



Article Knapsack Balancing via Multiobjectivization

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Abstract: In this paper, we address the aspect of knapsack balancing in the classic knapsack problem. Recognizing that excessive dispersion in the objective function or constraint coefficients of the optimal solution can be undesirable, we propose, when appropriate, to control this effect through problem multiobjectivization. By multiobjectivization, we mean the addition of one or more objective functions that aim to shift the original problem's optimal solutions towards Pareto optimal solutions of the multiobjectivized problem, reducing the dispersion of the respective coefficients. We detail how the knapsack balance aspect can be incorporated into the standard knapsack problem model and demonstrate the functionality of this enriched model through illustrative examples.

Keywords: combinatorial optimization; knapsack problem; product objective function; knapsack balancing; multiple objective programming

1. Introduction and Motivation

The knapsack problem is one of the best studied combinatorial optimization problems (see, e.g., [1,2]). It is defined as follows: Given a set $N := \{1, ..., n\}$ of items and a knapsack with a maximal weight *C*, each item *i*, *i* = 1, ..., *n*, is characterized by its profit $p_i > 0$ and weight $w_i > 0$.

A subset S° of items that together are not heavier than *C* and provide the highest sum of profits is to be determined. This problem can be formulated as a Linear Binary Programming (LBP) problem as follows:

Sum KP: max
$$Sum(x) := \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i x_i$$

s.t. $x \in X_0 := \{x \mid \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i x_i \le C, x_i \in \{0, 1\}, i = 1, ..., n\}.$ (1)

Many practical decision problems can be modeled as the knapsack problem or one of its variants (see, e.g., [3]). The knapsack problem can also be used as sub-problems of more complex models (see, e.g., [4,5]). As an illustration, let us assume that a farmer models the production of the farm using the knapsack problem. The farm consists of several lots; each lot can accommodate just one crop, yielding a given profit for a given workload. The problem is to assign crops to lots to maximize the total profit under a limited workload budget. To mitigate risks inherent to agriculture, a *portfolio* of crops rather than a single crop is advisable. Crops yielding small profits may be not very desirable. Prices of crops yielding high profits may vary significantly. Likewise, serving a collection of crops with low and high workload may rise logistic concerns. In consequence, a balanced crop portfolio is of interest, even if portfolio balancing inevitably deteriorates the optimal total profit as compared to the total profit when balancing is not accounted for. Although the problem can be modeled by a more complex, and perhaps more realistic, formulation, the knapsack problem has the advantage to be rather simple. A mechanism to confine the objective function and/or the constraint coefficient dispersion at the optimal solution while retaining the knapsack problem structural simplicity would be of interest.



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Copyright: © 2024 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (https:// creativecommons.org/licenses/by/ 4.0/). The example brings us to the issue of knapsack balancing. We can attempt to balance the objective function coefficients, the constraint coefficients, or both at once. In contrast to balancing mechanisms proposed in the literature on combinatorial optimization (see, e.g., [6]), here we propose to balance with the Nash social welfare function that maximizes the product of all quantities that have to be balanced (in the original work of Nash those were individual utilities) ([7]). A distinguishing property of this function is that when the sum of continuous quantities (all positive) is tied to a certain positive value, the maximum of this function is achieved when all quantities are equal.

As seen in Figure 1, function $y_1 + y_2$ equally assesses all three elements (filled discs), as they all are located on the same contour (the solid line), whereas function $y_1 \cdot y_2$ differentiates them as they are located on two different contours (dashed lines). Moreover, the latter function has a higher value for the element with $y_1 = y_2$ than for elements with $y_1 \neq y_2$.

As shown below, in the context of the knapsack problem, this function has plausible properties, both in terms of balancing and computing.

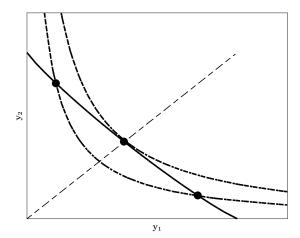


Figure 1. Properties of functions $y_1 + y_2$ and $y_1 \cdot y_2$.

We approach the problem of knapsack balancing through a multiobjective problem formulation. Multiobjective formulations offer a framework by which some seemingly hidden aspects of underlying decision problems can be incorporated into optimization models. A single-objective optimization model is multiobjectivized by keeping the original objective function and adding new objective functions representing the new aspects that are to be considered. The compromises between the need to optimize the original objective function and the new ones have to be managed using appropriate multiobjective optimization techniques.

The term 'multiobjectivization' was introduced by Knowles et al. in 2001 ([8]) in the context of evolutionary optimization. Ma et al. ([9]) claim that using multiobjectivization to solve single-objective problems within evolutionary optimization

"can reduce the number of local optima, create new search paths from local optima to global optima, attain more incomparability solutions, and/or improve solution diversity".

