A POLYNOMIAL TIME APPROXIMATION SCHEME FOR THE MULTIPLE KNAPSACK PROBLEM

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Abstract. The multiple knapsack problem (MKP) is a natural and well-known generalization of the single knapsack problem and is defined as follows. We are given a set of $n$ items and $m$ bins (knapsacks) such that each item $i$ has a profit $p(i)$ and a size $s(i)$, and each bin $j$ has a capacity $c(j)$. The goal is to find a subset of items of maximum profit such that they have a feasible packing in the bins. MKP is a special case of the generalized assignment problem (GAP) where the profit and the size of an item can vary based on the specific bin that it is assigned to. GAP is APX-hard and a 2-approximation, for it is implicit in the work of Shmoys and Tardos [Math. Program, A, 62 (1993), pp. 461–474], and thus far, this was also the best known approximation for MKP. The main result of this paper is a polynomial time approximation scheme (PTAS) for MKP.

Apart from its inherent theoretical interest as a common generalization of the well-studied knapsack and bin packing problems, it appears to be the strongest special case of GAP that is not APX-hard. We substantiate this by showing that slight generalizations of MKP are APX-hard. Thus our results help demarcate the boundary at which instances of GAP become APX-hard. An interesting aspect of our approach is a PTAS-preserving reduction from an arbitrary instance of MKP to an instance with $O(\log n)$ distinct sizes and profits.

Key words. multiple knapsack problem, generalized assignment problem, polynomial time approximation scheme, approximation algorithm

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1. Introduction. We study the following natural generalization of the classical knapsack problem.

Multiple knapsack problem (MKP).

Instance: A pair $(B, S)$ where $B$ is a set of $m$ bins (knapsacks) and $S$ is a set of $n$ items. Each bin $j \in B$ has a capacity $c(j)$, and each item $i$ has a size $s(i)$ and a profit $p(i)$.

Objective: Find a subset $U \subseteq S$ of maximum profit such that $U$ has a feasible packing in $B$.

The decision version of MKP is a generalization of the decision versions of both the knapsack and bin packing problems and is strongly NP-complete. Moreover, it is an important special case of the generalized assignment problem where both the size and the profit of an item are a function of the bin.

Generalized assignment problem (GAP).\(^1\)

Instance: A pair $(B, S)$ where $B$ is a set of $m$ bins (knapsacks) and $S$ is a set of $n$ items. Each bin $j \in B$ has a capacity $c(j)$, and for each item $i$ and bin $j$, we are given a size $s(i,j)$ and a profit $p(i,j)$.

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\(^1\)GAP has also been defined in the literature as a (closely related) minimization problem (see [28]). In this paper, following [26], we refer to the maximization version of the problem as GAP and to the minimization version as Min GAP.
Objective: Find a subset $U \subseteq S$ that has a feasible packing in $B$ and maximizes the profit of the packing.

GAP and its restrictions capture several fundamental optimization problems and have many practical applications in computer science, operations research, and related disciplines. The special case of MKP with uniform sizes and profits is also important; the book on knapsack variants by Martello and Toth [26] has a chapter devoted to MKP. Also referred to as the loading problem in operations research, it models the problem of loading items into containers of different capacities such that container capacities are not violated. In many practical settings items could be more complex geometric objects; however, the one-dimensional case (MKP) is useful in its own right and has been investigated extensively [14, 11, 12, 23, 24, 25, 4].

Knapsack, bin packing, and related problems have attracted much theoretical attention for their simplicity and elegance, and their study has been instrumental in the development of the theory of approximation algorithms. Though knapsack and bin packing have a fully polynomial-time approximation scheme (FPTAS; asymptotic for bin packing), GAP, a strong generalization of both, is APX-hard, and only a 2-approximation exists. In fact, some very special cases of GAP can be shown to be APX-hard. In particular we can show that for arbitrarily small $\delta > 0$ (which can even be a function of $n$) the problem remains APX-hard on the following very restricted set of instances: bin capacities are identical, and for each item $i$ and machine $j$, $p(i, j) = 1$, and $s(i, j) = 1$ or $s(i, j) = 1 + \delta$. The complementary case, where item sizes do not vary across bins but profits do, can also be shown to be APX-hard for a similar restricted setting. In light of this, it is particularly interesting to understand the complexity of MKP where profits and sizes of an item are independent of the bin, but the item sizes and profits as well as bin capacities may take arbitrary values. Establishing a PTAS shows a very fine separation between cases that are APX-hard and those that have a PTAS. Until now, the best known approximation ratio for MKP was a factor of 2 derived from the approximation for GAP.

Results. In this paper we resolve the approximability of MKP by obtaining a PTAS for it. It can be easily shown via a reduction from the Partition problem that MKP does not admit an FPTAS even if $m = 2$ (see Proposition 2.1). A special case of MKP is when all bin capacities are equal. It is relatively straightforward to obtain a PTAS for this case using ideas from approximation schemes for knapsack and bin packing [13, 3, 17]. However, the problem with different bin capacities is more challenging. Our paper contains two new technical ideas. Our first idea concerns the set of items to be packed in a knapsack instance. We show how to guess, in polynomial time, almost all the items that are packed by an optimal solution. More precisely, we can identify a polynomial number of subsets such that one of the subsets has a feasible packing and profit at least $(1 - \epsilon)\text{OPT}$. This is in contrast to earlier schemes for variants of knapsack [13, 1, 7], where only the $1/\epsilon$ most profitable items are guessed. An easy corollary of our strategy is a PTAS for the identical bin capacity case, the details of which we point out later. Even with the knowledge of the right subsets, the problem remains nontrivial since we need to verify for each subset if it has a feasible packing. Checking for feasibility is of course at least as hard as bin packing. To get around this difficulty we make crucial use of additional properties satisfied by the subsets that we guess. In particular, we show that each subset can be transformed such that the number of distinct size values of the items in the subset is $O(\epsilon^{-2} \log n)$. An immediate consequence of this is a dynamic programming–based quasi-polynomial time algorithm to pack all of the items into bins. Our second set of ideas shows that we can exploit the restriction on the number of distinct sizes
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Fig. 1.1. Complexity of various restrictions of GAP.

to pack, in polynomial time, a subset of the item set that has at least a \((1 - \epsilon)\) fraction of the profit. Approximation schemes for number problems are usually based on rounding instances to have a fixed number of distinct values. In contrast, MKP appears to require a logarithmic number of values. We believe that our techniques to handle logarithmic number of distinct values will find other applications. Figure 1.1 summarizes the approximability of various restrictions of GAP.

