RESEARCH ARTICLE

An Efficient Multilevel Threshold Image Segmentation Method for COVID‑19 Imaging Using Q‑Learning Based Golden Jackal Optimization

Zihao Wang1 [·](http://orcid.org/0000-0002-8595-4924) Yuanbin Mo1,[2](http://orcid.org/0000-0002-0929-7766) · Mingyue Cui1

Received: 6 February 2023 / Revised: 23 April 2023 / Accepted: 26 April 2023 / Published online: 14 June 2023 © Jilin University 2023

Abstract

From the end of 2019 until now, the Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) has been rampaging around the world, posing a great threat to people's lives and health, as well as a serious impact on economic development. Considering the severely infectious nature of COVID-19, the diagnosis of COVID-19 has become crucial. Identifcation through the use of Computed Tomography (CT) images is an efficient and quick means. Therefore, scientific researchers have proposed numerous segmentation methods to improve the diagnosis of CT images. In this paper, we propose a reinforcement learning-based golden jackal optimization algorithm, which is named QLGJO, to segment CT images in furtherance of the diagnosis of COVID-19. Reinforcement learning is combined for the frst time with meta-heuristics in segmentation problem. This strategy can efectively overcome the disadvantage that the original algorithm tends to fall into local optimum. In addition, one hybrid model and three diferent mutation strategies were applied to the update part of the algorithm in order to enrich the diversity of the population. Two experiments were carried out to test the performance of the proposed algorithm. First, compare QLGJO with other advanced meta-heuristics using the IEEE CEC2022 benchmark functions. Secondly, QLGJO was experimentally evaluated on CT images of COVID-19 using the Otsu method and compared with several well-known meta-heuristics. It is shown that QLGJO is very competitive in benchmark function and image segmentation experiments compared with other advanced meta-heuristics. Furthermore, the source code of the QLGJO is publicly available at [https://](https://github.com/Vang-z/QLGJO) github.com/Vang-z/QLGJO.

Keywords COVID-19 · Bionic algorithm · Golden jackal optimization · Image segmentation · Otsu and Kapur method

1 Introduction

COVID-19 was an unprecedented human pandemic in recent decades [[1,](#page-37-0) [2\]](#page-37-1). The frst case of COVID-19 was reported in Wuhan, China, in December 2019, but there is no conclusive

 \boxtimes Yuanbin Mo moyuanbin2020@gxmzu.edu.cn Zihao Wang vang-z@stu.gxmzu.edu.cn

Mingyue Cui 202120812001865@stu.gxmzu.edu.cn

- ¹ School of Artificial Intelligence, Guangxi Minzu University, Nanning, China
- ² Guangxi Key Laboratory of Hybrid Computation and IC Design Analysis, Guangxi Minzu University, Nanning 530006, China

evidence as far as its origin is concerned [\[3](#page-37-2)]. Due to its severe transmissibility, 600 million infections have accumulated worldwide to date, with irreversible effects on the global economy and human lives [[4\]](#page-37-3). Cough, fever, sore throat, headache, and physical fatigue are all symptoms of COVID-19 [[5\]](#page-37-4). In addition, COVID-19 can cause fbrosis of the lung tissue and lead to various complications that seriously threaten the health of patients [\[6](#page-37-5)]. Therefore, according to the above, healthcare providers need to have the means to detect this disease in time to prevent and interrupt the spread of the epidemic. The most common assay is Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR), which is frequently used by medical institutions all over the world [[7](#page-37-6)]. However, this work is timeconsuming, costly, and most importantly, it has the potential for false-positive results. Considering that COVID-19 causes fbrosis in patients' lung tissues, chest CT has become a more reliable means of detection [\[8](#page-37-7)]. CT images can clearly refect the internal anatomy of the body tissues and also the nature of the lesions, which is a great help for the clinical counterpart treatment. The reasonable segmentation of CT images can further improve the efficiency of disease diagnosis by medical personnel. Therefore, image segmentation has become a common technique in medical imaging [\[9](#page-37-8)].

Segmentation is a key step in image processing and it plays an indispensable role in diferent felds such as remote sensing $[10]$ $[10]$ $[10]$, feature selection $[11]$ $[11]$ $[11]$, computer vision $[12]$ $[12]$ $[12]$, medical imaging [\[13](#page-37-12)], and cryptography [\[14](#page-37-13)], etc. The main goal of image segmentation is to fnd a suitable threshold to segment an image into multiple regions containing the same features based on texture, color, brightness, or contrast. There are numerous approaches to solving the segmentation problem, such as edge-based [\[15](#page-37-14)], region-based [[16\]](#page-37-15), threshold-based [[17\]](#page-37-16), and feature clustering-based [[18\]](#page-37-17). However, according to a large literature summary, the threshold-based segmentation method relies on its simplicity and efficiency to be the preferred solution [[19–](#page-37-18)[21](#page-37-19)]. Threshold segmentation is divided into two types in terms of broad categories: one is bi-level threshold segmentation and the other is multi-level threshold segmentation. Bi-level threshold segmentation is the simplest segmentation method and is now well established. It segments an image region into two classes by determining an optimal threshold value. On the other hand, multilevel thresholding is used to segment an image into several diferent parts by maximizing or minimizing the objective function for a given number of thresholds to determine the threshold value. The most common multilevel thresholding methods include Fuzzy entropy [[9\]](#page-37-8), Kapur's entropy [[22](#page-37-20)], Tsallis entropy [\[23](#page-38-0)], and Otsu method [[24\]](#page-38-1). Although multilevel thresholding is theoretically an upgraded version of bilevel threshold segmentation, it is constrained by the practical problem that as the number of thresholds increases and the image size becomes larger, it becomes impractical to rely on the computing power to exhaust every possible solution. Therefore, more and more scholars are using meta-heuristics instead of traditional mathematical computational methods to reduce the time cost in complex image processing problems.

In recent decades, meta-heuristics have made a splash in industry with their simple and efficient performance, especially for a variety of challenging optimization problems. Many researchers have worked to improve the performance of meta-heuristics, and a large number of meta-heuristics have emerged during this period. The most common metaheuristics for multilevel threshold image segmentation problems include: Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) [\[25](#page-38-2)], Diferential Evolution (DE) [\[26\]](#page-38-3), Grey Wolf Optimizer (GWO) [[27](#page-38-4)], Monarch Butterfy Optimization (MBO) [\[28](#page-38-5)], Whale Optimization Algorithm (WOA) [[29](#page-38-6)], Multi-Verse Optimizer (MVO) [[30\]](#page-38-7), Harris Hawk Optimization (HHO) [[31](#page-38-8)], Black Widow Optimization Algorithm (BWOA) [\[32\]](#page-38-9), Slime Mould Algorithm (SMA) [\[33](#page-38-10)], Hunger Games Search (HGS) [\[34\]](#page-38-11), RUNge Kutta Optimizer (RUN) [[35](#page-38-12)],

Marine Predators Algorithm (MPA) [\[36](#page-38-13)], Weighted Mean of Vectors (INFO) [\[37](#page-38-14)], and Rime Optimization Algorithm (RIME) [[38](#page-38-15)] etc. In addition, the recently proposed Golden Jackal Optimization (GJO) [[39](#page-38-16)] has also shown superior performance. For the GJO, Rezaie et al. [[40\]](#page-38-17) used the GJO algorithm to solve the model parameter estimation problem for fuel cells, and the experimental results showed that the proposed improved method outperformed other classical algorithms in terms of optimal model estimation. Houssein et al. [\[41](#page-38-18)] introduced the opposition-based learning mechanism into the GJO which is named IGJO. The experimental results show that IGJO outperforms WOA, SOS, SSA, HHO, GTO, and MPA in multilevel threshold segmentation. Zhang et al. [\[42\]](#page-38-19) proposed an enhanced GJO algorithm and used it to solve the adaptive infnite impulse response system identifcation problem, and the experimental results showed that the enhanced GJO algorithm was able to obtain higher computational accuracy in this problem. By investigating the above literature, we can observe that, due to its fexibility and versatility, the GJO has received much attention from scholars in various felds since it was proposed, and has solved various complex engineering problems. However, these literatures also refect the disadvantages of GJO. Firstly, the convergence speed is slow in high-dimensional complex problems. Then, GJO is easily infuenced by the initial population. At last, like most meta-heuristics, it is easy to fall into local optimum.

The following is a review of some recent outstanding contributions in the field of image segmentation using meta-heuristics. Huo, Sun, and Ren [[43\]](#page-38-20) used the improved Bloch Quantum Artifcial Bee Colony Algorithm for multilevel thresholding of images and verifed the comprehensive performance of the algorithm on grayscale images. In [\[44](#page-38-21)], Xing used Gaussian mutation, Lévy fight, and oppositionbased learning to improve the Emperor Penguin Optimization, and the performance of the improved algorithm was enhanced for multilevel thresholding segmentation of color images. Upadhyay et al. [[45\]](#page-38-22) used the Crow Search Algorithm to optimize the objective function for computing Kapur entropy, and experimented on diferent threshold values of 2, 4, 8, 16, and 32, which obtained superior results. Elaziz et al. [[46\]](#page-38-23) proposed a hybrid algorithm to determine the optimal threshold for threshold segmentation, which combines the Whale Optimization Algorithm and the Volleyball Premier League Algorithm. The experimental results show that the proposed algorithm outperforms other methods in several performance metrics such as Peak Signal to Noise Ratio and Structural Similarity Index. Meanwhile, Elaziz et al. [\[47](#page-38-24)] improves the Marine Predators Algorithm using quantum theory, which greatly enhances the global search capability of the algorithm. Better results were obtained in the multilevel threshold segmentation task. Houssein et al. [[12\]](#page-37-11) proposed an image segmentation method based on the

Black Widow Optimization Algorithm, the Kapur entropy and the Otsu method were used as the objective function, respectively. The experimental results show that the proposed algorithm has more reliable performance compared with the classical algorithm. Meanwhile, the application of meta-heuristics in the feld of image segmentation is investigated in more depth by Houssein et al. in the following literature. In [[48](#page-38-25)], a local escaping operator is combined with the Tunicate Swarm Algorithm to propose a method for global optimization and image segmentation. In [[49](#page-38-26)], the opposition-based learning mechanism is introduced for the Marine Predators Algorithm. The proposed algorithm is applied to the multilevel threshold segmentation problem. Experimental results show that the proposed algorithm outperforms other algorithms being compared in terms of performance. In [\[50\]](#page-38-27), an efective multilevel thresholding segmentation method is proposed using an improved Equilibrium Optimizer, which is used for segmentation of medical images. The experimental results show that the proposed method can efectively solve the segmentation problem of medical images. In [[51\]](#page-38-28), the Salp Swarm Algorithm is combined with the Marine Predators Algorithm to determine the optimal threshold for the multilevel thresholding segmentation problem. In [\[13](#page-37-12)], the Chimp Optimization Algorithm is enhanced based on opposition-based learning and Lévy fight, and the improved algorithm outperforms other algorithms in multilevel threshold segmentation. Liu et al. [[52\]](#page-38-29) proposed a novel Ant Colony Optimization for COVID-19 image segmentation, and the experimental results show that the algorithm can further improve the diagnosis of COVID-19. Bhandari [[53](#page-39-0)] proposed an algorithm using two objective functions of a multilevel threshold segmentation method based on Beta-diference Evolution, which can retrieve the best threshold accurately and efficiently. Wu et al. $[54]$ $[54]$ proposed an improved Teaching–learning-based Optimization Algorithm for the multilevel threshold segmentation problem. The experimental results show that the algorithm can segment high-resolution X-ray images perfectly. He and Huang [[55](#page-39-2)] proposed a Krill Herd Algorithm for solving multilevel thresholding segmentation of color images by using the Otsu method, Kapur entropy, and Tsallis entropy as the objective function. The experimental results show that the proposed algorithm has more accurate and stable performance on Kapur's entropy. Ren et al. [[56\]](#page-39-3) improved the diferential evolution (DE) and proposed an algorithm called MDE. This algorithm can improve the convergence accuracy and the ability to leap out of local optimum to some extent. And the segmentation experiments were conducted on breast cancer and skin cancer pathology images, and the experimental results illustrate that the proposed method can provide an efficient segmentation procedure for pathology medical images. Hosny et al. [[57\]](#page-39-4) combine Coronavirus Optimization Algorithm (COVIDOA) and Harris Hawks Optimization Algorithm (HHOA) to solve the segmentation problem, and the proposed method compensates the shortcomings of COVIDOA and HHOA mutually to some extent, and the improved performance of the proposed algorithm over the COVIDOA and HHOA algorithms was demonstrated by fve test problems in the IEEE CEC 2019 benchmark problem, and the quality of the segmented images of the proposed algorithm was better than the other methods in the segmentation experiments. Zhu et al. [[58\]](#page-39-5) proposed an improved WOA with Levy operator and chaotic random variation strategy to improve the ability of the algorithm to jump out of the local optimum and explore the search space, and the proposed method has excellent performance in both benchmark test sets and image segmentation experiments compared with other variants of WOA. Emam et al. [[59\]](#page-39-6) proposed an improved RSA algorithm by integrating Reptile Search Algorithm (RSA) and RUN algorithm, which introduced the ESQ mechanism of RUN into RSA, improved the convergence speed and the ability to jump out of the local optimal. Through CEC2020 benchmark test set and brain magnetic resonance imaging segmentation experiments, it is proved that the proposed algorithm has strong optimization ability. Han et al. [\[60](#page-39-7)] used an improved MVO to maximize the Kapur's entropy, and the experimental results proved that the proposed method is highly competitive with other meta-heuristics for benchmark functions and image segmentation experiments. Xing et al. [\[61](#page-39-8)] improved WOA by introducing a Quasi-Opposition-Based Learning and Gaussian Barebone Mechanism, and the improved method beat other algorithms in the image segmentation experiments. According to the above literature, we can further understand that the meta-heuristics has been widely used in image segmentation. However, at present, there are still many shortcomings, most meta-heuristics converge slowly and easy to fall into local optimality. Therefore, we need to further improve the meta-heuristic algorithm to improve the efficiency of the algorithm to deal with problems.