Klamroth and Tind ([10]) discussed reformulations of single-objective problems to multiobjective ones in the context of exact optimization. In [11], multiobjectivization was applied to exploit the specific structure of multiple-choice constraints in the multiple-choice knapsack problem. This idea was further explored in [12].

The main contributions of this article are summarized as follows:

- We introduce knapsack balancing as a new aspect of the knapsack problem.
- We demonstrate how to incorporate the aspect of knapsack balancing into the knapsack problem standard model.
- We provide a formal proof of the correctness of our approach.

We demonstrate working of the enriched knapsack problem model on illustrative examples.

As discussed in Section 2, knapsack balancing can be interpreted as part of a broader concept of making *balanced* or *fair* decisions. This concept was introduced first in the qualitative decision theory (see the reference in the next section) but, to the best of the authors' knowledge, this paper presents the first fully quantitative treatment of this issue within the context of the knapsack problem.

This article is organized as follows. In Section 2, related works are discussed. Section 3 shows how to incorporate knapsack balancing while staying within the framework of the underlying knapsack problem and mixed-integer linear optimization. In Section 4, we propose a bi-objective formulation of the knapsack problem that accounts for trade-offs between values of the the original knapsack problem objective function and a knapsack balance measure. Section 5 provides illustrative examples, and Section 6 concludes the paper.

2. Related Works

In the literature, there exist many extensions to Sum KP problem formulation (see, e.g., [13,14]). However, the knapsack problem with a product objective function has received limited attention. In a 2018 paper [15], the authors claim that they were the first to consider the knapsack problem with the product objective function. A 2022 survey [13] lists just three papers on this subject, namely [16], where it is shown that the problem is weakly \mathcal{NP} -hard; [15], where mixed-integer linear and nonlinear programming formulations of the problem and a dynamic programming algorithm for its exact solution are presented; and [17], where the first fully polynomial time approximation scheme for the problem was presented. The latter has been recently extended in [18] for a wide class of the knapsack problem generalizations.

It is worth mentioning that the issue of balance of attribute values has emerged in behavioral decision theory early. Simonson ([19]) and Simonson and Tversky ([20]) hypothesize that the attractiveness of an object is enhanced if it is an intermediate object in the choice set and is diminished if it is an extreme object, an effect they call *extremeness aversion*. The hypothesis is further elaborated in [21,22], where it is argued that an object with equal attribute values will be perceived as the compromise object even when it is not the middle object. The hypotheses are supported by data studies but no formal model is offered.

In [6], the aspect of balance (fairness) in combinatorial optimization is addressed. The authors consider four common measures of the balance of a set of numbers, and in the context of elements of a set *balance* means *elements as equal as possible*. Based on case studies, the authors conclude that no measure of balance is systematically better than the others. Some general guidelines on what measure of balance to use depending on the given optimization problem are also presented.

As mentioned, in the literature on the knapsack problem (cf., e.g., [13]), it is argued that a viable option to maximize $\sum_{i \in S} p_i$ is to maximize

$$\prod_{i \in S} p_i, \tag{2}$$

i.e., to maximize the product of all profits of items selected for the knapsack (see, e.g., [15,18]).

Our inspiration to use function (2) as a tool to address the issue of attribute balance can be referred to the game theory. In that context, Nash ([7]) proposed to use for the value function the product of attribute values, as an option to the sum of attributes. The latter is much more prone to equally assess alternatives with highly scattered attribute values and alternatives with concentrated attribute values than the former (Figure 1).

In the Non-Linear Binary Programming (NLBP) context, function (2) has an equivalent form (cf. [15]):

$$\mathcal{P}rod^p(x) := \prod_{i=1}^n p_i^{x_i}.$$
(3)

This equivalency stems from the properties of the exponential function and the fact, that each subset of items $S \subseteq N$ is represented by vector $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$, where $x_i = 1$ when $i \in S$, and $x_i = 0$ otherwise, cf. problem (1).

Function (3) is the binary form of the Cobb–Douglass function:

$$a\prod_{i=1}^k x_i^{\alpha_i}$$

where x_i are continuous, a and α_i are positive parameters, extensively used in the production theory (cf., e.g., [23]). Below, we use function (3) to define the knapsack problem with the product objective function.

3. Balancing Knapsacks by $\mathcal{P}rod^p$ Objective Function

The knapsack problem with the product objective function is formulated as the following NLBP problem:

$$\mathcal{P}rod^{p} \text{ KP: max } \mathcal{P}rod^{p}(x)$$
s.t. $x \in X_{0}$.
(4)

In $\mathcal{P}rod^p$ KP, a subset $S \subseteq N$ of items with the most balanced profits is sought by means of maximizing $\mathcal{P}rod^p(x)$. The following example illustrates the effect of item profits balancing at the optimal solution produced by $\mathcal{P}rod^p(x)$ objective function.