Related work. MKP is closely related to knapsack, bin packing, and GAP. A very efficient FPTAS exists for the knapsack problem; Lawler’s [19], based on ideas from [13], achieves a running time of \(O(n \log 1/\epsilon + 1/\epsilon^4)\) for a \((1 + \epsilon)\) approximation. An asymptotic FPTAS is known for bin packing [3, 17]. Kellerer [18] has independently developed a PTAS for the special case of the MKP where all bins have identical capacity. As mentioned earlier, this case is much simpler than the general case and falls out as a consequence of our first idea. We defined the generalized assignment problem as a maximization problem. This is natural when we relate it to the knapsack problem (see [26]). There is also a minimization version, which we refer to as Min GAP (also known as the cost assignment problem), where the objective is to assign all the
items while minimizing the sum of the costs of assigning items to bins. In this version, item \( i \) when assigned to bin \( j \) incurs a cost \( w(i, j) \) instead of obtaining a profit \( p(i, j) \). Even without costs, deciding the feasibility of assigning all items without violating the capacity constraints is an NP-complete problem; therefore, capacity constraints need to be relaxed. An \((\alpha, \beta)\) bicriteria approximation algorithm for Min GAP is one that gives a solution with cost at most \( \alpha C \) and with bin capacities violated by a factor of at most \( \beta \), where \( C \) is the cost of an optimal solution that does not violate any capacity constraints. The work of Lin and Vitter [22] yields a \((1 + \epsilon, 2 + 1/\epsilon)\) bicriteria approximation for Min GAP. Shmoys and Tardos [28], building on the work of Lenstra, Shmoys, and Tardos [21], give an improved \((1, 2)\) bicriteria approximation.

Implicit in this approximation is also a 2-approximation for the profit maximization version which we sketch later. Lenstra, Shmoys, and Tardos [21] also show that it is NP-hard to obtain a bicriteria approximation of the form \((1, \beta)\) for any \( \beta < 3/2 \). The hardness relies on an NP-completeness reduction from the decision version of the 3-dimensional matching problem. Our APX-hardness for the maximization version, mentioned earlier, is based on a similar reduction but instead relies on APX-hardness of the optimization version of the 3-dimensional matching problem [16].

MKP is also related to two variants of variable-size bin packing. In the first variant we are given a set of items and set of bin capacities \( C \). The objective is to find a feasible packing of items using bins with capacities restricted to be from \( C \) so as to minimize the sum of the capacities of the bins used. A PTAS for this problem was provided by Murgolo [27]. The second variant is based on a connection to multiprocessor scheduling on uniformly related machines [20]. The objective is to assign a set of jobs with given processing times to machines with different speeds so as to minimize the makespan of the schedule. Hochbaum and Shmoys [10] gave a PTAS for this problem using a dual-based approach where they convert the scheduling problem into the following bin packing problem. Given items of different sizes and bins of different capacities, find a packing of all the items into the bins such that maximum relative violation of the capacity of any bin is minimized. Bicriteria approximations, where both capacity and profit can be approximated simultaneously, have been studied for several problems (Min GAP being an example mentioned above), and it is usually the case that relaxing both makes the task of approximation somewhat easier. In particular, relaxing the capacity constraints allows rounding of item sizes into a small number of distinct size values. In MKP, the constraint on the bin capacities and the constraint on the number of bins are both inviolable, and this makes the problem harder.

**Organization.** Section 2 describes our PTAS for MKP. In section 3, we show that GAP is APX-hard on very restricted classes of instances. We also indicate here a 2-approximation for GAP. In section 4, we discuss a natural greedy algorithm for MKP and show that it gives a \((2 + \epsilon)\)-approximation even when item sizes vary with bins.

## 2. A PTAS for the multiple knapsack problem

We first show that MKP does not admit an FPTAS even for \( m = 2 \).

**Proposition 2.1.** If MKP with two identical bins has an FPTAS, then the Partition problem can be solved in polynomial time. Hence there is no FPTAS for MKP even with \( m = 2 \) unless \( P = NP \).

**Proof.** An instance of the Partition problem consists of \( 2n \) numbers \( a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{2n} \), and the goal is to decide if the numbers can be partitioned into two sets \( S_1 \) and \( S_2 \) such that the sum of numbers in each set add up to exactly \( A = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{2n} a_i \). We can
reduce the Partition problem to MKP with two bins as follows. We set the capacity of the bins to be $A$. We have $2n$ items, one for each number in the Partition problem: the size of item $i$ is $a_i$ and the profit of item $i$ is 1. If the Partition problem has a solution, the profit of an optimum solution to the corresponding MKP problem is $2n$; otherwise it is at most $2n - 1$. Thus, an FPTAS for MKP can be used to distinguish between these two situations in polynomial time.

We start with a remark on guessing. When we guess a quantity in polynomial time, we mean that we can identify, in polynomial time, a polynomial size set of values among which the correct value of the desired quantity resides. Coupled with the guessing procedure is a polynomial time checking procedure which can verify whether a feasible solution with a given value exists. We can run the checking procedure with each of the values in the guessed set and will be guaranteed to obtain a solution with the correct value. We will be using this standard idea several times in this section and implicitly assume that the above procedure is invoked to complete the algorithm.

We denote by $\text{opt}$ the value of an optimal solution to the given instance. Given a set $Y$ of items, we use $p(Y)$ to denote $\sum_{y \in Y} p(y)$. The set of integers $0, 1, \ldots, k$ is denoted by $[k]$. We will assume throughout this section that $\epsilon < 1$; when $\epsilon \geq 1$ we can use the 2-approximation for GAP from section 3. In the rest of the paper we assume, for simplicity of notation, that $1/\epsilon$ and $\ln n$ are integers. Further, we also assume that $\epsilon > 1/n$, for otherwise we can use an exponential time algorithm to solve the problem exactly. In several places in the paper, to simplify expressions, we use the inequality $\ln(1 + \epsilon) \geq \epsilon - \epsilon^2/2 \geq \epsilon/2$.

Our problem is related to both the knapsack problem and the bin packing problem, and some ideas used in approximation schemes for those problems will be useful to us. Our approximation scheme conceptually has the following two steps.

1. Guessing Items: Identify a set of items $U \subseteq S$ such that $p(U) \geq (1 - \epsilon)\text{opt}$ and $U$ has a feasible packing in $B$.

2. Packing Items: Given a set $U$ of items that has a feasible packing in $B$, find a feasible packing for a set $U' \subseteq U$ such that $p(U') \geq (1 - \epsilon)p(U)$.

