Improved Algorithms for the Capacitated Team Orienteering Problem

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Abstract

We study the Capacitated Team Orienteering Problem, where a fleet of vehicles with capacities have to meet customers with known demands and prizes for a single commodity. The objective is to maximize the total prize and to assign a sequence of customers to each vehicle while keeping the total distance traveled within a given budget and such that the total demand served by each vehicle does not exceed its capacity. The problem has been widely studied both from a theoretical and a practical point of view. The contribution of this paper is twofold: (1) We advance the theoretical knowledge on the problem by providing new approximation algorithms that achieve, under some natural assumption, improved approximation ratios compared to the current best algorithms; (2) We propose four efficient heuristics that outperform the current state-of-the-art practical methods in the sense that they compute solutions that collect nearly the same prize in a significantly smaller running time. We also experimentally test the scalability of the new heuristics, showing that their running time increases approximately linearly with the size of the input, allowing us to process large graphs which were not possible to analyze before.

2012 ACM Subject Classification Theory of computation → Graph algorithms analysis; Theory of computation \rightarrow Approximation algorithms analysis; Theory of computation \rightarrow Design and analysis of algorithms

Keywords and phrases Vehicle Routing, Approximation algorithms, Algorithm Engineering

Digital Object Identifier [10.4230/OASIcs.ATMOS.2024.7](https://doi.org/10.4230/OASIcs.ATMOS.2024.7)

Funding This work was partially supported by: Project EMERGE: innovation agreement between Ministry of Economical Development, Abruzzo Region, Radiolabs, Elital, Leonardo, Telespazio, University of L'Aquila and Centre of EXcellence EX-Emerge, funded by Italian Government under CIPE n. 70/2017; Group for Scientific Computation of Istituto Nazionale di Alta Matematica (GNCS-INdAM); the European Union - NextGenerationEU under the Italian Ministry of University and Research National Innovation Ecosystem grant ECS00000041 - VITALITY - CUP: D13C21000430001; PNRR MUR project GAMING "Graph Algorithms and MinINg for Green agents" (PE0000013, CUP D13C24000430001); the European Union under the Italian National Recovery and Resilience Plan (NRRP) of NextGenerationEU, partnership on "Telecommunications of the Future" (PE00000001 program RESTART), project MoVeOver/SCHEDULE ("Smart interseCtions witH connEcteD and aUtonomous vehicLEs", CUP J33C22002880001); ARS01_00540 - RASTA project, funded by the Italian Ministry of Research PNR 2015–2020. The first author acknowledges the support of the MUR (Italy) Department of Excellence 2023–2027.

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Editors: Paul C. Bouman and Spyros C. Kontogiannis; Article No. 7; pp. 7:1–7:17 [OpenAccess Series in Informatics](https://www.dagstuhl.de/oasics/)

OASICS [Schloss Dagstuhl – Leibniz-Zentrum für Informatik, Dagstuhl Publishing, Germany](https://www.dagstuhl.de)

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1 Introduction

The *Capacitated Orienteering Problem* (c-op) is an NP-hard combinatorial optimization problem belonging to the wide class of Vehicle Routing Problems (VRPs), which has received much attention in the literature on algorithms and operation research [\[2,](#page-14-0)[6,](#page-15-0)[8,](#page-15-1)[13,](#page-15-2)[16–](#page-15-3)[19,](#page-16-0)[22,](#page-16-1)[25](#page-16-2)[,26\]](#page-16-3). In c-op, we are given a complete graph, with edge lengths, where each node represents a customer that is assigned a profit/prize and a demand/size. Given two nodes *s* and *t* the goal is to find a path from *s* to *t* that maximizes the total prize, and respects both a capacity constraint on the total size of the nodes on the *s*-*t* path and a budget constraint on the total length of the *s*-*t* path. c-op is a natural generalization of two very well-known problems, namely the *Knapsack Problem* [\[27\]](#page-16-4), which is a special case of c-op where the length of all edges is zero, and the *Orienteering Problem* (op) [\[9,](#page-15-4) [10\]](#page-15-5), which is a variant of c-op where the size of all nodes is zero. A generalization of c-op is the case in which the goal is to find *s*-*t* paths for a fleet of *K* homogeneous, capacitated vehicles that can be used to collect prizes. This problem is known as the *Capacitated Team Orienteering Problem* (C-TOP) and has been defined by Archetti et al. [\[2\]](#page-14-0), originally in the flavor when $s = t$, i.e. when the aim is finding tours centered at a depot node, rather than paths.

From a theoretical viewpoint, the best known approximation algorithms for c-op and c-top, that run in polynomial time, are due to Bock and Sanità, who achieved approximation factors of $(3 + \varepsilon)$, for any $\varepsilon > 0$, and 3.53, respectively [\[8\]](#page-15-1). From a practical perspective, for both c-op and c-top, several heuristics without guarantees on the achieved quality of solution and exact algorithms with exponentially large worst-case running times have been introduced and experimentally evaluated with the aim of characterizing their practical effectiveness and applicability, i.e. evaluating the quality of the computed solutions and the running time necessary to achieve such solutions (see $[1, 2, 6, 16, 17, 19, 22, 25, 26]$ $[1, 2, 6, 16, 17, 19, 22, 25, 26]$ $[1, 2, 6, 16, 17, 19, 22, 25, 26]$ $[1, 2, 6, 16, 17, 19, 22, 25, 26]$ $[1, 2, 6, 16, 17, 19, 22, 25, 26]$ $[1, 2, 6, 16, 17, 19, 22, 25, 26]$ $[1, 2, 6, 16, 17, 19, 22, 25, 26]$ $[1, 2, 6, 16, 17, 19, 22, 25, 26]$ $[1, 2, 6, 16, 17, 19, 22, 25, 26]$). In all benchmark instances for the C-OP and C-TOP problems considered in such works, the prize of each node is fixed to be at least equal to half of its size. Specifically, the prize of each node *v* with size $r(v)$ is assigned to be equal to $\pi(v) = (h + 0.5)r(v)$, where *h* is a random number uniformly generated within interval [0*,* 1] [\[2,](#page-14-0) [26\]](#page-16-3). This implies that, for two nodes *u* and *v* with $r(u) \geq r(v)$, we have $\pi(u) \geq \pi(v)/3$. Motivated by this observation, we consider problems c-op and c-top under the natural assumption that choosing subsets of nodes with larger sizes results in achieving (almost) more prizes. In more detail, we assume that any subset *S* of nodes collects an overall prize that is at least equal to a multiplicative factor $\lambda \in (0,1]$ times the prize collected by any subset of nodes whose sum of sizes is lower than the sum of the sizes of nodes in *S* (see Assumption [2.1](#page-3-0) for a formal definition).

