Revolutionizing Prostate Cancer Diagnosis: An Integrated Approach for Gleason Grade Classification and Explainability

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Abstract—Accurate grading of Prostate Cancer (PCa) is vital for effective treatment planning and prognosis. This study introduces an advanced framework for Gleason Grade (GG) classification, addressing challenges in accuracy, computational efficiency, and interpretability. Utilizing the SICAPv2 dataset, which contains annotated prostate biopsy Whole Slide Images (WSIs) graded from GG0 to GG5, the framework integrates cutting-edge machine learning and deep learning techniques. Feature extraction is performed using a custom-designed Variational Autoencoder (VAE) with a VGG16 backbone, chosen for its computational efficiency, while dimensionality reduction with Principal Component Analysis (PCA) optimally selects 50 features for classification. The classification pipeline combines machine learning models, including Support Vector Machines (SVM), logistic regression, and random forests, with custom Deep Neural Networks (DNNs). SVM with an Radial Basis Function (RBF) kernel achieved an accuracy of 84% following hyperparameter tuning, while a custom five-layer dense neural network incorporating dropout and batch normalization demonstrated superior performance with an accuracy of 94.6%. Explainable AI (XAI) techniques, such as SHapley Additive exPlanations (SHAP), gradient-weighted class activation mapping (Grad-CAM), and Local Interpretable Model-Agnostic Explanations (LIME), enhance model interpretability by providing insights into feature importance and aligning predictions with clinical expertise. This framework delivers a robust, scalable, and interpretable solution for automated GG classification, bridging the gap between advanced AI techniques and clinical application.

Keywords- Cancer diagnosis; Dimensionality reduction; Explainable AI; Feature extraction; Gleason grade classification.

I. INTRODUCTION

Prostate cancer remains a significant global health issue, ranking among the leading causes of cancer-related mortality in men. The prostate gland [6], located below the bladder and comparable in size to a walnut, plays a crucial role in male reproductive health by producing seminal fluid. Clinical manifestations often include Lower Urinary Tract Rajendra B. Nerli

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Symptoms (LUTS), haematuria, erectile dysfunction, and urinary retention.

Traditional diagnostic methods, such as Digital Rectal Examination (DRE), prostate-specific antigen (PSA) screening, and 12-core Transrectal Ultrasound (TRUS)-guided biopsy, exhibit notable limitations. Over-diagnosis rates can reach up to 45%, while clinically significant cancers may be missed in 30% of cases. These challenges underscore the necessity for advanced diagnostic techniques to effectively distinguish aggressive from non-aggressive cancer types [1-4].

The integration of WSI with Artificial Intelligence (AI) presents transformative potential in prostate cancer diagnostics, particularly for GG. High-resolution digital images of prostate biopsy samples are acquired through WSI scanners and undergo preprocessing steps, such as normalization and artifact removal, to enhance image quality [8]. AI-driven models segment tissue regions and extract significant histopathological features using deep learning techniques, including Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) and VAE [5].

Following feature extraction, AI models classify tissue patterns into respective GG, facilitating precise cancer grading. Post-classification validation ensures model robustness, while explainability tools such as SHAP, LIME, Grad-CAM, and Saliency Maps enhance transparency and interpretability. Figure 1 illustrates the developed AI pipeline, addressing critical diagnostic challenges by improving accuracy, efficiency, and consistency in GG assessment.

This framework integrates VAEs, XAI techniques, and preprocessing methods to enhance GG classification precision, support personalized clinical decisions, and improve PCa outcomes. In this paper, Section II covers the related work, Section III delves into the methods and materials, Section IV presents the results and discussions, and Section V provides the conclusion.



Figure 1. The block diagram shows a hybrid system for GG Group using WSIs, ensuring transparent and accurate PCa diagnosis and treatment with XAI techniques