In recent years, many researchers have combined machine learning methods and meta-heuristics to improve the performance of meta-heuristics. Among them, combining methods such as Support Vector Machine (SVM) [[62](#page-39-9)], Self-Organizing Maps (SOM) $[63]$ $[63]$ $[63]$, and Reinforcement Learning (RL) [[64](#page-39-11)] with meta-heuristics has achieved amazing success and provided a new direction for the development of metaheuristics. In addition, RL has become more popular among research scholars in recent studies [[65\]](#page-39-12). RL enables an agent to learn autonomously by interacting with the environment, and the combination with metaheuristics often leads to better performance. For example, Qu et al. [\[66](#page-39-13)] combined Grey Wolf Optimizer with RL and succeeded in achieving unexpected success in the UAV 3D path planning problem. In [[67\]](#page-39-14), the authors used Policy Iteration (PI) and Grey Wolf Optimizer to train the Neural Networks (NNs). Experimental results show that the proposed method has a better solution. Sadeg et al. [\[68](#page-39-15)] proposed a Reinforcement Learning based Bee Swarm Optimization for feature selection. Experimental results show that the proposed algorithm can yield satisfactory results for large instances. Chen et al. [[69\]](#page-39-16) introduced a method for solving the fexible job-shop scheduling problem, combining RL with the Genetic Algorithm for the frst time, and achieved satisfactory results in this problem.

As mentioned above, at this present, meta-heuristics have been widely used in the feld of image segmentation, and the combination of RL and meta-heuristics has been recognized by a wide range of researchers. However, as far as we know, there is a lack of research that combines RL with meta-heuristics to solve image segmentation. Therefore, in view of the problem that golden jackal optimization algorithm is easy to fall into local optimality, in this study, we propose a reinforcement learning-based improved golden jackal optimization to advance the research of medical image segmentation. The main contributions of this paper are as follows:

(1) QLGJO: An enhanced version of the GJO based on reinforcement learning (Q-Learning), which is named QLGJO, is proposed to be used to advance the research of CT images of COVID-19.

- (2) Three mutation strategies are proposed to improve the exploration performance of GJO. In addition, a new update strategy is introduced in the original algorithm to further balance the exploration and exploitation.
- (3) The performance comparison experiment of QLGJO and other advanced meta-heuristics were conducted on IEEE CEC2022. The experimental data reveal that the performance of QLGJO is better than the others.
- (4) The Otsu method (maximum interclass variance method) is used as the objective function, and it is optimized using QLGJO.
- (5) Peak Signal to Noise Ratio (*PSNR*) [[70](#page-39-17)], Structural Similarity Index (*SSIM*) [[71\]](#page-39-18), and Feature Similarity Index (*FSIM*) [[72\]](#page-39-19) are used as metrics for the segmentation experiments to verify the efectiveness of the different algorithms.
- (6) The performance of the proposed method was evaluated with six diferent meta-heuristics at thresholds of 8, 12, 16, and 20. Experimental results show that the proposed method has superior advantages and can be further extended to other classes of medical imaging diagnostics.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows: Sect. [2](#page-4-0) contains the materials and methods. Section [3](#page-6-0) suggest the

Algorithm 1 Pseudo-code of the GJO.

Inputs: The population size N , the max iterations T , the threshold number L , and the image I_{in} .

Outputs: The best solution, which contains the best thresholds and the image after segmentation.

1: Initialization the population **Pos** with threshold L according Eq.(1).

QLGJO algorithm. Section [4](#page-10-0) introduces, discusses and analyzes the performance of the proposed method. At last, Sect. [5](#page-25-0) summarizes the study and provides suggestions for future work.

2 Preliminaries

In this section, we introduced the main framework of the GJO algorithm and some basic concepts of reinforcement learning. In addition, the objective function used in this study and the dataset of COVID-19 are also described.

2.1 Golden Jackal Optimization

GJO was proposed by Chopra and Ansari [[39\]](#page-38-16) in 2022 as a meta-heuristic based on swarm intelligence. Compared with other meta-heuristics, GJO provides a fresh strategy to solve optimization problems. The GJO is inspired by the collaborative hunting behavior of golden jackals, which hunt in pairs. Generally, the male jackal leads the female jackal in hunting, frst fnding and approaching the prey, then surrounding and chasing the prey, and fnally hunting the prey. GJO simulates the hunting process of the golden jackal in two phases: frst, the search phase, which involves fnding and tracking the prey. Next is the exploitation phase, in which the golden jackal surrounds the prey and hunts it. The mathematical description of GJO will be discussed in the following subsections.

2.1.1 Initialization

As mentioned above, GJO is a meta-heuristic based on swarm intelligence. Therefore, the initialization process of GJO is similar to most meta-heuristics. Equation [\(1](#page-4-1)) depicts the initialization process of the GJO.

$$
\overrightarrow{Pos_k} = \overrightarrow{LB} + \overrightarrow{rand} \circ (\overrightarrow{UB} - \overrightarrow{LB}), k = 1, 2, ..., n
$$

\n
$$
Pos = \left[\overrightarrow{Pos_1}, \overrightarrow{Pos_2}, ..., \overrightarrow{Pos_n}\right]^T
$$
\n(1)

where *Pos* represents the positions of all individuals in the population, Pos_k stands for the position of the *k* th individual, *n* is the population size, \overline{LB} and \overline{UB} denote the upper and lower boundaries of the environment, respectively. *rand* is a n-dimensional random vector between 0 and 1. Moreover, the symbol \circ indicates the Hadamard product [[73](#page-39-20)].

2.1.2 Exploration

In the exploration phase, male golden jackals lead female golden jackals to fnd and track their prey. The positions of the male and female golden jackets are shown by Eq. ([2\)](#page-4-2) and Eq. [\(3\)](#page-4-3), respectively. The position update scheme for individual k is shown in Eq. ([7\)](#page-5-0).

$$
\overrightarrow{Pos_1}(t) = \overrightarrow{Pos_m}(t) - \overrightarrow{E} \circ \left| \overrightarrow{Pos_m}(t) - \overrightarrow{RL} \circ \overrightarrow{Pos_k}(t) \right| \tag{2}
$$

$$
\overrightarrow{Pos_2}(t) = \overrightarrow{Pos_{fm}}(t) - \overrightarrow{E} \circ \left| \overrightarrow{Pos_{fm}}(t) - \overrightarrow{RL} \circ \overrightarrow{Pos_k}(t) \right| \tag{3}
$$

where *t* is the current iteration, $\vec{Pos}_k(t)$ stands for the position of the *t* th iteration for the *k* th individual. $\overrightarrow{Pos_m}(t)$ and $Pos_{fm}(t)$ denote the male and female jackals of the current iteration, respectively, which are best and second-best individuals of the population. \vec{RL} is a n-dimensional random vector which is based on Lévy fight [\[74](#page-39-21)], which is discussed

in detail in [\[36\]](#page-38-13). *E* is the Evading Energy of individual which ⇀ is calculated as Eq. (4) (4) , Eq. (5) (5) , and Eq. (6) (6) .

$$
\vec{E} = E_1 \cdot \vec{E_0} \tag{4}
$$

$$
E_1 = 1.5 \times (1 - t/T)
$$
 (5)

$$
\overrightarrow{E_0} = 2 \cdot \overrightarrow{rand} - 1 \tag{6}
$$

where E_1 stands for the decreasing energy of the individual, E_0 denotes the initial value of the decreasing energy. *T* is the maximum number of the iterations.

$$
\overrightarrow{Pos_k}(t+1) = \frac{\overrightarrow{Pos_1}(t) + \overrightarrow{Pos_2}(t)}{2} \tag{7}
$$

2.1.3 Exploitation

In the exploitation phase, the golden jackal attacks the prey tracked in the exploration phase, and when the evading energy of the prey decays to 0, the golden jackal will hunt the prey. The mathematical model of this phase is similar to that of the exploration phase, which is shown below.

$$
\overrightarrow{Pos_1}(t) = \overrightarrow{Pos_m}(t) - \overrightarrow{E} \circ \left| \overrightarrow{RL} \circ \overrightarrow{Pos_m}(t) - \overrightarrow{Pos_k}(t) \right| \tag{8}
$$

$$
\overrightarrow{Pos_2}(t) = \overrightarrow{Pos_{fm}}(t) - \overrightarrow{E} \circ \left| \overrightarrow{RL} \circ \overrightarrow{Pos_{fm}}(t) - \overrightarrow{Pos_k}(t) \right| \qquad (9)
$$

Please note that all the defnitions in this section have the same meanings as those mentioned in the previous section. Therefore, it will not be repeated any further. And the pseudo-code of the GJO is given in Algorithm [1](#page-3-0).

2.2 Reinforcement Learning

Reinforcement Learning (RL), also referred to as reactive learning, evaluative learning, or augmented learning, which is one of the paradigms and methodologies of machine learning [\[75\]](#page-39-22). RL is a learning mechanism that learns how to map from states to actions in order to maximize the obtained reward. As scientifc research continues to advance, RL can currently be divided into two main categories: policy-based methods and value-based methods. While policy-based methods do not include value functions, the opposite is true for value-based methods. A typical representative of value-based methods is the Q-Learning algorithm. This algorithm uses a matrix called the Q-table to record the Q-values for diferent states (*S*). The Q-table is randomly initialized, and before each iteration, the

algorithm selects the best action to maximize the Q-value among all actions (*A*) for state (*S*) to obtain the best reward. In addition, Eq. (10) (10) (10) shows the Bellman Equation [[76\]](#page-39-23), which is the specifc update formula for the Q-table.

$$
Q_{t+1}(s_t, a_t) \leftarrow Q_t(s_t, a_t) + \lambda [r_{t+1} + \gamma \max(Q_t(s_{t+1}, a)) - Q_t(s_t, a_t)]
$$
\n(10)

where s_t and s_{t+1} represent the current state and the next state, respectively. λ stands for the learning rate, and γ is the discount factor, which all of them are between 0 and 1. r_{t+1} denotes the reward or penalty which is the agent receives depending on the current action. $Q_t(s_t, a_t)$ indicates the Q-value of the selected action in the current state. $max(Q_t(s_t, a))$ represents the maximum Q-value of all actions in the current state. Finally, $Q_{t+1}(s_t, a_t)$ is the Q-value which is pre-estimated for the next state. Therefore, three components are required to solve the problem with Q-Learning: the reward table (R-table), the Q-table, and the Bellman Equation. In addition, the pseudo-code of the Q-Learning is shown in Algorithm [2.](#page-4-4)

2.3 Thresholding Methods

2.3.1 Otsu's Methods

The Otsu method was proposed in 1979 [[77\]](#page-39-24), which segmented images by maximizing variance between classes. In other words, the Otsu method is a nonparametric segmentation method that divides an image into diferent regions based on the intensity of the pixels. Assume that L is the pixel intensity levels of an image which has size of $M \times N$.

$$
n = n_0 + n_1 + \dots + n_{L-1}
$$
\n⁽¹¹⁾

$$
Ph_i = \frac{n_i}{n}, \sum_{i=0}^{L-1} Ph_i = 1
$$
\n(12)

where *n* indicates the total number of image pixels, n_i is the number of pixels for intensity level *i*, and probability distribution of all intensity levels is represented by Ph_i .