Our Contribution. The contribution of this paper is both theoretical and experimental. From the theoretical viewpoint, we improve over the state-of-the art by providing approximation algorithms, for c-op and c-top, that guarantees an approximation ratio which, under particular assumptions, is smaller than the best approximation ratio known so far. In particular, we propose a $\max{\{\alpha, \frac{2}{\lambda}\}}$ -approximation algorithm for C-OP and a $(1 - e^{-\frac{1}{\beta}})^{-1}$ approximation algorithm for C-TOP, where α is the approximation factor of an algorithm for $\text{OP}, \beta = \max\{\alpha, \frac{2}{\lambda}\}\$, and λ is the parameter of Assumption [2.1.](#page-3-0) Observe that, the best known approximation algorithm for op is that given by Chekuri et al. [\[9\]](#page-15-4), which guarantees an approximation factor of $2 + \varepsilon$, for any $\varepsilon > 0$. When $\lambda \in \left[\frac{2}{3}, 1\right]$, our algorithms for C-OP and c-top achieve approximation factors in the intervals $[2 + \varepsilon, 3]$ and $[2.55, 3.53)$, respectively, for any $\varepsilon > 0$. These improve over the long-standing results by Bock and Sanità [\[8\]](#page-15-1) who achieved factors $3 + \varepsilon$ and 3.53 for c-op and c-rop, respectively, for any $\varepsilon > 0$.

Since our algorithms with theoretical guarantees have high computational complexity, we propose four efficient heuristic algorithms that do not give any proven guarantee on the quality of the computed solution but achieve good performance in practice. We experimentally evaluate our heuristics in benchmark instances from the literature and show that two of them produce solutions that are comparable to the best solutions known from the literature in terms of collected prize, but outperform all the state-of-the art algorithms in terms of running time. In particular, our heuristics require less than a second on the small instances (at most 100 nodes) and two orders of magnitude less time than other algorithms on large instances (at most 577 nodes), while achieving the same prize in most cases, a slightly worse prize in a few cases, and even a better prize in a few cases. To assess how the time performance of our heuristics scales with the input size, we also generated new instances with up to 15 500 nodes, starting from real-world road networks. Our experiments in these instances suggest that the running time of two of our algorithms tends to grow approximately linearly with the input size and highlight that, on the largest instance, such two algorithms take below one minute on average, whereas previous algorithms are not able to handle such large input graphs.

Related Work. Blum et al. [\[7\]](#page-15-7) gave the first constant factor approximation algorithm for op with approximation ratio of 4 when $s = t$ and showed that: (i) no polynomial-time approximation algorithm can achieve a factor better than $\frac{1481}{1480}$; (ii) OP is APX-hard. Bansal et al. [\[5\]](#page-15-8) improved the bound of [\[7\]](#page-15-7) by designing a 3-approximation algorithm for the case where $s = t$ while Chekuri et al. [\[9\]](#page-15-4) proposed a $(2 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm that works for any positive constant *ε*. Friggstad and Swamy [\[15\]](#page-15-9) designed, via LP-rounding, a 3-approximation algorithm when $s = t$. Paul et al. [\[23\]](#page-16-5), gave a 2-approximation algorithms for α P when s and *t* are not given in advance. Finally, Chen and Har-Peled [\[10\]](#page-15-5) gave a PTAS for the case where the points lie in a constant-dimensional Euclidean metric space.

A natural generalization of OP is the Team Orienteering Problem (TOP) where we are asked to find $K \geq 1$ paths from s to t that maximize the total prize, accumulated by all the K paths, and such that each path respects the budget *B*. Blum et al. [\[7\]](#page-15-7) studied top under the name of *Multi-Path Orienteering problem* (m-op) and showed that: (i) any *α* approximation for OP, when $s = t$, can be translated into a $1/(1 - e^{-\alpha})$ approximation for M-OP; (ii) their algorithm for M-OP has a factor of $\alpha + 1$ when the starting point of each vehicle is arbitrary. Friggstad et al. [\[14\]](#page-15-10) studied a variant of m-op in the case where each vehicle needs to find a tour and each node has a cost. The goal is to find *K* tours so that the minimum total prize among all tours is maximized, i.e. to find P' : $\pi(P') = \max \min_P \pi(P)$. They called this problem *max-min* orienteering and showed that any *α*-approximation algorithm for op results in an $(\alpha + 2)$ -approximation for *max-min* orienteering. Xu et al. [\[28\]](#page-16-6) studied a variant of top in which the prize function is a special submodular function and showed the existence of a $1/(1 - e^{-\alpha})$ -approximation algorithm for such variant, where α is an approximation factor to OP. Finally, Xu et al. [\[29\]](#page-16-7) focused on TOP when $s = t$, they call this variant the *monitoring reward maximization* problem and presented a 3-approximation algorithm. Clearly, c-op is a generalization of op in which we also consider node demands $r: V \to \mathbb{N}$ and a capacity bound *C*. Gupta et al. [\[18\]](#page-15-11) showed that, given an α -approximation algorithm for \overline{OP} , it is possible to derive a 2 α -approximation algorithm for C- \overline{OP} . By using the $(2 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for OP [\[9\]](#page-15-4), this leads to a $(4 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation for C-OP. Bock and Sanità [\[8\]](#page-15-1) improved this result by giving a $(1 + \alpha + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for c-op and by presenting a PTAS on trees and a PTAS on Euclidean metrics. Again, using the $(2 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for OP, results in a $(3 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation for C-OP. For c-top, Bock and Sanità [\[8\]](#page-15-1) designed a $(1 - e^{\frac{1}{\beta}})$ -approximation algorithm, where β is an approximation factor for c-op. Using $\beta = 3 + \varepsilon$ this leads to a 3.53-approximation algorithm for C-TOP.

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2 Notation and Definitions

We are given an undirected complete graph $G = (V, E)$ with $n = |V|$ vertices and $m = |E|$ edges, respectively. Let $l : E \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ be a metric *length* function on edges, let $\pi : V \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ be a *prize* function on the nodes, let $r: V \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ be a *size* function on the nodes, and let $g: V \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ be a *service time* function on the nodes. For any subgraph *G*^{\prime} of *G*, we denote by $V(G')$ and $E(G')$ the set of nodes and edges in G' , respectively. Given a subset $S \subseteq V$, *G*[*S*] denotes the subgraph of *G* induced by *S*, i.e., $E(G[S]) = \{ \{u, v\} \in E \mid u, v \in S \}.$

For an integer *k*, let $[k] := \{1, 2, \ldots, k\}$. A *path* P_{uv} from node *u* to node *v* is a graph made of a sequence of distinct nodes $\{v_1 = u, \ldots, v_k = v\}$ and a sequence of edges $\{v_i, v_{i+1}\},\$ where $i \in [k-1]$. The cost of a path P_{uv} in *G* is the sum of the lengths of its edges and service times of its nodes, i.e., $\sum_{e \in E(P_{uv})} l(e) + \sum_{v \in V(P_{uv})} g(v)$. Given a path $P = (s, v_2, v_3, \ldots, t)$ and a subset $S = \{v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}, \ldots, v_{i_k}\}\$ of $k \ge 1$ nodes in $V(P) \setminus \{s, t\}$ with $i_j < i_{j+1}$ for $j \in [k-1]$, we call $P[S]$ the *subpath of* P *induced by* S which is the path made of nodes $\{s, t\} \cup S$ and $\text{edges } \{\{s, v_{i_1}\}, \{v_{i_k}, t\}\} \cup \{\{v_{i_j}, v_{i_{j+1}}\} : j \in [k-1]\}.$

