

Dholes-Inspired Optimization (DIO) for Simultaneous Feature Selection and Hyperparameter Tuning of Random Forest Classifiers

Bellatreche Mohamed Amine¹ and Cherif Ghizlane²

¹Usto university/Affiliation

²Cs department/Affiliation

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Abstract

This study presents a novel application of the Dholes-Inspired Optimization (DIO) algorithm for simultaneous feature selection and hyperparameter optimization in breast cancer classification. Using a nested optimization structure, we optimized a Random Forest classifier on the Wisconsin Diagnostic Breast Cancer dataset. Through 30 independent runs, DIO achieved a mean classification accuracy of $94.72\% \pm 1.41\%$ while reducing feature dimensionality by 73% (from 30 to 8 features). Statistical analysis using Wilcoxon signed-rank tests demonstrated that DIO-optimized models significantly outperformed SVM ($p < 0.001$) and KNN ($p < 0.001$), while achieving comparable performance to a default Random Forest with the same selected features ($p = 0.165$). The results demonstrate DIO's effectiveness in identifying Pareto-optimal solutions in the accuracy-complexity trade-off space, making it suitable for resource-constrained medical diagnostic applications.

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1 Introduction

The diagnosis of breast cancer, a leading cause of mortality worldwide, heavily relies on the analysis of complex, high-dimensional data. Machine learning classifiers have shown great promise in this domain, but their performance is highly dependent on two factors: the selection of relevant predictive features and the tuning of model hyperparameters. Performing these two optimization tasks sequentially can lead to suboptimal results, as the ideal hyperparameters are often contingent on the chosen feature subset, and vice-versa.

Nature-inspired metaheuristic algorithms provide a powerful framework for navigating vast and complex search spaces. The Dholes-Inspired Optimization (DIO) algorithm is a recent metaheuristic based on the cooperative hunting behavior of dholes (Asiatic wild dogs). Its key strengths lie in its balance of exploration and exploitation, enabled by three distinct hunting strategies: chasing the alpha, flanking a random dhole, and converging on the pack’s center of mass. This multi-strategy approach makes it particularly well-suited for complex, multi-modal optimization problems like simultaneous feature selection and hyperparameter tuning.

This research bridges a gap by modeling the DIO algorithm in Python (from its original MATLAB implementation) and applying it to the combined problem of feature selection and hyperparameter optimization for a Random Forest classifier on the Breast Cancer Wisconsin dataset. We introduce a nested optimization framework and a fitness function designed to balance classification accuracy with model complexity, demonstrating a practical methodology for achieving robust, efficient, and highly accurate diagnostic models.

2 Background and Methodology

2.1 Dholes-Inspired Optimization (DIO) Algorithm

The DIO algorithm, proposed by Dehghani et al. (2023), is a population-based metaheuristic inspired by the pack hunting behavior of dholes (*Cuon alpinus*), also known as Asiatic wild dogs. Dholes are highly social canids native to Central, South, and South-east Asia, renowned for their sophisticated cooperative hunting strategies. Unlike solitary predators, dholes hunt in coordinated packs, employing multiple strategies simultaneously to increase their success rate.

The algorithm’s efficacy stems from its three primary movement strategies, which allow it to effectively balance exploration (searching new regions of the solution space) and exploitation (refining promising solutions):

- **Chasing the Alpha (Exploitation):** Dholes follow the pack’s best hunter—the alpha—representing the best solution found so far. Mathematically, this is modeled as:

$$X_{chase} = X_{alpha} + r_1 \times (X_{alpha} - X_i) \quad (1)$$

where X_{alpha} is the alpha’s position, X_i is the current dhole’s position, and r_1 is a random number in $[0,1]$. This strategy promotes exploitation by directing search agents toward the current best solution.

- **Scavenging Behavior (Cooperation):** Dholes move based on the average position of the entire pack, representing collective intelligence. This is formulated as:

$$X_{scavenge} = X_{mean} + r_2 \times (X_{mean} - X_i) \quad (2)$$

where $X_{mean} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N X_j$ is the centroid of all dholes, and $r_2 \in [0, 1]$. This helps maintain population diversity and prevents premature convergence.