Example 1. We demonstrate the effect of item profits balancing produced by $\mathcal{P}rod^p(x)$ objective function by the example with profits and weights given in Table 1 (n = 20), for two values of C (the right-hand side of the constraint), namely C = 550 and C = 300.

| | | | | | <i>i</i> = 1, | ,10 | | | | |
|-----------------------|------------------|-----|-----|------|---------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|------|
| <i>p</i> _i | 100 | 220 | 90 | 400 | 300 | 400 | 205 | 120 | 160 | 580 |
| w_i | 8 | 24 | 13 | 80 | 70 | 80 | 45 | 15 | 28 | 90 |
| | $i=11,\ldots,20$ | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>p</i> _i | 400 | 140 | 100 | 1300 | 650 | 320 | 480 | 80 | 60 | 2550 |
| w _i | 130 | 32 | 20 | 120 | 40 | 30 | 20 | 6 | 3 | 180 |

Table 1. Profits and weights of items in Example 1.

To measure the balance of item profits at optimal solutions (x^{opt}) , we use the sum of squared deviations from their mean (merits of this function in the context of combinatorial optimization are discussed in, already cited, [6]), namely

$$L_2 - DEV(I(x^{opt})) := \sum_{i \in I(x^{opt})} (p_i - \mu)^2,$$
(5)

where $I(x^{opt}) = \{i \mid x_i^{opt} = 1\}$, and mean μ is calculated over p_i , $i \in I(x^{opt})$.

Remark 1. L_2 - $DEV(\cdot)$ is a natural dispersion measure but we cannot use it as an objective function because a. it is nonlinear, b. μ is a function of x, and we intend to stay within the class of mixed-integer linear optimization problems. To this aim, L_2 - $DEV(\cdot)$ can be only calculated after the optimization terminates.

$$\begin{split} C &= 550. \ The \ optimal \ solution \ to \ \mathcal{P}rod^p \ KP: \\ x^{opt_prod} &= (1,1,1,1,0,1,1,1,1,0,1,1,0,1,1,0,1,1,1,0,0), \\ profits \ of \ items \ selected \ to \ x^{opt_prod}: \\ P^{opt_prod} &:= \{100,220,90,400,400,205,120,160,580,140,100,650,320,480,80,60\}, \\ L_2 - DEV(I(x^{opt_prod})) &= 546635.937 \ (further \ on, \ we \ round \ all \ numbers \ to \ the \ third \ decimal \ place). \end{split}$$

For comparison, we solve an instance of Sum KP with the same data. The optimal solution to Sum KP:

 $\begin{aligned} x^{opt_sum} &= (1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1), \\ profits of items selected to x^{opt_sum}: \\ P^{opt_sum} &:= \{100, 220, 90, 120, 580, 1300, 650, 320, 480, 80, 60, 2550\}, \\ L_2\text{-}DEV(I(x^{opt_sum})) &= 5799891.667. \end{aligned}$

As one can see, in the terms of L_2 -DEV(\cdot), set P^{opt_prod} is more balanced than set P^{opt_sum} (under the same constraint set). On the other hand, $Sum(x^{opt_prod}) = 4105 < 6550 =$ $Sum(x^{opt_sum})$ since knapsack balancing is made at the cost of a deterioration of the optimal value for Sum KP problem.

$$\begin{split} C &= 300. \ The \ optimal \ solution \ x^{opt_prod} \ to \ \mathcal{P}rod^p \ KP: \\ x^{opt_prod} &= (1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0), \\ profits \ of \ items \ selected \ to \ x^{opt_prod}: \\ P^{opt_prod} &:= \{100, 220, 90, 205, 120, 160, 140, 100, 650, 320, 480, 80, 60\}, \\ L_2 - DEV(I(x^{opt_prod})) &= 372223.077. \\ As \ previously, \ we \ solve \ for \ comparison \ Sum \ KP \ with \ the \ same \ data. \\ The \ optimal \ solution \ to \ Sum \ KP: \\ x^{opt_sum} &= (1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1), \\ profits \ of \ items \ selected \ to \ x^{opt_sum}: \\ P^{opt_sum} &:= \{100, 90, 650, 320, 480, 80, 60, 2550\}, \\ L_2 - DEV(I(x^{opt_sum})) &= 4942287.5. \\ Again, \ in \ the \ context \ of \ measure \ L_2 - DEV(\cdot), \ set \ P^{opt_prod} \ is \ more \ balanced \ than \ set \ P^{opt_sum}. \end{split}$$

On the other hand, $Sum(x^{opt_prod}) = 2725 < 4330 = Sum(x^{opt_sum}).$

In general, by solving $\mathcal{P}rod^p$ KP, we obtain the most balanced knapsack, and by solving $\mathcal{S}um$ KP, we obtain the most profitable one. The example shows the existence of a profit–balance trade–off. This naturally leads us to a bi-objective knapsack problem formulation.