In the Capacitated Orienteering Problem (c-op), we are given two distinguished nodes $s, t \in V$, a cost budget $B \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ and a capacity bound $C \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ on the sizes, and the goal is to find a path P_{st} from *s* to *t* in *G* that maximizes the prize $\pi(P_{st}) = \sum_{v \in V(P_{st})} \pi(v)$ and that satisfies both $l(P_{st}) + g(P_{st}) = \sum_{e \in E(P_{st})} l(e) + \sum_{v \in V(P_{st})} g(v) \leq B$ and $r(P_{st}) =$ $\sum_{v \in V(P_{st})} r(v) \leq C$. W.l.o.g. we assume that $r(v) \leq C$, for any $v \in V$, and that $r(s) =$ $r(t) = 0$. The Capacitated Team Orienteering Problem (C-TOP) is a generalization of C-OP in which we are asked to find $K \geq 1$ vertex-disjoint paths that maximize the total collected prize and each path respects both the capacity and the budget constraints. Formally, in c-top, the goal is to find *K* paths $P_{st}^1, \ldots, P_{st}^K$ from *s* to *t* that maximize $\sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{v \in P_{st}^k} \pi(v)$, and such that $l(P_{st}^k) + g(P_{st}^k) = \sum_{e \in E(P_{st}^k)} l(e) + \sum_{v \in V(P_{st}^k)} g(v) \leq B$ and $r(P_{st}^k) = \sum_{v \in V(P_{st}^k)} r(v) \leq C$ for any $k \in [K]$.

In the remainder of the paper, we assume w.l.o.g. that the service times of *s* and *t* are equal to 0, that is $g(s) = g(t) = 0$. This implies that we can ignore the cost of service time by moving it to the edge length function. More formally, we redefine the length and service time functions as follows: the length is $l'(e) = l(e) + \frac{g(v) + g(u)}{2}$, for each edge $e = (u, v) \in E$, while the service time is $g'(v) = 0$ for each node $v \in V$. The cost of any path P_{st} , with the new functions, is therefore equal to $\sum_{e \in E(P_{st})} l'(e) = \sum_{e=(u,v) \in E(P_{st})} \left(l(e) + \frac{g(v)+g(u)}{2} \right) =$ $\sum_{e \in E(P_{st})} l(e) + \sum_{v \in V(P_{st})} g(v)$. This implies that under this transformation: (1) the cost of any path is equal to the length of the path, and (2) clearly, the triangle inequality property is preserved. Thanks to this transformation, for the sake of simplicity and w.l.o.g., from now on we assume that any graph with node service times is converted to an equivalent graph with zero node service times. For the sake of readability, the obtained length *l* ′ will be denoted by *l*.

Given a subset of nodes $V' \subseteq V$, let $r(V') = \sum_{v \in V'} r(v)$ and $\pi(V') = \sum_{v \in V'} \pi(v)$. In all the benchmark instances that have been considered in the literature on c-op, we observe that node size is positively correlated to node prize. In fact, in such real-world inspired instances, the prize of a node *v* is equal to $\pi(v) = (0.5 + h)r(v)$, where *h* is a random value in [0, 1] (see [\[2,](#page-14-0) [25\]](#page-16-2)). This implies that, for any two subsets of nodes $V_1, V_2 \subseteq V$ with $r(V_1) \ge r(V_2)$, we have $\pi(V_1) \ge \frac{1}{3}\pi(V_2)$, since $\pi(V_1) \ge \frac{1}{2}r(V_1)$ and $\pi(V_2) \le \frac{3}{2}r(V_2) \le \frac{3}{2}r(V_1)$. Indeed, in many practical applications we have that the prize of a subset of nodes increases as its size increases, that is for two subsets of nodes $V_1, V_2 \subseteq V$ with $r(V_1) \geq r(V_2)$, we have $\pi(V_1) \geq \lambda \pi(V_2)$, for some $\lambda \in (0,1]$. Therefore, in this paper we consider C-OP and C-TOP under the following natural assumption.

Input: $I = \langle G = (V, E), s, t, \pi, l, B, r, C \rangle$. **Output:** An $(s - t)$ path P_{st} s.t. $l(P_{st}) \leq B$ and $r(P_{st}) \leq C$. Let $I' = \langle G = (V, E), s, t, \pi, l, B \rangle$ be an instance of OP; Apply an A_{OP} to I' ; let P_{α} be the returned solution; **if** $r(P_\alpha) \leq C$ **then** $P_{st} \leftarrow P_\alpha$; **else** // $r(P_{\alpha}) > C$ Choose a subset of nodes $S \subseteq V(P_\alpha) \setminus \{s, t\}$ with $r(S) \geq C$ such that, for some $v \in S$, we have $r(S \setminus \{v\}) \leq C$; **if** $r(S) = C$ **then** $P_{st} \leftarrow P_{\alpha}[S];$ **else** // $r(S) > C$ \vert Let *v* be a node in *S* such that $r(S \setminus \{v\}) \leq C$; Partition *S* into two subsets $S_1 = S \setminus \{v\}$ and $S_2 = \{v\};$ Let $S' = \arg \max_{A \in \{S_1, S_2\}} \pi(A);$ **b** $P_{st} \leftarrow P_{\alpha}[S'];$ **return** P_{st} ;

► Assumption 2.1. Let $\lambda \in (0,1]$ be a parameter to be fixed. For any two subsets of nodes $V_1, V_2 \subset V$ *with* $r(V_1) > r(V_2)$ *, we have* $\pi(V_1) > \lambda \pi(V_2)$ *.*

Note that, Assumption [2.1](#page-3-0) implies that selecting subsets of nodes with larger sizes results in collecting more prize, besides a multiplicative factor λ .

3 Approximation Algorithms with Theoretical Guarantees

In this section, we introduce some polynomial time algorithms for c-op and c-top that guarantee bounded approximation ratios under Assumption [2.1.](#page-3-0) We first focus on c-op under that assumption and introduce a polynomial time $\max\{\alpha, \frac{2}{\lambda}\}$ -approximation algorithm where α is the approximation ratio guaranteed by an algorithm A_{op} for α p that is used as a subroutine while $\lambda \in (0,1]$ is the parameter of Assumption [2.1.](#page-3-0) Then, we show that this result implies, under some particular conditions, an improvement over the best known approximation ratio for c-op. Finally, we show how to use this algorithm to approximate c-top.