Assume there is a threshold *th*, in which *th* is between 0 and $L - 1$, then the image can be divided into two classes according to th. The first class, C_1 , contains all pixels with pixel intensity levels between [0, th], while C_2 contains the rest of the pixels.

$$
\omega_1(th) = \sum_{i=0}^{th} Ph_i, \ \omega_2(th) = \sum_{i=th+1}^{L-1} Ph_i = 1 - Ph_1(th) \tag{13}
$$

where $\omega_1(th)$ and $\omega_2(th)$ represent the cumulative probability distributions for C_1 and C_2 , respectively.

$$
\mu_1(th) = \sum_{i=0}^{th} iP(i|C_1) = \sum_{i=0}^{th} \frac{iP(C_1|i)P(i)}{P(C_1)} = \frac{1}{\omega_1(th)} \sum_{i=0}^{th} iPh_i
$$
\n(14)

$$
\mu_2(th) = \sum_{i=lh+1}^{L-1} iP(i|C_2) = \sum_{i=lh+1}^{L-1} \frac{iP(C_2|i)P(i)}{P(C_2)} = \frac{1}{\omega_2(th)} \sum_{i=lh+1}^{L-1} iPh_i
$$
\n(15)

$$
\mu_{th} = \sum_{i=0}^{th} iPh_i, \ \mu_T = \sum_{i=0}^{L-1} iPh_i \tag{16}
$$

where $\mu_1(th)$ and $\mu_2(th)$ indicate the mean intensity levels for C_1 and C_2 , respectively. μ_{th} denotes the mean intensity level from 0 to *th*. μ_T represents the mean intensity level for the whole image. In summary, Eq. ([17\)](#page-6-1) is derived without difficulty. Hence, the objective function of the maximizing variance between classes can be expressed by Eq. [\(18\)](#page-6-2).

$$
\omega_1(th) + \omega_2(th) = 1 \n\omega_1(th) \cdot \mu_1(th) + \omega_2(th) \cdot \mu_2(th) = \mu_G
$$
\n(17)

$$
\sigma_B^2 = \frac{(\mu_G \omega_1(th) - \mu_{th})^2}{\omega_1(th)(1 - \omega_1(th))}
$$

= $\omega_1(th)(\mu_1(th) - \mu_T)^2 + \omega_2(th)(\mu_2(th) - \mu_T)^2$ (18)
= $\omega_1(th)\omega_2(th)(\mu_1(th) - \mu_2(th))^2$

$$
\sigma_B^2(th^*) = \max_{0 \le h \le L-1} \sigma_B^2(th) \tag{19}
$$

Therefore, according to Eq. [\(18\)](#page-6-2), we are able to compute a *th*^{*} to maximize the σ_B^2 , which can be further expressed using Eq. ([19](#page-6-3)). In conclusion, the Otsu method can be considered as a maximization problem, which means that the Otsu method could be further optimized using the meta-heuristics.

2.3.2 Kapur's Entropy

Kapur's entropy was proposed by Kapur in 1985 [[78\]](#page-39-25), which segmented the image based on the probability distribution of the image histogram. Also considering the bi-level threshold segmentation problem, the objective function of Kapur's entropy is defned as shown below:

$$
\max F_{Kapur}(th) = H_1 + H_2 \tag{20}
$$

where H_1 and H_2 represent the Kapur's entropy of the pixel intensity at $[0, th]$ and $[th, L - 1]$, respectively, which are computed as follows:

$$
H_1 = \sum_{i=0}^{th} \frac{Ph_i}{\omega_1(th)} \ln\left(\frac{Ph_i}{\omega_1(th)}\right), H_2 = \sum_{i=th+1}^{L-1} \frac{Ph_i}{\omega_2(th)} \ln\left(\frac{Ph_i}{\omega_2(th)}\right)
$$
(21)

where ln is the natural logarithm, and the rest defnitions in this formula have the same meanings as those mentioned in the previous section.

2.4 The COVID‑19 Dataset

As mentioned in the previous section, this study was conducted to promote the scientifc research for COVID-19. Therefore, we evaluated the performance of the proposed algorithm using chest CT images of COVID-19. CT images were obtained from the dataset [[79](#page-39-26)], which has 349 CT images containing clinical fndings of COVID-19 from 216 patients. In this study, the proposed algorithm and other comparison algorithms were evaluated on 12 randomly selected images from this dataset in order to test and compare the performance between each algorithm.

3 The Proposed Algorithm

Global exploration capabilities and local exploitation capabilities intrinsically affect the performance of meta-heuristics. However, the two capabilities conficted with each other for the majority of meta-heuristics. It means that there is no way for a meta-heuristic to perform local exploitation while performing global exploration. Therefore, how to balance the exploration and exploitation for meta-heuristics has become a key factor in improving the performance. At this stage, the meta-heuristics usually use a composite function calculated from the current and the maximum number of iterations to control exploration and exploitation. For exam- Φ is the evading energy (E) in the GJO is used to control the $\frac{|A|}{|B|}$ exploration and exploitation. When $\left| \overrightarrow{E} \right| > 1$, the algorithm performs exploration, vice versa, it performs exploitation. Hence, we could realize that the search process of GJO is unifed, which means that all of the individuals are transformed from global search to local exploitation. This phenomenon implies a strong possibility that the algorithm will be trapped in local optimal. Therefore, an independent search process can improve the performance more efectively, whereas reinforcement learning can conveniently

3.1 The Q‑Learning Strategy

achieve this goal.

In this study, we consider the individual in the population as the agent of RL, while the search space is regarded as the environment, the state (*s*) represents the current updated position scheme of the individual, and the action (*a*) stands for the change process of state (*s*). Each individual has three

operations to update their own position: exploration, exploitation, and hybrid mode. They adaptively choose the update strategy based on their learning experience. If the ftness of an individual increases after the updating operation, then it could receive positive feedback, and vice versa, it must receive a penalty. The Q-table has been designed as a 3×3 matrix, where the rows and columns denote state and action, respectively. In addition, it is important to note that each individual has a separate Q-table in order to ensure the independence of the learning process. Figure [1](#page-8-0) illustrates the update process of an individual in Q-Learning mode. The individual is currently in the "Exploration" state, and by comparing the action feedback of the "Exploration" state, we can anticipate that the individual will get the most rewards when the next state is in the "Hybrid". Therefore, the individual will switch to the "Hybrid" state. In addition, the value of the Q-table will be updated by Eq. [\(10\)](#page-5-4).

With the analysis of Fig. [1](#page-8-0) combined with Eq. (10) (10) , we realize that the learning rate λ can influence the Q-Learning algorithm enormously. A higher learning rate can cause individuals to forget the experiences which have been gained. On the other hand, a lower learning rate can prevent individuals from learning from the environment to change their behavior. Therefore, learning rate should be dynamically adjusted from a higher value to a lower value during the iteration, which can efectively increase the learning ability of the individual. In this study, the adjustment formula for the learning rate is shown as follows:

$$
\lambda = \frac{\lambda_{initial} + \lambda_{final}}{2} - \frac{\lambda_{initial} - \lambda_{final}}{2} \cos\left(\pi \left(1 - \frac{t}{T}\right)\right) \tag{22}
$$

where $\lambda_{initial}$ and λ_{final} stand for the initial and final value of λ , which have been set to 0.9 and 0.1, respectively. *t* and *T* represent the current and maximum iteration number, respectively. Moreover, the reward parameter *r* has been determined by ftness, which is set to 1 if the ftness is improved, otherwise -1.

3.2 The New Update Mode and Mutation Strategy

In the original GJO algorithm, the exploration operation is performed at the beginning of the iteration, which is described by Eq. [\(2\)](#page-4-2) and Eq. ([3](#page-4-3)). The exploitation operation, on the other hand, is performed at the end of the exploration operation, which is depicted using Eq. ([8\)](#page-5-5) and Eq. [\(9](#page-5-6)). In this paper, RL is introduced to coordinate the exploration and exploitation selection processes and inherit the original exploration and exploitation mechanism. However, in order to further balance exploration and exploitation, this study proposes a new mode, called the hybrid mode. In the hybrid mode, the population will be divided into two classes, in which one class keeps exploration while the other class starts exploitation. In addition, in the hybrid model, to further enhance the diversity of the population, a variation mechanism is designed to update the position of individuals in the population. The specifc update strategy of the hybrid model is described by Eq. ([23\)](#page-8-1), Eq. ([24](#page-8-2)), and Eq. ([25](#page-8-3)).

$$
\overrightarrow{Pos_{\alpha}}(t) = \frac{\overrightarrow{Pos_1}(t) + \overrightarrow{Pos_2}(t)}{2}
$$
\n
$$
\overrightarrow{Pos_{\beta}}(t) = \overrightarrow{Pos_{r1}}(t) + \overrightarrow{rand \circ (Pos_{r2}(t) - \overrightarrow{Pos_{r3}}(t))}
$$
\n
$$
\overrightarrow{Pos_k}(t+1) = \begin{cases}\n\overrightarrow{Pos_{\alpha}}(t), \text{fitness}(\overrightarrow{Pos_{\alpha}}(t)) \text{fitness}(\overrightarrow{Pos_{\beta}}(t)) \\
\overrightarrow{Pos_{\beta}}(t), \text{otherwise}\n\end{cases}
$$
\n(25)

where *r* is a random number between 0 and 1. $\vec{Pos}_{\alpha}(t)$ represents the updated position of the *t* th iteration for the *k* th $\frac{1}{2}$ individual. $\frac{Pos_{\beta}(t)}{Pos_{\beta}(t)}$ denotes the mutation position of the *t* th iteration for the *k* th individual. *rand* stands for a random vector between 0 and 1. $\overrightarrow{Pos}_{r1}(t)$, $\overrightarrow{Pos}_{r2}(t)$, and $\overrightarrow{Pos}_{r3}(t)$ are three random individuals, respectively.

For both exploration and exploitation strategies, we present two mutation strategies to improve the performance of the algorithm, respectively. Equation [\(26\)](#page-9-0) is applied after exploration to assist the population in exploring more search space. On the other hand, Eq. (27) is used to mutate after

$$
\overrightarrow{Pos_1}(t) = \n\begin{cases}\n\overrightarrow{Pos_m}(t) - \overrightarrow{E} \circ \left| \overrightarrow{Pos_m}(t) - \overrightarrow{RL} \circ \overrightarrow{Pos_k}(t) \right|, r < 0.5 \\
\overrightarrow{Pos_m}(t) - \overrightarrow{E} \circ \left| \overrightarrow{RL} \circ \overrightarrow{Pos_m}(t) - \overrightarrow{Pos_k}(t) \right|, r \ge 0.5\n\end{cases}
$$
\n(23)

$$
\overrightarrow{Pos_2}(t) = \begin{cases}\n\overrightarrow{Pos_{fm}}(t) - \overrightarrow{E} \circ \left| \overrightarrow{Pos_{fm}}(t) - \overrightarrow{RL} \circ \overrightarrow{Pos_k}(t) \right|, r < 0.5 \\
\overrightarrow{Pos_{fm}}(t) - \overrightarrow{E} \circ \left| \overrightarrow{RL} \circ \overrightarrow{Pos_{fm}}(t) - \overrightarrow{Pos_k}(t) \right|, r \ge 0.5\n\end{cases}
$$
\n(24)

Fig. 1 The update process of the Q-table

Fig. 2 Flowchart of the proposed method

the exploitation to improve the diversity of the population and prevent individuals from being trapped in local optima.

