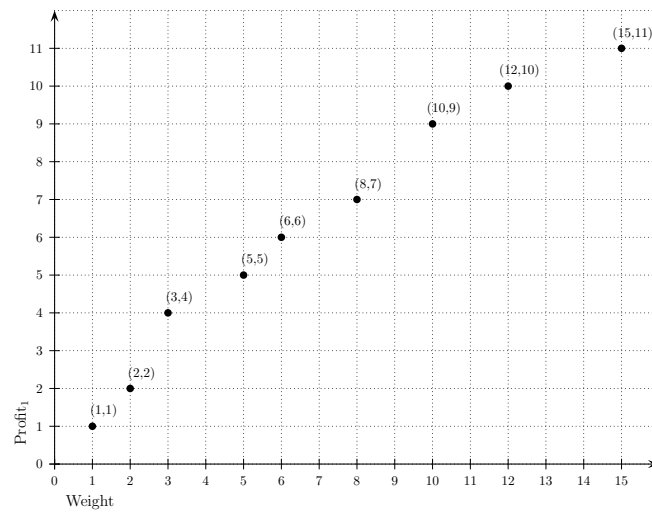
Like a standard binary search tree, the k -d tree subdivides data at each recursive level of the tree. Unlike a standard binary tree, that users only one key for all levels of the tree, the k -d tree uses k keys and cycles through these keys for successive levels of the tree.

Concerning its efficiency, it is important to consider the number of dimensions k -d tree is indexing. As a general rule, a k -d tree is suitable for efficiently

indexing of n elements if n is much greater than 2^k . Otherwise, when k -d tree are used with high-dimensional data, most of the elements in the tree will be evaluated and the efficiency is no better than exhaustive search [9].

Indexing the solutions and range operations.

Tends to increase the feasibility on problems with higher dimensions.



5 Computational experiments

- Base de dados utilizada
- Parametros dos algoritmos
- Análise dos resultados (comparação)

6 Conclusions and future remarks

- Conclusões dos resultados
- Trabalhos futuros

References

- [1] Cristina Bazgan, Hadrien Hugot, and Daniel Vanderpooten. Solving efficiently the 0–1 multi-objective knapsack problem. *Computers & Operations Research*, 36(1):260–279, 2009.
- [2] Jon Louis Bentley. Multidimensional binary search trees used for associative searching. *Communications of the ACM*, 18(9):509–517, 1975.
- [3] Antonin Guttman. *R-trees: a dynamic index structure for spatial searching*, volume 14. ACM, 1984.
- [4] Piotr Indyk and Rajeev Motwani. Approximate nearest neighbors: towards removing the curse of dimensionality. In *Proceedings of the thirtieth annual ACM symposium on Theory of computing*, pages 604–613. ACM, 1998.
- [5] Tapas Kanungo, David M Mount, Nathan S Netanyahu, Christine D Piatko, Ruth Silverman, and Angela Y Wu. An efficient k-means clustering algorithm: Analysis and implementation. *IEEE transactions on pattern analysis and machine intelligence*, 24(7):881–892, 2002.
- [6] George L Nemhauser and Zev Ullmann. Discrete dynamic programming and capital allocation. *Management Science*, 15(9):494–505, 1969.
- [7] John D Owens, David Luebke, Naga Govindaraju, Mark Harris, Jens Krüger, Aaron E Lefohn, and Timothy J Purcell. A survey of general-purpose computation on graphics hardware. In *Computer graphics forum*, volume 26, pages 80–113. Wiley Online Library, 2007.
- [8] Franco P Preparata and Michael Shamos. *Computational geometry: an introduction*. Springer Science & Business Media, 2012.
- [9] Csaba D Toth, Joseph O’Rourke, and Jacob E Goodman. *Handbook of discrete and computational geometry*. CRC press, 2004.

- [10] H Martin Weingartner and David N Ness. Methods for the solution of the multidimensional 0/1 knapsack problem. *Operations Research*, 15(1):83–103, 1967.