4. The Bi-Objective Knapsack Problem with *Sum* and *Prod^p* Objective Functions *4.1. Multiobjective Optimization*

In this section, we recall basic facts from multiobjective optimization that are needed in the rest of this work. In particular, we formulate the MultiObjective Programming (MOP) problem, and we recall a method for the derivation of Pareto optimal solutions with the use of the Chebyshev scalarization.

Let $X_0 := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | g_j(x) \le b_j, j = 1, ..., m\}, g_j : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$. The MOP problem is defined as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{vmax} & f(x) \\ \text{s.t.} & x \in X_0 \,, \end{array} \tag{6}$$

where $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^k$, $f = (f_1, \ldots, f_k)$, $f_l : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, $l = 1, \ldots, k$, $k \ge 2$, are objective functions, and "vmax" is the operator of deriving (but not necessarily actually computing!) set N that contains all Pareto optimal solutions x (N is the Pareto optimal set). We say that $\bar{x} \in X_0$ is Pareto optimal, if for any $x \in X_0$, $f_l(x) \ge f_l(\bar{x})$, $l = 1, \ldots, k$, implies $f(x) = f(\bar{x})$. We also say that f(x), $x \in X_0$, is the outcome of x. Set f(N) is called the Pareto front. An element of set f(N) is called the Pareto optimal outcome.

According to the well-established result ([24-27]), *x* is Pareto optimal (actually, *x* is properly Pareto optimal, see, e.g., [24-27]) if and only if it solves the Chebyshev scalarization of problem (6), namely

$$\min_{k \in X_0} \max_l \lambda_l (y_l^* - f_l(x)) + \rho e^k (y^* - f(x))$$
s.t. $x \in X_0$, (7)

where $\lambda_l > 0$, l = 1, ..., k, $e^k = (1, 1, ..., 1)$, $y_l^* = \hat{y}_l + \varepsilon$, $\hat{y}_l = \max_{x \in X_0} f_l(x)$, l = 1, ..., k, $\varepsilon > 0$, and ρ is a positive "sufficiently small" number. We assume that $\hat{y}_l < \infty$, l = 1, ..., k.

The necessity of resorting to the Chebyshev scalarization instead of the simpler and much more popular linear scalarization, i.e., the weighted sum of the objective functions, comes from that the former can derive any Pareto optimal solution, whereas the latter can

derive, in general, only a subset of them.

The linearized version of problem (7) has the following form.

min s
s.t.
$$s \ge \lambda_l (y_l^* - f_l(x)) + \rho e^k (y^* - f(x)), \ l = 1, ..., k,$$
 (8)
 $x \in X_0.$

In particular, if functions $f_l(x)$, l = 1, ..., k, are linear and the definition of X_0 is consistent with the mixed-integer linear class of problems, then the problem (8) remains linear or mixed-integer linear or integer linear. In the following, we will assume that Pareto optimal solutions are computed by solving problem (8) with varying $\lambda = (\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_k)$. Given λ , $x^{P_{opt}}(\lambda)$ denotes the Pareto optimal solution designated by λ , that is a solution to problem (7) with that λ .

4.2. The Bi-Objective Sum- $Prod^p KP$

By analogy to dropping an anchor from a vessel, solving Sum KP (see (1)) is like anchoring its optimal solution to the aspect of maximizing the total profit, while neglecting the balance among item profits. Just as controlled dragging of the anchor can guide a vessel into a more favorable position, it is of interest to investigate the effect of "dragging" the optimal solution of Sum KP towards more balanced ones and observe the effects in the form of trade-offs between these two aspects. To this aim, we formulate the following bi-objective NLBP problem:

 \mathbf{s}

$$Sum-Prod^{p} \text{ KP}: \text{ vmax } \begin{cases} Sum(x) \\ Prod^{p}(x) \end{cases}$$
(9)

$$.t. \qquad x \in X_0.$$

As all p_i are positive, one can define function

$$\widetilde{\mathcal{P}rod^{p}}(x) := \ln \mathcal{P}rod^{p}(x) = \ln \left(\prod_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}^{x_{i}}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ln p_{i}^{x_{i}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \ln p_{i}$$
(10)

and formulate the following logarithmic transformation of $Sum-Prod^p$ KP:

$$\mathcal{L}n\text{-}\mathcal{S}um\text{-}\mathcal{P}rod^{p} \text{ KP}: \text{ vmax } \begin{cases} \mathcal{S}um(x) \\ \widetilde{\mathcal{P}rod^{p}}(x) \end{cases}$$
(11)
s.t. $x \in X_{0}$.

 $\mathcal{L}n$ - $\mathcal{S}um$ - $\mathcal{P}rod^p$ KP is the bi-objective LBP problem.