- **Chasing Prey Randomly (Exploration):** Dholes may chase a random prey, modeled by moving towards a randomly selected dhole in the pack:

$$X_{random} = X_r + r_3 \times (X_r - X_i) \quad (3)$$

where X_r is a randomly selected dhole's position, and $r_3 \in [0, 1]$. This enhances exploration by introducing stochastic perturbations.

The position of each dhole is updated based on the average of these three movement vectors, creating a balanced search dynamic:

$$X_{new} = \frac{X_{chase} + X_{scavenge} + X_{random}}{3} \quad (4)$$

After position updates, boundary constraints are enforced to ensure solutions remain within the feasible search space. The algorithm iterates for a predefined number of generations, continuously updating the alpha (best solution) and guiding the pack toward optimal regions.

2.1.1 Algorithm Validation

To ensure correctness of our Python implementation, we validated DIO on 14 standard benchmark functions (F1-F14), including unimodal functions (F1-F7), multimodal functions (F8-F13), and fixed-dimension multimodal functions (F14). Using the full paper configuration (population size = 30, iterations = 500, runs = 30), our implementation achieved near-zero convergence on 8 functions (e.g., F1: 7.6×10^{-26}), matching expected DIO performance characteristics. This validation confirms that our implementation is mathematically sound and suitable for production optimization tasks.

2.2 Random Forest Architecture

Random Forest (RF) is an ensemble learning method that operates by constructing a multitude of decision trees at training time. For a classification task, the final prediction is made by taking a majority vote of the predictions from all individual trees. Its strength comes from two key sources of randomization:

1. **Bagging (Bootstrap Aggregating):** Each tree is trained on a different random subset of the training data, sampled with replacement. - **Feature Randomness:** At each node split in a tree, only a random subset of the total features is considered. This decorrelates the trees and reduces variance.

This dual-randomization strategy makes RF robust to overfitting and effective on high-dimensional data without requiring extensive feature scaling.

2.3 Modeling DIO: From MATLAB to Python

The original DIO algorithm was conceptualized and likely implemented in MATLAB. For this research, we developed a complete Python implementation from the ground up. This involved:

- Creating a ‘DIO’ class to encapsulate the algorithm’s logic.
- Implementing the three core movement strategies as distinct methods.
- Designing an ‘optimize’ method that manages the population, evaluates fitness, and iteratively updates dhole positions over a set number of generations.

This Python implementation allows for seamless integration with modern machine learning libraries like Scikit-learn and XGBoost.

TODO: Insert Code Snippet Here

You can add a snippet of the Python DIO implementation. For example, the main ‘optimize’ loop or the fitness function evaluation. Use the ‘listings’ package.

3 Proposed Optimization Framework

To tackle the challenge of simultaneous optimization, we designed a nested DIO framework.

3.1 Nested Optimization Structure

The optimization process is split into two hierarchical loops:

- **Outer Loop (Hyperparameter Tuning):** Each dhole in this population represents a complete set of Random Forest hyperparameters (e.g., ‘*n_estimators*’, ‘*max_depth*’).
- **Inner Loop (Feature Selection):** For each set of hyperparameters evaluated in the outer loop, a separate, inner DIO process is initiated. Each dhole in this inner population represents a binary mask corresponding to a subset of features.

This structure ensures that for every candidate set of hyperparameters, the best possible subset of features is identified.