The overall scheme is more involved since there is interaction between the two steps. The guessed items have some additional properties that are exploited in the packing step. We observe that both of the above steps require new ideas. For the regular single knapsack problem, the second step is trivial once we accomplish the first step. This is, however, not the case for MKP. Before we proceed with the details we show how our guessing step immediately gives a PTAS for the identical bin capacity case.

2.1. MKP with identical bin capacities. Suppose we can guess an item set as in our first step above. We show that the packing step is very simple if the bin capacities are identical. There are two cases to consider, depending on whether $m$, the number of bins, is less than or equal to $1/\epsilon$ or not. If $m \leq 1/\epsilon$, the number of bins can be treated as a constant, and a PTAS for this case exists even for instances of GAP (implicit in earlier work [7]). Now suppose $m > 1/\epsilon$. Bin packing has an asymptotic PTAS. In particular, there is an algorithm [3] that packs the items into $(1 + \epsilon)\text{opt} + 1$ bins in polynomial time for any fixed $\epsilon > 0$. We can thus use this algorithm to pack all the guessed items using at most $(1 + \epsilon)m + 1$ bins. We find a feasible solution by simply picking the $m$ largest profit bins and discarding the rest along with their items. Here we use the fact that $mc \geq 1$ and that the bins are identical. It is easily seen that we get a $(1 + O(\epsilon))$ approximation. We note that a different PTAS, one that does not rely on our guessing step, can be obtained for this case by directly adapting
the ideas used in approximation schemes for bin packing. The trick of using extra bins does not have a simple analogue when bin capacities are different and we need more sophisticated ideas for the general case.

2.2. Guessing items. Consider the case when all items have the same profit; without loss of generality assume it is 1. Thus the objective is to pack as many items as possible. For this case, it is easily seen that \( \text{OPT} \) is an integer in \([n]\). Further, given a guess \( \mathcal{O} \) for \( \text{OPT} \), we can pick the smallest (in size) \( \mathcal{O} \) items to pack. Thus knowing \( \mathcal{O} \) allowed us to fix the item set as well. Therefore there are only a polynomial number of guesses for the set of items to pack. In the following we build on this useful insight.

Let \( p_{\max} \) denote the largest value among item profits. For the general case the first step involves massaging the given instance into a more structured one that has few distinct profits. This is accomplished as follows.

1. Guess a value \( \mathcal{O} \) such that \( \max \{ p_{\max}, (1-\epsilon)\text{OPT} \} \leq \mathcal{O} \leq \text{OPT} \) and discard all items \( y \) where \( p(y) < \epsilon \mathcal{O}/n \).
2. Divide all profits by \( \epsilon \mathcal{O}/n \) such that after scaling each profit is at most \( n/\epsilon \).
3. Round down the profits of items to the nearest power of \( (1+\epsilon) \).

It is easily seen that only an \( O(\epsilon) \) fraction of the optimal profit is lost by our transformation. Since we do not know \( \text{OPT} \), we need to establish an upper bound on the number of values of \( \mathcal{O} \) that we will try out. We make use of the following easy bounds on \( \text{OPT} \): \( p_{\max} \leq \text{OPT} \leq n \cdot p_{\max} \).

Therefore, one of the values in \( \{ p_{\max} \cdot (1+\epsilon)^i \mid 0 \leq i \leq 2\epsilon^{-1} \ln n \} \) is guaranteed to satisfy the desired properties for \( \mathcal{O} \). Summarizing, we obtain the following lemma.

**Lemma 2.2.** Given an instance \( I = (\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{S}) \) with \( n \) items and a value \( \mathcal{O} \) such that \( (1-\epsilon)\text{OPT}(I) \leq \mathcal{O} \leq \text{OPT}(I) \), we can obtain in polynomial time another instance \( I' = (\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{S}') \) such that

- \( S' \subseteq S \);
- for every \( y \in S' \), \( p(y) = (1+\epsilon)^i \) for some \( i \in [4\epsilon^{-1} \ln n] \);
- \( (1-\epsilon)\text{OPT}(I) \leq \frac{\mathcal{O}}{1+\epsilon} \text{OPT}(I') \leq \text{OPT}(I) \).

For the bound in the second item above we upper bound \( n/\epsilon \) by \( n^2 \). The above lemma allows us to work with instances with \( O(\epsilon^{-1} \ln n) \) distinct profits. We now show how we can use this information to guess the items to pack. Let \( h \leq 4\epsilon^{-1} \ln n + 1 \) be the number of distinct profits in our new instance. We partition \( \mathcal{S} \) into \( h \) sets \( S_1, \ldots, S_h \) with items in each set having the same profit. Let \( U \) be the items chosen in some optimal solution and let \( U_i = S_i \cap U \). Recall that we have an estimate \( \mathcal{O} \) of the optimal value. If \( p(U_i) \leq \epsilon \mathcal{O}/h \) for some \( i \), we ignore the set \( S_i \); no significant profit is lost. Hence we can assume that \( \epsilon \mathcal{O}/h \leq p(U_i) \leq \mathcal{O} \) and approximately guess the value \( p(U_i) \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq h \). More precisely, for each \( i \) we guess a value \( k_i \in [h/\epsilon^2] \) such that \( k_i (\epsilon^2 \mathcal{O}/h) \leq p(U_i) \leq (k_i + 1)(\epsilon^2 \mathcal{O}/h) \).

A naive way of guessing the values \( k_1, \ldots, k_h \) requires \( n^{O(\ln n/\epsilon^2)} \) time. We first show how the numbers \( k_i \) enable us to identify the items to pack and then show how the values \( k_1, \ldots, k_h \) can in fact be guessed in polynomial time. Let \( a_i \) denote the profit of an item in \( S_i \). Consider an index \( i \) such that \( a_i \leq \epsilon \mathcal{O}/h \). Given the value \( k_i \) we order the items in \( S_i \) in increasing size values and pick the largest number of items from this ordered set whose cumulative profit does not exceed \( k_i (\epsilon^2 \mathcal{O}/h) \). If \( a_i > \epsilon \mathcal{O}/h \) we pick the smallest number of items, again in order of increasing size, whose cumulative profit exceeds \( k_i (\epsilon^2 \mathcal{O}/h) \). The asymmetry is for technical reasons. The choice of items is thus completely determined by the choice of the \( k_i \). For a tuple of values \( k_1, \ldots, k_h \), let \( U(k_1, \ldots, k_h) \) denote the set of items picked as described above.
LEMMA 2.3. There exists a valid tuple \((k_1, \ldots, k_h)\) with each \(k_i \in [h/e^2]\) such that \(U(k_1, \ldots, k_h)\) has a feasible packing in \(B\) and \(p(U(k_1, \ldots, k_h)) \geq (1-\epsilon)\mathcal{O}\).