II. RELATED WORK

The integration of AI into the GG of PCa using WSI has brought about significant advancements in accuracy, consistency, and efficiency [9], [22]. Firjani et al. [10] laid the groundwork by achieving 100% accuracy in classifying prostate tissues into benign and malignant using a k-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) classifier on Diffusion-Weighted Imaging (DWI). Singhal et al. [11] improved segmentation and grading of PCa in WSIs of core needle biopsies with a DL model combining U-Net and Atrous Spatial Pyramid Pooling (ASPP) modules, achieving an accuracy of 89.4% and a quadratic-weighted kappa of 0.92. Azizi et al. [12] leveraged recurrent neural networks (RNN) on temporal enhanced ultrasound (TeUS) data, with Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks achieving an accuracy of 0.93, an AUC of 0.96, a sensitivity of 0.76, and a specificity of 0.98. Bulten et al. [13] developed an automatic DL model for GG, attaining a quadratic Cohen's kappa score of 0.918 using biopsies. Tsuneki et al. [15] employed transfer learning to classify WSIs into adenocarcinoma and benign lesions, achieving a high ROC-AUC of up to 0.9873. Pati et al. [16] introduced WholeSIGHT, a weakly-supervised method for joint segmentation and classification, demonstrating a Dice coefficient of 0.76 on three public PCa WSI datasets. Müller et al. [17] presented DeepGleason, an open-source DNN system for automated GG, achieving a macro-averaged F1-score of 0.806, an AUC of 0.991, and an accuracy of 0.974. Hammouda et al. [18] proposed a multi-stage classification-based DL system for GG, achieving a precision of 0.92, recall of 0.89, and accuracy of 0.93 on 3,080 WSIs. Duenweg et al. [19] highlighted the impact of different WSI scanners on image quality, which significantly affects computational analysis performance, underscoring the need for standardized WSI scanner protocols. Mittmann et al. [20] developed an AI

system for interpretable GG that mimics pathologist explanations, achieving a Dice score of 0.713 ± 0.003 using a dataset of 1,015 tissue microarray core images annotated by 54 pathologists. Belinga [11] proposed an AI-assisted system that improved GG accuracy and consistency, with a quadratically weighted Cohen's kappa of 0.872 compared to 0.799 without AI assistance, evaluated on 160 biopsies graded by 14 observers. Collectively, these studies underscore the transformative potential of AI and digital pathology in enhancing the diagnostic accuracy and consistency of GG in PCa.

III. METHODS AND MATERIALS

Hybrid PCa GG uses a custom VAE with a pre-trained VGG-16 encoder for feature extraction and a two-layer Dense decoder for reconstruction. Trained on SICAPv2 datasets [5], [7], it ensures accurate GG classification and clinical relevance, as shown in Figure 2. To further optimize performance, we apply advanced feature reduction techniques, including PCA, Singular Value Decomposition (SVD), linear discriminant analysis (LDA), and t-distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE), ensuring dimensionality reduction while retaining critical data characteristics. The pipeline employs several state-of-the-art classifiers-Decision Tree, Random Forest, XGBoost, and SVM—which are fine-tuned via hyperparameter optimization to improve predictive accuracy. These classifiers are evaluated using performance metrics like accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-Score to ensure robust and reliable results. Furthermore, to enhance model transparency and interpretability, we incorporate XAI techniques. LIME offers local insights into individual predictions, SHAP quantifies global feature contributions, Grad-CAM visualizes critical regions in the images, saliency Maps highlight influential pixels, and feature Maps provide insights into the learning process at various layers. This comprehensive approach not only enhances the precision of GG but also supports transparency, ensuring the AI model is trustworthy for clinical use, and paves the way for more personalized PCa diagnosis and treatment

strategies. The SICAPv2 dataset [22] (GG0–GG5) provided a robust benchmark for validating AI-driven PCa models.

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Algorithm 1 VAE-Based Gleason Grade Classification
Input: Whole Slide Images (WSIs) \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N\}, Labels \{Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_N\}, Pre-trained Encoder E, Decoder D, Feature
Reduction Method R, Classifier C
Output: Predicted Gleason Grades \{\hat{Y}_1, \hat{Y}_2, \dots, \hat{Y}_N\}.
 1: Initialize the pre-trained VGG-16 encoder E and decoder D.
    Construct Variational Autoencoder: VAE = (E, D).
 3: Train VAE on \{X, Y\} to obtain latent representations:
                                                              Z = E(X), \quad Z \in \mathbb{R}^d.
 4: Apply feature reduction R (e.g., PCA):
                                                            Z_R = R(Z), \quad Z_R \in \mathbb{R}^{d_r}.
   Train the classifier C on \{Z_R, Y\}.
 6: for i = 1 to N do
         Extract latent feature z_i = E(X_i).
        Reduce dimensionality: z_{i,R} = R(z_i).
Predict Gleason Grade: \hat{Y}_i = C(z_{i,R}).
    end for
10
11: Evaluate classification performance using:
                                                                          TP + TN
                                                     Accuracy
                                                                   \overline{TP + TN + FP + FN}
                                                                       TP
                                                     Precision
                                                                    \overline{TP + FP}
                                                        Recall
                                                                   \frac{TP + FN}{Precision \cdot Recall}
                                                     F1-Score = 2 \cdot \frac{Precision}{Precision + Recall},
                                                   AUC-ROC = Area under the ROC curve
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Figure 2. Implemenation algorithm VAE-Based Hybrid Algorithm for Gleason Grade Classification

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents the VAE-based hybrid pipeline's performance in GG classification, emphasizing key results, feature reduction, and XAI techniques.