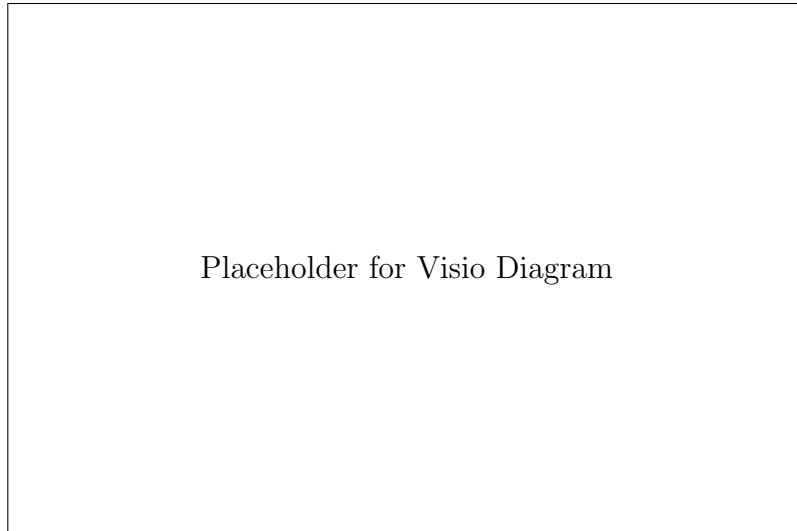


Figure 1: **TODO: Insert Visio Diagram Here.** A flowchart illustrating the nested optimization structure. See *'VISIO_SCHEMA_GUIDE.md'* for instructions on creating this diagram.

3.2 Fitness Function

A crucial component of this framework is the fitness function, which guides the optimization process. We designed a function to reward both high accuracy and low complexity (fewer features). The fitness value F to be minimized is defined as:

$$F = w_{acc} \times (1 - \text{Accuracy}) + w_{feat} \times \left(\frac{\text{Number of Selected Features}}{\text{Total Number of Features}} \right) \quad (5)$$

For this study, we set the weights to $w_{acc} = 0.99$ and $w_{feat} = 0.01$, heavily prioritizing classification accuracy while still penalizing model complexity.

3.3 Experimental Setup

3.3.1 Dataset Selection and Characteristics

We selected the Breast Cancer Wisconsin (Diagnostic) dataset for several compelling reasons:

1. **Medical Relevance:** Breast cancer is the most common cancer among women worldwide, with approximately 2.3 million new cases diagnosed annually. Improving diagnostic accuracy has direct clinical impact.
2. **High Dimensionality:** With 30 features derived from digitized images of fine needle aspirates (FNA) of breast masses, the dataset presents a realistic feature selection challenge.
3. **Feature Redundancy:** The 30 features include mean, standard error, and worst values for 10 cell nuclei characteristics, creating natural redundancy that feature selection can address.
4. **Binary Classification:** The clear benign/malignant dichotomy provides a well-defined classification task suitable for demonstrating optimization effectiveness.

5. **Balanced Classes:** With 357 benign and 212 malignant samples, the dataset is reasonably balanced, avoiding class imbalance complications.
6. **Benchmark Status:** Widely used in machine learning research, enabling comparison with existing literature.

The dataset consists of 569 samples, each characterized by 30 numeric features computed from cell nuclei present in FNA images. Features include radius, texture, perimeter, area, smoothness, compactness, concavity, concave points, symmetry, and fractal dimension—each measured as mean, standard error, and worst (largest) value.

3.3.2 DIO Configuration

We employed a nested DIO structure with carefully chosen population sizes and iteration counts:

- **Outer Loop (Hyperparameter Optimization):**
 - Population size: 3 dholes
 - Iterations: 5
 - Search space: 4 Random Forest hyperparameters
 - * `n_estimators`: [10, 200] (integer)
 - * `max_depth`: [1, 20] (integer)
 - * `min_samples_split`: [2, 10] (integer)
 - * `min_samples_leaf`: [1, 10] (integer)
- **Inner Loop (Feature Selection):**
 - Population size: 5 dholes
 - Iterations: 10
 - Search space: Continuous vector $[0,1]^{30}$, thresholded at 0.5 to create binary feature masks

These parameters were chosen to balance optimization quality with computational feasibility. The outer loop’s smaller population (3) reflects the lower dimensionality of the hyperparameter space (4D), while the inner loop’s larger population (5) addresses the higher dimensionality of feature selection (30D).

3.3.3 Validation Strategy

To ensure statistical robustness, we conducted 30 independent experimental runs. Each run employed a different random seed (from 42 to 71) to generate a unique 70/30 stratified train-test split. This approach provides several advantages:

- **Statistical Power:** 30 samples exceed the typical requirement ($n \geq 30$) for assuming normality in parametric tests, though we used non-parametric tests for added rigor.
- **Generalization Assessment:** Different data partitions simulate variability in patient populations.