It is worth noting that Eq. (27) (27) is more similar to Eq. (25) (25) (25) , and all variables have the same meanings. However, the vari-

$$
\overrightarrow{Pos_{\alpha}}(t) = \frac{\overrightarrow{Pos_1}(t) + \overrightarrow{Pos_2}(t)}{2}
$$
\n
$$
\overrightarrow{Pos_{\beta}}(t) = \overrightarrow{Pos_{r1}}(t) + \overrightarrow{rand \circ (Pos_{c2}(t) - Pos_{r3}(t))} + \overrightarrow{rand \circ (Pos_{r4}(t) - Pos_{r5}(t))}
$$
\n
$$
\overrightarrow{Pos_k}(t+1) = \begin{cases}\n\overrightarrow{Pos_{\alpha}}(t), \text{fitness}(\overrightarrow{Pos_{\alpha}}(t)) \text{fitness}(\overrightarrow{Pos_{\beta}}(t)) \\
\overrightarrow{Pos_{\beta}}(t), \text{otherwise}\n\end{cases}
$$
\n(26)

where $\vec{Pos}_{r4}(t)$ and $\vec{Pos}_{r5}(t)$ are two random individuals, respectively. In addition, the meanings of the rest variables are all consistent with those mentioned in Eq. ([25\)](#page-8-3).

$$
\overrightarrow{Pos_{\alpha}}(t) = \frac{\overrightarrow{Pos_1}(t) + \overrightarrow{Pos_2}(t)}{2}
$$
\n
$$
\overrightarrow{Pos_{\beta}}(t) = \overrightarrow{Pos_k}(t) + \overrightarrow{rand \circ (Pos_{r2}(t) - Pos_{r3}(t))}
$$
\n
$$
\overrightarrow{Pos_k}(t+1) = \begin{cases}\n\overrightarrow{Pos_{\alpha}}(t), \text{fitness}(\overrightarrow{Pos_{\alpha}}(t)) \text{fitness}(\overrightarrow{Pos_{\beta}}(t)) \\
\overrightarrow{Pos_{\beta}}(t), \text{otherwise}\n\end{cases}
$$
\n(27)

able $\vec{Pos}_k(t)$ is used instead of the variable $\vec{Pos}_{r_1}(t)$. It allows the mutation of individuals to be more dependent on the current position, which enables the population to increase diversity while maintaining the original convergence. Furthermore, the pseudo-code and fowchart of the proposed method are given in Algorithm [3](#page-7-0) and Fig. [2](#page-9-2), respectively.

3.3 Computational Complexity

3.3.1 Time Complexity

Further analysis of previous subsection reveals that the time complexity of the QLGJO algorithm is mainly infuenced by three components. The frst is the calculation of the ftness, the second is the update of the golden jackal population and the mutation of the golden jackal individuals, and the last is the update of the reinforcement learning component (Q-table). In which the calculation of the ftness will costs $O(T \times N \times O_{Otsu})$ time to calculate, where *T* indicates the maximum number of iterations, *N* denotes the size of the population, and O_{Otsu} is the cost of Otsu method. And the population needs $O(T \times N \times M)$ time to be updated, where *M* represents the dimensions of the object function, which is generally the same as the threshold number in the Otsu method. In addition, the mutation strategy also costs $O(T \times N \times M)$ time complexity. Finally, the Q-table spends $O(T \times N)$ time to be updated. Therefore, the total time complexity of QLGJO is $O(T \times N \times (O_{O_{t\delta u}} + M))$ after simplifcation.

3.3.2 Space Complexity

According to Algorithm 3, we can observe that the proposed algorithm additionally adds a Q-table for each individual. In addition, the space complexity of the population is $O(M \times N)$ and the space complexity of the Q-table is $O(9 \times N) \rightarrow O(N)$. Therefore, the space complexity of the algorithm is the sum of the space occupied by the population and the space required by the Q-table, which is $O(M \times N)$ with simplifcation.

4 Experimental Results and Analysis

In this section, we demonstrate the performance of the proposed algorithm through two different sets of experiments. First, we use IEEE CEC2022 as a benchmark test function to test the performance of proposed method. In this experiment, we selected six advanced meta-heuristics for comparison, including: the original algorithm of the proposed method, GJO. The first medical image segmentation variant of the GJO algorithm, IGJO. One of the latest meta-heuristics, INFO. One of the commonly used meta-heuristics in recent years, MVO. The best old algorithm, DE, and the most popular algorithm, PSO. Then we further evaluate the practical performance of QLGJO by presenting the experimental results of the COVID-19 image segmentation. As mentioned in Sect. [2](#page-4-0), we use 9 random chosen images from Yang et al. [[79](#page-39-26)] as experimental data to compare the performance of the proposed algorithm with other meta-heuristics. The twelve images were named as Patient 3, Patient 4, Patient 5, Patient 6, Patient 7, Patient 9, Patient 13, Patient 24, Patient 30, Patient 37, Patient 80, and Patient 121. Figures [3,](#page-10-1) [4,](#page-11-0) [5,](#page-12-0) and [6](#page-13-0) show each test image and their histogram information. In the comparison experiments, the algorithms involved in the comparison were kept the same as the previous experiment and the Otsu method was used as the objective function for the segmentation. Moreover, Peak

Fig. 3 COVID-19 CT test images and their histograms

Fig. 4 COVID-19 CT test images and their histograms

Signal to Noise Ratio (*PSNR*) [[70](#page-39-17)], Structural Similarity Index (*SSIM*) [\[71\]](#page-39-18), and Feature Similarity Index (*FSIM*) [[72](#page-39-19)] were used as evaluation metrics to assess the performance of all algorithms.

4.1 Environment Settings

To ensure the fairness of the experiments, all algorithms were run 21 times independently in the same environment. For IEEE CEC2022 benchmark functions, the number of iterations was set to 5000 and the population size is fxed to 120. On the other hand, for segmentation experiment, the number of iterations was set to 200, and the population size was fxed at 60. The parameters of all algorithms were kept at default parameters to ensure that they were in a relatively optimal state, considering the suggestion by Arcuri et al. $[80]$ $[80]$ $[80]$. In addition, the specific configuration information of the running environment is given in Table [1](#page-13-1), and the parameter settings for each algorithm are listed in Table [2](#page-13-2).

4.2 Experiment on IEEE CEC2022

The CEC2022 benchmark test function is the most recent test function set which contains 12 diferent functions, of which F1 belongs to the Unimodal Functions, F2-F5 belongs to the Multi-modal Functions, F6-F8 belongs to the Hybrid Functions, and F9-12 belongs to the Composition

(a) The 8 level result. **(b)** The 12 level result. **(c)** The 16 level result. **(d)** The 20 level result.

Fig. 6 The Segmented result for Patient 3

Table 1 Runtime Environment

Configurations	
Hardware	
CPU	Intel(R) Core(TM) $i9-10980HK$ CPU @ 2.40 GHz
GPU	NVIDIA GeForce RTX 3080 Laptop GPU
RAM	64.0 GB
Software	
OS	Microsoft Windows [Version 10.0.19043.2130]
Interpreter	MATLAB R2021a (9.10.0.1602886)

Table 2 The parameters setting of all algorithms

Table 3 The CEC2022 benchmark test function

Functions. In addition, Table [3](#page-13-3) gives the details of the CEC2022 benchmark test function. In this experiment, we analyze the performance of the proposed method through quantitative and qualitative indicators. Among them, quantitative indicator includes the mean, median and Standard Deviations (std) [[81\]](#page-39-28) obtained in each benchmark function, while qualitative indicator is obtained by analyzing boxplot and convergence curve. In addition, the comprehensive performance of all algorithms was ranked by the Friedman mean rank test [\[82\]](#page-39-29).

Table [4](#page-14-0) shows a general overview of the performance of each algorithm on the CEC2022 benchmarking function, the optimal values are highlighted in this table. With the data in this table, we can see that for the accuracy, QLGJO achieves an impressive improvement over all functions compared to the original GJO, IGJO, and PSO. Compared to the latest meta-heuristic INFO, QLGJO achieves a great advantage on F2, F4, F5, F6, F7, F8, F10, F11, and F12, and shows similar performance F1, F3, and F9. Compared to the common newer meta-heuristic MVO, QLGJO also achieves a great success over F2, F3, F4, F6, F7, F8, F9, and F11, except for F10, which is surpassed by MVO, and shows similar performance F1, F5, and F12. Finally, compared with the best classical algorithm DE, QLGJO shows

² Springer

Table 4 The CEC2022 benchmark test function

some advantages on F2, F4, F6, and F12, and is comparable to DE on the rest of the benchmark functions. On the other hand, as far as the cost time of the algorithm is concerned, the proposed method is somewhat lacking and fails to obtain the best score among all the benchmark functions. However, compared to INFO, the proposed method still has some advantages. Finally, according to the Friedman mean rank test, we can further conclude that QLGJO ranks frst in terms of overall performance among all the compared algorithms, followed by DE, MVO ranks third, while INFO, IGJO, GJO, and PSO rank fourth, ffth, sixth, and seventh, respectively.

Figure [7](#page-16-0) shows the boxplot of all the algorithms on the CEC2022 benchmark functions. Through the boxplot we can intuitively comprehend the data distribution of the algorithm after multiple runs. The maximum value is marked at the highest point and the minimum value is marked at the lowest point. Therefore, in general, we consider that the more stable the performance of an algorithm, the lower the height of the corresponding box plot. By analyzing Fig. [7,](#page-16-0) we can see that the proposed method has the lowest boxplot in the overall view. Therefore, we can tentatively conclude that QLGJO has the most stable performance among all the compared algorithms.

Figure [8](#page-17-0) records the convergence curve plots of each algorithm. One point should be pointed out that, in order to compare the accuracy among the algorithms more intuitively, the convergence curves of all algorithms are operated with the diference between the optimal value of the benchmark function. Therefore, the closer the curve is to 0, the higher the accuracy of the algorithm is. In Fig. [8,](#page-17-0) the proposed algorithm reaches the lowest point except for F7 and F10. In other words, in terms of generalization, QLGJO has the highest accuracy among all the compared algorithms. However, one point also needs to be pointed out that although the convergence speed of QLGJO is substantially improved compared to the original algorithm, it still needs further enhancement compared to INFO and DE. In summary, through the experimental analysis in this subsection, we have a preliminary impression of the performance of QLGJO, and the proposed method is extremely competitive in numerical experiments compared with existing advanced algorithms. Therefore, in the next subsection, we will further validate the efectiveness of the proposed method in realworld problems with the image segmentation experiments on COVID-19.

4.3 COVID‑19 CT Image Segmentation Experiment

4.3.1 Performance Metrics

As mentioned above, in this experiment, three evaluation parameters, *PSNR*, *SSIM*, and *FSIM* are used to evaluate the performance of the proposed algorithm. In this subsection, a brief review of these three metrics is presented.

PSNR is a common metric in digital image processing, which is used in multilevel threshold segmentation as a very critical performance metric [[83\]](#page-39-30). *PSNR* could represent the diference between the original image and the segmented image, and is calculated using Eq. [\(28\)](#page-15-0).

$$
PSNR = 20 \log_{10} \left(\frac{255}{RMSE} \right) \tag{28}
$$

$$
RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{M} \sum_{j=1}^{N} (Img_{org}(i,j) - Img_{seg}(i,j))^2}{M \times N}}
$$
(29)

where *RMES* is the root mean square error calculated by Eq. (29) (29) [\[84](#page-40-0)], *Img_{org}* and *Img_{seg}* represent the original image and the segmented image, respectively, *M* and *N* denote the size of the image. In addition, the closer the value of *PSNR* is to 0, the greater the diference between the two images.