Proposition 1. Pareto optimal sets of problem Sum- $Prod^p$ KP and problem Ln-Sum- $Prod^p$ KP coincide.

Proof. Since the logarithmic function is an increasing function, function $\mathcal{P}rod^p(x)$ generates on X_0 the same linear order that function $\mathcal{P}rod^p(x)$ does. Hence, function $\tilde{f}(x) = (\mathcal{S}um(x), \mathcal{P}rod^p(x))$ generates on X_0 the same partial order that function By Proposition 1, the following holds.

Corollary 1. Given λ , $x^{P_{opt}}(\lambda)$ is Pareto optimal solution to problem Ln-Sum-Prod^p KP if and only if it is Pareto optimal solution to problem Sum-Prod^p KP.

Likewise, we can apply the above consideration to the left-hand side of the constraint, formulating the bi-objective problem:

$$Sum-\mathcal{P}rod^{w} \operatorname{KP}: \operatorname{vmax} \begin{cases} Sum(x) \\ \mathcal{P}rod^{w}(x) := \prod_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}^{x_{i}} \end{cases}$$
(12)
s.t. $x \in X_{0}$.

Function $\mathcal{P}rod^w$ measures the balance of weights of items selected for the knapsack. As all w_i are positive, one can define function

$$\widetilde{\mathcal{P}rod^{w}}(x) := \ln \mathcal{P}rod^{w}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \ln w_{i}$$
(13)

and formulate the following logarithmic transformation of $Sum-Prod^{w}$ KP:

$$\mathcal{L}n\text{-}\mathcal{S}um\text{-}\mathcal{P}rod^{w} \text{ KP}: \text{ vmax } \begin{cases} \mathcal{S}um(x) \\ \widetilde{\mathcal{P}rod^{w}}(x) \end{cases}$$
(14)
s.t. $x \in X_{0}.$

Again, $\mathcal{L}n$ - $\mathcal{S}um$ - $\mathcal{P}rod^w$ KP is the bi-objective LBP problem.

Problem $\mathcal{L}n$ - $\mathcal{S}um$ - $\mathcal{P}rod^p$ KP is solved with the linearized version (8) of the Chebyshev scalarization (7), and has the form:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min & s \\ \text{s.t.} & s \geq \lambda_1(y_1^* - \mathcal{S}um(x)) & + \rho((y_l^* - \mathcal{S}um(x)) + (y_2^* - \widetilde{\mathcal{P}rod}^p(x)))), \\ & s \geq \lambda_2(y_2^* - \widetilde{\mathcal{P}rod}^p(x)) + \rho((y_1^* - \mathcal{S}um(x)) + (y_2^* - \widetilde{\mathcal{P}rod}^p(x))), \\ & x \in X_0 := \{x \mid \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i \leq C, \ x_i \in \{0, 1\}, \ i = 1, \dots, n\}, \end{array}$$

$$(15)$$

where $y_1^* = \hat{y}_1 + \varepsilon$, $y_2^* = \hat{y}_2 + \varepsilon$, $\varepsilon > 0$, $\hat{y}_1 = \max_{x \in X_0} Sum(x)$, $\hat{y}_2 = \max_{x \in X_0} \mathcal{P}rod^p(x)$, and ρ is a positive "sufficiently small" number. The counterpart of problem (15) is defined for problem $\mathcal{L}n$ -Sum- $\mathcal{P}rod^w$ KP similarly. As seen, the generality of the Chebyshev scalarization (it provides the necessary and sufficient conditions for Pareto optimality of solutions regardless of the form of the problem solved) comes at the cost of solving in addition as many as k (in our case k = 2) optimization problems. Here the additional optimization problems are the knapsack problems that any reasonable mixed-integer solver nowadays solves in a split second for the number of items up to several thousand.

5. Illustrative Examples

In the examples, to solve bi-objective optimization problems, we use the general methodology of multiobjective optimization outlined in Section 4.1.

Example problems

From the 7th multiple constraint knapsack problem (in the format described under https://people.brunel.ac.uk/%7Emastjjb/jeb/orlib/mknapinfo.html, accessed on 5 May 2024) (5 constraints and 50 items) in the Beasley's OR–Library (https://people.brunel.ac.uk/%7Emastjjb/jeb/orlib/files/mknap1.txt accessed on 5 May 2024), we derived 5 knapsack problems.

In each such problem, denoted SP_i^p , i = 1, ..., 5, the objective function and *ith* constraint of the original multiple constraint knapsack problem serve as the objective function and the constraint, respectively. Next, each knapsack problem is reformulated as the corresponding $\mathcal{L}n-\mathcal{S}um-\mathcal{P}rod^p$ KP problem (see (11)).