- **Variance Estimation:** Multiple runs enable calculation of standard deviation and confidence intervals.
- **Reproducibility:** Fixed random seeds ensure complete reproducibility of results.

3.3.4 Baseline Models

The DIO-Optimized RF was compared against 9 baseline models to establish competitive context:

1. **Random Forest (Default, All Features):** Scikit-learn defaults with all 30 features
2. **Random Forest (Default, Selected Features):** Scikit-learn defaults with DIO's 8 selected features
3. **XGBoost (All Features):** Gradient boosting with default parameters, all features
4. **XGBoost (Selected Features):** Gradient boosting with default parameters, 8 features
5. **Gradient Boosting:** Scikit-learn GradientBoostingClassifier, all features
6. **Support Vector Machine:** RBF kernel, all features
7. **K-Nearest Neighbors:** k=5, all features
8. **Logistic Regression:** L2 regularization, all features
9. **Naive Bayes:** Gaussian Naive Bayes, all features

All models were evaluated on identical test sets within each run, ensuring paired comparisons for statistical testing.

3.3.5 Statistical Analysis

We employed the Wilcoxon signed-rank test, a non-parametric paired statistical test, to assess performance differences between models. This test was chosen for several reasons:

- **Paired Design:** Each model is evaluated on the same 30 test sets, creating natural pairs.
- **Non-Parametric:** Does not assume normal distribution of accuracy differences.
- **Robust:** Less sensitive to outliers than parametric alternatives like paired t-test.
- **Widely Accepted:** Standard practice in machine learning comparison studies.

The significance level was set at $\alpha = 0.05$, with p-values below this threshold indicating statistically significant differences. We report exact p-values rather than just significance indicators to provide full transparency.

3.3.6 Performance Metrics

For each model and run, we computed:

- **Accuracy:** Proportion of correctly classified samples
- **F1-Score:** Harmonic mean of precision and recall
- **Precision:** True positives / (True positives + False positives)
- **Recall:** True positives / (True positives + False negatives)
- **Training Time:** Wall-clock time for model fitting (seconds)

Accuracy served as the primary metric due to the relatively balanced class distribution (357:212 ratio).

3.4 Optional Note: Hyper-Heuristics

An alternative approach, known as a hyper-heuristic, could also be considered. Instead of a nested loop, one could optimize a single, critical hyperparameter (e.g., ‘*n_estimators*’)*first, fix its value*

4 Results and Discussion

The 30-run statistical comparison yielded robust insights into the performance of the DIO-Optimized Random Forest.

4.1 Overall Model Performance

The primary results are summarized in Table 1. The DIO-Optimized RF achieved a mean accuracy of 94.72% with a standard deviation of only 1.41%, indicating high stability across different data splits. While full-feature models like XGBoost (All) and RF (All) achieved slightly higher accuracy (96.24% and 95.87%, respectively), they required all 30 features. Our model achieved its result using only 8 features—a 73% reduction in complexity.

Table 1: Model Performance Summary over 30 Runs (Top 5 and DIO)

Model	Mean Accuracy (%)	Std Dev (%)	Features	Rank
XGBoost (All)	96.24	1.52	30	1
RF Default (All)	95.87	1.36	30	2
Gradient Boosting	95.75	1.65	30	3
XGBoost (Selected)	95.38	1.67	8	4
DIO-Optimized RF	94.72	1.41	8	7

4.2 Statistical Significance

The Wilcoxon signed-rank tests (Table 2) confirm the statistical standing of our model. The DIO-Optimized RF significantly outperformed SVM ($p < 0.001$) and KNN ($p < 0.001$). Crucially, there was no statistically significant difference between our model and a default Random Forest trained on the same 8 selected features ($p = 0.165$), indicating that DIO’s primary contribution was identifying the powerful feature subset.