A. Feature Extraction by VAE and Feature reduction

As shown in Table I, VGG-16 is the optimal feature extractor for GG classification, balancing quality, efficiency, and interpretability by extracting 512 compact and effective features. It avoids the redundancy seen in ResNet-50 and DenseNet-121, which produce 2048 and 1024 features, respectively. Despite DenseNet-121 being faster, VGG-16's moderate extraction time ensures reliability, minimizing overfitting and making it ideal for medical imaging.

	VAE Performance as Feature Extractor					
VAE with CNN as Encoder	No. of features extracte d from Model	Feature Dimension s Before Flattening	Time taken by Model for FE	Time taken for feature Decoding	Time taken for PCA Transfor mation	
VGG-16	512	(None, 7,	63.06	0.55	0.05	
		7, 512)	sec	sec	sec	
VGG-19	512	(None, 7,	65.50	0.32	0.01	
		7, 512)	sec	sec	sec	
ResNet-	2048	(None, 7,	30.55	0.28	0.04	
50	2040	7, 2048)	sec	sec	sec	
DenseNet	1024	(None, 7,	33.84	0.32	0.07	

TABLE I. FEATURE EXTRACTION

	VAE Performance as Feature Extractor					
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-121		7, 1024)	sec	sec	sec	

Feature reduction performance in Table II indicates that various CNN models used as VAE encoders achieve similar dimensionality reduction to 50 features using PCA, SVD, and t-SNE. VGG-16, VGG-19, and ResNet-50 demonstrate comparable performance in feature reduction, with ResNet-50 extracting the highest number of features at 2048. DenseNet-121, extracting 1024 features, achieves the highest reduction with SVD, reducing features to 137. VGG-16 and VGG-19, with 512 features, consistently and efficiently reduce dimensionality while maintaining feature quality.

TABLE II. FEATURE REDUCTION

	Feature Reduction after VAE					
CNN Model As VAE Encoder	No. of features extracted from Model	PCA	SVD	LDA	t-SNE	
VGG-16	512	50	100	1	2	
VGG-19	512	50	93	1	2	
ResNet-50	2048	50	103	1	2	
DenseNet-121	1024	50	137	1	2	

B. Feature Explainability

In Table IV, SHAP was the fastest, completing its task in 0.92 seconds while using only 1.47 MB of memory. LIME, although computationally intensive, required the highest memory at 9.97 MB. Grad-CAM stood out for its superior visual explanations, achieving a good balance with a runtime of 1.87 seconds and memory usage of 5.16 MB. Saliency maps provided a well-rounded performance, combining reasonable speed at 1.15 seconds with moderate memory usage of 6.74 MB. Figure 3 illustrates explainability techniques: (a) Significant contributions of 50 features to classification using XAI SHAP, (b) Grad-CAM heatmap for GG2 showing lower activation in cooler colors, indicating a lower likelihood of malignancy, and (c) Grad-CAM heatmap for GG4 displaying higher activation in warmer colors, highlighting regions significant for predicting malignancy.

TABLE III. EXPLAINABILITY OF FEATURE

XAI Technique	Time (seconds)	Peak Memory Usage (MB)
SHAP	0.9193	1.4740
LIME	1.4421	9.9731
Grad-CAM	1.8705	5.1574
Saliency Map	1.1513	6.7392

C. Machine Learnning classification

In Table IV, the performance metrics for various machine learning classification models are as follows: Decision Tree achieved accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score of 0.47. Linear Regression showed consistent scores of 0.70 across all metrics. Random Forest performed better with scores of 0.78 across all metrics. XGBoost had moderate performance with scores of 0.72. SVM demonstrated the highest performance with accuracy and recall at 0.81, and precision and F1-score at 0.80.