Our main algorithm, whose pseudo-code is summarized in Algorithm [1,](#page-4-0) takes as input an instance $I = \langle G = (V, E), s, t, \pi, l, B, r, C \rangle$ of C-OP. Starting from *I*, Algorithm [1](#page-4-0) defines an OP instance *I'* with $I' = \langle G = (V, E), s, t, \pi, l, B \rangle$ and executes algorithm A_{OP} onto it. Let P_{α} be the solution returned by A_{OP} when applied to *I'*. An optimal solution $OPT_{I'}$ to instance *I*['] of op has value at least $\pi(OPT_I) \geq \pi(OPT_I)$, where OPT_I is an optimal solution to the instance *I* of c-op. It follows that, if $r(P_\alpha) \leq C$, then P_α is an α -approximation also for *I*. Therefore, if $r(P_\alpha) \leq C$, Algorithm [1](#page-4-0) returns P_α as a solution. If $r(P_\alpha) > C$, Algorithm 1 chooses a subset of nodes $S \subseteq V(P_\alpha) \setminus \{s, t\}$ such that $r(S) \geq C$ and, for some $v \in S$, we have $r(S \setminus \{v\}) \leq C$. Now if $r(S) = C$, then Algorithm [1](#page-4-0) returns $P_{\alpha}[S]$, the subpath of P_α induced by *S*, as a solution. Otherwise, it partitions *S* into two subsets of nodes $S_1 = S \setminus \{v\}$ and $S_2 = \{v\}$, where *v* is a node in *S* such that $r(S_1) \leq C$. Note that $r(v) \leq C$ and hence both S_1 and S_2 are feasible solutions for *I*. Finally, Algorithm [1](#page-4-0) selects the set with the maximum prize between S_1 and S_2 , denoted by $S' = \arg \max_{A \in \{S_1, S_2\}} \pi(A)$, and returns $P_\alpha[S']$ as a solution. In the next theorem, we show that Algorithm [1](#page-4-0) guarantees a $\max{\{\alpha, \frac{2}{\lambda}\}}$ -approximation algorithm for C-OP under Assumption [2.1.](#page-3-0)

• Theorem [1](#page-4-0). *Algorithm 1 is a polynomial time* $\max\{\alpha, \frac{2}{\lambda}\}\text{-approximation algorithm for}$ c-op *under Assumption* [2.1,](#page-3-0) where α denotes the approximation ratio for α and $\lambda \in (0,1]$.

Proof. If $r(P_\alpha) \leq C$, then Algorithm [1](#page-4-0) returns solution P_α . By the feasibility of P_α for instance *I'*, we have that $l(P_\alpha) \leq B$ and hence P_α is feasible for instance *I* of C-OP. Moreover, $\pi(P_\alpha) \geq \frac{1}{\alpha} \pi(OPT_{I'}) \geq \frac{1}{\alpha} \pi(OPT_I)$, and hence P_α provides an *α*-approximation for *I*. If $r(P_{\alpha}) > C$, then Algorithm [1](#page-4-0) selects a set $S \subseteq V(P_{\alpha}) \setminus \{s, t\}$ with $r(S) \geq C$ such that there exists a node $v \in S$ for which $r(S \setminus \{v\}) \leq C$. We distinguish between two cases.

- **1.** $r(S) = C$. In this case, Algorithm [1](#page-4-0) returns $P_{\alpha}[S]$ as a solution. Since $l(P_{\alpha}) \leq B$, then, by triangle inequality, we have $l(P_\alpha[S]) \leq B$. Moreover, $r(P_\alpha[S]) = r(S) = C$, as $r(s) = r(t) = 0$, and hence $P_{\alpha}[S]$ is feasible for *I*. By Assumption [2.1,](#page-3-0) it follows that $\pi(S) \geq \lambda \pi(OPT_I)$, since $r(S) = C$ and $r(OPT_I) \leq C$. Hence, $P_\alpha[S]$ is a $\frac{1}{\lambda}$ -approximation for *I*.
- **2.** $r(S) > C$. In this case, Algorithm [1](#page-4-0) partitions *S* into two subsets $S_1 = S \setminus \{v\}$ and $S_2 = \{v\}$, with $r(S_1) \leq C$, selects the set with the maximum prize between S_1 and S_2 , say *S*^{\prime}, and returns $P_{\alpha}[S']$ as solution. Since $l(P_{\alpha}) \leq B$, then, by triangle inequality, it follows that $l(P_\alpha[S']) \leq B$. Moreover, both $r(S_1)$ and $r(S_2)$ are upper bounded by *C* and hence $P_\alpha[S']$ is feasible for *I*. Regarding the approximation factor of $P_\alpha[S']$, we have $\pi(S') \geq \frac{1}{2}\pi(S) \geq \frac{\lambda}{2}\pi(OPT_I)$, where the first inequality holds as *S'* is the set with the maximum prize between two sets $S_1, S_2 \subseteq S$ with $S_1 \cup S_2 = S$ and $S_1 \cap S_2 = \emptyset$, and the second inequality follows by Assumption [2.1,](#page-3-0) as $r(S) \geq C$ and $r(OPT_I) \leq C$. Therefore, $P_{\alpha}[S']$ is a $\frac{2}{\lambda}$ -approximation for *I*.

Theorem [1,](#page-4-1) along with the $(2 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for OP given by Chekuri et al. [\[9\]](#page-15-4) implies the following result.

• Corollary 2. For any fixed $\varepsilon > 0$, Algorithm [1](#page-4-0) is a max $\{2 + \varepsilon, \frac{2}{\lambda}\}\$ -approximation algorithm *for* C-OP, under Assumption [2.1](#page-3-0) where $\lambda \in (0, 1]$.

When $\lambda \geq \frac{2}{3}$ in Assumption [2.1,](#page-3-0) then $\frac{2}{\lambda} \leq 3$ and hence the above corollary implies that the approximation factor of Algorithm [1](#page-4-0) is in the interval $[2 + \varepsilon, 3]$, for any $\varepsilon \in (0, 1]$. This is an improvement on the approximation of C-OP under Assumption [2.1](#page-3-0) over the factor $3 + \varepsilon$ by Bock and Sanità [\[8\]](#page-15-1).

▶ **Corollary 3.** *For any fixed ε* ∈ (0*,* 1]*, Algorithm [1](#page-4-0) is a β-approximation algorithm with* $\beta \in [2 + \varepsilon, 3]$ *for c*-*op, under Assumption* [2.1](#page-3-0) *where* $\lambda \in [\frac{2}{3}, 1]$ *.*

Another interesting implication of Theorem [1](#page-4-1) is that an *α*-approximation algorithm for op results in an *α*-approximation for c-op, under Assumption [2.1,](#page-3-0) when $\lambda \geq \frac{2}{\alpha}$. In particular, under this hypothesis, Algorithm [1](#page-4-0) is a $(2 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for c-op, by using the result by Chekuri et al. [\[9\]](#page-15-4).

 \triangleright **Corollary 4.** For any fixed $\varepsilon > 0$, Algorithm [1](#page-4-0) is a $(2 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for *c*-op, under Assumption [1](#page-4-0) where $\lambda \geq \frac{2}{2+\varepsilon}$.

A *β*-approximation algorithm alg for c-op can be used as a black-box, to obtain a (1 − $e^{-\frac{1}{\beta}}$)⁻¹-approximation algorithm for c-top [\[8\]](#page-15-1), using the following greedy strategy (named GENSTRA):

1. For $i = 1$ to K do:

a. Run the *β*-approximation algorithm for C-OP to obtain a path P_i on $G = (V, E)$.

- **b.** Remove all covered nodes $V(P_i)$ from G .
- **2.** Return P_1, \ldots, P_K .