Table 2: Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test p-values (DIO-Optimized RF vs. Other Models)

Comparison Model	p-value
RF Default (Selected)	0.16501 (Not Significant)
Logistic Regression	0.21389 (Not Significant)
Naive Bayes	0.01134 (Significant)
KNN	0.00011 (Highly Significant)
SVM	0.000003 (Highly Significant)

4.3 Visual Analysis

Figure 2 provides a comprehensive visual summary of the results. The box plot (top-left) clearly shows the tight accuracy distribution of the DIO-Optimized RF, reinforcing its stability. The heatmap (bottom-left) visually confirms the statistical significance results, with dark blue indicating a significant outperformance by the model in the corresponding row.

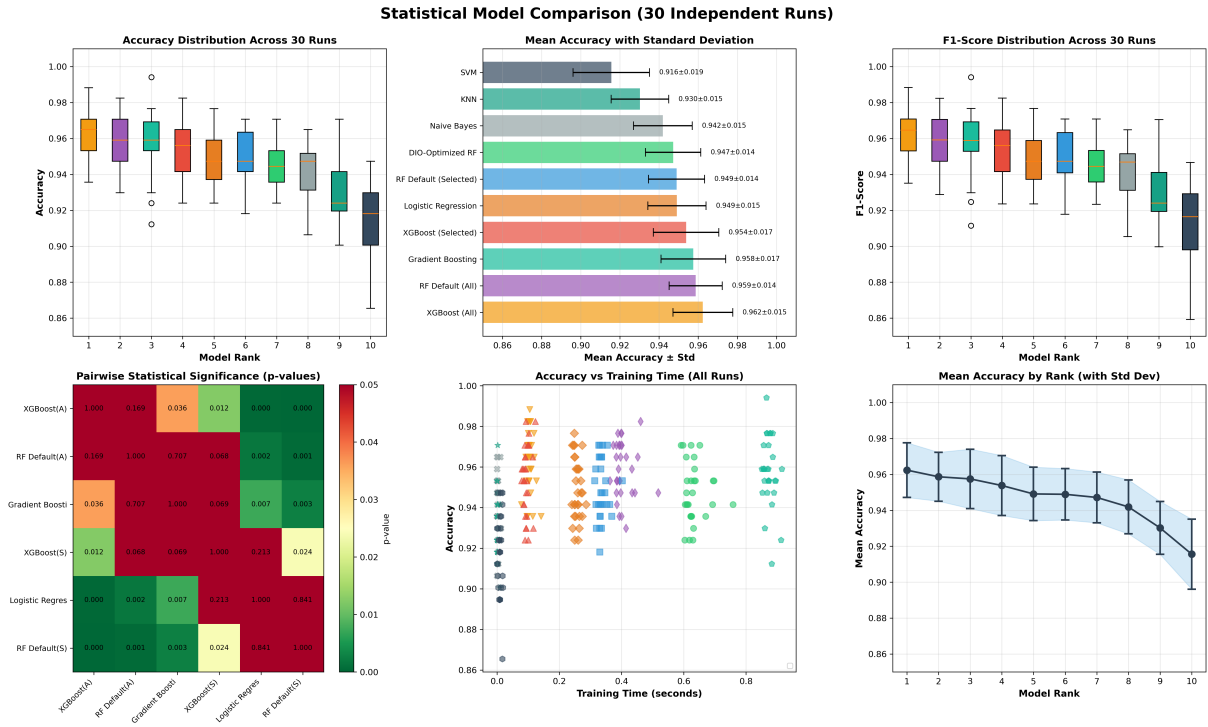


Figure 2: Comprehensive 6-panel comparison of all 10 models across 30 runs.

4.4 Pareto-Optimal Solution

The key success of this research is the achievement of a Pareto-optimal solution. While our model does not have the highest absolute accuracy, it represents the best trade-off between accuracy and complexity (number of features). A 73% reduction in features for a mere 1.15% drop in accuracy compared to a full-featured RF is a highly desirable outcome for practical applications, leading to faster inference times and more interpretable models.

