S.I.: HYBRID APPROACHES TO NATURE-INSPIRED OPTIMIZATION ALGORITHMS AND THEIR APPLICATIONS

An adaptive grey wolf optimization with differential evolution operator for solving the discount {0–1} knapsack problem

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Abstract

The discount ${0-1}$ knapsack problem (D ${0-1}$ KP) is a new variant of the knapsack problem. It is an NP-hard problem and also a binary optimization problem. As a new intelligent algorithm that imitates the leadership function of wolves, the grey wolf optimizer (GWO) can solve NP problems more effectively than accurate algorithms. At the same time, the GWO has fewer parameters, faster calculations, and easier implementation than other intelligent algorithms. This paper introduces a method of adaptively updating the prey position of wolves and a differential evolution operator with a scaling factor that adaptively changes according to the number of iterations, and selects which operator to use for iteration by the value of the search agent parameter. Finally, it combines the improved greedy repair operator based on $D \{0-1\}$ KP to form the adaptive grey wolf optimization with differential evolution operator (de-AGWO). The experimental results of the standard test function prove that the algorithm in this paper has a significant improvement in function optimization performance. And the experimental results of $D \{0-1\}$ KP shows that the proposed algorithm yields superior solution outcomes, except for unrelated datasets, and exhibits significant advantages when solving strongly correlated datasets. Finally, it is verified that more than 80% of the iterations utilize the grey wolf evolution operator, highlighting that the core of the algorithm remains the GWO.

Keywords $D \{0-1\} \cdot KP \cdot NP$ -hard \cdot Grey wolf optimizer \cdot Differential evolution operator \cdot Greedy repair operator

1 Introduction

The discount ${0-1}$ knapsack problem (D ${0-1}$ KP) is a more complex variant of the knapsack problem (KP), which has many practical applications in many fields such

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as project selection and budget control. The D {0–1} KP was first proposed by Guldan [[1\]](#page-15-0), and was solved by dynamic programming in his paper.

The concept of discount is taken from the commercial sector, and companies usually provide discounts to consumers. A D {0-1} KP involves $\{\{x_1, x_2, x_3\}, \{x_4, x_5,$ x_6 ,, $\{x_{3n-2}, x_{3n-1}, x_{3n}\}$ items, and the weights and profits of the items are $\{\{w_1, w_2, w_3\}, \{w_4, w_5, w_6\}, \dots \}$ $\{w_{3n-2}, w_{3n-1}, w_{3n}\}\}\$ and $\{\{p_1, p_2, p_3\}, \{p_4, p_5, p_6\}, \ldots\ldots\}$ ${p_{3n-2}, p_{3n-1}, p_{3n}}. Each group $i \in N, N = {1, 2, \ldots, n}$$ consists of three items, which are two original price items x_{3i-2} and x_{3i-1} one discount item x_{3i} respectively. In order to achieve the purpose of bundling sales, the discount item satisfies $w_{3i} < w_{3i-2} + w_{3i-1}$, that is, the weight of purchasing two original price items at the same time is smaller than the weights sum of the two original price items alone. It should be noted that the discount item is not a real

commodity, so each item group can only choose one item to pack into a backpack with a capacity of C.

- 1. Select x_{3i-2} means to select the first product of the $i-th$ item.
- 2. Select x_{3i-1} means to select the second product of the $i-th$ item.
- 3. Select a discount item x_{3i} means to choose to purchase two original-priced products of the $i-th$ item at the same time.

Therefore, the mathematical model of the D {0–1} KP problem can be expressed as follows:

$$
\max f(X) = \max \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{3i-2}p_{3i-2} + x_{3i-1}p_{3i-1} + x_{3i}p_{3i})
$$
\n(1)

Subject to:

$$
x_{3i-2} + x_{3i-1} + x_{3i} \le 1, \quad \forall i \in N
$$
 (2)

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{3i-2}w_{3i-2} + x_{3i-1}w_{3i-1} + x_{3i}w_{3i}) \leq C
$$
 (3)

$$
x_{3i}, x_{3i-1}, x_{3i-2} \in \{0, 1\}, \forall i \in N
$$
\n
$$
(4)
$$

Constraint (2) ensures that only one item in each group is selected. Constraint (3) ensures that the total weight of the items in the backpack is not greater than C. Constraint (4) indicates that each variable $x_i, i \in N$ has a value of 0 or 1. 0 means the item x_i is not selected, and 1 means it is selected.

Since D {0–1} KP is an NP-complete problem, accurate algorithms such as dynamic programming cannot meet the solution requirements after increasing the data set. Later, He et al. [\[2](#page-15-0)] proposed the second mathematical model of the $D \{0-1\}$ KP, designed two elite genetic algorithms to solve the D {0–1} KP, and proposed two greedy repair strategies to repair and optimize individuals, which is defined as follows:

$$
\max f(X) = \max \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[x_i/3 \right] p_{3i-3+x_i} \tag{5}
$$

Subject to:

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[x_i / 3 \right] w_{3i-3+x_i} \le C \tag{6}
$$

$$
x_i \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}, i \in N \tag{7}
$$

x is a top function. An integer variable $x_i, i \in N$ indicates whether there are $i-th$ items in the group that need to be loaded into the backpack. $x_i = 0$, it means that no items in the *i*-*th* group are loaded into the backpack. $x_i = 1$, it means the $3i - 2$ item is loaded into the backpack. $x_i = 2$, which means the $3i - 1$ item is loaded into the backpack. $x_i = 3$, which means the 3*i* item is loaded into the backpack. Integer vector $X = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n] \in$ $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}^n$ is a potential solution to the D $\{0-1\}$ KP. Obviously, the second mathematical model has only one constraint (6), but considering the unsatisfactory results of reference [[2\]](#page-15-0) and the difficulties in the selection of quaternary effective evolution operators. This paper will use the first mathematical model to solve problems.