Pareto front approximations

To derive reasonably informative approximations of Pareto fronts to our example problems (11), we use the following set of λ vectors:

$$\Lambda := \{\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid \lambda_1 = 1 - 0.005j, \ \lambda_2 = 1 - \lambda_1, \ j \in \mathbb{N}, \ j > 0, \ \lambda_1 > 0\}.$$
(16)

By this definition, $|\Lambda| = 199$, and $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = 1$ for all $\lambda \in \Lambda$. We assume that λ 's are ordered due to the decreasing value of their first component, and each λ has a corresponding index, resulting from this order. So, $\lambda^1 = (0.995, 0.005)$, $\lambda^2 = (0.990, 0.010)$, ..., $\lambda^{199} = (0.005, 0.995)$. We also assume that $\varepsilon = \rho = 0.001$.

Remark 2. The method to compute Pareto optimal solutions to multiobjective optimization problems applied here can provide, in general, only subsets of Pareto optimal sets, there is no guarantee that all Pareto optimal solutions are derived.

Here, wanting for the illustration to compute as many Pareto optimal solutions as possible, we take advantage of the fact that all instances of problem (11) are solved to optimality in a split second. Thus, the rather large number of λ 's used in the example (in practical terms one can even say extravagantly large) is not an issue.

Solver

To derive \hat{y} and Pareto optimal solutions for each $\lambda \in \Lambda$, we use Gurobi (version 10.0.0) for Microsoft Windows (x64).

Gurobi ([28]) is a general mixed-integer solver, this means it solves linear and quadratic programming problems with integer variables. It is a commercial product but licensed free for any academic user, with all functionalities available under paid licenses.

In our case, the solver is installed on a laptop equipped with an Intel Core i7-7700HQ CPU with 16 GB RAM.

Results

The results for SP_1^p and SP_2^p are reported in Tables 2 and 3. The results for SP_i^p , i = 3, 4, 5, are reported in the Appendix A.

In these tables, the row with j = 0 corresponds to the optimal solution of Sum KP, x^{opt_sum} , and the row with j = 200 corresponds to the optimal solution of $Prod^p$ KP, x^{opt_prod} .

As observed in many multiobjective combinatorial problems (see, e.g., [29]), multiple λ vectors can correspond to the same Pareto optimal outcome. Furthermore, this is also the case for our test problems, e.g., for problem SP_1^p (Table 2) the outcomes of Pareto optimal solutions for λ^2 to λ^{46} are the same as those corresponding to λ^1 . Repeated Pareto optimal outcomes for $\lambda \in \Lambda$ are not reported in the tables.

The last column in tables, L_2 -DEV, contains L_2 -DEV($I(x^{P_{opt}}(\lambda^j)))$ of profits of items selected to optimal knapsack $x^{P_{opt}}(\lambda^j)$ for $j \notin \{0, 200\}$. For j = 0 and j = 200, it contains L_2 -DEV($I(x^{opt_sum}))$ and L_2 -DEV($I(x^{opt_sum}))$, respectively.

In Figures 2 and 3, Pareto optimal outcomes to problem $\mathcal{L}n$ - $\mathcal{S}um$ - $\mathcal{P}rod^p$ KP stemming from SP_1^p are shown:

Figure 2: on the Sum (horizontal axis, the more, the better) and $\widetilde{\mathcal{P}rod^{p}}$ (vertical axis, the more, the better) plane,

Figure 3: on the Sum (horizontal axis, the more, the better) and L_2 -DEV (vertical axis, the less, the better) plane. Values of $\widetilde{\mathcal{P}rod}^p$ have no practical interpretation, so presenting results on the Sum, L_2 -DEV plane is more reasonable.

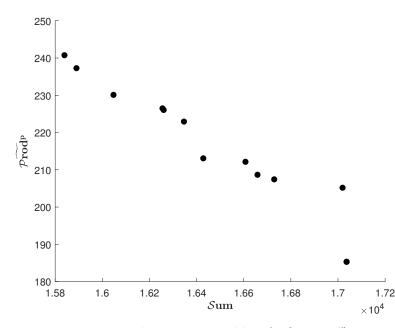


Figure 2. Pareto optimal outcomes to problem $\mathcal{L}n$ - $\mathcal{S}um$ - $\mathcal{P}rod^p$ KP stemming from SP_1^p ; horizontal axis: $\mathcal{S}um$, vertical axis: $\mathcal{P}rod^p$.