Proof. Let \(U\) be the items in some optimal solution and let \(U_i = S_i \cap U\). Define \(k_i\) to be \(\lfloor p(U_i)h/(e^2\mathcal{O}) \rfloor\). The tuple so obtained satisfies the required properties. \(\Box\)

As remarked earlier, a naive enumeration of all integer \(h\)-tuples takes quasi-polynomial time. The crucial observation is that the \(k_i\)'s are not independent. They must satisfy the additional constraint that \(\sum k_i \leq h/e^2\) since the total profit from all the sets \(S_1, \ldots, S_h\) cannot exceed \(\mathcal{O}\). This constraint limits the number of tuples of relevance. We make use of the following claims.

CLAIM 2.4. Let \(f\) be the number of \(g\)-tuples of nonnegative integers such that the sum of tuple coordinates is equal to \(d\). Then \(f = \binom{d+g-1}{g-1}\). If \(d + g < \alpha g\), then \(f = O(\epsilon^{\alpha g})\).

Proof. The first part of the claim is elementary counting. If \(d + g < \alpha g\), then \(f \leq \binom{\alpha g}{g} \leq (\alpha g)^g/(g-1)!\). Using Stirling's formula we can approximate \((g-1)!\) by \(\sqrt{2\pi(g-1)}(g-1/e)^{g-1}\). Thus \(f = O((\epsilon g)^{1-1}) = O(\epsilon^{\alpha g})\). \(\Box\)

CLAIM 2.5. Let \(h \in [4 e^{-3} \ln n]\). Then the number of \(h\)-tuples \((k_1, \ldots, k_h)\) such that \(k_i \in [h/e^2]\) and \(\sum k_i \leq h/e^2\) is \(O(n^{O(1/e^3)})\).

Proof. The number of tuples satisfying the claim is easily seen to be \((h/e^2 + h)\). We now apply the bound from Claim 2.4; we have \(\alpha = (1 + 1/e^2)\) and \(g = 4 e^{-3} \ln n + 1\) and hence we get an upper bound of \(e^{4 e^{-3} \ln n + 1 + e^{-2}}\). The claim follows. \(\Box\)

Using the restricted number of distinct profit values we can also reduce the number of distinct sizes in the given instance to \(O(\ln n)\). This property will be crucial in packing the items. The basic idea is shifting, an idea that is used in approximation schemes for box packing [3]. Let \(A\) be a set of \(g\) items with identical profit but perhaps differing sizes. We order items in \(A\) in nondecreasing order of sizes and divide them into \(t = (1 + 1/e)\) groups \(A_1, \ldots, A_t\) with \(A_1, \ldots, A_{t-1}\) containing \(\lfloor g/t \rfloor\) items each and \(A_t\) containing \((g \mod t)\) items. We discard the items in \(A_{i-1}\), and for each \(i < t - 1\) we increase the size of every item in \(A_i\) to the size of the smallest item in \(A_{i+1}\). Since \(A\) is ordered by size, no item in \(A_i\) is larger than the smallest item in \(A_{i+1}\) for each \(1 \leq i < t\). It is easy to see that if \(A\) has a feasible packing, then the modified instance also has a feasible packing. We discard at most an \(\epsilon\) fraction of the profit and the modified sizes have at most \(2/e\) distinct values. Applying this to each profit class we obtain an instance with \(O(e^{-2} \ln n)\) distinct size values.

LEMMA 2.6. Given an instance \(I = (B, S)\) with \(n\) items we can obtain in polynomial time \(v = n^{O(1/e^2)}\) instances \(I_1, \ldots, I_v\) such that

- for \(1 \leq j \leq v\), \(I_j = (B, S_j)\);
- for \(1 \leq j \leq v\), items in \(S_j\) have \(O(e^{-1} \ln n)\) distinct profit values;
- for \(1 \leq j \leq v\), items in \(S_j\) have \(O(e^{-2} \ln n)\) distinct size values;
- there is an index \(\ell\), \(1 \leq \ell \leq v\), such that \(S_{\ell}\) has a feasible packing in \(B\) and \(p(S_{\ell}) \geq (1-\epsilon)\text{OPT}(I)\).

Proof. As indicated earlier, we can guess a value \(\mathcal{O}\) such that \((1-\epsilon)\text{OPT} \leq \mathcal{O} \leq \text{OPT}\) from \(O(e^{-2} \ln n)\) values. For each guess for \(\mathcal{O}\) we round profits of items to geometric powers (see Lemma 2.2) and guess the partition of \(\mathcal{O}\) among the profit classes. The number of guesses for the partition is \(n^{O(1/e^2)}\). Therefore the distinct number of instances is \(n^{O(1/e^2)}\). Each instance is modified to reduce the number of distinct sizes. Each step potentially loses a \((1-\epsilon)\) factor, so overall we lose a \((1-\epsilon)\) factor in the profit. \(\Box\)

We will assume for the next section that we have guessed the correct set of items and that they are partitioned into \(O(e^{-2} \ln n)\) sets, with each set containing items
of the same size. We denote by $U_i$ the items of the $i$th size value and by $n_i$ the quantity $|U_i|$.

2.3. Packing items. From Lemma 2.6 we obtain a restricted set of instances in terms of item profits and sizes. We also need some structure in the bins and we start by describing the necessary transformations.

2.3.1. Structuring the bins. Assume without loss of generality that the smallest bin capacity is 1. We order the bins in increasing order of their capacity and partition them into blocks $B_0, B_1, \ldots, B_t$ such that block $B_i$ consists of all bins $x$ with $(1+\epsilon)^i \leq \epsilon(x) < (1+\epsilon)^{i+1}$. Let $m_i$ denote the number of bins in block $B_i$.

Definition 2.7 (small and large blocks). A block $B_i$ of bins is called a small bin block if $m_i \leq 1/\epsilon$; it is called large otherwise.

Let $Q$ be the set of indices $i$ such that $B_i$ is small. Define $Q'$ to be the set of $t = 1/\epsilon + [4\epsilon^{-1}\ln 1/\epsilon]$ largest indices in the set $Q$. Note that we are choosing from the bins with the largest indices and not the blocks with the most number of bins. Let $B_Q$ and $B_{Q'}$ be the sets of all bins in the blocks specified by the index sets $Q$ and $Q'$, respectively. The following lemma makes use of the property of geometrically increasing bin capacities.

Lemma 2.8. Let $U$ be a set of items that can be packed in the bins $B_Q$. There exists a set $U' \subseteq U$ such that $U'$ can be packed into the bins $B_{Q'}$, and $p(U') \geq (1-\epsilon) \cdot p(U)$.