Structural similarity index is another common metric used to compare the similarity of two images [\[85](#page-40-1)]. The *SSIM* is between 0 and 1, which is similar to the *PSNR*. The greater the diference between the two images, the closer the *SSIM* is to 0. It is calculated as follows:

$$
SSIM(Img_{org},Img_{seg}) = \frac{(2\mu_{org}\mu_{seg} + c_1)(2\delta_{org,seg} + c_2)}{(\mu_{org}^2 + \mu_{seg}^2 + c_1)(\delta_{org}^2 + \delta_{seg}^2 + c_2)}
$$
(30)

where μ_{org} and μ_{seg} denote the mean intensities for the original image and segmented image, respectively, σ_{org} and σ_{see} represent the standard deviations of *Img_{org}* and *Img_{seg}*, respectively. In addition, the covariance of *Img_{org}* and *Img_{seg}* was represented by $\sigma_{org, seg}$. Finally, C_1 and C_2 are two constant values.

Feature similarity index is a new metric used to compare the degree of feature diference between two images [\[86\]](#page-40-2). *FSIM* obtains the result by compounding the Phase Congruency (*PC*) [\[87](#page-40-3)] and Gradient Magnitude (*GM*) [\[88](#page-40-4)]. The higher

Fig. 7 The boxplot for CEC2022

Fig. 8 The convergence curves for CEC2022

FSIM value indicates the better performance of the thresholding method. It can be described as follows:

$$
FSIM = \frac{\sum_{x \in \Omega} S_L(x) P C_m(x)}{\sum_{x \in \Omega} P C_m(x)} \tag{31}
$$

$$
S_L(x) = [S_{PC}(x)]^{\alpha} [S_G(x)]^{\beta}
$$
\n(32)

$$
S_{PC}(x) = \frac{2PC_{org}(x)PC_{seg}(x) + T_1}{PC_{org}^2(x) + PC_{seg}^2(x) + T_1}
$$
\n(33)

$$
S_G(x) = \frac{2G_{org}(x)G_{seg}(x) + T_2}{G_{org}^2(x) + G_{seg}^2(x) + T_2}
$$
\n(34)

where the phase congruency of Img_{org} and Img_{seg} were denoted by PC_{org} and PC_{seg} , respectively. And the gradient magnitude of $Im g_{org}$ and $Im g_{seg}$ were represented by G_{org} and G_{see} , T_1 and T_2 are two positive constants, respectively. α and β are two constants, respectively.

4.3.2 Experimental Results and Analysis

In this subsection, we will discuss and analyze the results of the proposed algorithm for multilevel thresholding segmentation on COVID-19 CT images. In this experiment, we use the Otsu method, which is mentioned in Sect. [2.3](#page-5-7) as the objective function. And the selected images are segmented with threshold levels of 8, 12, 16, and 20, respectively. Figures [4](#page-11-0), [9,](#page-19-0) [10,](#page-19-1) [11,](#page-19-2) [12](#page-19-3), [13](#page-20-0), [14,](#page-20-1) [15,](#page-20-2) [16](#page-21-0), [17,](#page-21-1) [18,](#page-21-2) [19](#page-21-3) shows the segmented images of the proposed algorithm for all the tested images at diferent threshold levels. Table [5,](#page-22-0) Table [6,](#page-24-0) and Table [7](#page-26-0) show the mean value and std of all algorithms on *PSNR*, *SSIM* , and *FSIM* metrics, respectively. In addition, the Friedman mean rank test was also again used to rank the comprehensive performance of all algorithms. It is noteworthy that an accurate and efective multilevel thresholding technique should have higher mean values on *PSNR*, *SSIM*, and *FSIM*, while the STD should be as low as possible. Therefore, the maximum mean value and the minimum STD value are highlighted in the tables.

Table [5](#page-22-0) shows the *PSNR* values for each segmented image. Through the analysis of the data in the table, the proposed method has achieved the best experimental results,

except that it was surpassed by the INFO algorithm in the Patient 37 segmentation experiment with the threshold value of 8. With the Friedman mean rank test, the ranking results of all algorithms are shown as follows: QLGJO is ranked frst, MVO is ranked second, INFO is ranked third, DE is ranked fourth, IGJO is ranked ffth, and GJO and PSO are ranked sixth and seventh, respectively.

As shown in Table [6,](#page-24-0) where the *SSIM* values of the segmentation results are recorded. We can observe that in the segmentation experiment of Patient 30 with a threshold of 8, DE achieves the best results, and the proposed algorithm is also slightly inferior compared to MVO. In the segmentation experiment on Patient 37 with a threshold of 8, DE again achieves the best results, but only slightly outperforms the proposed algorithm. According to the Friedman mean rank test, the top three algorithms are QLGJO, MVO, and IGJO.

Table [7](#page-26-0) lists the mean *FSIM* values after all images were segmented. With the comparison of the data in this table, the original GJO, IGJO, and MVO did not obtain satisfactory results. While INFO, DE and PSO show a large improvement in *FSIM* metrics, in contrast, the proposed QLGJO outperforms the other algorithms in the majority of experimental results. Moreover, the proposed algorithm still maintains the best performance as measured with the Friedman mean rank test.

Furthermore, Fig. [20](#page-27-0) shows the average time slots achieved by the different algorithms for each image segmentation experiment in terms of time cost. Each row in the figure represents the percentage of time consumed by the different algorithms in the same segmentation experiment. We can clearly observe that the percentage of time slots occupied by the proposed algorithms does not vary significantly across all experiments. This phenomenon indicates that the overhead of the QLGJO algorithm is not restricted to a specific image or threshold. Besides this, it should be noted that the proposed algorithm has a slightly higher time cost than the original algorithm, owing to the additional time cost of introducing reinforcement learning. Overall, the proposed algorithm does not perform particularly well at the time complexity level, but it can complete the specified task in a reasonable amount of time.

In addition, Table [8](#page-28-0) presents the results of all algorithms tested for ftness values on the Otsu method according to the Wilcoxon rank sum test. The Wilcoxon rank-sum test was used to verify whether there was a signifcant

(a) The 8 level result. **(b)** The 12 level result. **(c)** The 16 level result. **(d)** The 20 level result.

Fig. 9 The Segmented result for Patient 4

- **(a)** The 8 level result. **(b)** The 12 level result. **(c)** The 16 level result. **(d)** The 20 level result.
	-

Fig. 10 The Segmented result for Patient 5

Fig. 11 The Segmented result for Patient 6

(a) The 8 level result. **(b)** The 12 level result. **(c)** The 16 level result. **(d)** The 20 level result.

-
-

Fig. 12 The Segmented result for Patient 7

(a) The 8 level result. **(b)** The 12 level result. **(c)** The 16 level result. **(d)** The 20 level result.

(a) The 8 level result. **(b)** The 12 level result. **(c)** The 16 level result. **(d)** The 20 level result.

Fig. 13 The Segmented result for Patient 9

- **(a)** The 8 level result. **(b)** The 12 level result. **(c)** The 16 level result. **(d)** The 20 level result.
	-
-

Fig. 15 The Segmented result for Patient 24

diference between the algorithms. When the p-value is less than 0.05, it can be considered that there is a signifcant diference between the algorithms. In other words, it means that there is a signifcant improvement in the proposed algorithm. Conversely, this means that the performance of the proposed algorithm is similar to or worse than the algorithm being compared. To better represent the analysis of the values, we use the symbols " $+ +$ " and "−" to represent the cases where the p-value is less than 0.05 and the cases where the p-value is greater than 0.05, respectively. From Table [8,](#page-28-0) we can observe that there is a signifcant diference in the ftness values of the proposed algorithm compared to the original GJO, IGJO, INFO, DE, and PSO. Although it did not completely beat MVO in comparison, it only showed no signifcant improvement in the case of Patient 7 with a threshold of 20 and Patient 80 with a threshold of 16 and 20. Therefore, based on the results of the Wilcoxon rank sum test, we can conclude that the proposed QLGJO algorithm has higher performance in multilevel threshold segmentation using the Otsu method.

(a) The 8 level result. **(b)** The 12 level result. **(c)** The 16 level result. **(d)** The 20 level result.

Fig. 16 The Segmented result for Patient 30

-
-
-

Fig. 17 The Segmented result for Patient 37

-
-
- **(a)** The 8 level result. **(b)** The 12 level result. **(c)** The 16 level result. **(d)** The 20 level result.
	-

Fig. 18 The Segmented result for Patient 80

(a) The 8 level result. **(b)** The 12 level result. **(c)** The 16 level result. **(d)** The 20 level result.

Fig. 19 The Segmented result for Patient 121

Further inspection of the data in Tables [5–](#page-22-0)[7](#page-26-0), we can observe that although the QLGJO obtains the best results in terms of mean value, it still has some defciencies in terms of STD, none of the proposed methods obtains a STD close to 0. Therefore, we further compare with the original GJO and IGJO to analyze the reasons for the poor performance of the proposed method in terms of STD. To analyze the performance diferences between diferent

2 Springer

Table 5 (continued)

Table 5 (continued)

versions of the GJO algorithm, radar plots [[89\]](#page-40-5) for the original GJO, IGJO, and proposed QLGJO are plotted sep arately in Fig. [21](#page-27-1). It should be noted that the Otsu method used in this paper is a maximum optimization problem. Thus, the closer an algorithm is to the outer layer, the stronger its performance. From the images, we notice that the original GJO only performs better on Patient 3, and Patient 9. On the other hand, IGJO improves on the original GJO by overcoming the issue that the GJO tends to fall into a local optimum in most experiments. How ever, these improvements are also very limited in front of QLGJO, since both algorithms mentioned earlier are inside QLGJO, which indicates that the performance of the proposed algorithm in this paper surpasses all other versions of GJO algorithms.

By analyzing the radar plots of the three diferent ver sions of the GJO, we did not obtain a directly reason which afects the stability of the QLGJO. Therefore, we further analyzed the population diversity of diferent versions of the GJO. Figures [22,](#page-29-0) [23,](#page-29-1) [24,](#page-29-2) [25](#page-29-3), [26](#page-29-4), [27](#page-29-5), [28](#page-30-0), [29,](#page-30-1) [30,](#page-30-2) [31,](#page-30-3) [32,](#page-30-4) [33,](#page-30-5) [34,](#page-31-0) [35,](#page-31-1) [36](#page-31-2), [37](#page-31-3), [38](#page-31-4), [39](#page-31-5), [40](#page-32-0), [41](#page-32-1), [42](#page-32-2), [43,](#page-32-3) [44,](#page-32-4) [45,](#page-32-5) [46,](#page-33-0) [47,](#page-33-1) [48,](#page-33-2) [49,](#page-33-3) [50](#page-33-4), [51](#page-33-5), [52](#page-34-0), [53](#page-34-1), [54](#page-34-2), [55](#page-34-3), [56](#page-34-4), [57](#page-34-5), [58,](#page-35-0) [59,](#page-35-1) [60,](#page-35-2) [61,](#page-35-3) [62](#page-35-4), [63](#page-35-5), [64,](#page-36-0) [65](#page-36-1), [66,](#page-36-2) [67](#page-36-3), [68](#page-36-4), [69](#page-36-5) show the convergence plots of the population diversity analysis. In which, the abscissa indicates the number of iterations and the ordinate represents the mean Euclidean distance between popula tion individuals. These fgures can objectively refect the distribution among individuals of the population and fur ther report the diversity characteristics of the population. Through the observation and analysis of these fgures, we can see that the reinforcement learning strategy can help the population keep its diversity characteristics unafected by the problem. Combined with reinforcement learning, the proposed QLGJO algorithm converges to stability ear lier than the original GJO as well as the improved GJO, and the convergence curve roughly obeys the distribution of the $f(t) = 1/t$. In addition, it is worth noting that the populations of both the original GJO and the IGJO even tually converge and cluster together, forcing the popula tions to fail to escape from the local optima. However, the populations of QLGJO still maintain a certain degree of diversity, which allows the algorithm to have the potential to step away from the local optimum to further improve the quality of the solution in the late iteration. Therefore, by analyzing the proposed method from multiple perspec tives, we fnally determined that the factor which afected the stability of the QLGJO algorithm was that the RL strategy would lead to a certain oscillation efect in the later Iteration. Overall, combining the results of CEC2022 benchmark test function and COVID-19 image segmenta tion, the proposed method can obtain satisfactory results in terms of convergence accuracy and convergence speed.