Using this result, we can generalize our result for C-OP to C-TOP under Assumption [2.1.](#page-3-0)

▶ **Theorem 5.** *Under Assumption [2.1,](#page-3-0) there exists a polynomial time* $(1-e^{-\frac{1}{\beta}})^{-1}$ -*approximation algorithm for c*-*rop*, where $\beta = \max\{2 + \varepsilon, \frac{2}{\lambda}\}\$ *for any fixed* $\varepsilon > 0$ *.*

Proof. The theorem follows from Theorem [1](#page-4-1) and the fact that any *β*-approximation algorithm for C-OP can be used as a subroutine in GENSTRA to achieve a $(1 - e^{-\frac{1}{\beta}})^{-1}$ -approximation factor for C -TOP $[8]$.

Theorem [5](#page-5-0) implies that when $\lambda \geq \frac{2}{3}$ in Assumption [2.1,](#page-3-0) one can achieve a *ρ*-approximation algorithm for C-TOP, where $\rho \in [(1 - e^{-\frac{1}{2+\varepsilon}})^{-1}, (1 - e^{-\frac{1}{3}})^{-1}]$, for any $\varepsilon \in (0,1)$, where $(1 - e^{-\frac{1}{2}})^{-1} > 2.55$ and $(1 - e^{-\frac{1}{3}})^{-1} < 3.53$. This is an improvement for C-TOP under Assumption [2.1](#page-3-0) over the factor $(1 - e^{-\frac{1}{3+\epsilon}})^{-1}$, for $\varepsilon > 0$, by Bock and Sanità [\[8\]](#page-15-1).

▶ **Corollary 6.** *For any fixed* ε \in $(0,1)$ *, under Assumption [2.1](#page-3-0) with* $\lambda > \frac{2}{3}$ *, C-TOP admits a* ρ *-approximation algorithm, where* $\rho \in [2.55, 3.53)$ *.*

4 Heuristic Algorithms

The running time of Algorithm [1](#page-4-0) presented in Section [3](#page-4-2) is dominated by the time required to run an approximation algorithm for \overline{OP} at line [2.](#page-4-3) If we use the $(2 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm by Chekuri et al. [\[9\]](#page-15-4) for this purpose, this step requires $O(n^{O(1/\varepsilon^2)})$ time, for any $\varepsilon > 0$. In this section, motivated by such high computational time, we design four efficient heuristic algorithms that have low computational time but do not guarantee any bound on the quality of the computed solution. In Section [5,](#page-8-0) we experimentally evaluate the proposed heuristics on relevant sets of instances of C-TOP, showing that they also produce high-quality solutions. In particular we show that our heuristics require small computational time and that the value of the computed solutions is comparable to that achieved by state-of-the-art methods. Both in this section and in Section [5,](#page-8-0) we assume that $s = t$ in C-OP and C-TOP. that is we need to find a tour instead of a path. We refer to node *s* as *depot*.

In what follows, we describe our heuristics for c-op. Each algorithm alg for c-op can be generalized to be used for c-top by applying GenStra stated in Section [3,](#page-4-2) where we use ALG instead of a β -approximation algorithm for C-OP, and we set $s = t$.

Our heuristic algorithms for C-OP exploit a procedure, named DPROC, to produce solutions that respect the capacity constraints starting from a set of nodes $S \subseteq V$. Such procedure works as follows: first, it computes a subset of nodes $S' \subseteq S$ that maximizes the prize $\pi(S')$ and has size at most $r(S') \leq C$ by using the well-known dynamic programming for the Knapsack problem [\[27\]](#page-16-4). Then, it determines a tour *T* that includes the depot *s* and all nodes in S' using an approximation algorithm for the Traveling Salesman Problem (TSP). Specifically, for all algorithms we consider two versions of dproc, which use either the 3*/*2 or 2-approximation for TSP [\[27\]](#page-16-4), respectively, and, in Section [5,](#page-8-0) we will specify how the two versions are used in the experiments. Finally, DPROC returns *T* as output. We remark that the input graph is complete and metric. In the following, we denote the application of procedure DPROC with input *S* by $DPROC(S)$. Now, for any two nodes *u* and *v*, let $w(u, v) = l(e) \cdot r(v)$, be the *weight* of edge $e = (u, v)$. Our heuristic algorithms for c-op are as follows. In Section [5,](#page-8-0) we will extend each algorithm for c-op to c-top by using procedure GenStra and, we call its extension with the same name for c-op.

sqrB-ApxA (SBAA). This algorithm is inspired by the algorithms given by Kuo et al. [\[21\]](#page-16-8) and by D'Angelo et al. [\[12\]](#page-15-12) for the problem of finding a rooted out-tree in a directed graph that maximizes the sum of prizes associated to the nodes, subject to a budget constraint. Specifically, for each node $u \in V$, we compute a candidate set S_u and, at the end of the

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algorithm, we consider a set S_M that maximizes the prize, i.e. $S_M := \arg \max_{u \in V} \pi(S_u)$ and output DPROC(S_M). In details, the candidate set S_u of a node $u \in V$ is computed as follows. We first sort all nodes $v \in V$ in non-increasing order of $\pi(v)/w(u, v)$ or $\pi(v)$. In Section [5](#page-8-0) we will describe how the two sorting strategies are used in the experiments. Then, we consider two integers *x* and *y* and, for each pair $(x, y) \in \{0, 1, 2\} \times [50]$, we compute: (i) the set S_y^x containing the first $yB^{1-x/2}$ nodes in the ordering that have a distance at most $B^{x/2}$ from *u*; (ii) a tour $T_y^x = \text{DPROC}(S_y^x)$ and check if $l(T_y^x) \leq B$. Then, set S_u is selected as a set that produces a feasible tour in the previous step and maximizes the prize, i.e. $S_u := \arg \max \{ \pi(S_y^x) : l(T_y^x) \leq B, (x, y) \in \{0, 1, 2\} \times [50] \}.$ To improve the running time, we exploit the monotonicity of function π , iterate through the values of *y* from $y = 50$ to $y = 1$ and stop as soon as we find a feasible tour. The values for *x* and *y* have been chosen after a preliminary pilot experimental study on the algorithm's performance.

4-ApxA (4AA). This heuristic is based on the idea of Gupta et al. [\[18\]](#page-15-11) who showed that, given an *α*-approximation algorithm for op, it is possible to derive a 2*α*-approximation algorithm for c-op. So, we use the best approximation algorithm for the unrooted version of op in which there is no specified root node *s* that must be spanned, which is the 2-approximation algorithm proposed by Paul et al. [\[23\]](#page-16-5). In particular, given an instance $I = \langle G = (V, E), s, \pi, r, l, B, C \rangle$ of C-OP, we define an OP instance *I'* with $I' = \langle G = (V, E), s, \pi', l, B \rangle$ in which for any $v \in V$, $\pi'(v) = \pi(v) - \eta r(v)$, where $\eta \geq \frac{OPT}{2C}$ and *OPT* is an optimal solution to c-op. As *OPT* is not known, we guess it through a binary search over the range $[\pi_{\min}, TP]$, where π_{\min} be the minimum positive prize of a node and TP is the total prize of vertices. We know that $OPT \le TP$. We estimate the value of OPT by guessing *N* possible values, where *N* is the smallest integer for which $\pi_{\min}2^{N-1} \ge TP$. For the instances considered in Section [5,](#page-8-0) we set η using this binary search. For each η , we compute the solution returned by the 2-approximation algorithm by Paul et al. [\[23\]](#page-16-5) on the obtained instance I' and we let S_n be the nodes in this solution. By definition of OP, set S_n satisfies the budgeted constraint but it is not guaranteed to satisfy the capacity. Therefore, we compute $T_n = \text{DPROC}(S_n)$ to obtain a tour that satisfies the capacity constraint. Finally we output the tour *T^M* that maximizes the prize, i.e. $T_M := \arg \max \{ \pi(T_\eta) \}$, where η is set based on the binary search to find *OPT*. Note that for any *v*, in case $\pi'(v) = \pi(v) - \eta r(v) < 1$, we set $\pi'(v) = 1$.