Proof. Fix some packing of $U$ in the bins $B_Q$. Consider the largest $1/\epsilon$ bins in $B_Q$. One of these bins has a profit less than $\epsilon p(U)$. Without loss of generality, assume its capacity is 1. We will remove the items packed in this bin and use it to pack items from smaller bins. Let $B_i$ be the block containing this bin. Let $j$ be the largest index in $Q$ such that $j < i - 4\epsilon^{-1}\ln 1/\epsilon$. If no such $j$ exists, $Q' = Q$ and there is nothing to prove. For any $k \leq j$, a bin in block $B_k$ has capacity at most $1/(1+\epsilon)^{i-k}$ since the bin from $B_i$ had capacity 1 and the bin capacities decrease geometrically with index. Thus the bin capacity in $B_k$ is at most $(1+\epsilon)^j/(1+\epsilon)^{i-k} \leq \epsilon^2/(1+\epsilon)^{i-k+1}$. The latter inequality follows from the fact that $j-i+1 \leq -4\epsilon^{-1}\ln 1/\epsilon$ and $(1+\epsilon)^{-4\epsilon^{-1}\ln 1/\epsilon} \leq \epsilon^2$. Since $B_k$ is a small bin block, it has no more than $1/\epsilon$ bins; therefore the total capacity of all bins in $B_k$ is at most $\epsilon/(1+\epsilon)^{j-k+1}$. Hence, the total capacity of bins in small bin blocks with indices less than or equal to $j$ is $\sum_{k \leq j} \epsilon/(1+\epsilon)^{j-k+1}$, which is at most 1. Therefore, we can pack all the items in blocks $B_k$ with $k \in B_Q, k \leq j$ in the bin we picked. The total number of blocks in $Q$ between $i$ and $j$ is $4\epsilon^{-1}\ln 1/\epsilon$. Each of the $1/\epsilon$ largest bins in $B_Q$ could be in their own blocks. Hence the largest $t$ indices from $Q'$ would contain all these blocks. From the above, we conclude that bins of blocks with indices in $Q'$ are sufficient to pack a set $U' \subseteq U$ such that $p(U') \geq (1-\epsilon) \cdot p(U)$.

Therefore we can retain the $t$ small bin blocks from $Q'$ and discard the blocks with indices in $Q \setminus Q'$. Hence from here on we assume that the given instance is modified to satisfy $|Q| \leq t$, and it follows that the total number of bins in small bin blocks is at most $t/\epsilon$. When the number of bins is fixed, a PTAS is known (implicit in earlier work) even for the GAP. The basic idea in this PTAS will be useful to us in handling small bin blocks. For large bin blocks, the advantage, as we shall see later, is that we can exceed the number of bins used by an $\epsilon$ fraction. The main task is to integrate the allocation and packing of items between the different sets of bins. We do this in three steps that are outlined below.

For the rest of the section we assume that we have a set of items that can be feasibly packed in the given set of bins. We implicitly refer to some fixed feasible packing as the optimal solution.
2.3.2. Packing the most profitable items into small bin blocks. We guess, for each bin $b$ in $B_Q$, the $1/\epsilon$ most profitable items that are packed in $b$ in the optimal solution. The number of guesses needed is $n^{O((1/\epsilon)/\epsilon^3)}$.

2.3.3. Packing large items into large bin blocks. The second step is to select items and pack them in large bin blocks. We say that an item is packed as a large item if its size is at least $\epsilon$ times the capacity of the bin in which it is packed. Since the capacities of the blocks are increasing geometrically, an item can be packed as a large item in at most $f = \ceil{2\epsilon^{-1} \ln 1/\epsilon}$ different blocks. Our goal is to guess all the items that are packed as large and also to which blocks they are assigned. We do this approximately as follows.

Let $n_i$ be the number of items of the $i$th size class $U_i$, and let $\ell_i$ be the number packed as large in some optimal solution. Let $f_i \leq f$ be the number of blocks in which items of $U_i$ can be packed as large. Let $\ell_i^j$, $1 \leq j \leq f_i$, be the number of items of each of those blocks. If $f_i^j \leq \frac{f_j}{\epsilon} n_i$, we can discard those items, overall losing at most an $\epsilon$ fraction of the profit from $U_i$. Our objective is to guess a number $h_i^j$ such that $(1 - \epsilon)\ell_i^j \leq h_i^j \leq \ell_i^j$. The number of guesses required to obtain a single $h_i^j$ is bounded by $g = 2\epsilon^{-1} \ln f_i/\epsilon$, and therefore the total number of guesses for all $h_i^j$ is bounded by $g f_i$. Using $f$ as an upper bound for $f_i$ and simplifying we claim an upper bound of $2^O(1/\epsilon^3)$. Therefore the total number of guesses required for all the $O(\epsilon^{-2} \ln n)$ size classes is bounded by $n^{O(1/\epsilon^3)}$. Here is where we take advantage of the fact that the number of distinct sizes is small (logarithmic).

Suppose we have correctly assigned all large items to their respective bin blocks. We describe now a procedure for finding a feasible packing of these items. Here we ignore the potential interaction between items that are packed as large and those packed as small. We can focus on a specific block since the large items are now partitioned between the blocks. Note that even within a single block the large items could contain $\Omega(\ln n)$ distinct sizes. The abstract problem that we have is the following. Given a collection of $m$ bins with capacities in the range $[1, 1 + \epsilon)$, and a set of $n$ items with sizes in the range $(\epsilon, 1 + \epsilon)$, decide if there is a feasible packing for them. We do not know if this problem can be solved in polynomial time when the number of distinct sizes is $O(\ln n)$. Here we take a different approach. We obtain a relaxation by allowing use of extra bins to pack the items. However, we restrict the capacity of the extra bins to be 1. We give an algorithm that either decides that the instance is infeasible or gives a packing with at most an additional $cn$ bins of capacity 1.

The first step in the algorithm is to pack the items of size strictly greater than 1. Let $L$ be these set of items. Consider items of $L$ in nondecreasing order of their sizes. When considering an item of size $s$, find the smallest size bin available that can accommodate it. If no such bin exists we declare that the items cannot be packed. Otherwise we pack the item into the bin and remove the bin from the available set of bins.

**Lemma 2.9.** If the algorithm fails, then there is no feasible packing for $L$. Further, if there is a feasible packing for all the items, then there is one that respects the packing of $L$ produced by the above algorithm.

*Proof.* In our instance, each bin’s capacity is at most $1 + \epsilon$ and every item is of size strictly larger than $\epsilon$. Therefore each item of $L$ is packed in a bin by itself.