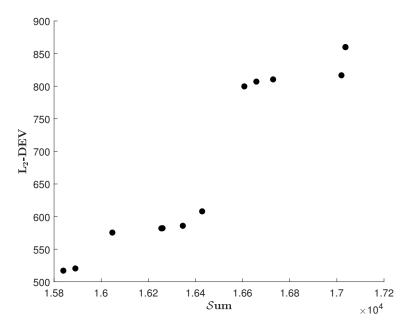


Figure 3. Pareto optimal outcomes to problem $\mathcal{L}n$ - $\mathcal{S}um$ - $\mathcal{P}rod^p$ KP stemming from SP_1^p ; horizontal axis: $\mathcal{S}um$, vertical axis: L_2 -DEV.

| j | λ_1^j | λ_2^j | Sum | $\widetilde{\mathcal{P}rod^p}$ | L ₂ -DEV |
|-----|---------------|---------------|------------|--------------------------------|---------------------|
| 0 | _ | - | 17,038.000 | 185.209 | 859.335 |
| 1 | 0.995 | 0.005 | 17,038.000 | 185.209 | 859.335 |
| 47 | 0.765 | 0.235 | 17,021.000 | 205.085 | 816.100 |
| 180 | 0.100 | 0.900 | 16,731.000 | 207.331 | 809.829 |
| 184 | 0.080 | 0.920 | 16,660.000 | 208.565 | 806.430 |
| 187 | 0.065 | 0.935 | 16,609.000 | 212.045 | 799.082 |
| 192 | 0.040 | 0.960 | 16,430.000 | 212.977 | 607.430 |
| 193 | 0.035 | 0.965 | 16,348.000 | 222.843 | 585.288 |
| 196 | 0.020 | 0.980 | 16,262.000 | 225.963 | 581.562 |
| 197 | 0.015 | 0.985 | 16,257.000 | 226.393 | 581.394 |
| 198 | 0.010 | 0.990 | 16,049.000 | 230.010 | 574.887 |
| 199 | 0.005 | 0.995 | 15,892.000 | 237.173 | 519.866 |
| 200 | _ | - | 15,841.000 | 240.652 | 516.462 |

Table 2. Pareto optimal outcomes to problem $\mathcal{L}n$ - $\mathcal{S}um$ - $\mathcal{P}rod^p$ KP stemming from SP_1^p .

Table 3. Pareto optimal outcomes to problem $\mathcal{L}n$ - $\mathcal{S}um$ - $\mathcal{P}rod^p$ KP stemming from SP_2^p .

| j | λ_1^j | λ_2^j | Sum | $\widetilde{\mathcal{P}rod^p}$ | L ₂ -DEV |
|-----|---------------|---------------|------------|--------------------------------|---------------------|
| 0 | _ | - | 17,675.000 | 215.930 | 798.377 |
| 1 | 0.995 | 0.005 | 17,675.000 | 215.930 | 798.377 |
| 177 | 0.115 | 0.885 | 17,502.000 | 218.669 | 792.286 |
| 183 | 0.085 | 0.915 | 17,459.000 | 219.873 | 789.987 |
| 186 | 0.070 | 0.930 | 17,425.000 | 223.403 | 783.121 |
| 198 | 0.010 | 0.990 | 16,615.000 | 228.355 | 745.153 |
| 199 | 0.005 | 0.995 | 15,885.000 | 229.126 | 575.893 |
| 200 | _ | - | 15,012.000 | 239.317 | 503.237 |

6. Conclusions

We have introduced a versatile tool for conducting post-optimal analysis of the classic knapsack problem. Staying within the same class of combinatorial problems as the knapsack problem, namely integer linear optimization, this tool enables us to explore the trade-offs between the optimal value of the underlying problem and the balance of item profits (or item weights). This is achieved through the multiobjectivization of the knapsack problem by adding an auxiliary objective function. The proposed tool therefore makes it possible to identify the decision-maker's most preferred compromise knapsack. The significance of this development stems from the vast spectrum of practical applications of the knapsack problem and its extensions, as reported in the literature.

Applying the proposed method of knapsack balancing in the context of item profits (or item weights) to other variants of the knapsack problem (e.g., the multidimensional knapsack problem) is rather straightforward, as the only difference would be in feasible sets. For example, in the multiple-choice knapsack problem, balancing can be applied to item profits in selected categories or all categories, as dictated by the decision problem being modeled.

The broader message of this work emphasizes the potential of multiobjectivization for widening the scope of aspects that can be framed into a formal decision-making model. This is a universally valid observation; however, such an opportunity often comes at the cost of increased complexity and computational burden. This in turn often results in limitations of scalability. In this work, we have shown how these challenges can be mitigated through an approach that avoids such limitations.

This article assumes that Pareto optimal solutions are derived using a scalarization technique and exact methods. However, for large-scale instances of knapsack problems where exact solvers cannot determine Pareto optimal solutions in a reasonable time frame, the use of metaheuristics (e.g., the BGA [30] and NSGA-II [31] algorithms) or evolutionary optimization frameworks deriving approximations of the Pareto front (e.g., PKAEO [32]) is a practical alternative.

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Appendix A

The following three tables present Pareto optimal outcomes to problem $\mathcal{L}n$ - $\mathcal{S}um$ - $\mathcal{P}rod^p$ KP stemming from knapsack problems SP_3^p , SP_4^p , and SP_5^p , respectively.