Table 6 Comparison of SSIM

 $\underline{\textcircled{\tiny 2}}$ Springer

Table 6 (continued)

Table 6 (continued)

Consequently, we can consider QLGJO as one of the most competitive GJO variants at present.

5 Conclusions

With the global prevalence of COVID-19, the entire scientifc community has been working on ways to mitigate its impact on society. Early screening and treatment of patients can effectively cut off the transmission of COVID-19. Through the efforts of multiple medical experts, CT images have been shown to be efective in identifying suspected patients who are already infected with the new coronavirus. The multilevel threshold segmentation of CT images can effectively reduce the difficulty of subsequent processing and save more precious time for patients and health care workers. Therefore, we proposed a reinforcement learningbased GJO algorithm, QLGJO, to solve the COVID-19 CT image segmentation. In this study, we use the Otsu method as an objective function to determine the optimal threshold for COVID-19 CT images and make improvements to the original GJO algorithm. First, reinforcement learning was introduced to the GJO algorithm for the frst time to bal ance the exploration and exploitation of the algorithm. Sec ond, a new iterative phase was extended to accelerate the convergence of the algorithm. Finally, three new vari ational mechanisms are introduced to assist the algorithm avoid local optima. The proposed algorithm is compared to six advanced meta-heuristics (GJO, IGJO, INFO, MVO, DE, and PSO). Firstly, the CEC2022 benchmark test function was used to verify the performance of QLGJO. Then, Peak signal-to-noise ratio, structural similarity index, and feature similarity index are used as evaluation met rics to measure the performance diferences between the algorithms in the segmentation experiments. The experi mental results demonstrated that the proposed algorithm produced the most satisfactory results when compared to other algorithms and achieved efficient COVID-19 CT image segmentation.

In future work, we intend to introduce more objective functions into the proposed algorithm, such as Kapur Entropy, Tsallis Entropy, and Fuzzy Entropy. Meanwhile, we will extend the proposed algorithm to be applied to a wider range of felds, including feature selection, image classifcation, and drone path planning. Furthermore, it would also be a remarkable contribution to further reduce

Table 7 Comparison of FSIM

Fig. 20 The average time slots achieved by the diferent algorithms for each image segmentation experiment

Fig. 21 Comparison of radar plots for GJO, IGJO, and QLGJO

Table 8 Comparison of the Wilcoxon signed-rank test for Otsu method

Image Name	Level	QLGJO VS. GJO	QLGJO VS. IGJO	QLGJO VS. INFO	QLGJO VS. MVO	QLGJO VS. DE	QLGJO VS. PSO
Patient 3	8	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.086E - 05 + +$	$4.571E - 05 + +$	$2.374E - 04 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	12	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$9.660E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	16	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.622E - 04 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	20	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$1.270E - 04 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
Patient 4	8	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.043E - 05 + +$	$1.217E - 04 + +$	$8.654E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	12	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$1.904E - 03 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	16	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.578E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	20	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$1.523E - 03 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
Patient 5	8	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$4.603E - 05 + +$	$1.534E - 04 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	12	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$4.779E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	16	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$1.897E - 04 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	20	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$6.015E - 03 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
Patient 6	8	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$5.982E - 04 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	12	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$4.779E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	16	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$1.080E - 03 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	20	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.743E - 02 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
Patient 7	$8\,$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$1.442E - 04 + +$	$4.603E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	12	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$4.137E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	16	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$7.579E - 04 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	20	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$5.026E - 02 -$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
Patient 9	8	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$4.779E - 05 + +$	$8.725E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	12	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	16	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$9.660E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	20	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$7.309E - 03 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
Patient 13	8	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$4.603E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	12	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$4.779E - 05 + +$	$3.578E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	16	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$5.514E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	20	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$9.660E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
Patient 24	8	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$4.603E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	12	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.578E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	16	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	20	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$1.661E - 04 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
Patient 30	8	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$2.806E - 04 + +$	$3.622E - 04 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	12	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$4.108E - 04 + +$	$3.578E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	16	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$1.212E - 03 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	20	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.578E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
Patient 37	8	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.086E - 05 + +$	$4.489E - 04 + +$	$1.221E - 04 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	12	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	16	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.578E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	20	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$7.315E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
Patient 80	8	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$5.266E - 04 + +$	$1.025E - 04 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	12	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$4.276E - 01 -$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	16	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$2.301E - 01 -$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	20	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$8.091E - 02 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
Patient 121	8	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$1.103E - 04 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	12	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$6.015E - 03 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	16	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$8.411E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$
	20	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$4.677E - 02 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$	$3.090E - 05 + +$

Fig. 22 Patient 3 with *th* 8

Fig. 23 Patient 3 with *th* 12

Fig. 24 Patient 3 with *th* 16

Fig. 25 Patient 3 with *th* 20

Fig. 26 Patient 4 with *th* 8

Fig. 27 Patient 4 with *th* 12

Fig. 28 Patient 4 with *th* 16

Fig. 29 Patient 4 with *th* 20

Fig. 30 Patient 5 with *th* 8

Fig. 31 Patient 5 with *th* 12

Fig. 32 Patient 5 with *th* 16

Fig. 33 Patient 5 with *th* 20

Fig. 34 Patient 6 with *th* 8

Fig. 35 Patient 6 with *th* 12

Fig. 36 Patient 6 with *th* 16

Fig. 37 Patient 6 with *th* 20

Fig. 38 Patient 7 with *th* 8

Fig. 39 Patient 7 with *th* 12

Fig. 40 Patient 7 with *th* 16

Fig. 41 Patient 7 with *th* 20

Fig. 42 Patient 9 with *th* 8

Fig. 43 Patient 9 with *th* 12

Fig. 44 Patient 9 with *th* 16

Fig. 45 Patient 9 with *th* 20

Fig. 46 Patient 13 with *th* 8

Fig. 47 Patient 13 with *th* 12

Fig. 48 Patient 13 with *th* 16

Fig. 49 Patient 13 with *th* 20

Fig. 50 Patient 24 with *th* 8

Fig. 51 Patient 24 with *th* 12

Fig. 52 Patient 24 with *th* 16

Fig. 53 Patient 24 with *th* 20

Fig. 54 Patient 30 with *th* 8

Fig. 55 Patient 30 with *th* 12

Fig. 56 Patient 30 with *th* 16

Fig. 57 Patient 30 with *th* 20

Fig. 58 Patient 37 with *th* 8

Fig. 59 Patient 37 with *th* 12

Fig. 60 Patient 37 with *th* 16

Fig. 61 Patient 37 with *th* 20

Fig. 62 Patient 80 with *th* 8

Fig. 63 Patient 80 with *th* 12

Fig. 64 Patient 80 with *th* 16

Fig. 65 Patient 80 with *th* 20

Fig. 66 Patient 121 with *th* 8

the additional overhead which is added by introducing reinforcement learning as well as to enhance the stability of the algorithm in the latter iterations, as mentioned in subSect. [4.3.2](#page-18-0).

Acknowledgements The authors acknowledge support by the National Natural Science Foundation of China [grant numbers 21466008]; the Guangxi Natural Science Foundation, China [grant numbers 2019GXNSFAA185017]; the Scientifc Research Project of Guangxi Minzu University [grant numbers 2021MDKJ004]; and

Fig. 67 Patient 121 with *th* 12

Fig. 68 Patient 121 with *th* 16

Fig. 69 Patient 121 with *th* 20

the Innovation Project of Guangxi Graduate Education [grant numbers YCSW2022255]. In addition, the authors would like to thank the anonymous reviewers for providing their valuable insights that could improve the quality of this study.

Author Contributions All authors contributed to the study conception and design. Conceptualization, methodology, validation, formal analysis and coding were performed by ZW. Review, editing and supervision were performed by YM. Writing and editing were performed by MC. The frst draft of the manuscript was written by ZW and all authors

commented on previous versions of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the fnal manuscript.

Funding This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China [grant numbers 21466008]; the Guangxi Natural Science Foundation, China [grant numbers 2019GXNSFAA185017]; the Scientifc Research Project of Guangxi Minzu University [grant numbers 2021MDKJ004]; and the Innovation Project of Guangxi Graduate Education [grant numbers YCSW2022255].

Data Availability The COVID-19 datasets analyzed during the current study are available in the [COVID-CT-Dataset] repository, [[https://](https://arxiv.org/abs/2003.13865) [arxiv.org/abs/2003.13865\]](https://arxiv.org/abs/2003.13865).

Declarations

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

References

- 1. Mathieu, E., Ritchie, H., Ortiz-Ospina, E., Roser, M., Hasell, J., Appel, C., Giattino, C., & Rodés-Guirao, L. (2021). A global database of COVID-19 vaccinations. *Nature Human Behaviour, 5*, 947–953.<https://doi.org/10.1038/s41562-021-01122-8>
- 2. Ndwandwe, D., & Wiysonge, C. S. (2021). COVID-19 vaccines. *Current Opinion in Immunology, 71*, 111–116. [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.coi.2021.07.003) [10.1016/j.coi.2021.07.003](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.coi.2021.07.003)
- 3. Yuki, K., Fujiogi, M., & Koutsogiannaki, S. (2020). COVID-19 pathophysiology: A review. *Clinical Immunology, 215*, 108427. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clim.2020.108427>
- 4. Cruz-Cárdenas, J., Zabelina, E., Guadalupe-Lanas, J., Palacio-Fierro, A., & Ramos-Galarza, C. (2021). COVID-19, consumer behavior, technology, and society: A literature review and bibliometric analysis. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change., 173*, 121179.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techfore.2021.121179>
- 5. Lee, D. Y. W., Li, Q. Y., Liu, J., & Eferth, T. (2021). Traditional Chinese herbal medicine at the forefront battle against COVID-19: Clinical experience and scientifc basis. *Phytomedicine, 80*, 153337.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.phymed.2020.153337>
- 6. Grodecki, K., Lin, A., Razipour, A., Cadet, S., McElhinney, P. A., Chan, C., Pressman, B. D., Julien, P., Maurovich-Horvat, P., Gaibazzi, N., Thakur, U., Mancini, E., Agalbato, C., Menè, R., Parati, G., Cernigliaro, F., Nerlekar, N., Torlasco, C., Pontone, G., … Dey, D. (2021). Epicardial adipose tissue is associated with extent of pneumonia and adverse outcomes in patients with COVID-19. *Metabolism, 115*, 154436. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.metabol.2020.154436) [metabol.2020.154436](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.metabol.2020.154436)
- 7. Caramello, V., Macciotta, A., De Salve, A. V., Mussa, A., De Leo, A. M., Bar, F., Panno, D., Nota, F., Ling, C. Y. G., Solitro, F., Ricceri, F., Sacerdote, C., & Boccuzzi, A. (2021). Falsenegative real-time polymerase chain reaction tests in COVID-19 patients: An epidemiological analysis of 302 patients. *Public Health, 200*, 84–90.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.puhe.2021.09.010>
- 8. Jalaber, C., Lapotre, T., Morcet-Delattre, T., Ribet, F., Jouneau, S., & Lederlin, M. (2020). Chest CT in COVID-19 pneumonia: A review of current knowledge. *Diagnostic and Interventional Imaging, 101*, 431–437. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.diii.2020.06.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.diii.2020.06.001) [001](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.diii.2020.06.001)
- 9. Elaziz, M. A., Ewees, A. A., Yousri, D., Alwerfali, H. S. N., Awad, Q. A., Lu, S., & Al-Qaness, M. A. A. (2020). An improved marine predators algorithm with Fuzzy entropy for multi-level

thresholding: Real world example of COVID-19 CT image segmentation. *IEEE Access, 8*, 125306–125330. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2020.3007928) [1109/ACCESS.2020.3007928](https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2020.3007928)