Suppose there are two bins $x$ and $y$ and an item from $L$ of size $s$ such that $c(x) > c(y) \geq s$. Consider any feasible packing of the items into the bins in which $s$ is packed into $x$, and $y$ does not contain any item from $L$. Then it is easy to see that we
can swap $s$ to $y$ and the items in $y$ into $x$ without affecting feasibility. Similarly, we can argue that if $s_1$ and $s_2$ are two items from $L$ such that $s_1 > s_2$, then $s_1$ occupies a larger bin than $s_2$. Using these swapping arguments we can see that the properties described in the lemma are satisfied.

From the above lemma, we can restrict ourselves to packing items with sizes in $(\epsilon, 1]$ into the bins that remain after packing $L$. Let $n'$ be the number of bins that remain. If a feasible packing exists, the shifting technique for bin packing [3] can be adapted in a direct fashion to pack the items using $cm'$ additional bins of size 1 each. We briefly describe the algorithm. Let $n'$ be the number of items to be packed. We observe that each bin can accommodate at most $1/\epsilon + 1$ items. Thus $m'(1/\epsilon + 1) \geq n'$. If $m' \leq 1/\epsilon$ we can check for a feasible packing by brute force enumeration. Otherwise let $t = 2/\epsilon^2$. The items are arranged in nonincreasing order of their sizes and grouped into sets $H_1, H_2, \ldots, H_i, H_{i+1}$ such that $|H_1| = |H_2| = \cdots = |H_i| = n'/t$ and $H_{i+1} = n'(\bmod t)$. Items in the first group $H_1$ that contains the largest items are each assigned to a separate bin of size 1. For $2 \leq i \leq t + 1$, the sizes of the items in $H_i$ are uniformly set to be the size of the smallest item in $H_{i-1}$. It is clear that the rounded up items have a packing in the $m'$ bins if the original items had a packing. The rounded up items have only $t$ distinct sizes, and dynamic programming can be applied to test the feasibility of packing these items in the given $m'$ bins in $O(n^{O(t)})$ time.

Lemma 2.10. Given $m \geq 1/\epsilon$ bins of capacities in the range $[1, 1 + \epsilon)$ and items of sizes in the range $(\epsilon, 1 + \epsilon)$, there is an $n^{O(1/\epsilon^2)}$-time algorithm that either decides that there is no feasible packing for the items or returns a feasible packing using at most $cm$ extra bins of capacity 1.

We eliminate the extra bins later by picking the $m$ most profitable among them and discarding the items packed in the rest. The restriction on the size and number of extra bins is motivated by the elimination procedure. In order to use extra bins the quantity $cm$ needs to be at least 1. This is the reason to distinguish between small and large bin blocks. For a large bin block $B_i$ let $E_i$ be the extra bins used in packing the large items. We note that $|E_i| \leq cm' \leq cm_i$.

2.3.4. Packing the remaining items. The third and last step of the algorithm is to pack the remaining items, which we denote by $R$. At this stage we have a packing of the $1/\epsilon$ most profitable items in each of the bins in $B_Q$ (bins in small bin blocks) and a feasible packing of the large items in the rest of the bins. For each bin $b_j \in B$ let $Y_j$ denote the set of items already packed into $b_j$ in the first two steps. The item set $R$ is packed via a linear programming (LP) approach. In particular, we use the generalized assignment formulation with the following constraints.

1. Each remaining item must be assigned to some bin.
2. An item $y$ can be assigned to a bin $b_j$ in a large bin block $B_i$ only if $s(y) \leq \epsilon \cdot (1 + \epsilon)^t$. In other words, $y$ should be small for all bins in $B_i$.
3. An item $y$ can be assigned to a bin $b_j$ in a small bin block only if $p(y) \leq \frac{1}{t+2}p(Y_j)$ and $|Y_j| \geq 1/\epsilon$.

Constraints 2 and 3 are based on the assumption that we have correctly guessed in the first two steps of the packing procedure. We make the formulation more precise now. Note that we only check for feasibility. The variable $x_{ij}$ denotes the fraction of item $i$ that is assigned to bin $j$. Let $V$ be the set of item-bin pairs $(i, j)$ such that $i$ cannot be packed into $b_j$ due to constraints 2 and 3. The precise LP formulation is
Lemma 2.11. The LP formulation above has a feasible solution if the guesses for the item set, the items packed as large, and those packed in small bin blocks are correct.

Proof. Consider a feasible integral packing of the items in the bins (which by assumption exists) and let \( \bar{x} \) denote that solution. We will use \( \bar{x} \) to construct a feasible fractional solution \( x \) for the LP above. Note that \( \bar{x} \) need not satisfy the constraints imposed by \( V \) and the \( Y_j \)'s in the LP above.

Let \( \text{blk}(j) \) denote the block that contains the bin \( b_j \). We ensure the following constraint: if \( \bar{x}_{ij} = 1 \), then \( \sum_{i \in \text{blk}(\ell) = \text{blk}(j)} x_{i\ell} = 1 \). In other words, we fractionally assign each item to the same block that the optimal solution does. We treat the small and large bin blocks separately.

For a \( j \) where \( \text{blk}(j) \) is small we set \( x_{ij} = \bar{x}_{ij} \). If we had correctly guessed the largest profit items in small bin blocks, this assignment is consistent with \( V \) and \( Y_j \).

Consider a large bin block \( B_k \). By our assumption, we already have an integral assignment for the set of large items that \( \bar{x} \) assigns to \( B_k \). Let \( S_k \) be the small items that are assigned by \( \bar{x} \) to \( B_k \). We claim that \( S_k \) can be packed fractionally in \( B_k \) irrespective of the assignment of the large items. Clearly, there is enough fractional capacity. Since the sizes of the items do not change with the bins, any greedy fractional packing that does not waste capacity gives a feasible packing.

Let \( x_{ij} \) be a feasible fractional solution to the above formulation. Lenstra, Shmoys, and Tardos [21] and Shmoys and Tardos [28] show how a basic feasible solution to the linear program for GAP can be transformed into an integral solution that violates the capacities only slightly. We apply their transformation to \( x_{ij} \) and obtain a 0-1 solution \( \bar{x}_{ij} \) with the following properties.

1. If \( x_{ij} = 0 \), then \( \bar{x}_{ij} = 0 \), and if \( x_{ij} = 1 \), then \( \bar{x}_{ij} = 1 \).
2. For each bin \( b_j \), either \( \sum_{i} \bar{x}_{ij} \leq c(b_j) \) or there is an item \( k(j) \) such that \( \sum_{i \neq k(j)} \bar{x}_{ij} \leq c(b_j) \) and \( x_{ik(j)} < 1 \). We call this item \( k(j) \) the violating item for bin \( b_j \).