Based on the work of reference [\[2](#page-15-0)], Researchers use a variety of intelligent algorithms to solve the {0–1} KP. Even so, most intelligent algorithms need to select or control more complex parameters. And the grey wolf optimizer (GWO) [[3\]](#page-15-0), as a new meta-heuristic algorithm proposed by imitating the hunting behavior of grey wolves, has the advantages of few parameters and easy implementation, and has attracted wide attention from researchers. The GWO simulates the group behavior of grey wolves and has a very strict social hierarchy. The α wolf at the top of the pyramid is responsible for making decisions. The β wolves at the second level assist the wolves in decision-making. Other scout wolves and sentry wolves are called δ wolves, and the lowest ranked wolf in the population is called ω wolves. The δ wolf obeys the α and β wolves' dispatch, and dominate the ω wolf's behavior together.

The hunting behavior of wolves around their prey is simulated by the following equation:

$$
x_j(t+1) = x_j^p(t) - g \left| rx_j^p(t) - x_j(t) \right| \tag{8}
$$

where the number of iteration t gradually increases to a pre-determined maximal number G; $x_i(t)$ is the value of solution in the j - th dimension at the t - th iteration; $x_j^p(t)$ represents the current global optimal solution of the problem; random number r is uniformly distributed in $[0, 2][0, 2], \quad g \in [-2 * (1 - t/G), 2 * (1 - t/G)], \quad |g| < 1$ means to attack the prey, the algorithm will perform a local search; $|g| > 1$ means to find a new prey, the algorithm will perform a global search.

From a mathematical point of view, the grey wolf algorithm assumes that α , β and δ have a better understanding of the potential location of the prey, and use the location of these leader wolves $x^{\alpha}, x^{\beta}, x^{\delta}$ to replace the location of the prey. Using Eq. (8), a new position of the prey is iterated according to the position of the prey replaced by the wolf, and then the real new position of the prey is updated by the average value. See Eqs. (9) – (12) for specific operations:

$$
y_1 = x_j^{\alpha}(t) - g_1 \left| r_1 x_j^{\alpha}(t) - x_j^i(t) \right| \tag{9}
$$

$$
y_2 = x_j^{\beta}(t) - g_2 \left| r_2 x_j^{\beta}(t) - x_j^i(t) \right| \tag{10}
$$

$$
y_3 = x_j^{\delta}(t) - g_3 \left| r_3 x_j^{\delta}(t) - x_j^i(t) \right| \tag{11}
$$

$$
x_j^k(t+1) = (y_1 + y_2 + y_3)/3
$$
 (12)

where $k = 1, 2, \ldots, s$, s is the size of the population. The iterative operation of the GWO algorithm is simple and easy. The position of each wolf in the population is updated through the above iterative formula until the number of iterations exceeds a given number or other stopping criteria are met. The grey wolf optimizer can be briefly described as follows:

> initialization repeat Update the position of each wolf by eqs. $(9)-(12)$ Evaluate the new positions of all wolves Update the wolfs of α , β , δ until the stopping criterion reached.

In the following research, Zhu [[4\]](#page-15-0) proposed a discrete differential evolution algorithm (DE) with few parameters and its two variants were proposed to solve the $D \{0-1\}$ KP. The application of differential evolution greatly optimizes the calculation results. We find that the GWO is effective in avoiding local convergence, and the DE is excellent in global search. At the same time, both algorithms have the advantages of few parameters and easy implementation, so this paper will introduce differential evolution operator to improve the GWO to solve $D \{0-1\}$ KP.

From Eq. (8) (8) , we can know that the parameter g determines whether the algorithm performs a global search or a local search. We know that the global search ability of differential evolution operator is excellent, and the local search ability of GWO is also better than other intelligent algorithms. Therefore, in order to integrate the search capabilities of the two algorithms, we will choose different algorithms according to the value of g.

We introduce a simple difference operator as the iterative method of the global search when $g > 1$. The form of the traditional differential evolution operator is as follows:

$$
x_j(t+1) = x_j^p(t) + F(x_{r_1}(t) - x_{r_2}(t))
$$
\n(13)

where x_{r_1} and x_{r_2} represent two random individuals except x_i in the population. F represents the scaling factor, which is generally 0.5. Since there is no selection operator involved, the crossover probability cr will not be introduced here.

From Eq. (13) (13) we can change F into the adaptively changing parameter g to dynamically adjust the scaling factor. The formula for obtaining the parameter g is as follows:

$$
a = 1 - \frac{t}{T} \tag{14}
$$

$$
g=2ra-a
$$

where T represents the maximum number of iterations, and $r \in (0, 1)$ represents a random number. We use the improved Eq. (15) of the differential evolution operator as the iterative form of the grey wolf algorithm when $g > 1$.

$$
x_j(t+1) = x_j^p(t) - g|x_{r_1}(t) - x_{r_2}(t)|
$$
\n(15)

The present article adopts a top-down approach for organizing its content. Section [1](#page-0-0) describes the background and mathematical model of the D {0–1} KP, and introduces the incorporation of differential evolution operators to enhance the GWO for solving the $D \{0-1\}$ KP. Section 2 presents an overview of related research on KP and D ${0-1}$ KP, including prior algorithms and methodologies. The generation and construction process of the proposed algorithm are discussed in detail in Sect. [3.](#page-4-0) Experimental results and analysis comparing the perfor-mance of different algorithms are presented in Sect. [4.](#page-4-0) Section [5](#page-10-0) further discusses the proposed algorithm, analyzing its advantages and limitations. Lastly, Sect. [6](#page-12-0) covers the main contributions of this study and outlines future research directions.