 TABLE IV.
 PERFORMANCE METRICS FOR VARIOUS ML CLASSIFICATION

Metric	ML Model				
	Decision Tree	Linear Regression	Random Forest	XGBoost	SVM
Accuracy	0.47	0.70	0.78	0.72	0.81
Precision	0.48	0.71	0.78	0.72	0.80
Recall	0.47	0.70	0.78	0.72	0.81
F1-Score	0.47	0.70	0.78	0.72	0.81

D. Machine Learnning classification with hyperparmeter tuning

In Table V, hyperparameter tuning significantly improved model performance. SVM showed the highest gains, with accuracy rising from 0.81 to 0.84, precision from 0.80 to 0.85, recall from 0.81 to 0.84, and F1-score from 0.81 to 0.84—improvements of 3.7% in accuracy and recall, and 3.8% in precision and F1-score. Random Forest improved from 0.78 to 0.81 in accuracy and recall, while XGBoost's

accuracy rose from 0.72 to 0.76 and recall from 0.72 to 0.75. Decision Tree saw the largest improvement, with an 8.5% boost across all metrics (0.47 to 0.51). Linear Regression maintained consistent performance at 0.72. Overall, hyperparameter tuning enhanced all models, with SVM outperforming others in all metrics.

 TABLE V.
 PERFORMANCE METRICS FOR VARIOUS ML

 CLASSIFICATION WITH HYPERPARMETER TUNING

	ML Model hyperparameter					
Metric	Decision Tree	Linear Regression	Random Forest	XGBoost	SVM	
Accuracy	0.51	0.72	0.81	0.76	0.84	
Precision	0.53	0.72	0.80	0.74	0.85	
Recall	0.51	0.72	0.81	0.75	0.84	
F1-Score	0.51	0.72	0.81	0.75	0.84	

E. Deep learning – Deep neural network

In Table VI, we evaluated the performance of DNN models with different architectures. The DNN model with 3 Dense Layers achieved an accuracy of 0.79, precision of 0.81, recall of 0.79, and F1-score of 0.80. The performance improved with the DNN model featuring 5 Dense Layers, which achieved an accuracy of 0.89, precision of 0.90, recall of 0.89, and F1-score of 0.89. The model with 5 Dense Layers combined with Dropout and Batch Normalization demonstrated the best results, with an accuracy of 0.94, precision of 0.96, recall of 0.94, and F1-score of 0.95. The addition of Dropout and Batch Normalization led to a significant improvement, increasing accuracy by 5.6%, precision by 6.7%, recall by 5.6%, and F1-score by 6.7% compared to the model without these techniques. This indicates that Dropout and Batch Normalization played a crucial role in boosting the model's overall performance.

TABLE VI. DEEP LEARNIG – DNN MODEL

Metric	DL – DNN with 3 Dense Layers	DL – DNN with 5 Dense Layers	DL – DNN with 5 Dense Layers + Dropout & Batch Normalization
Accuracy	0.79	0.89	94.6
Precision	0.81	0.90	96
Recall	0.79	0.89	94
F1-Score	0.80	0.89	0.95

F. Comparative Analysis of ML and DL Techniques for Prostate Cancer Diagnostics

The performance comparison shows ML models like SVM achieving ~0.84 accuracy, while DL models excelled, with a 5-layer DNN using dropout and batch normalization achieving ~0.94; Figure 4 highlights that DL, combined with advanced regularization methods, offers superior accuracy and robustness in PCa GG classification.

V. CONCLUSION

In this study, a comprehensive framework for GG classification using WSI of PCa was developed by integrating DNN and ML models. VGG-16 was identified as the optimal feature extractor, offering a balance of feature quality and computational efficiency by extracting 512 features in 63.06 seconds. It outperformed DenseNet-121 and ResNet-50 in reducing redundancy and ensuring efficient dimensionality reduction through PCA, SVD, and t-SNE. Hyperparameter tuning enhanced ML performance, with SVM achieving the highest accuracy of 84%, while DL models incorporating dropout and batch normalization demonstrated significant improvements. A five-layer DNN achieved 94.6% accuracy, highlighting the effectiveness of regularization in preventing overfitting. A novel aspect of

this research lies in the integration of XAI techniques to improve model interpretability. SHAP provided rapid, memory-efficient insights, while Grad-CAM delivered detailed visualizations, ensuring transparency in decisionmaking. LIME and Saliency Maps further contributed to understanding model outputs, underscoring the need for transparent AI in clinical settings. Future work will expand this framework to larger datasets and explore advanced neural architectures and XAI methods, aiming to develop scalable, interpretable, and clinically reliable AI models for PCa diagnostics. The implementation, tested on an openaccess dataset, could benefit from additional testing on more benchmark and clinical datasets to enhance its clinical utility.



Figure 3. Comparison of Explainability Techniques for Prostate Cancer Gleason Grade Classification (a) Significant contributions of 50 features to classification using XAI SHAP (b) Grad-CAM heatmap for GG2 and (c) Grad-CAM heat map for GG4



Figure 4. Evaluating ML and DL Models for Prostate Cancer Diagnostics: A Performance Insight

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