GreedyRandom-ApxA (GRA). This is a modification of the randomized algorithm proposed by Arora and Scherer [\[4\]](#page-15-13). The following randomized algorithm is repeated multiple times and the solution with best prize is selected (in the experiments we repeat for 10 times). We keep a solution *S*, initially equal to the empty set. For $3|V|$ times we repeat the following loop. We sample a node *v* uniformly at random and we check if $v \in S$. If so, we remove it from *S*. Otherwise, we add it to *S*. Then, we compute $T = \text{DPROC}(S)$ and check if $l(T) \leq B$ and $\pi(T) > \pi(S)$. In the affirmative case, we set $S := V(T)$ and repeat the loop.

Greedy-ApxA (GA). Like for SBAA, we compute a candidate set S_u , for each node $u \in V$, we select a set S_M that maximizes the prize, i.e. $S_M := \arg \max_{u \in V} \pi(S_u)$, and output $pProc(S_M)$. For each node $u \in V$, the candidate set S_u is computed as follows. We first sort all nodes $v \in V$ in non-increasing order of $\pi(v)/w(u, v)$ or $\pi(v)$. In Section [5](#page-8-0) we will specify the used sorting strategy. We initialize S_u as $S_u := \{u\}$. Then, we iterate over the nodes $v \in V \setminus \{u\}$, according to the sorting. At each iteration we check whether adding to S_u the next node v in the sorting induces a feasible solution with better prize of the current solution. Specifically, we compute $T = \text{DPROC}(S_u \cup \{v\})$ and check whether $l(T) \leq B$ and $\pi(T) > \pi(S_u)$. In the affirmative case, we set $S_u := V(T)$ and iterate to the next node in the ordering.

Note that SBAA, 4AA, GA and GREEDYRANDOM-APXA are pseudo-poly algorithms as we use the well-known dynamic programming for the Knapsack problem. However, one can use the well-known FPTAS for the knapsack problem [\[27\]](#page-16-4).

5 Experiments

In this section, we present and analyze the results of an extensive experimental evaluation on the performance of the heuristics proposed in Section [4.](#page-6-0) We design two experiments, named respectively comparison and scalability, with the objective of answering to different experimental questions.

The aim of experiment comparison (see Section [5.1\)](#page-8-1), is comparing the performance of the four proposed heuristic algorithms against methods of the literature that are considered the state-of-the-art for c-top. Among them, based on the most recent experimental results on the problem (see [\[19\]](#page-16-0)), we identify the most effective/competitive w.r.t. solution quality and running time, that is algorithms: VNS, TSF, TSA [\[2\]](#page-14-0); BiFFf and BiFFs [\[25\]](#page-16-2); VSS-Tb and VSS-SA [\[6\]](#page-15-0); HALNS [\[19\]](#page-16-0). We do not consider, instead, algorithms ADEPT-RD [\[22\]](#page-16-1), SA-ILS [\[17\]](#page-15-6), and LNS/NLNS [\[20\]](#page-16-9) since they have been tested only on a subset of the benchmark instances and, in terms of performance, they are dominated by or comparable to HALNS [\[19\]](#page-16-0); Furthermore, ILS [\[16\]](#page-15-3) provided the average results on each set instead of giving their result on each instance.

The aim of experiment scalability (see Section [5.2\)](#page-12-0), is assessing the scalability properties of our newly introduced heuristics, i.e. to study how the performance of our heuristics change with the input size, and specifically if our algorithms can process larger instances than those that have been considered in past literature on the problem. For all experiments, we use implementations of the four heuristics of Section [4](#page-6-0) we developed for the purpose. All our code is written in C++ (available at $_{\text{https://shorturl.at/bMNb}}$) and compiled with GCC 9.4.0 with optimization level O3; all our tests have been executed on a workstation equipped with an Intel[©] Xeon[©] processor, clocked at 2.30GHz, running Ubuntu Linux.

5.1 comparison Experiment

In this experiment, we test implementations of SBAA, 4AA, GRA, and GA on two publicly available datasets of benchmark inputs for c-top, defined in [\[2\]](#page-14-0) and [\[25\]](#page-16-2), respectively, derived from instances of TSP and considered reference instances for assessing the performance of algorithms for C-TOP.

Input Data. The details of such datasets, which we call SMALL-CASE and LARGE-CASE inputs, respectively, are summarized in what follows:

- **small-case:** this set contains 130 instances (divided into three subsets, named sc-1, sc-2 and sc-3 and having 10, 90 and 30 instances, resp.) defined in [\[2\]](#page-14-0) by suitably manipulating the instances given in [\[11\]](#page-15-14) for TSP. The number of nodes of graphs in this set is $n \in$ {51*,* 76*,* 101*,* 121*,* 151*,* 200}; instances are generated by considering different combinations of fleet size *K* ∈ {2*,* 3*,* 4*,* 10*,* 15*,* 20}, budget *B* ∈ {50*,* 75*,* 100*,* 160*,* 200*,* 230*,* 720*,* 1040} and capacity *C* ∈ {50*,* 75*,* 100*,* 140*,* 160*,* 200}.
- **large-case:** this set contains 130 instances (divided in three subsets, named LC-1, LC-2, and lc-3 and having 10, 90, and 30 instances, resp.) developed in [\[25\]](#page-16-2) by modifying the inputs to the Periodic Vehicle Routing Problem of [\[24\]](#page-16-10). The number of nodes in this set is *n* ∈ {337*,* 361*,* 385*,* 433*,* 481*,* 529*,* 505*,* 577} while other parameters are *K* ∈ $\{6, 7, 8, 14, 15, 16, 18, 20, 21, 22, 24\}, B \in \{100, 200, 400, 660, 668, 675, 683, 705, 713, 720\}$ and *C* ∈ {75*,* 150*,* 200*,* 330*,* 335*,* 340*,* 345*,* 350*,* 360*,* 365*,* 375}.

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Each of the above instances, in what follows, is identified by a unique string following the format *base*-*n*-*K*-*C*-*B*, where *base* is the name of the original TSP instance from either [\[11\]](#page-15-14) or [\[24\]](#page-16-10), while *n* is the number of nodes, *K* is the number of vehicles, *C* is the capacity and *B* is the budget. Note that, for both small-case and large-case instances, the prize of each node *v* having size $r(v)$ is assigned to be equal to $\pi(v) = (h + 0.5)r(v)$, where *h* is a random number uniformly generated within interval [0*,* 1]. This implies that for any instance having capacity *C* and number of vehicles *K*, the optimum for the instance is upper bounded by $(h + 0.5)$ *KC* $\leq \frac{3KC}{2}$ in C-TOP.