- 10. Gao, Y., Li, Q., Wang, S., & Gao, J. (2018). Adaptive neural network based on segmented particle swarm optimization for remote-sensing estimations of vegetation biomass. *Remote Sensing of Environment, 211*, 248–260. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2018.04.026) [2018.04.026](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2018.04.026)
- 11. Houssein, E. H., Saber, E., Ali, A. A., & Wazery, Y. M. (2022). Centroid mutation-based search and rescue optimization algorithm for feature selection and classifcation. *Expert Systems with Applications, 191*, 116235. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2021.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2021.116235) [116235](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2021.116235)
- 12. Houssein, E. H., Helmy, B. E., Oliva, D., Elngar, A. A., & Shaban, H. (2021). A novel black widow optimization algorithm for multilevel thresholding image segmentation. *Expert Systems with Applications, 167*, 114159. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2020.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2020.114159) [114159](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2020.114159)
- 13. Houssein, E. H., Emam, M. M., & Ali, A. A. (2021). An efficient multilevel thresholding segmentation method for thermography breast cancer imaging based on improved chimp optimization algorithm. *Expert Systems with Applications, 185*, 115651. [https://](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2021.115651) doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2021.115651
- 14. Kumar, M., Aggarwal, J., Rani, A., Stephan, T., Shankar, A., & Mirjalili, S. (2022). Secure video communication using frefy optimization and visual cryptography. *Artifcial Intelligence Review, 55*, 2997–3017. [https://doi.org/10.1007/](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10462-021-10070-8) [s10462-021-10070-8](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10462-021-10070-8)
- 15. Zhi, X. H., & Shen, H. B. (2018). Saliency driven region-edgebased top down level set evolution reveals the asynchronous focus in image segmentation. *Pattern Recognition, 80*, 241–255. [https://](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.patcog.2018.03.010) doi.org/10.1016/j.patcog.2018.03.010
- 16. Fang, J., Liu, H., Zhang, L., Liu, J., & Liu, H. (2021). Regionedge-based active contours driven by hybrid and local fuzzy region-based energy for image segmentation. *Information Sciences, 546*, 397–419. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ins.2020.08.078>
- 17. Zhao, S., Wang, P., Heidari, A. A., Chen, H., Turabieh, H., Mafarja, M., & Li, C. (2021). Multilevel threshold image segmentation with difusion association slime mould algorithm and Renyi's entropy for chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Computers in Biology and Medicine, 134*, 104427. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compbiomed.2021.104427) [org/10.1016/j.compbiomed.2021.104427](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compbiomed.2021.104427)
- 18. Parida, P., & Bhoi, N. (2018). Fuzzy clustering based transition region extraction for image segmentation. *Engineering Science and Technology, an International Journal, 21*, 547–563. [https://](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jestch.2018.05.012) doi.org/10.1016/j.jestch.2018.05.012
- 19. Zhao, S., Wang, P., Heidari, A. A., Chen, H., He, W., & Xu, S. (2021). Performance optimization of salp swarm algorithm for multi-threshold image segmentation: Comprehensive study of breast cancer microscopy. *Computers in Biology and Medicine, 139*, 105015.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compbiomed.2021.105015>
- 20. Zhao, D., Liu, L., Yu, F., Heidari, A. A., Wang, M., Liang, G., Muhammad, K., & Chen, H. (2021). Chaotic random spare ant colony optimization for multi-threshold image segmentation of 2D Kapur entropy. *Knowledge-Based Systems, 216*, 106510. [https://](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.knosys.2020.106510) doi.org/10.1016/j.knosys.2020.106510
- 21. Zhao, D., Liu, L., Yu, F., Heidari, A. A., Wang, M., Oliva, D., Muhammad, K., & Chen, H. (2021). Ant colony optimization with horizontal and vertical crossover search: Fundamental visions for multi-threshold image segmentation. *Expert Systems with Applications, 167*, 114122. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2020.114122>
- 22. Yan, Z., Zhang, J., Yang, Z., & Tang, J. (2021). Kapur's entropy for underwater multilevel thresholding image segmentation based on whale optimization algorithm. *IEEE Access, 9*, 41294–41319. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2020.3005452>
- 23. Wang, Y., Zhang, G., & Zhang, X. (2019). Multilevel image thresholding using Tsallis entropy and cooperative pigeoninspired optimization bionic algorithm. *Journal of Bionic Engineering, 16*, 954–964. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s42235-019-0109-1>
- 24. Sharma, A., Chaturvedi, R., Kumar, S., & Dwivedi, U. K. (2020). Multi-level image thresholding based on Kapur and Tsallis entropy using frefy algorithm. *Journal of Interdisciplinary Mathematics, 23*, 563–571. [https://doi.org/10.1080/09720](https://doi.org/10.1080/09720502.2020.1731976) [502.2020.1731976](https://doi.org/10.1080/09720502.2020.1731976)
- 25. Bansal, J. C. (2019). Particle swarm optimization. *Evolutionary and Swarm Intelligence Algorithms, 779*, 11–23. [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-91341-4_2) [10.1007/978-3-319-91341-4_2](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-91341-4_2)
- 26. Storn, R., & Price, K. (1997). Diferential evolution – A simple and efficient heuristic for global optimization over continuous spaces. *Journal of Global Optimization, 11*, 341–359. [https://](https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1008202821328) doi.org/10.1023/A:1008202821328
- 27. Mirjalili, S., Mirjalili, S. M., & Lewis, A. (2014). Grey wolf optimizer. *Advances in Engineering Software, 69*, 46–61. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.advengsoft.2013.12.007>
- 28. Wang, G. G., Zhao, X., & Deb, S. (2015). A novel monarch butterfy optimization with greedy strategy and self-adaptive. *Second International Conference on Soft Computing and Machine Intelligence (ISCMI), 2015*, 45–50. [https://doi.org/10.1109/](https://doi.org/10.1109/ISCMI.2015.19) [ISCMI.2015.19](https://doi.org/10.1109/ISCMI.2015.19)
- 29. Mirjalili, S., & Lewis, A. (2016). The whale optimization algorithm. *Advances in Engineering Software, 95*, 51–67. [https://](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.advengsoft.2016.01.008) doi.org/10.1016/j.advengsoft.2016.01.008
- 30. Mirjalili, S., Mirjalili, S. M., & Hatamlou, A. (2016). Multiverse optimizer: A nature-inspired algorithm for global optimization. *Neural Computing and Applications, 27*, 495–513. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00521-015-1870-7>
- 31. Heidari, A. A., Mirjalili, S., Faris, H., Aljarah, I., Mafarja, M., & Chen, H. (2019). Harris hawks optimization: Algorithm and applications. *Future Generation Computer Systems, 97*, 849–872. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.future.2019.02.028>
- 32. Hayyolalam, V., & Pourhaji Kazem, A. A. (2020). Black widow optimization algorithm: A novel meta-heuristic approach for solving engineering optimization problems. *Engineering Applications of Artifcial Intelligence, 87*, 103249. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.engappai.2019.103249) [engappai.2019.103249](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.engappai.2019.103249)
- 33. Li, S., Chen, H., Wang, M., Heidari, A. A., & Mirjalili, S. (2020). Slime mould algorithm: A new method for stochastic optimization. *Future Generation Computer Systems, 111*, 300–323. [https://](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.future.2020.03.055) doi.org/10.1016/j.future.2020.03.055
- 34. Yang, Y., Chen, H., Heidari, A. A., & Gandomi, A. H. (2021). Hunger games search: Visions, conception, implementation, deep analysis, perspectives, and towards performance shifts. *Expert Systems with Applications, 177*, 114864. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2021.114864) [eswa.2021.114864](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2021.114864)
- 35. Ahmadianfar, I., Heidari, A. A., Gandomi, A. H., Chu, X., & Chen, H. (2021). RUN beyond the metaphor: An efficient optimization algorithm based on Runge Kutta method. *Expert Systems with Applications, 181*, 115079. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2021.115079) [2021.115079](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2021.115079)
- 36. Faramarzi, A., Heidarinejad, M., Mirjalili, S., & Gandomi, A. H. (2020). Marine predators algorithm: A nature-inspired metaheuristic. *Expert Systems with Applications, 152*, 113377. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2020.113377>
- 37. Ahmadianfar, I., Heidari, A. A., Noshadian, S., Chen, H., & Gandomi, A. H. (2022). INFO: An efficient optimization algorithm based on weighted mean of vectors. *Expert Systems with Applications, 195*, 116516.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2022.116516>
- 38. Su, H., Zhao, D., Heidari, A. A., Liu, L., Zhang, X., Mafarja, M., & Chen, H. (2023). RIME: A physics-based optimization. *Neurocomputing, 532*, 183–214. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neucom.2023.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neucom.2023.02.010) [02.010](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neucom.2023.02.010)
- 39. Chopra, N., & Mohsin Ansari, M. (2022). Golden jackal optimization: A novel nature-inspired optimizer for engineering applications. *Expert Systems with Applications, 198*, 116924. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2022.116924) [org/10.1016/j.eswa.2022.116924](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2022.116924)
- 40. Rezaie, M., Karamnejadiazar, K., Kardansani, A., Akbari, E., Ghadimi, N., Razmjooy, N., & Ghadamyari, M. (2022). Model parameters estimation of the proton exchange membrane fuel cell by a modifed golden jackal optimization. *Sustainable Energy Technologies and Assessments, 53*, 102657. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.seta.2022.102657) [1016/j.seta.2022.102657](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.seta.2022.102657)
- 41. Houssein, E. H., Abdelkareem, D. A., Emam, M. M., Hameed, M. A., & Younan, M. (2022). An efficient image segmentation method for skin cancer imaging using improved golden jackal optimization algorithm. *Computers in Biology and Medicine, 149*, 106075.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compbiomed.2022.106075>
- 42. Zhang, J., Zhang, G., Kong, M., & Zhang, T. (2023). Adaptive infnite impulse response system identifcation using an enhanced golden jackal optimization. *The Journal of Supercomputing*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11227-023-05086-6>
- 43. Huo, F., Sun, X., & Ren, W. (2020). Multilevel image threshold segmentation using an improved bloch quantum artifcial bee colony algorithm. *Multimedia Tools and Applications, 79*, 2447–2471.<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11042-019-08231-7>
- 44. Xing, Z. (2020). An improved emperor penguin optimization based multilevel thresholding for color image segmentation. *Knowledge-Based Systems, 194*, 105570. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.knosys.2020.105570) [knosys.2020.105570](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.knosys.2020.105570)
- 45. Upadhyay, P., & Chhabra, J. K. (2020). Kapur's entropy based optimal multilevel image segmentation using crow search algorithm. *Applied Soft Computing, 97*, 105522. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asoc.2019.105522) [1016/j.asoc.2019.105522](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asoc.2019.105522)
- 46. Abd Elaziz, M., Nabil, N., Moghdani, R., Ewees, A. A., Cuevas, E., & Lu, S. (2021). Multilevel thresholding image segmentation based on improved volleyball premier league algorithm using whale optimization algorithm. *Multimedia Tools and Applications, 80*, 12435–12468.<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11042-020-10313-w>
- 47. Abd Elaziz, M., Mohammadi, D., Oliva, D., & Salimifard, K. (2021). Quantum marine predators algorithm for addressing multilevel image segmentation. *Applied Soft Computing, 110*, 107598. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asoc.2021.107598>
- 48. Houssein, E. H., Helmy, B.E.-D., Elngar, A. A., Abdelminaam, D. S., & Shaban, H. (2021). An improved tunicate swarm algorithm for global optimization and image segmentation. *IEEE Access, 9*, 56066–56092. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2021.3072336>
- 49. Houssein, E. H., Hussain, K., Abualigah, L., Elaziz, M. A., Alomoush, W., Dhiman, G., Djenouri, Y., & Cuevas, E. (2021). An improved opposition-based marine predators algorithm for global optimization and multilevel thresholding image segmentation. *Knowledge-Based Systems, 229*, 107348. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.knosys.2021.107348) [knosys.2021.107348](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.knosys.2021.107348)
- 50. Houssein, E. H., Helmy, B. E., Oliva, D., Jangir, P., Premkumar, M., Elngar, A. A., & Shaban, H. (2022). An efficient multi-thresholding based COVID-19 CT images segmentation approach using an improved equilibrium optimizer. *Biomedical Signal Processing and Control, 73*, 103401. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bspc.2021.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bspc.2021.103401) [103401](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bspc.2021.103401)
- 51. Abualigah, L., Al-Okbi, N. K., Elaziz, M. A., & Houssein, E. H. (2022). Boosting marine predators algorithm by salp swarm algorithm for multilevel thresholding image segmentation. *Multimedia Tools and Applications, 81*, 16707–16742. [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11042-022-12001-3) [10.1007/s11042-022-12001-3](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11042-022-12001-3)
- 52. Liu, L., Zhao, D., Yu, F., Heidari, A. A., Li, C., Ouyang, J., Chen, H., Mafarja, M., Turabieh, H., & Pan, J. (2021). Ant colony optimization with cauchy and greedy levy mutations for multilevel COVID 19 X-ray image segmentation. *Computers in Biology and*