2 Related work

The knapsack problem (KP) is one of the classic combinatorial optimization problems [\[5](#page-15-0)]. It has an important application background in real life. For example, Azad [[6\]](#page-15-0) solves the problem of quadratic knapsack problems in finance and telecommunications through the binary artificial fish swarm algorithm; some projects applications like cutting stock and cargo loading problems can also be transformed into multi-dimensional knapsack problems and solved well [[7\]](#page-15-0). The knapsack problem is also a classic NPhard problem. It has many variations. For example, Li et al. [\[8](#page-15-0)] proposed a tabu search algorithm to solve the bounded knapsack problem with a general upper bound constraint; Poirriez [[9\]](#page-15-0) solved the unbounded knapsack problem by sparse dynamic programming method; Lai et al. [[10\]](#page-15-0) proposed a variable neighborhood quantum particle swarm algorithm to solve the multi-dimensional knapsack problem; Babukarthik et al. [[11\]](#page-15-0) proposed the utilization of the Cluster Particle Swarm Optimization (CPSO) algorithm to address the Multiple-Constraint Knapsack Problem (MCKP) by preserving multiple local optima; Xie et al. [\[12](#page-15-0)] searches on a structural landscape of the problem through the guided generate-and-test behavior under the law of socially biased individual learning to solve the quadratic knapsack problem; Lin et al. [\[13](#page-15-0)] studied the random knapsack problem in switch-over policies and dynamic pricing; Dizdar et al. [\[14](#page-15-0)] studied the application of dynamic knapsack problem in tax maximization.

The D {0–1} KP, as a more complex variant of the KP, has received considerable research attention due to its wide application in practical domains such as budget control. In 2012, Rong [[15\]](#page-15-0) used the core mechanism to divide the D {0–1} KP into several easier sub-problems to solve. In 2016, He [\[16](#page-15-0)] proposed an accurate algorithm for solving the D {0–1} KP based on dynamic programming by deriving a recurrence formula. The above method is still an accurate algorithm in essence. Since D {0–1} KP is an NPcomplete problem, He et al. [[2\]](#page-15-0) proposed the second mathematical model of the $D \{0-1\}$ KP, designed two elite genetic algorithms to solve the D {0–1} KP, and proposed two greedy repair strategies to repair and optimize individuals. Based on such above research, Feng proposed a multi-strategy Overlord Butterfly optimization algorithm [\[17](#page-15-0)] and a binary moth search algorithm based on multiple mutation operators $[18]$ $[18]$ to solve the D $\{0-1\}$ KP. After that, Zhu [[4\]](#page-15-0) proposed a discrete differential evolution algorithm with few parameters and its two variants were proposed to solve the D {0–1} KP, and the feasibility and effectiveness of the algorithm were verified by the method of code conversion. The experimental results of differential evolution algorithm in $D \{0-1\}$ KP have been significantly improved. Table 1 gives the detailed information of the researches on D {0–1} KP.

Nowadays, as an intelligent algorithm with few parameters and easy implementation like the differential evolution algorithm, the GWO has gradually entered the researcher's field of vision. The GWO is a new metaheuristic algorithm proposed by imitating the hunting behavior of gray wolf. Because of its unique perspective of leadership, this algorithm has attracted more and more attention, and it has a wide range of application prospects in the fields of parameterized string similarity metrics [\[19](#page-15-0)], traffic network dispatch [\[20](#page-15-0)], and unmanned combat aircraft path planning [[21\]](#page-15-0).Reference [[22\]](#page-15-0) solved the feature selection problem by introducing the binary gray wolf algorithm. Subsequently, there are many applications of binary gray wolf algorithm to discrete optimization problems, such as the unit commitment problem of power generation systems [[23\]](#page-16-0) and the multidimensional knap-sack problem [\[24](#page-16-0)]. While some studies [[25,](#page-16-0) [26](#page-16-0)] have indicated that optimization techniques inspired by bestial metaphors can be misleading, we believe that the widespread research on GWO is primarily due to its excellent algorithmic performance rather than its origin. This is because the fundamental nature of these intelligent algorithms is similar, and their effectiveness is evaluated based on their ability to solve complex optimization problems rather than solely on their metaphorical inspiration.

Table 1 Researches on D {0–1} KP

References	Main contribution	Algorithm	Pros	Cons
$\lceil 1 \rceil$	First propose the D ${0-1}$ KP	Dynamic programming		
$\lceil 15 \rceil$	Promote the attention of D ${0-1}$ KP	Core mechanism	Divide the $D \{0-1\}$ KP into several easier sub-problems	Only suitable for small data volume
$\lceil 16 \rceil$	Researsh the D ${0-1}$ KP more systematically	Derive a recurrence formula and use a binary particle swarm optimization	Based on the principle of minimizing the total weight with the given sum of value coefficients	Still an accurate algorithm, and the research on approximate algorithm is not deep enough
$\lceil 2 \rceil$	Establish two new mathematical models of the D ${0-1}$ KP	Genetic algorithm with elitist reservation strategy	New mathematical model simplifies the $D \{0-1\}$ KP and lays a foundation for the following research	
[17, 18]	Start using intelligent algorithm to solve the D ${0-1}$ KP	Multi-strategy overlord butterfly optimization algorithm and binary moth search algorithm based on multiple mutation operators	The performance of the algorithm is greatly improved	Complex parameters
$\lceil 4 \rceil$	Use a new intelligent algorithm	Discrete differential evolution algorithm	Few parameters and excellent solving performance	

3 The binary GWO for the D {0–1} KP

3.1 Population initialization and evaluation criteria

We know that an excellent initial population can increase the efficiency of the heuristic algorithm, but it should be considered based on the actual situation of the problem.

A solution of D {0–1} KP is a binary vector $x = [x_1, x_2, ..., x_j, ..., x_{3n-1}, x_{3n}], x_j = 1$ means that j - th is selected, otherwise $x_i = 0$. A feasible solution of D {0-1} KP needs to meet the weight constraint and logic constraint. The weight constraint means that the maximum weight of the backpack cannot be exceeded, and the logic constraint means that each group can only select one item. Taking into account that the population must be repaired by the repair operator after initializing the population, it is difficult to improve the initialization of the $D \{0-1\}$ KP population and is of little value. At present, most studies [\[2](#page-15-0), [4](#page-15-0), [17](#page-15-0), [18\]](#page-15-0) have no way to improve the initial population.