Table A1. Pareto optimal outcomes to problem $\mathcal{L}n$ - $\mathcal{S}um$ - $\mathcal{P}rod^p$ KP stemming from SP_3^p .

| j | λ_1^j | λ_2^j | Sum | $\widetilde{\mathcal{P}rod^p}$ | L ₂ -DEV |
|-----|---------------|---------------|------------|--------------------------------|---------------------|
| 0 | - | - | 19,688.000 | 185.824 | 911.322 |
| 1 | 0.995 | 0.005 | 19,688.000 | 185.824 | 911.322 |
| 33 | 0.835 | 0.165 | 19,679.000 | 192.538 | 895.297 |
| 133 | 0.335 | 0.665 | 19,611.000 | 197.179 | 885.795 |
| 153 | 0.235 | 0.765 | 19,576.000 | 200.749 | 877.454 |
| 165 | 0.175 | 0.825 | 19,544.000 | 204.245 | 870.672 |
| 181 | 0.095 | 0.905 | 19,440.000 | 206.909 | 863.358 |
| 186 | 0.070 | 0.930 | 19,380.000 | 207.487 | 862.964 |
| 187 | 0.065 | 0.935 | 19,349.000 | 207.904 | 862.007 |
| 189 | 0.055 | 0.945 | 19,298.000 | 211.076 | 854.957 |
| 197 | 0.015 | 0.985 | 18,503.000 | 214.166 | 840.841 |
| 198 | 0.010 | 0.990 | 18,319.000 | 217.168 | 804.718 |
| 199 | 0.005 | 0.995 | 18,035.000 | 220.275 | 797.057 |
| 200 | _ | - | 12,457.000 | 231.887 | 324.431 |

| j | λ_1^j | λ_2^j | Sum | $\widetilde{\mathcal{P}rod^p}$ | L ₂ -DEV |
|-----|---------------|---------------|------------|--------------------------------|---------------------|
| 0 | _ | - | 19,275.000 | 217.498 | 808.585 |
| 1 | 0.995 | 0.005 | 19,275.000 | 217.498 | 808.585 |
| 9 | 0.955 | 0.045 | 19,274.000 | 220.298 | 802.076 |
| 56 | 0.720 | 0.280 | 19,267.000 | 230.445 | 785.963 |
| 142 | 0.290 | 0.710 | 19,249.000 | 233.242 | 779.847 |
| 188 | 0.060 | 0.940 | 19,155.000 | 236.792 | 773.983 |
| 199 | 0.005 | 0.995 | 18,652.000 | 241.245 | 758.760 |
| 200 | _ | - | 18,652.000 | 241.245 | 758.760 |

Table A2. Pareto optimal outcomes to problem $\mathcal{L}n$ - $\mathcal{S}um$ - $\mathcal{P}rod^p$ KP stemming from SP_4^p .

Table A3. Pareto optimal outcomes to problem $\mathcal{L}n$ - $\mathcal{S}um$ - $\mathcal{P}rod^p$ KP stemming from SP_5^p .

| j | λ_1^j | λ_2^j | Sum | $\widetilde{\mathcal{P}rod^p}$ | L ₂ -DEV |
|-----|---------------|---------------|------------|--------------------------------|---------------------|
| J | λ_1 | λ_2 | Oum | Proap | |
| 0 | - | - | 17,955.000 | 192.966 | 854.879 |
| 1 | 0.995 | 0.005 | 17,955.000 | 192.966 | 854.879 |
| 32 | 0.840 | 0.160 | 17,945.000 | 195.628 | 847.210 |
| 41 | 0.795 | 0.205 | 17,942.000 | 196.714 | 846.224 |
| 73 | 0.635 | 0.365 | 17,927.000 | 199.264 | 838.769 |
| 106 | 0.470 | 0.530 | 17,903.000 | 201.056 | 837.178 |
| 120 | 0.400 | 0.600 | 17,888.000 | 203.606 | 829.870 |
| 130 | 0.350 | 0.650 | 17,876.000 | 205.891 | 824.438 |
| 142 | 0.290 | 0.710 | 17,858.000 | 206.750 | 823.668 |
| 155 | 0.225 | 0.775 | 17,819.000 | 211.088 | 814.514 |
| 170 | 0.150 | 0.850 | 17,756.000 | 211.247 | 814.920 |
| 173 | 0.135 | 0.865 | 17,732.000 | 213.909 | 808.021 |
| 184 | 0.080 | 0.920 | 17,600.000 | 228.255 | 591.583 |
| 191 | 0.045 | 0.955 | 17,574.000 | 230.579 | 588.271 |
| 193 | 0.035 | 0.965 | 17,557.000 | 234.877 | 583.480 |
| 195 | 0.025 | 0.975 | 17,517.000 | 242.248 | 575.717 |
| 200 | - | _ | 16,137.000 | 246.343 | 511.088 |

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