Medicine, 136, 104609. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compbiomed.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compbiomed.2021.104609) [2021.104609](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compbiomed.2021.104609)

- 53. Bhandari, A. K. (2020). A novel beta differential evolution algorithm-based fast multilevel thresholding for color image segmentation. *Neural Computing and Applications, 32*, 4583–4613. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00521-018-3771-z>
- 54. Wu, B., Zhou, J., Ji, X., Yin, Y., & Shen, X. (2020). An ameliorated teaching–learning-based optimization algorithm based study of image segmentation for multilevel thresholding using Kapur's entropy and Otsu's between class variance. *Information Sciences, 533*, 72–107.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ins.2020.05.033>
- 55. He, L., & Huang, S. (2020). An efficient krill herd algorithm for color image multilevel thresholding segmentation problem. *Applied Soft Computing, 89*, 106063. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asoc.2020.106063) [asoc.2020.106063](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asoc.2020.106063)
- 56. Ren, L., Zhao, D., Zhao, X., Chen, W., Li, L., Wu, T., Liang, G., Cai, Z., & Xu, S. (2022). Multi-level thresholding segmentation for pathological images: Optimal performance design of a new modifed diferential evolution. *Computers in Biology and Medicine, 148*, 105910. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compbiomed.2022.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compbiomed.2022.105910) [105910](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compbiomed.2022.105910)
- 57. Hosny, K. M., Khalid, A. M., Hamza, H. M., & Mirjalili, S. (2022). Multilevel segmentation of 2D and volumetric medical images using hybrid coronavirus optimization algorithm. *Computers in Biology and Medicine, 150*, 106003. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compbiomed.2022.106003) [1016/j.compbiomed.2022.106003](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compbiomed.2022.106003)
- 58. Wei, Z., Liu, L., Kuang, F., Li, L., Xu, S., & Liang, Y. (2022). An efficient multi-threshold image segmentation for skin cancer using boosting whale optimizer. *Computers in Biology and Medicine, 151*, 106227.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compbiomed.2022.106227>
- 59. Emam, M. M., Houssein, E. H., & Ghoniem, R. M. (2023). A modifed reptile search algorithm for global optimization and image segmentation: Case study brain MRI images. *Computers in Biology and Medicine, 152*, 106404. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compbiomed.2022.106404) [compbiomed.2022.106404](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compbiomed.2022.106404)
- 60. Han, Y., Chen, W., Heidari, A. A., & Chen, H. (2023). Multiverse optimizer with rosenbrock and difusion mechanisms for multilevel threshold image segmentation from COVID-19 chest X-Ray images. *Journal of Bionic Engineering*. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1007/s42235-022-00295-w) [1007/s42235-022-00295-w](https://doi.org/10.1007/s42235-022-00295-w)
- 61. Xing, J., Zhao, H., Chen, H., Deng, R., & Xiao, L. (2023). Boosting whale optimizer with quasi-oppositional learning and gaussian barebone for feature selection and COVID-19 image segmentation. *Journal of Bionic Engineering, 20*, 797–818. [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1007/s42235-022-00297-8) [10.1007/s42235-022-00297-8](https://doi.org/10.1007/s42235-022-00297-8)
- 62. Zhou, J., Qiu, Y., Zhu, S., Armaghani, D. J., Li, C., Nguyen, H., & Yagiz, S. (2021). Optimization of support vector machine through the use of metaheuristic algorithms in forecasting TBM advance rate. *Engineering Applications of Artifcial Intelligence, 97*, 104015. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.engappai.2020.104015>
- 63. Majdoubi, E. L., & O., Abdoun F., Abdoun O. (2021). A new optimized approach to resolve a combinatorial problem: Corona-Virus optimization algorithm and self-organizing maps. *Digital Technologies and Applications, 211*, 947–957. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-73882-2_86) [1007/978-3-030-73882-2_86](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-73882-2_86)
- 64. Seyyedabbasi, A., Aliyev, R., Kiani, F., Gulle, M. U., Basyildiz, H., & Shah, M. A. (2021). Hybrid algorithms based on combining reinforcement learning and metaheuristic methods to solve global optimization problems. *Knowledge-Based Systems, 223*, 107044. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.knosys.2021.107044>
- 65. Yin, L., & Li, S. (2021). Hybrid metaheuristic multi-layer reinforcement learning approach for two-level energy management strategy framework of multi-microgrid systems. *Engineering Applications of Artifcial Intelligence, 104*, 104326. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.engappai.2021.104326) [org/10.1016/j.engappai.2021.104326](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.engappai.2021.104326)
- 66. Qu, C., Gai, W., Zhong, M., & Zhang, J. (2020). A novel reinforcement learning based grey wolf optimizer algorithm for unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs) path planning. *Applied Soft Computing, 89*, 106099.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asoc.2020.106099>
- 67. Zamfrache, I. A., Precup, R.-E., Roman, R.-C., & Petriu, E. M. (2022). Policy iteration reinforcement learning-based control using a grey wolf optimizer algorithm. *Information Sciences, 585*, 162–175.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ins.2021.11.051>
- 68. Sadeg, S., Hamdad, L., Remache, A. R., Karech, M. N., Benatchba, K., & Habbas, Z. (2019). QBSO-FS: A reinforcement learning based bee swarm optimization metaheuristic for feature selection. *Advances in Computational Intelligence, 11507*, 785–796. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-20518-8_65
- 69. Chen, R., Yang, B., Li, S., & Wang, S. (2020). A self-learning genetic algorithm based on reinforcement learning for fexible job-shop scheduling problem. *Computers & Industrial Engineering, 149*, 106778.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cie.2020.106778>
- 70. Huynh-Thu, Q., & Ghanbari, M. (2008). Scope of validity of PSNR in image/video quality assessment. *Electronics Letters, 44*, 800–801.
- 71. Wang, Z., Bovik, A. C., Sheikh, H. R., & Simoncelli, E. P. (2004). Image quality assessment: From error visibility to structural similarity. *IEEE Transactions on Image Processing, 13*, 600–612. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TIP.2003.819861>
- 72. Zhang, L., Zhang, L., Mou, X., & Zhang, D. (2011). FSIM: A feature similarity index for image quality assessment. *IEEE Transactions on Image Processing, 20*, 2378–2386. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1109/TIP.2011.2109730) [1109/TIP.2011.2109730](https://doi.org/10.1109/TIP.2011.2109730)
- 73. Huang, R. (2008). Some inequalities for the hadamard product and the fan product of matrices. *Linear Algebra and its Applications, 428*, 1551–1559.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.laa.2007.10.001>
- 74. Mantegna, R. N. (1994). Fast, accurate algorithm for numerical simulation of lévy stable stochastic processes. *Physical Review E, 49*, 4677–4683. <https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevE.49.4677>
- 75. Sun, J., Gong, M., Zhao, Y., Han, C., Jing, L., & Yang, P. (2022). A hybrid deep reinforcement learning ensemble optimization model for heat load energy-saving prediction. *Journal of Building Engineering, 58*, 105031. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobe.2022.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobe.2022.105031) [105031](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobe.2022.105031)
- 76. Dolcetta, I. C., & Ishii, H. (1984). Approximate solutions of the bellman equation of deterministic control theory. *Applied Mathematics and Optimization, 11*, 161–181. [https://doi.org/10.1007/](https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01442176) [BF01442176](https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01442176)
- 77. Otsu, N. (1979). A threshold selection method from gray-level histograms. *IEEE transactions on systems, 9*, 62–66.
- 78. Kapur, J. N., Sahoo, P. K., & Wong, A. K. C. (1985). A new method for gray-level picture thresholding using the entropy of the histogram. *Computer Vision, Graphics, and Image Processing, 29*, 273–285. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0734-189X\(85\)90125-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0734-189X(85)90125-2)
- 79. Yang, X., He, X., Zhao, J., Zhang, Y., Zhang, S., Xie, P. (2020). COVID-CT-dataset: A CT Scan dataset about COVID-19. arXiv preprint <http://arxiv.org/abs/2003.13865>
- 80. Arcuri, A., & Fraser, G. (2013). Parameter tuning or default values? An empirical investigation in search-based software engineering. *Empirical Software Engineering, 18*, 594–623. [https://](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10664-013-9249-9) doi.org/10.1007/s10664-013-9249-9
- 81. Khorram, B., & Yazdi, M. (2019). A new optimized thresholding method using ant colony algorithm for MR brain image segmentation. *Journal of Digital Imaging, 32*, 162–174. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10278-018-0111-x) [1007/s10278-018-0111-x](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10278-018-0111-x)
- 82. Friedman, M. (1937). The use of ranks to avoid the assumption of normality implicit in the analysis of variance. *Journal of the American Statistical Association, 32*, 675–701. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1080/01621459.1937.10503522) [1080/01621459.1937.10503522](https://doi.org/10.1080/01621459.1937.10503522)
- 83. Abdel-Basset, M., Chang, V., & Mohamed, R. (2021). A novel equilibrium optimization algorithm for multi-thresholding image

segmentation problems. *Neural Computing and Applications, 33*, 10685–10718.<https://doi.org/10.1007/s00521-020-04820-y>

- 84. Karunasingha, D. S. K. (2022). Root mean square error or mean absolute error? Use their ratio as well. *Information Sciences, 585*, 609–629.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ins.2021.11.036>
- 85. Ewees, A. A., Abd Elaziz, M., Al-Qaness, M. A. A., Khalil, H. A., & Kim, S. (2020). Improved artifcial bee colony using sinecosine algorithm for multi-level thresholding image segmentation. *IEEE Access, 8*, 26304–26315. [https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.](https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2020.2971249) [2020.2971249](https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2020.2971249)
- 86. Mousavirad, S. J., & Ebrahimpour-Komleh, H. (2020). Human mental search-based multilevel thresholding for image segmentation. *Applied Soft Computing, 97*, 105427. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asoc.2019.04.002) [1016/j.asoc.2019.04.002](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asoc.2019.04.002)
- 87. Kovesi, P. (2000). Phase congruency: A low-level image invariant. *Psychological Research Psychologische Forschung, 64*, 136–148. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s004260000024>
- 88. Xue, W., Zhang, L., Mou, X., & Bovik, A. C. (2014). Gradient magnitude similarity deviation: A highly efficient perceptual image quality index. *IEEE Transactions on Image Processing, 23*, 684–695.<https://doi.org/10.1109/TIP.2013.2293423>
- 89. Saary, M. J. (2008). Radar plots: A useful way for presenting multivariate health care data. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology, 61*, 311–317.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclinepi.2007.04.021>

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Springer Nature or its licensor (e.g. a society or other partner) holds exclusive rights to this article under a publishing agreement with the author(s) or other rightsholder(s); author self-archiving of the accepted manuscript version of this article is solely governed by the terms of such publishing agreement and applicable law.