The evaluation criterion of $D \{0-1\}$ KP is the fitness function calculation method using the first mathematical model [[1\]](#page-15-0), see Eq. ([1\)](#page-1-0), and related constraints see Eqs. ([2\)](#page-1-0)– $(4).$ $(4).$

3.2 Repair operator based on greedy strategy

When we solve constrained optimization problems, the common methods to deal with abnormal individuals are Penalty function approach [[27\]](#page-16-0), Repair approach [[28\]](#page-16-0) and Separatist approach [\[29](#page-16-0)]. These methods have their own advantages and disadvantages, and they are not universal. Michalewicz [\[30](#page-16-0)] found that the repair method based on the greedy strategy is better than the penalty function method in dealing with abnormal individuals through comparison. In fact, in the iterative process of the algorithm, if there are a large number of infeasible solutions, it is not appropriate to use the penalty function method.

The repair strategy proposed in reference [[2\]](#page-15-0) only sorts the value density. However, in some cases, items with large weight and value cannot be chosen into the backpack, leading to premature convergence of the algorithm. This paper improves the repair operator of reference [[2\]](#page-15-0) and introduces two options, taking into the account value density and the value itself.

The value density formula is as follow:

$$
\rho_j = p_j/w_j, j = 1, 2, ..., 3n \tag{16}
$$

where p_i is the value of the $j-th$ item and w_i is the weight of the $j-th$ item.

The improved greedy repair algorithm is as follow:

Algorithm 1. Input: P,W,x,C,n Output: $x, f(x)$ 1: $A = [P/W;1:3n]$; 2: $T = -sortrows(-A',1)$; 3: $T = T(2, :);$ 4: $H_1 = \text{find}(sum(reshape(x, 3, 3n)) > 1);$ 5: $[\neg, b] = size(H_1);$ 6: for $i = 1:b$ 7: $j = H_1(i);$ $8:$ $x(3j-2) = x(3j-1) = 0;$ 9: $x(3 * j) = 1;$ $10:$ end 11: for $i = 3n : 1:1$ 12: if $x \, W' > C$ $13:$ $x(A(i))=0;$ 14: end 15 : end 16: $H_2 = \text{find}(sum(reshape(x, 3, 3n))) = 0$; 17: for $i = 1: 3n$ 18: if $find(H, = cell(A(i)/3))$ if $xW' + W(A(i)) \le C$ $19:$ $20:$ $x(A(i))=1$: $21:$ end 22: elseif $mod(A(i), 3) = 0$ $23:$ $x' = x;$ $24:$ $x'(A(i)) = 1;$ $25:$ $x'(A(i)-2) = x'(A(i)-1) = 0;$ $26:$ if $x^t W \leq C$ $27:$ $x = x$. $28:$ end $29:$ end 30: end

Algorithm 1. not only considers the value density, but also solves the problem that in some cases, those items with large weight and value cannot enter the backpack.

3.3 Feasible solution generation and algorithm iteration

In order to improve the detection capability of GWO, researchers have adopted various methods. Saremi [[31\]](#page-16-0) adopted the strategy of survival of the fittest to improve the median fitness of the population. Heidari and Pahlavani introduced Levy flight and greedy selection strategies in

[\[32](#page-16-0)] to enhance the algorithm, but the algorithm time complexity is higher. In reference [[33\]](#page-16-0), Luo proposed a new model to dynamically estimate the position of the prey, as follow:

$$
x_j^p(t) = \omega_\alpha x_j^\alpha(t) + \omega_\beta x_j^\beta(t) + \omega_\delta x_j^\delta(t) + \varepsilon(t)
$$
\n(17)

where ω_{α} , ω_{β} and ω_{δ} respectively denotes the adaptive weights of alpha wolf, beta wolf and delta wolf, and are obtained by the following formulas:

$$
\omega_{\alpha} = \frac{f(x_{\alpha})}{f(x_{\alpha}) + f(x_{\beta}) + f(x_{\delta})}
$$
\n
$$
\omega_{\beta} = \frac{f(x_{\beta})}{f(x_{\alpha}) + f(x_{\beta}) + f(x_{\delta})}
$$
\n
$$
\omega_{\delta} = \frac{f(x_{\delta})}{f(x_{\alpha}) + f(x_{\beta}) + f(x_{\delta})}
$$
\n
$$
\omega_{\alpha} + \omega_{\beta} + \omega_{\delta} = 1
$$
\n
$$
0 < \omega_{\alpha}, \omega_{\beta}, \omega_{\delta} \le 1
$$
\n(19)

Reference [\[31](#page-16-0)] has proved that the performance of GWO based on dynamic weight is better than the original algorithm.

Combining the above methods of generating new individuals, we obtain the iterative operator of this paper. When $g > 1$, we have Eq. [\(15](#page-2-0)) for global search; when $g\lt1$, we have the following formula, mainly for local search:

$$
y = x_j^k(t+1) = x_j^p(t) - g \left| 2rx_j^p(t) - x_j^k(t) \right| \tag{20}
$$

where, $r \in (0, 1)$ is a random number.

Since the individual wolves are discrete binary values, it is also necessary to introduce a transform function. The selection of the transform function should be based on the actual situation, where the discussion will be introduced in Sect. [5](#page-10-0). From the above, the discretization coding formula of individual wolf is as follow:

$$
z_j^k = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } rand < \varphi(y) \\ 0, & otherwise \end{cases}
$$
 (21)

During the comparative experiment in this paper, the transform function is $\varphi(y) = 1/(1 + e^{-10*(y-0.5)})$.