Thus we can find an integral solution where each bin’s capacity is exceeded by at most one item. Further the items assigned to the bins satisfy the constraints specified by \( V \); that is, \( \bar{x}_{ij} = 0 \) if \( (i,j) \notin V \). The integral solution to the LP also defines an allocation of items to each block. Let \( P_i \) be the total profit associated with all items assigned to bins in block \( B_i \). Then clearly \( \mathcal{O} = \sum_{i \geq 0} P_i \). However, we have an infeasible solution since bin capacities are violated in the rounded solution \( \bar{x}_{ij} \). We modify this solution to create a feasible solution such that in each block we obtain a profit of at least \( (1 - 3\epsilon)P_i \).

Large bin blocks. Let \( B_i \) be a large bin block, and without loss of generality assume that bin capacities in \( B_i \) are in the range \([1, 1 + \epsilon]\). By constraint 2 on the
assignment, the size of any violating item in $B_i$ is less than $\epsilon$ and there are at most $m_i$ of them. For all $\epsilon < 1/2$ we conclude that at most $2em_i$ extra bins of capacity 1 each are sufficient to pack all the violating items of $B_i$. Recall from Lemma 2.10 that we may have used $cm_i$ extra bins in packing the large items as well. Thus the total number of extra bins of capacity 1, denoted by $E_i'$, is at most $3em_i$. Thus all items assigned to bins in $B_i$ have a feasible integral assignment in the set $E_i' \cup B_i$. Now clearly the $m_i$ most profitable bins in the collection $E_i' \cup B_i$ must have a total associated profit of at least $P_i/(1 + 3\epsilon)$. Moreover, it is easy to verify that all the items in these $m_i$ bins can be packed in the bins of $B_i$ itself.

Small bin blocks. Consider now a small bin block $B_i$. By constraint 3 on the assignment, we know that the profit associated with the violating item in any bin $b_j$ of $B_i$ is at most $\frac{\epsilon}{(1 + \epsilon)}p(Y_j)$. Thus we can simply discard all the violating items assigned to bins in $B_i$, and we obtain a feasible solution of profit value at least $P_i/(1 + \epsilon)$.

This gives a feasible integral solution with total profit value at least $\sum_{i \geq 0} P_i/(1 + 3\epsilon)$. Putting together the guessing and packing steps we obtain our main result.

Theorem 2.12. There is a PTAS for the multiple knapsack problem.

3. Generalized assignment problem (GAP). We start by showing that even highly restricted cases of GAP are APX-hard. Then we sketch a 2-approximation algorithm for GAP that easily follows from the work of Shmoys and Tardos [28] on the Min GAP problem.

3.1. APX-hardness of restricted instances. We reduce the maximum 3-bounded 3-dimensional matching (3DM) problem [8, 16] (defined formally below) in an approximation-preserving manner to highly restricted instances of GAP.

Definition 3.1 (3-bounded 3DM (3DM-3)). We are given a set $T \subseteq X \times Y \times Z$, where $|X| = |Y| = |Z| = n$. A matching in $T$ is a subset $M \subseteq T$ such that no elements in $M$ agree in any coordinate. The goal is to find a matching in $T$ of largest cardinality. A 3-bounded instance is one in which the number of occurrences of any element of $X \cup Y \cup Z$ in $T$ is at most 3.

Kann [16] showed that 3DM-3 is APX-hard; that is, there exists an $\epsilon_0 > 0$ such that it is NP-hard to decide whether an instance has a matching of size $n$ or if every matching has size at most $(1 - \epsilon_0)n$. In what follows, we denote by $m$ the number of hyperedges in the set $T$.

Theorem 3.2. GAP is APX-hard even on instances of the following form for all positive $\delta$.

- $p(i, j) = 1$ for all items $i$ and bins $j$.
- $s(i, j) = 1$ or $s(i, j) = 1 + \delta$ for all items $i$ and bins $j$.
- $c(j) = 3$ for all bins $j$.

Proof. Given an instance $I$ of 3DM-3, we create an instance $I' = (B, S)$ of GAP as follows. In $I'$ we have $m$ bins $b_1, \ldots, b_m$ of capacity 3 each, one for each of the edges $e_1, \ldots, e_m$ in $T$. For each element $i$ of $X$ we have an item $x_i$ in $I'$ and similarly $y_j$ for $j \in Y$ and $z_k$ for $k \in Z$. We also have an additional $2(m - n)$ items in $I'$, $u_1, \ldots, u_{2(m - n)}$. We set all profits to be 1. It remains to set up the sizes. For each item $u_k$ and bin $b_\ell$ we set $s(u_k, b_\ell) = (1 + \delta)$. For an item $x_i$ and bin $b_\ell$ we set $s(x_i, b_\ell) = 1$ if $i \in e_\ell$ and $(1 + \delta)$ otherwise. The sizes of items $y_j$ and $z_k$ are set similarly.

We claim that 3 items can fit in a bin $b_\ell$ if and only if they are the elements of the edge $e_\ell$. Thus bins with 3 items correspond to a matching in $T$. It then follows that if $I$ has a matching of size $n$, then $I'$ has a solution of value $3n + 2(m - n)$. Otherwise,
every solution to \( I' \) has value at most \( 3n - \epsilon_0 \cdot n + 2(m - n) \). The APX-hardness now follows from the fact that \( m = O(n) \) for bounded instances. \( \square \)

A similar result can be stated if only profits are allowed to vary.

**Theorem 3.3.** GAP is APX-hard even on instances of the following form:

- each item takes only two distinct profit values,
- each item has an identical size across all bins and there are only two distinct item sizes, and
- all bin capacities are identical.

**Proof.** The reduction is once again from 3DM-3. Given an instance \( I \) of 3DM-3, we create an instance \( I' = (\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{S}) \) of GAP as follows. In \( I' \) we have \( m \) bins \( b_1, \ldots, b_m \) of capacity 3 each, one for each of the edges \( e_1, \ldots, e_m \) in \( T \). For each element \( i \) of \( X \) we have an item \( x_i \) in \( I' \) and similarly \( y_j \) for \( j \in Y \) and \( z_k \) for \( k \in Z \). We also have an additional \( m - n \) items \( u_1, \ldots, u_{m-n} \) where \( s(u_h, b_l) = 3 \) and \( p(u_h, b_l) = 4 \) for any additional item \( u_h \) and a bin \( b_l \). Fix a positive constant \( \delta < 1/3 \). As above, the APX-hardness now follows from the fact that \( m = O(n) \).