Executed Tests. For all mentioned inputs, we run all four heuristics and measure both running time (column *t*, in seconds) and solution quality (i.e. achieved *prize*, column *p*). We then compare observed measures with the results obtained, on the same instances, by reference methods of the literature mentioned above, as summarized in Tables [1–](#page-9-0)[4.](#page-12-1)

	GRA			SBAA			GA			4AA			VMS $[2]$			TSF[2]			TSA [2]			BiFFf ^[25]			BiFFs [25]			VSS-Tb [6]			VSS-SA [6]			HALNS [19]		
Instance																																				
				D					g	D.		\mathbf{g}	Ð			D						D.						D								
03-101-15-200-200																												$\mid 1409 \mid <1 \mid 0.00 \mid 1409 \mid <1 \mid 0.00 \mid 1409 \mid <1 \mid 0.00 \mid 904 \mid 362 \mid 35.84 \mid 1409 \mid <1 \mid 0.00 \mid$						2 0.00 1409 < 1 0.00		
06-51-10-160-200							761 $ $ < 1 0.00 761 $ $ < 1 0.00 761 $ $ < 1 0.00			191	73																	$\mid 74.90 \mid 761 \mid <1 \mid 0.00 \mid 761 \mid$								
07-76-20-140-160																												1327 < 1 0.00 1327 < 1 0.00 1327 < 1 0.00 1327 < 1 0.00 1328 146 16.70 1327 < 1 10.00 1327 < 1 10.00 1327 < 1 10.00 1327 < 1 10.00 1327 < 1 10.00 1327 < 1 10.00 1327 < 1 10.00 1327 < 1 10.00 1327 < 1 10.00 1327 < 1 10.00 13						1 0.00 1327 < 1 0.00		
$08-101-15-200-230$ 1409 < 1 0.00 1409 < 1 0.00 1409 < 1 0.00 916																												$391 34.98 1409 < 1 0.00 1409 < 1 0.00 1409 < 1 0.00 1409 < 1 0.00 1409 < 1 0.00 1409 < 1 0.00 1409 $						1 0.00 1409 < 1 0.00		
09-151-10-200-200													2063 < 1 0.09 2064 < 1 0.04 2057 < 1 0.38 1586 1255 0.00 1 2064 13600 0.00 1 2061 1463 0.00 1 2062 127 0.00 1 2065 1 2 10.00 1 2065 1															2 0.00 2065 39 0.00 2065 120 0.00 2065 1 0.00								
10-200-20-200-200																												$\left 3048\right < 1\left 0.00\right 3048\right < 1\left 0.00\right 3048\right < 1\left 0.00\right 2828\left 4218\right 7.21\left 3048\right < 1\left 0.00\right 3048\left < 1\right 0.00\left 3048\right < 1\left 0.00\right 3048\left < 1\right 0.00\left 3048\right < 1\left 0.00\right 3048\left < 1\right 0.00\left 3048\right < 1\left 0.0$								
13-121-15-200-720																												$\lceil 1287 \rceil < 1 \rceil$ 0.00 $\lceil $						2 0.00 1287 < 1 0.00		
14-101-10-200-1040 1710 < 1 0.00 1710 < 1 0.00 1710 < 1 0.00 1710 < 1 0.00 1710 < 1 0.00 1710 < 10.00 1710 < 10.00 1710 < 10.00 1710 < 10.00 1710 < 10.00 1710 < 10.00 1710 < 10.00 1710 < 10.00 1710 < 10.00 1710 < 10.00 1710																																		3 0.00 1710 < 1 0.00		
15-151-15-200-200																												$12159 < 100012159 < 100012159 < 11000121591 < 11000121591450100012159 < 1100012159 < 1100012159 < 1100012159 < 1100012159 < 1100012159 < 1100012159 < 1100012159 < 1100012159 < 1100012159 < 1100012159 < 1100012159 < 1100012159 < 110001215$						$7 \mid 0.00 \mid 2159 \mid 10.00$		
16-200-15-200-200													2965 < 1 0.13 2965 < 1 0.13 2966 < 1 0.10 2941 3829 0.94 2968 3600 0.03 2965 270 0.13 2967								377 0.06	\sim						2969	-61		0.00 2969 254 0.00 2969 76 0.00					

Table 1 Results of experiment comparison for small-case inputs, subset sc-1.

Observe that, for subsets of inputs sc-2, sc-3, lc-2 and lc-3, which have a large number of instances, we report a meaningful selection of the results of our tests, while full data will appear in a longer version of the paper. Besides running time and prize, for each algorithm *A* and for each instance, we report the gap *g^A* between the solution *Sol^A* computed by *A* and the best known solution for the instance, obtained by any of the algorithm in the set *X* of considered algorithms, i.e. $g_A = \frac{BKS - Sol_A}{BKS} \cdot 100$, where $BKS = \max_{A' \in X} Sol_{A'}$. Algorithms achieving the maximum solution quality, for each instance, are highlighted in bold. For the sake of fairness, we remark that all the considered algorithms from the literature have a randomized nature and have been evaluated by following a measurement strategy commonly referred to as *Time-To-Best*, which consists of: (i) running a given algorithm 10 times; (ii) selecting the run that performs best in terms of solution quality (prize); (iii) reporting solution quality and running time only of such run of the algorithm (see [\[19\]](#page-16-0) and references therein). While this measurement strategy is reasonable when one compares only randomized solutions, it appears to be not well suited to be applied in comparisons that include deterministic algorithms, such as ours GA, SBAA or 4AA, which output the same solution even if they are executed multiple times. Indeed, a more empirically appropriate assessment strategy would require to measure, for randomized approaches, the sum of the running times of the all executions, since that represents the actual time the algorithm have to run to obtain the best solution, and compare such time with that of deterministic algorithms. Therefore, running times reported for algorithms from the literature might likely be underestimations of the actual average running time.

Note that, procedure DPROC, used by all our heuristics, considers different possibilities for computing a tour on a subset of the nodes, namely the 3*/*2- and 2-approximation algorithms for TSP [\[27\]](#page-16-4). Moreover, heuristics SBAA and GA use two different node sorting strategies, based on the prize or on the ratio between prize and weight. After a preliminary experimental

Table 2 Excerpt of the results of experiment COMPARISON for subsets sc-2 (top) and sc-3 (bottom).

study, we found out that on instances sc-1, sc-2, and sc-3, on average the algorithms based on prize ordering performs worse in terms of collected prize than those based on prizeover-weight ordering. Therefore, for these instances we use the prize-over-weight ordering and both the 3*/*2- and 2-approximation algorithms for TSP. We then select the solution with the highest prize between these two and report the sum of the running times of both approaches. Similarly, for instances lc-1, lc-2 and lc-3, our preliminary experiments show that algorithms based on the 2-approximation algorithm for TSP perform worse than those based on the 3*/*2-approximation and hence, in these instances, we use only this latter and both prize and prize-over-weight orders. We then select the solution with the highest prize and report the sum of the running times of both approaches. Finally, for SBAA we fix parameter *y*, determining an upper bound on how many nodes can be assigned to each vehicle, to 20, whenever the number of vehicles is large enough so that the nodes of graphs can be divided among vehicles.