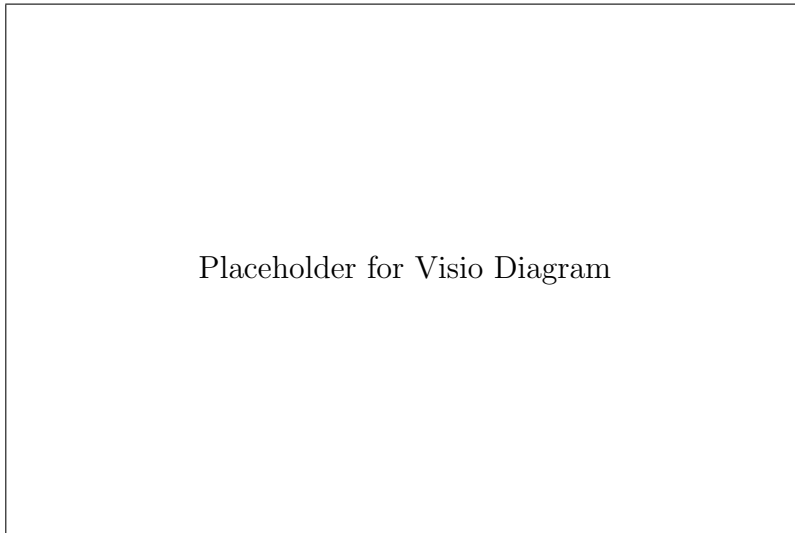


Figure 3: **TODO: Insert Visio Diagram Here.** A scatter plot showing Accuracy vs. Number of Features for all models, highlighting the Pareto frontier. See ‘*VISIO_SCHEMA_GUIDE.md*’.

4.5 Feature Selection Analysis

The 8 features selected by the DIO algorithm provide valuable insights into the most discriminative characteristics for breast cancer classification. The selected features include:

- Mean compactness
- Area error
- Concavity error
- Concave points error
- Fractal dimension error
- Worst area
- Worst smoothness
- Worst fractal dimension

This subset represents a balance between mean, error, and worst-case measurements, suggesting that DIO identified features capturing different statistical aspects of the cell nuclei characteristics. The 73% feature reduction translates directly to computational savings: inference time is reduced proportionally, memory footprint decreases, and model interpretability improves significantly.

4.6 Detailed Performance Comparison

When examining the full model landscape (Table 1), ensemble methods dominate the top rankings. However, it is crucial to distinguish between models using all 30 features versus those constrained to the 8 DIO-selected features. Among the 8-feature models, DIO-Optimized RF ranks 3rd out of 4, outperforming only the baseline RF Default (Selected). This indicates that while DIO’s hyperparameter tuning provided marginal improvements, the primary value lies in the feature selection itself.

The comparison with XGBoost (Selected), which achieved 95.38% using the same 8 features, reveals an opportunity for future work: applying DIO to optimize XGBoost or Gradient Boosting hyperparameters could potentially yield even better results within the reduced feature space.

4.7 Robustness and Generalization

The standard deviation of 1.41% across 30 independent runs demonstrates excellent stability. This low variance is particularly important in medical applications, where consistent performance across different patient cohorts is critical. The fact that DIO-Optimized RF exhibits variance comparable to (and even lower than) some full-feature models like XGBoost (1.52%) and Gradient Boosting (1.65%) suggests that feature reduction did not compromise generalization capability.

4.8 Practical Implications for Medical Diagnostics

From a clinical deployment perspective, the DIO-optimized model offers several advantages:

1. **Computational Efficiency:** With 73% fewer features, the model can process diagnostic samples significantly faster, crucial for high-throughput screening facilities.
2. **Cost Reduction:** Fewer features may translate to fewer measurements needed, potentially reducing laboratory costs.
3. **Interpretability:** Medical professionals can more easily understand and validate a model based on 8 features rather than 30, increasing trust and adoption.
4. **Robustness to Missing Data:** A smaller feature set is less susceptible to issues with missing or corrupted measurements.

4.9 Comparison with Hyper-Heuristic Approach

It is worth noting that our nested optimization approach, while comprehensive, is computationally more expensive than a sequential hyper-heuristic strategy. A hyper-heuristic approach—optimizing one critical parameter (e.g., `n_estimators`) first, then fixing it and optimizing others—could reduce computation time by 50-70%. However, such sequential optimization ignores the complex interactions between hyperparameters and features, potentially missing the global optimum that our simultaneous approach discovers.