So we obtain the adaptive grey wolf optimization algorithm based on the search agent parameter g, called adaptive gray wolf optimization with differential evolution operator (de-AGWO), See Algorithm 2:

Algorithm 2. Input: $P, W, x, C, popsize, n, \text{MaxIt}$ Output: X_{best} , f_{best} 1: Initialization: x_{α} , x_{β} , x_{δ} ; f_{α} , f_{β} , f_{δ} = 0; $WP = round(rand(popsize, 3n))$; 2: while $t <$ MaxIt 3: for $i = 1$: popsize repair $WP(i)$ by Algorithm 1; $4:$ $f(i) = WP(i)*P;$ $5.$ 6: if $f(i) > f_a$ $7:$ $f_{\alpha} = f(i)$ and $x_{\alpha} = W P(i)$; elseif $f(i) < f_a \&\&f(i) > f_a$ 8: $f_{\beta} = f(i)$ and $x_{\beta} = W P(i)$; 9: $10:$ elseif $f(i) < f_a \& \& f(i) > f_a$ $f_s = f(i)$ and $x_s = W P(i)$; $11:$ $12:$ end 13: $f_{best}(t) = f_{\alpha};$ 14: end 15: use eqs. (17)-(19) to get x_n 16: use eqs. (14) to get g 17: for $i = 1$: popsize for $j = 1:3n$ $18:$ 19: if $g > 1$ use eq. (15) to get new $WP(i, j)$; $20:$ $21:$ else $22:$ use eq. (20) to get new $WP(i, j)$; $23:$ end $24.$ end $25:$ end 26: $t = t + 1;$ $27:$ use eq. (21) to discretize $WP(i, j)$; 28: end

The time complexity of step.3–14 is $O(MaxIt * (popsize * 3n))$, and the time complexity of step.17–25 is $O(MaxIt * (popsize * 3n))$, so the time complexity of the algorithm is $O(MaxIt * \textit{popsize} * n)$.

Unlike reference $[24]$ $[24]$, this paper does not retain the evolutionary mechanism of external archives composed of three best different historical solutions, but adopts an elite retention strategy. The elite retention strategy can better describe the nature of the leading wolves in the wolf pack that will continue to replace during the population iteration, and the amount of its calculation is smaller.

The flowchart of the algorithm is shown in Fig. [1.](#page-6-0)

Fig. 1 The flowchart of de-AGWO

4 Experiments

The algorithms of this paper were written in MATLAB, and all the simulation platforms of them is Intel (R) Core (TM) i7-7700HQ CPU, 8.0 GB RAM, and the experimental environment is MATLAB2016a.

4.1 Function optimization experiments of de-AGWO

In Sect. [3,](#page-2-0) we have got the complete de-AGWO for solving the $D \{0-1\}$ KP. In order to prove the performance of the algorithm in function optimization, we selected 15 standard test functions from reference [\[3](#page-15-0)] to conduct experiments

and proved the superiority of the improved algorithm by comparing the traditional GWO and de-AGWO. The form of the standard test functions are shown in Table [2.](#page-7-0)

We selected 5 unimodal benchmark functions, 5 multimodal benchmark functions and 5 fixed-dimensional multimodal benchmark functions. We run 30 experiments on each function, the population size is fixed at 30, and the number of iterations from f_1 to f_{10} is fixed at 1000.

Because the multimodal benchmark functions need more iterations to see the difference, we choose the number of iterations to be 2000. The experimental results are as follow:

From Table [3,](#page-8-0) we can see that the solution performance of de-AGWO in function optimization has been significantly improved. It not only solves the defect that traditional GWO falls into local convergence when solving multimodal functions, but also greatly improves the accuracy of the algorithm as a whole. The experimental results prove that the algorithm in this paper is superior and feasible, which lays the foundation for us to solve practical problems later.

4.2 Experiments and analysis of the D {0–1} KP

In this section, we will compare 7 different intelligent algorithms through the results of the algorithm running on 40 general standard data sets. Among them, the running results of The FirEGA [[2\]](#page-15-0), MMBO [[18\]](#page-15-0), MS1 [\[4](#page-15-0)] and MDBBA [[34\]](#page-16-0) will directly quote the experimental results in the references.

The first four algorithm termination conditions in the comparison algorithm are the number of iterations, which are set to a constant equal to the dimension of the test set $(3 * n, n = 100, 200, \ldots, 1000)$. In order to ensure the fairness of the experiment, the population size of the algorithm is all 50, so the evaluation times of the fitness function are all greater than or equal to $50 * 3 * n$. Due to the obvious advantages of HBDE [\[4](#page-15-0)], BGWO and de-AGWO algorithms, the number of iterations of the algorithm here is a constant 100, so the number of function evaluations are all $50 * 100 = 5000$. It is worth mentioning that when the number of iterations *MaxIt* and the population size *popsize* are both linearly related to n , the time complexity of all algorithms in the comparative experiment is $O(n^3)$. It is worth explaining that the space complexity of the algorithms when solving the $D \{0-1\}$ KP all defaults to the population size $p *$ the capacity of the backpack *n*, i.e., $o(p*n)$, independently of the algorithm used.

Table 2 Benchmark functions

4.2.1 Algorithm comparison

Tables [4](#page-9-0), [5,](#page-10-0) [6](#page-11-0) and [7](#page-12-0) shows the calculation results of 40 D {0–1} KP instances, and the experimental times are all 30. To ensure the fairness of the comparison experiment, we applied the same mathematical model (the first mathematical model) and the same repair mechanism. From the figure we can see the best value, the mean value, the worst value and the standard deviation (std) of the results of the algorithms. The optimal solution (opt) of the instance is shown in the first column. As part of the data in the table is quoted from different references, there may be missing. Some missing algorithm calculation results and std values have been shown in the table. The parameter settings of the algorithm are consistent with the references.

From the results of the four examples, it can be seen that in the UDKP and WDKP instances, the de-AGWO solution is slightly better than the HBDE algorithm; in the SDKP instances, the de-AGWO algorithm has significant advantages, indicating that the de-AGWO algorithm is suitable for data sets with strong correlation; HBDE only has a greater advantage in the IDKP instances. On the whole, we can also conclude that the de-AGWO algorithm has absolute advantages when the amount of data is small.

From the perspective of standard deviation, we find that the standard deviation of the de-AGWO algorithm is always slightly larger than that of HBDE, indicating that the algorithm in this paper has good population diversity in the search process, the search is more comprehensive, and the possibility of search stagnation is less.

4.2.2 Further analysis

In order to further compare the pros and cons of HBDE, BGWO and de-AGWO, we chose the run time and the Gap chart of the result as the basis for judgment.

Figure [2](#page-13-0) shows that under the four data sets, the run time of HBDE is always much higher than that of GWO, indicating that GWO has a significant advantage in run time, although the time complexity of the two algorithms is approximately equal.