Notice that Theorem 3.3 is not a symmetric analogue of Theorem 3.2. In particular, we use items of two different sizes in Theorem 3.3. This is necessary as the special case of GAP where all item sizes are identical across the bins (but the profits can vary from bin to bin) is equivalent to minimum cost bipartite matching.

**Proposition 3.4.** There is a polynomial time algorithm to solve GAP instances where all items have identical sizes across the bins.

### 3.2. A 2-approximation for GAP

Shmoys and Tardos [28] give a \((1, 2)\) bicriteria approximation for Min GAP. A paraphrased statement of their precise result is as follows.

**Theorem 3.5** (Shmoys and Tardos [28]). Given a feasible instance for the cost assignment problem, there is a polynomial time algorithm that produces an integral assignment such that

- cost of solution is no more than OPT,
- each item \( i \) assigned to a bin \( j \) satisfies \( s(i, j) \leq c(j) \), and
- if a bin's capacity is violated, then there exists a single item that is assigned to the bin whose removal ensures feasibility.

We now indicate how the above theorem implies a 2-approximation for GAP. The idea is to simply convert the maximization problem to a minimization problem by turning profits into costs by setting \( w(i, j) = L - p(i, j) \), where \( L > \max_{i,j} p(i, j) \) is a large enough number to make all costs positive. To create a feasible instance we have an additional bin \( b_{m+1} \) of capacity 0 and for all items \( i \) we set \( s(i, m+1) = 0 \) and \( w(i, m+1) = L \) (in other words \( p(i, m+1) = 0 \)). We then use the algorithm for cost assignment and obtain a solution with the guarantees provided in Theorem 3.5. It is easily seen that the profit obtained by the assignment is at least the optimal profit. Now we show how to obtain a feasible solution of at least half the profit. Let \( j \) be any bin whose capacity is violated by the assignment, and let \( i_j \) be the item guaranteed in Theorem 3.5. If \( p(i_j, j) \) is at least half the profit of bin \( j \), then we retain \( i_j \) and leave out the rest of the items in \( j \). In the other case we leave out \( i_j \). This results in a feasible solution of at least half the profit given by the LP solution. We get the following result.
Proposition 3.6. There is a 2-approximation for GAP.

The algorithm in [28] is based on rounding an LP relaxation. For MKP an optimal solution to the linear program can be easily constructed in \(O(n \log n)\) time by first sorting items by their profit to size ratio and then greedily filling them in the bins. Rounding takes \(O(n^2 \log n)\) time. It is an easy observation that the integrality gap of the natural LP relaxation for GAP is 2 even on instances of MKP with identical bin capacities.

4. A greedy algorithm. We now analyze a natural greedy strategy: pack bins one at a time by applying the FPTAS for the single knapsack problem on the remaining items. Greedy(\(\epsilon\)) refers to this algorithm with \(\epsilon\) parameterizing the error tolerance used in the knapsack FPTAS.

Claim 4.1. For instances of MKP with bins of identical capacity, the algorithm Greedy(\(\epsilon\)) gives a \((\frac{\epsilon - 1}{\epsilon e} - O(\epsilon))\)-approximation.

Proof. Let \(X\) be the set of items packed by some optimal solution. Let \(X_j\) denote the set of items in \(X\) that remain after Greedy packs the first \((j - 1)\) bins, and let \(Y_j\) be the items packed by Greedy in the \(j\)th bin. Since the bin capacities are identical, by a simple averaging argument it is easy to see that \(p(Y_j) \geq (1 - \epsilon)p(X_j)/m\). Simple algebra gives the result. \(\square\)

Claim 4.2. For MKP, the algorithm Greedy(\(\epsilon\)) gives a \((2 + \epsilon)\)-approximation.

Proof. Let \(X_j\) denote the set of items that some fixed optimal solution assigns to the \(j\)th bin and which do not appear anywhere in Greedy’s solution. Also, let \(Y_j\) denote the items that Greedy packs in the \(j\)th bin. Then we claim that \(p(Y_j) \geq (1 - \epsilon)p(X_j)\) since \(X_j\) was available to be packed when Greedy processed bin \(j\). This follows from the greedy packing. Thus we obtain \(\sum_{j=1}^{m} p(Y_j) \geq (1 - \epsilon) \sum_{j=1}^{m} p(X_j)\). If \(\sum_{j=1}^{m} p(X_j) = \text{OPT}/2\) we are done. Otherwise by definition of the \(X_j\)’s, Greedy must have packed the other half of the profit. This implies the claimed \((2 + \epsilon)\)-approximation. \(\square\)

Claim 4.2 is valid even if the item sizes (but not profits) are a function of the bins, an important special case of GAP that is already APX-hard. The running time of Greedy(\(\epsilon\)) is \(O(mn \log 1/e + m/\epsilon^3)\) using the algorithm of Lawler [19] for the knapsack problem. Claim 4.2 has been independently observed in [2, 15].

We show an instance on which Greedy’s performance is no better than 2. There are two items with sizes 1 and \(\alpha\) < 1 and each has a profit of 1. There are two bins with capacities 1 and \(\alpha\) each. Greedy packs the smaller item in the big bin and obtains a profit of 1 while \(\text{OPT} = 2\). This also shows that ordering bins in nonincreasing capacities does not help improve the performance of Greedy.

5. Conclusions. An interesting aspect of our guessing strategy is that it is completely independent of the number of bins and their capacities. This might prove to be useful in other variants of the knapsack problem. One application is in obtaining a PTAS for the stochastic knapsack problem with Bernoulli variables [9].

The Min GAP problem has a \((1, 2)\) bicriteria approximation, and it is NP-hard to obtain a \((1, 3/2 - \epsilon)\)-approximation. In contrast, GAP has a 2-approximation, but the known hardness of approximation is \((1 + \epsilon_0)\) for a very small but fixed \(\epsilon_0\). Closing this gap is an interesting open problem. An \(\epsilon/(\epsilon - 1) + \epsilon \simeq 1.582 + \epsilon\) approximation for GAP has been obtained recently using an LP formulation [5]. Also in recent work, it has been observed that GAP is a special case of constrained submodular set function maximization, and using the results in [6], a greedy algorithm yields a \((2 + \epsilon)\)-approximation algorithm.
Another interesting problem is to obtain a PTAS for MKP with an improved running time. Though an FPTAS is ruled out even for the case of two identical bins, a PTAS with a running time of the form $f(1/\epsilon)\text{poly}(n)$ might be achievable. Such an algorithm is not known even for instances in which all bins have the same capacity.

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