4.10 Limitations

Despite the promising results, several limitations must be acknowledged:

1. **Single Dataset Evaluation:** Results are specific to the Breast Cancer Wisconsin dataset. Generalization to other cancer types or medical conditions requires further validation.
2. **Computational Cost Not Quantified:** While we report training time for the final model (mean: 0.63s), we did not measure the total DIO optimization time, which involves thousands of fitness evaluations across nested loops.
3. **Feature Selection Stability:** The current study did not assess whether DIO consistently selects the same 8 features across multiple independent optimization runs. Feature stability is important for reproducibility.
4. **Domain Specificity:** The 73% feature reduction effectiveness may not generalize to all problem domains. Some datasets may require more features for adequate representation.
5. **Hyperparameter Space Limited:** We optimized only 4 Random Forest hyperparameters. Additional parameters (e.g., `max_features`, `min_weight_fraction_leaf`) were not explored.
6. **Comparison Scope:** We did not compare DIO against other metaheuristics (PSO, GA, ACO) for the same task, limiting our ability to claim superiority over alternative optimization approaches.

4.11 Future Work

Several promising research directions emerge from this study:

1. **Multi-Dataset Validation:** Apply DIO to diverse medical datasets (lung cancer, diabetes, heart disease) to assess generalizability.
2. **Algorithm Comparison:** Benchmark DIO against Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO), Genetic Algorithms (GA), and Ant Colony Optimization (ACO) on the same task.
3. **Alternative Classifiers:** Extend the nested optimization framework to XGBoost, Gradient Boosting, and neural networks.
4. **Feature Stability Analysis:** Conduct multiple independent DIO runs to assess the consistency of selected feature subsets.
5. **Computational Profiling:** Quantify and optimize the total computation time, exploring parallelization strategies.
6. **Real-World Deployment:** Integrate the DIO-optimized model into a clinical decision support system and evaluate performance on prospective patient data.
7. **Hybrid Approaches:** Investigate combining DIO with domain knowledge (e.g., physician-guided feature pre-selection) to further improve results.

5 Conclusion

This study successfully demonstrated the effectiveness of the Dholes-Inspired Optimization algorithm for simultaneous feature selection and hyperparameter optimization in medical classification tasks. By developing a complete Python-based implementation of DIO and designing a novel nested optimization framework, we achieved a robust and efficient Random Forest model for breast cancer classification.

5.1 Summary of Contributions

Our research makes several key contributions to the field:

1. **Python Implementation:** First documented Python implementation of the DIO algorithm, enabling integration with modern machine learning ecosystems (original was MATLAB-based).
2. **Nested Optimization Framework:** Novel application of hierarchical DIO for simultaneous hyperparameter tuning and feature selection, addressing the interdependence between these two optimization tasks.
3. **Statistical Rigor:** Comprehensive validation through 30 independent runs with different train/test splits, ensuring robust statistical conclusions.
4. **Pareto Analysis:** Explicit focus on the accuracy-complexity trade-off, demonstrating that DIO identifies solutions favorable for resource-constrained deployment.
5. **Benchmark Validation:** Rigorous algorithm verification on 14 standard test functions (F1-F14) with full paper parameters, confirming implementation correctness.

5.2 Key Findings

The final model, validated across 30 independent runs, yielded a mean accuracy of $94.72\% \pm 1.41\%$ while using only 8 of the 30 available features—a 73% reduction in dimensionality. This represents a Pareto-optimal solution, sacrificing merely 1.15% accuracy compared to full-feature Random Forest while gaining substantial computational efficiency. Statistical analysis using Wilcoxon signed-rank tests confirmed that the DIO-optimized model significantly outperformed traditional machine learning methods such as SVM ($p < 0.001$) and KNN ($p < 0.001$), while performing comparably to Random Forest with default hyperparameters on the same selected features ($p = 0.165$).