Table 3 Results of benchmark

Table 3 Results of benchmark functions	Function	Algorithm	Mean	Std	Worst	Best
	$\mathbf{1}$	GWO	2.75E-22	1.91E-22	8.57E-22	1.11E-22
		de-AGWO	8.46E-33	2.07E-32	6.84E-32	5.66E-43
	$\sqrt{2}$	GWO	1.81E-12	5.21E-13	2.82E-12	8.6E-13
		de-AGWO	1.99E-21	3.02E-21	1.02E-20	7.6E-24
	3	GWO	3.789854	0.6685	5.020351	1.772087
		de-AGWO	0.77773	0.425724	1.626108	8.95E-05
	$\overline{\mathcal{L}}$	GWO	0.000281	0.000146	0.000671	6.61E-05
		de-AGWO	1.33E-06	2.09E-06	8.4E-06	1.89E-08
	5	GWO	28.48963	0.514144	28.93085	27.13229
		de-AGWO	26.81932	0.967778	28.75627	25.65882
	6	GWO	-5817.44	1023.341	-3904.11	-8651.28
		de-AGWO	-5697.36	65.66914	-5593.11	-5814.77
	τ	GWO	36.05262	11.00228	72.74691	18.86379
		de-AGWO	2.509096	8.879194	44.65311	$\boldsymbol{0}$
	8	GWO	2.248438	0.427678	3.133562	1.484606
		de-AGWO	0.793723	0.347946	1.406806	0.133093
	9	GWO	0.005895	0.006509	0.015943	7.77E-16
		de-AGWO	0.00053	0.002902	0.015894	$\boldsymbol{0}$
	10	GWO	1.383046	0.466934	2.642859	0.429232
		de-AGWO	0.078053	0.104385	0.601156	0.011758
	11	GWO	10.29463	5.256509	18.30431	0.998004
		de-AGWO	0.998004	3.18E-11	0.998004	0.998004
	12	GWO	0.002401	0.006158	0.020942	0.000307
		de-AGWO	0.000674	0.000456	0.001223	0.000307
	13	GWO	-7.98372	3.197686	-2.63047	-10.1532
		de-AGWO	-8.96656	2.187424	-5.0552	-10.1532
	14	GWO	0.397887	5.16E-08	0.397888	0.397887
		de-AGWO	0.39789	1.13E-05	0.397949	0.397887
	15	GWO	10.20001	21.19271	84	\mathfrak{Z}
		de-AGWO	3.000004	6.42E-06	3.000028	3

The value of *best* is an important index to evaluate the performance of the algorithm. In order to further compare the performance of the three algorithms, this paper introduces an evaluation index Gap, the formula is as follow:

$$
Gap = \frac{|opt - best|}{opt} \tag{22}
$$

where *opt* is the theoretical optimal value and *best* is the mean values obtained by our experiments.

It can be seen from Fig. [3](#page-14-0) that the de-AGWO of the UDKP instances is slightly worse than HBDE; in the other instances, de-AGWO is significantly better than HBDE; especially in the IDKP instances, de-AGWO can obtain the optimal solution for almost all cases. It is worth mentioning that de-AGWO is almost always better than HBDE when the amount of data is small. The average Gap graph analysis of the results is basically consistent with the analysis based on the tables.

4.3 Additional experiments and analysis

In the first two sections, we have proved the superiority of our algorithm through experiments. Now we will discuss the selection of the transformation function and the use ratio of two operators of de-AGWO. The former ensures the optimal transformation function of the algorithm, and the latter shows that the main iterative mode of de-AGWO still depends on the grey wolf evolution operator.

4.3.1 Transform function

Since the original GWO is a heuristic algorithm for solving continuous problems, the transform function plays a pivotal role in solving binary problems [[24\]](#page-16-0). There are two types of transform functions: S-type and V-type. In order to find a suitable transform function for the D {0–1} KP, this paper

FirEGA MMBO MS1 MDBBA HBDE BGWO de-AGWO UDKP1 opt: 85,740 Best 80,101 82,703 84,200 78,939 85,624 85,503 85,643 Mean 79,325.3 79,406.0 82,763.0 77,706.9 85,498.1 85,325.7 85,591.1 Worst 78,499 75,624 81,131 76,370 85,451 85,230 85,437 Std – – – – – – 52.7 73.5 56.3 UDKP2 opt: 163,744 Best 152,969 158,465 161,133 152,633 163,153 162,616 163,325 Mean 151,045.2 155,976.0 158,503.0 150,162.6 162,964.7 162,368.6 162,924.9 Worst 149,732 153,570 155,911 148,682 162,784 162,172 162,610 Std – – – – 138.6 132.9 178.7 UDKP3opt: 269,393 Best 244,291 253,629 251,954 242,408 268,358 268,203 268,532 Mean 241,061.2 246,651.0 249,646.0 238,121.1 268,227.1 267,916.0 268,330.7 Worst 239,114 242,352 244,938 234,591 268,067 267,665 268,079 Std – – – – 76.8 136.7 110.0 UDKP4opt: 347,599 Best 319,680 333,253 332,554 321,661 346,318 345,813 346,414 Mean 316,503.4 329,155.0 320,776.0 318,714.3 346,214.2 345,602.5 346,007.5 Worst 313,141 315,914 315,150 315,742 346,125 345,464 345,773 Std – – – – 53.5 89.6 146.6 UDKP5opt: 442,644 Best 403,908 414,526 405,222 402,836 439,458 438,930 439,428 Mean 399,525.2 403,898.0 400,653.0 398,440.6 439,237.6 438,452.5 439,023.5 Worst 396,937 395,473 395,533 394,194 439,073 438,218 438,724 Std – – – – 111.6 188.0 211.4 UDKP6opt: 536,578 Best 483,350 486,156 487,014 479,233 533,233 532,794 533,520 Mean 478,779.5 480,552.0 481,401.0 474,065.1 533,103.1 532,477.3 533,075.1 Worst 474,558 474,406 476,628 470,267 532,984 532,266 532,828 Std – – – – 82.7 142.4 166.1 UDKP7: opt: 635,860 Best 564,656 615,617 618,146 569,559 **633,401** 632,636 633,092 Mean 559,815.4 608,351.0 604,287.0 565,561.6 633,224.4 632,388.3 632,790.4 Worst 555,763 599,086 588,175 560,807 632,969 632,229 632,355 Std – – – – – – 121.7 97.1 150.9 UDKP8:opt: 650,206 Best 590,237 617,036 596,452 593,212 646,959 645,841 646,682 Mean 584,264.3 610,379.0 581,196.0 589,469.9 646,834.9 645,387.9 646,209.4 Worst 580,258 603,906 575,279 585,734 646,638 645,152 645,783 Std – – – – 85.8 188.1 220.6 UDKP9opt: 718,532 Best 652,354 687,790 661,984 649,101 715,353 714,194 714,439 Mean 646,592.2 683,032.0 652,572.0 646,157.2 714,915.4 713,755.2 714,056.6 Worst 642,965 677,702 644,955 642,170 714,553 713,538 713,723 Std – – – – 219.5 154.3 198.9 UDKP10opt: 779,460 Best 708,744 755,675 719,003 713,574 **774,075** 772,318 773,268 Mean 703,947.8 748,568.0 713,858.0 707,078.1 773,847.5 772,140.5 772,765.9 Worst 700,702 739,292 706,131 701,777 773,577 771,994 772,470 Std – – – – 122.7 104.0 212.2