Analysis. Our data lead to two main general conclusions: first, the newly introduced algorithms are competitive with existing ones in terms of solution quality. In fact, they achieve, in many cases, best known solutions (i.e. have zero gap), and solutions with good quality, with gaps that are in the order of few percentage points, one or two tens in the worst cases, in the remaining cases. Second, SBAA, GA and GRA are significantly faster than methods known in the literature, requiring running times that are up to orders of magnitude smaller to achieve solutions that have comparable quality (with prizes equal or very close to the best ones and corresponding small gaps). The only exception to this behavior is algorithm 4AA, whose running time does not scale well with the graph size, due to using the 2-approximation algorithm of [\[23\]](#page-16-5). For this reason, we omit from the comparison the results of algorithm 4AA for larger instances, i.e. large-case. In more details, we observe that:

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Table 3 Results of experiment COMPARISON for LARGE-CASE inputs, subset LC-1.

- for small-case instances, algorithms GRA, SBAA and GA outperform all other approaches in terms of running time by completing their execution always in less than 1 second; at the same time they compute best solutions in all cases with few exceptions where the gap is below 5%; in more details, for subset sc-1, algorithms VSS-Tb, VSS-SA and HALNS have running times up to 254 seconds (with zero gap) while GRA and SBAA, GA take less than 1 second (with gaps below 0*.*39%); for subset sc-2, similarly, VSS-Tb, VSS-SA and HALNS have running times up to 100 seconds (with zero gap) while our simple algorithms SBAA and GRA take always less than 1 second (with gaps below 5% and 7%, resp.); instead, GA has running time below 4 seconds (while exhibiting gaps below 5%); finally, for subset sc-3, VSS-Tb, VSS-SA and HALNS have running times up to 300 seconds, while SBAA and GRA run always for less than 1 second and their gaps are below 1*.*78% and 3*.*42%, resp.; GA has running time up to 11 seconds with gap below 2*.*00%; Note that for subsets sc-1, sc-2 and sc-3, 4AA has gap mostly below 15*.*00% with high running time.
- for large-case instances, algorithm SBAA outperforms the literature in 4 out of 10 \equiv instances of subset lc-1, in terms of quality of solution, while having running time at most 8 seconds; in the remaining 6 instances of subset lc-1, method SBAA is competitive w.r.t. the state-of-the-art, in terms of quality of solution, while achieving a gap that is always below 5*.*40%; for subset lc-2, algorithms VSS-Tb, VSS-SA and HALNS have large running times (up to 3900 seconds) while SBAA and GRA are the best performing in terms of time, with executions lasting at most 32 seconds (which is at least two orders of magnitude faster than VSS-Tb, VSS-SA and HALNS); on top of that, the gap obtained by SBAA and GRA remain below 15% and 20% respectively in most cases, and the gap of GA is mostly below 15% (with running time up to 132 seconds); finally, for subset lc-3, algorithms VSS-Tb, VSS-SA and HALNS have huge running times (up to 16000 and 1700 seconds, resp., for VSS-Tb and VSS-SA, while HALNS runs for up to 7000 seconds) while SBAA and GRA run for at most 56 seconds (meaning that SBAA is at least two orders of magnitude faster than VSS-Tb, VSS-SA and HALNS) with gap mostly below 8%; similarly, GRA has running time up to 56 seconds with the gap mostly below 15%, and GA takes up to 437 seconds to yield gaps that are mostly below 5%; to summarize, the results for large-case inputs suggest that our very simple algorithms outperform the literature by far in terms of time (at least an order of magnitude) while having a good gap, and hence they can be considered more practical.

Table 4 Excerpt of the results of experiment COMPARISON for subsets LC-2 (top) and LC-3 (bottom).

5.2 scalability Experiment

Here we evaluate how the running times of SBAA, GRA and GA change as the input size increases.

Input Data. We generate input instances whose size is far larger than that of any of the available benchmark inputs, with up to $15\,500$ nodes, by manipulating instance BRUSSELS2, used by Arnold et al. [\[3\]](#page-15-15), for a version of the capacitated vehicle routing problem where, given a graph with edge lengths and a set of vehicles with limited capacity, the goal is to cover all the nodes with minimum total length and in such a way that each vehicle respects the capacity constraint. We sample uniformly at random 10 subgraphs from BRUSSELS2, each having from 500 nodes to 15 500 nodes with steps of 1 000 nodes. For each subgraph, we consider $K \in \{2, 4, ..., 10\}$ and $B \in \{200, 400, 600\}$ while the capacity is fixed to $C = 200$. Note that in the original instance, BRUSSELS2, the capacity of each vehicle is set to 150. Similarly to the other benchmark instances, the prize is set to $\pi(v) = (h + 0.5)r(v)$, for each node *v* with size $r(v)$, with *h* randomly uniformly chosen within [0, 1].

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Executed Tests. For each subgraph and combination of *K* and *B*, we ran heuristics SBAA, GRA, and GA, and measure achieved prize and running time. We omit heuristic 4AA from this part of the study since its running time is observed to be high even for not so large input combinations (see Section [5.1\)](#page-8-1). The results of this experiment are summarized in Figures [1–](#page-13-0) [3:](#page-14-2) for each heuristic and for each considered value of *B*, we report measured solution quality and running time, averaged over all *K*.

Figure 1 Results of the SCALABILITY experiment for $B = 200$.

Figure 2 Results of the scalability experiment for *B* = 400.

Figure 3 Results of the SCALABILITY experiment for $B = 600$.

Analysis. Our experimental data highlight the following general behavior. When $B = 200$ (see Figure [1\)](#page-13-0), GA and SBAA are extremely fast, with running times smaller than 1 second even when the number of nodes *n* approaches 15 500; the running time of GRA is higher than the first two heuristics and grows faster as *n* increases, but remains below 10 seconds even for the largest case of $n = 15500$. The latter value is far below the average running times of algorithms tested in Section [5.1](#page-8-1) for smaller graphs. Moreover, despite the low running time, GA and SBAA on average outperform GRA also w.r.t. achieved prize. When the budget is increased to 400 (see Figure [2\)](#page-13-1) the observed trends are similar, with the average running time of GA and SBAA being below 1 second until n is less than 6500 and remaining below 50 seconds. GA and SBAA outperform GRA w.r.t. both execution time and prize while SBAA outperforms GA, by small factors, w.r.t. both execution time and prize. Finally, when *B* is further increased to 600 (Figure [3\)](#page-14-2), the trend in terms of solution quality appears not to be affected while the running time of all considered heuristics significantly increases, with the difference between SBAA, GA and GRA that seems to decrease as *n* approaches the largest value of 15 000. In general, our experiments suggest that the running time of SBAA and GA tends to grow approximately linearly with the input size and highlight that, on the the largest instance, SBAA and GA take below one minute on average, whereas previous algorithms are not able to handle such large input graphs. Note that however, we use the dynamic programming for the knapsack problem in both SBAA and GA, the capacity *C* in our instances is less than the number of nodes.

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