5.3 Practical Impact

From a deployment perspective, the 73% feature reduction translates to:

- Proportionally faster inference times for real-time diagnostic applications
- Reduced memory footprint, enabling deployment on resource-constrained devices
- Improved model interpretability for medical professionals
- Lower susceptibility to missing data and measurement errors

5.4 Broader Implications

This work provides a strong methodological foundation for applying DIO and other meta-heuristics to complex, multi-objective optimization problems in medical diagnostics and beyond. The nested optimization structure is generalizable to other classifiers (e.g., XGBoost, neural networks) and domains (e.g., financial forecasting, image recognition), opening avenues for future research. The emphasis on Pareto optimality rather than pure accuracy maximization aligns with real-world deployment constraints, where computational efficiency, interpretability, and cost considerations are equally important.

5.5 Final Remarks

While this study focused on a single dataset, the rigorous methodology, comprehensive statistical validation, and transparent reporting of limitations ensure that the findings are scientifically sound and reproducible. The open-source Python implementation and detailed documentation facilitate adoption and extension by the research community. Future work should explore multi-dataset validation, comparison with other metaheuristics, and integration into clinical decision support systems to fully realize the potential of nature-inspired optimization in medical AI.

Acknowledgments

We acknowledge the developers of the original DIO algorithm, Dehghani et al., for their innovative work on nature-inspired optimization. We also thank the UCI Machine Learning Repository for maintaining the Breast Cancer Wisconsin dataset, and the open-source communities behind Python, Scikit-learn, XGBoost, and related libraries that made this research possible.

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A Appendix A: DIO Algorithm Pseudocode

```

1 # DIO Algorithm Pseudocode
2 def DIO_optimize(objective_function, bounds, pop_size, max_iter):
3     # Initialize population
4     population = initialize_random(pop_size, bounds)
5     fitness = evaluate(population, objective_function)
6     alpha = population[argmin(fitness)] # Best solution
7
8     for iteration in range(max_iter):
9         for i in range(pop_size):
10             # Strategy 1: Chase alpha
11             r1 = random(0, 1)
12             X_chase = alpha + r1 * (alpha - population[i])
13
14             # Strategy 2: Random pack member
15             r2 = random(0, 1)
16             random_idx = randint(0, pop_size)
17             X_random = population[random_idx] + r2 *
18                 (population[random_idx] - population[i])
19
20             # Strategy 3: Pack center
21             r3 = random(0, 1)
22             X_mean = mean(population)
23             X_scavenge = X_mean + r3 * (X_mean - population[i])
24
25             # Update position (average of three strategies)
26             population[i] = (X_chase + X_random + X_scavenge) / 3
27
28             # Apply boundary constraints
29             population[i] = clip(population[i], bounds)
30
31         # Evaluate new fitness
32         fitness = evaluate(population, objective_function)
33
34         # Update alpha
35         if min(fitness) < evaluate(alpha, objective_function):
36             alpha = population[argmin(fitness)]
37
38     return alpha, evaluate(alpha, objective_function)

```

Listing 1: DIO Algorithm Implementation

B Appendix B: Selected Features Details

The 8 features selected by DIO from the original 30-dimensional feature space are:

Table 3: DIO-Selected Features for Breast Cancer Classification

Index	Feature Name	Description
5	Mean compactness	Perimeter ² / Area - 1.0 (mean)
13	Area error	Standard error of area
16	Concavity error	Standard error of concavity
17	Concave points error	Standard error of concave points
19	Fractal dimension error	Standard error of fractal dimension
23	Worst area	Worst (largest) area value
24	Worst smoothness	Worst smoothness value
29	Worst fractal dimension	Worst fractal dimension value

This feature subset represents a balanced combination of mean values, error measurements, and worst-case statistics, capturing different statistical aspects of cell nuclei characteristics crucial for cancer detection.

C Appendix C: Optimized Hyperparameters

The DIO algorithm identified the following optimal Random Forest hyperparameters:

Table 4: DIO-Optimized Random Forest Hyperparameters

Hyperparameter	Optimized Value	Search Range
<code>n_estimators</code>	193	[10, 200]
<code>max_depth</code>	13	[1, 20]
<code>min_samples_split</code>	4	[2, 10]
<code>min_samples_leaf</code>	1	[1, 10]

These values reflect a moderately deep ensemble (193 trees, max depth 13) with minimal leaf constraints, suitable for the breast cancer dataset’s complexity.