Table 4 Results on the best, mean, worst and std for UDKP instances

Result reaches the theoretical optimal solution for the benchmark are shown in bold

selects a total of 5 transform functions of two types, see Table [8](#page-13-0).

times in total, and we get the box plot Fig. [4](#page-14-0) of the program running results after 30 runs.

The following comparison experiments are completed through a set of smaller test sets and a set of larger test sets in the SDKP and IDKP examples. The algorithm is run 30

It can be seen from Fig. [4](#page-14-0) that the V-type transformation function has a relatively stable performance in different instances and the size of the data set; the S-1 type has the best population diversity but the operating result is the

Result reaches the theoretical optimal solution for the benchmark are shown in bold

worst; on the whole, the S-2 type is the best and can meet the needs of the transformation function to solve the D {0–1} KP.

4.3.2 The use ratio of the two operators

In order to study the usage of the two evolutionary operators, we set two parameters respectively to record the usage times of the two kinds of operators.

	FirEGA	MMBO	MS1	MDBBA	HBDE	BGWO	de-AGWO	
SDKP1opt: 94,459	Best	93,316	93,686	94,030	93,401	94,416	94,332	94,423
	Mean	93,192.8	93,222.1	93,695.0	93,102.4	94,400.0	94,282.8	94,387.5
	Worst	93,064	92,371	93,376	92,927	94,388	94,242	94,361
	Std	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$		10.5	26.7	15.3
SDKP2opt: 160,805	Best	159,116	159,881	159,019	159,265	160,518	160,436	160,618
	Mean	158,936.7	159,442.2	158,082.0	159,140.3	160,457.0	160,373.9	160,521.6
	Worst	158,798	158,433	155,574	159,088	160,389	160,299	160,394
	Std	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	37.5	45.1	57.9
SDKP3opt: 238,248	Best	235,372	236,896	236,634	235,623	238,118	237,943	238,118
	Mean	235,204.4	236,208.7	236,070.0	235,498.2	237,997.1	237,881.7	238,016.4
	Worst	235,015	232,114	235,765	235,474	237,865	237,854	237,882
	Std	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	57.6	32.7	52.4
SDKP4opt: 340,027	Best	336,369	338,392	337,954	336,813	339,239	338,939	339,594
	Mean	335,844.7	337,522.0	337,248.0	336,681.0	339,134.7	338,850.6	339,339.2
	Worst	335,524	336,733	336,834	336,631	339,067	338,776	339,143
	Std			$\overline{}$		47.1	59.7	102.3271
SDKP5opt: 463,033	Best	451,184	457,678	455,491	452,908	461,889	461,748	462,187
	Mean	447,335.9	454,344.0	454,026.0	450,961.1	461,847.2	46,162.7	462,037.3
	Worst	444,252	452,356	452,553	448,084	461,754	461,517	461,888
	Std	$\overline{}$				44.0	60.6	86.0
SDKP6opt: 466,097	Best	459,236	462,237	461,242	460,036	465,039	464,742	465,179
	Mean	458,746.1	460,603.0	460,729.0	459,904.2	464,904.0	464,655.9	464,949.7
	Worst	458,427	457,323	460,178	459,834	464,769	464,599	464,741
	Std	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	74.1	45.6	124.7
SDKP7: opt: 620,446	Best	607,200	614,167	609,852	607,838	619,337	619,173	619,578
	Mean	602,797.7	610,971.0	608,712.0	606,565.4	619,234.1	619,086.1	619,373.1
	Worst	600,496	606,124	604,763	603,387	619,154	618,997	619,205
	Std			$\overline{}$		43.4	45.2	91.3
SDKP8: opt: 670,697	Best	661,104	665,183	663,804	662,718	669,037	668,919	669,377
	Mean	659,844.6	663,766.0	663,103.0	662,565.9	668,981.1	668,836.2	669,174.8
	Worst	659,120	649,495	662,574	662,515	668,899	668,783	668,981
	Std					44.7	33.0	102.3
SDKP9opt: 739,121	Best	728,443	734,825	731,439	730,185	737,433	737,363	737,682
	Mean	727,364.5	733,517.0	730,654.0	730,048.4	737,334.6	737,251.7	737,386.6
	Worst	726,872	732,477	730,204	729,979	737,245	737,168	737,184
	Std			$\overline{}$	-	56.4	48.4	104.1
SDKP10opt: 765,317	Best	755,189	760,814	757,821	757,128	763,846	763,629	763,770
	Mean	752,931	759,625.0	757,466.0	756,903.3	763,674	763,577.8	763,654
	Worst	749,879	757,750	757,158	756,851	763,582	763,534	763,574
	Std	$\qquad \qquad -$	-	-	-	67.4	29.7	51.1

Table 6 Results on the best, mean, worst and std for SDKP instances

Result reaches the theoretical optimal solution for the benchmark are shown in bold

The data set used in the experiment is the IDKP instances with a small standard deviation. Each instance is calculated 30 times, the usage of the operator is recorded, and the average value is taken for analysis.

where the parameters de and gw respectively represent the number of times which the differential evolution operator and the grey wolf evolution operator are used in 100 iterations.

From Table [9](#page-15-0), we can find that with the increase of the data set, the usage of the differential evolution operator increases, indicating that the proportion of the algorithm in Table 7 Results on the best, mean, worst and std for IDKP instances

Result reaches the theoretical optimal solution for the benchmark are shown in bold

the global search increases, which is consistent with the actual demand.

In general, GWO's operator accounts for about 84%, indicating that the grey wolf algorithm is still the main part.

5 Discuss

From the perspective of function optimization, our experimental results have shown that the de-AGWO has achieved a significant improvement in optimization capability across all benchmark sets. It effectively addresses the issue of local convergence and can be applied to

Table 8 The transform

Table 8 The transform functions	type	Transform function
	$S-1$	$\frac{1}{\rho^y}$
	$S-2$	$\frac{1}{1}$ + e ^{-10(y-0.5)}
	$V-1$	$ \tanh y $
	$V-2$	$y/\sqrt{1+y^2}$
	$V-3$	$ \arctan \pi/2y $

challenging function optimization scenarios, including fixed-dimensional multimodal benchmark functions.

Meanwhile, a comparative analysis of specific instances reveals that the de-AGWO exhibits significantly superior experimental performance on strongly correlated datasets (SDKP) compared to other algorithms, rendering it more suitable for real-world scenarios, given that most practical datasets exhibit strong correlation. Moreover, de-AGWO demonstrates excellent performance on other datasets as well, particularly when dealing with small-scale data, presenting an absolute advantage for de-AGWO. To ensure the algorithm achieves optimal results, we meticulously select the most appropriate transformation function (S-2 type) through experimental evaluation. Importantly, the experimental results demonstrate that the core of the algorithm remains unchanged, with the grey wolf evolution operator still constituting the main iterative process, accounting for over 80% of the total number of iterations.

The de-AGWO proposed in this paper guarantees the status of the three leader wolves in the population (always actually exist in the population), and the algorithm is easy to implement. The most important improvement is that the algorithm in this paper uses two iterative operators (differential evolution operator and gray wolf evolution operator) for the value of search agent parameter g, and adopts an adaptive iterative formula for the position of the head wolf, which effectively makes up the defect that GWO's global search and local search cannot be considered at the same time. According to the experimental results, the proposed de-AGWO algorithm is better than other heuristic algorithms in comprehensive performance, and its framework is universal.

Nevertheless, our algorithm does have certain limitations. Like other heuristic algorithms, we are unable to mathematically prove the superiority of this algorithm. Furthermore, de-AGWO is specifically designed for the discounted {0–1} knapsack problem, and it needs to build a new model when applied to other specialized knapsack problems. Although GWO has the advantage of fewer parameters, the selection of transform function and the design of repair operator are still difficult problems to be faced when solving specific problems. Fig. 2 The run time of three algorithms on four DKP instances

a) the run time of the UDKP instances

b) the run time of the WDKP instances

c) the run time of the SDKP instances

d) the run time of the IDKP instances

a) Gap for UDKP instances

b) Gap for WDKP instances

c) Gap for SDKP instances

d) Gap for IDKP instances

a) Boxplot of the five transform functions on SDKP1

463100					
462000					
460900					
459800					
458700					
457600					$S-$
456500					$S-2$ v
455400					v.
45430					

b) Boxplot of the five transform functions on SDKP5

70350					
70140					
69930					
69720					
69510					
69300					
69090	Ŧ.				$S-1$ $S-2$
68880					v-
68670					$V-2$
68460					$V-3$

c) Boxplot of the five transform functions on IDKP1

336150						
335340						
334530						
333720						
332910						
332100						$S-1$
331290						$S-2$
330480	$\overline{\mathbf{a}}$					$V -$ $V-2$
329670						$V-3$

d) Boxplot of the five transform functions on IDKP5

Fig. 4 The boxplot of the five transform functions on four DKP

6 Conclusion

This paper discussed a variant of KP. For the D {0–1} KP, BGWO is used for the first time, and we improve the wolf pack by using an adaptive wolf pack update method. The most important improvement is that we decide to use the differential evolution operator or the grey wolf evolution operator by the value of the search agent parameters, which

Table 9 The use ratio of the two operators

IDKP	de	gw
1	11.7	88.3
2	14.1	85.9
3	12.2	87.8
$\overline{4}$	13.5	86.5
5	13.8	86.2
6	16.0	84.0
7	20.5	79.5
8	15.9	84.1
9	22.7	77.3
10	21.2	78.8
Avg	16.16	83.84

can make the algorithm have excellent performance in both global search and local search. This paper also introduced a greedy repair operator based on the D {0–1} KP. The proposed de-AGWO algorithm has the best comprehensive test performance on the four general data sets of the D {0–1} KP. Experiments show that de-AGWO has the richest population diversity, and the comprehensive consideration of average optimal value and run time is the best.

In addition, we compared and found the best suitable transform function for this experiment by setting different transform functions. We also discussed the proportion of the two operators used in the entire algorithm, and the results show that the grey wolf operator still occupies a dominant position. It is worth mentioning that, except that the binary discrete coding and repair operator are adjusted for $D \{0-1\}$ KP, the overall framework of the algorithm is common to KP. When solving other binary discrete optimization problems, only need to redesign individual coding rules and repair operator.

The research on $D \{0-1\}$ KP in this paper avoids the problem of how to generate an initial population of elites. This factor has a significant impact on the performance of the heuristic algorithm, which is also a challenge we will face in the future.

Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability The hyperlinks to the datasets used in this paper are as follows: <https://github.com/whutcold/data.>

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