

# Moonlight: Enhanced Deep Learning Models for Breast Cancer Detection Using Histopathology Image

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**Abstract**—This research addresses the critical need for accurate and efficient breast cancer classification using histopathology images. Leveraging the BreaKHis dataset, we propose an enhanced deep learning framework—Moonlight—that integrates optimized architectures, diverse loss functions, and enriched data augmentation techniques. Our methodology involves modular experimentation across multiple CNN variants, including DenseNet121, EfficientConvNet, and Residual U-Net, with flexibility to switch among novel loss functions such as focal loss and perceptual loss. Different augmentation strategies are employed to improve model generalization and robustness. The experiments are evaluated not only using traditional metrics such as accuracy and loss, but also precision, recall, F1-score, and visual explanations via Grad-CAM++. The expected outcome is a robust and generalizable deep learning model for high-accuracy breast cancer detection, with improved interpretability and adaptability for real-world deployment. This work is conducted as part of the Deep Learning project in the Master of Artificial Intelligence (MX) program at King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals (KFUPM).

**Index Terms**—Neural Networks, Deep Learning, Breast Cancer Detection, Histopathology Images, Modular Framework, Residual Connections, Focal Loss, Perceptual Loss, Data Augmentation, Grad-CAM++, Interpretability, Performance Metrics, AI in Healthcare, Master of Artificial Intelligence, KFUPM.

## I. INTRODUCTION

### A. Background and Significance

Breast cancer remains one of the most prevalent and life-threatening diseases among women worldwide. Early and accurate diagnosis is critical for improving survival rates and treatment outcomes. Histopathological image analysis, the gold standard for diagnosing breast cancer [10], [14], is often time-consuming and highly dependent on the expertise of pathologists. This manual examination can introduce variability and diagnostic errors due to fatigue or subjective interpretation [15].

### B. Challenges in Current Techniques

In recent years, deep learning—particularly convolutional neural networks (CNNs)—has demonstrated remarkable success in automating image-based diagnostic tasks with high

accuracy [1], [2], [14]. However, standard models often struggle to balance performance, generalizability, and interpretability when applied to complex and variable histopathological images [10], [15]. There is a growing need for optimized and robust deep learning approaches that not only improve classification accuracy but also provide transparent insights into decision-making [8], [9], [16].

This research aims to address these challenges by enhancing model architecture, training strategies, and interpretability to build a high-performance, explainable system for breast cancer detection from histopathology images.

### C. Problem Statement

Despite significant advancements in deep learning for medical image analysis [14], [15], several challenges remain in the context of histopathological breast cancer detection.

1) *Architectural Limitations*: Standard CNN architectures, such as VGGNet or basic convolutional models, often lack the necessary depth or connectivity to capture subtle and complex tissue features [3], [5], [6]. This can limit their discriminative power and generalization ability across varying magnifications and tumor subtypes.

2) *Insufficient Loss Optimization*: Conventional loss functions like cross-entropy [2] do not always reflect the structural or perceptual similarity required in fine-grained medical image classification. More specialized loss functions such as focal loss [18] and perceptual loss [19] may be needed to improve feature sensitivity and classification reliability.

3) *Inadequate Data Augmentation*: Many existing pipelines rely on basic augmentation techniques [17], which may not sufficiently address data scarcity and class imbalance, challenges that are common in medical imaging datasets like BreaKHis [10].

4) *Lack of Model Interpretability*: Deep learning models often function as "black boxes" [8], [9], [16], making it difficult for clinicians to understand or trust their predictions, especially in high-stakes applications like cancer diagnosis.

Therefore, the core research problem is:

*How can we design an enhanced deep learning pipeline that improves classification accuracy, robustness, and interpretability for breast cancer detection from histopathology images?*

This study aims to bridge the above gaps by integrating optimized model architectures, testing different loss functions including composite loss, applying more sophisticated data augmentation techniques, and improving visual interpretability through Grad-CAM and Grad-CAM++ overlays [8], [9].

#### D. Objectives

The primary objective of this research is to develop a modular and enhanced deep learning framework for the classification of breast cancer from histopathological images. The framework is designed to be adaptable, interpretable, and robust across different clinical conditions. To achieve this, the following key objectives are identified.

1) *Design and evaluate multiple optimized CNN architectures:* This includes DenseNet, Residual Networks, Efficient Convolutions, and a custom Residual U-Net classifier, ensuring a diverse evaluation of architecture performance.

2) *Integrate advanced loss functions:* Advanced loss functions such as Focal Loss, Perceptual Loss, and a Composite Loss (CrossEntropy combined with Perceptual Loss) are incorporated to examine and identify the best fit for feature learning enhancement and classification sensitivity.

3) *Implement sophisticated data augmentation strategies:* To improve generalization and reduce overfitting, an advanced augmentation scheme is developed, including Random Resized Cropping, Horizontal Flipping, Random Rotation, and Color Jitter (brightness, contrast, saturation adjustments).

4) *Enable modular experimentation:* A configuration-driven training pipeline is built to allow flexible switching between models, loss functions, and augmentation strategies, supporting reproducible and scalable experimentation.

5) *Apply Grad-CAM and Grad-CAM++ overlays techniques:* Visualization techniques like Grad-CAM and Grad-CAM++ are implemented to interpret and validate model predictions, enhancing clinical trust and model transparency.

6) *Quantitatively evaluate model performance:* Model performance is quantitatively assessed using precision, recall, F1-score, and accuracy metrics on the BreakHis dataset, across multiple experiments.

#### E. Scope of Study

This study is focused on the development and evaluation of enhanced deep learning models for binary classification of breast cancer (benign vs. malignant) using histopathological images from the BreakHis dataset. The scope of the research is defined as follows.

1) *Histopathological Image-Based Classification:* The classification task is performed on histopathological image data only; no patient metadata or clinical records are used [10].

2) *Utilization of Full Magnification Range:* The dataset used is BreakHis, which contains digitized biopsy images of breast tissue captured across four magnification factors (40X, 100X, 200X, and 400X) [10]. This study utilizes the full dataset across all magnifications to enhance generalization and robustness, without restricting analysis to a single magnification level.

3) *Exploration of Multiple CNN Architectures:* The research explores and compares multiple CNN-based architectures, including DenseNet121 [5], Residual Networks [4], Efficient Convolutions, and a Residual U-Net classifier [6].

4) *Evaluation of Advanced Loss Functions and Augmentation Techniques:* Loss functions such as CrossEntropy, Focal Loss [18], and Perceptual Loss [19], along with various data augmentation techniques [17], are examined for their impact on classification performance and generalizability.

5) *Performance Metrics and Interpretability Assessment:* The project is limited to performance evaluation using common metrics including accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score, as well as qualitative assessment through visual interpretation tools such as Grad-CAM and Grad-CAM++ [8], [9].

6) *Scope Limitations:* External clinical validation and real-time deployment are currently outside the scope of this study but are identified as important directions for future work.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Overview of Existing Techniques

The baseline approach in the original breast cancer detection framework utilizes a standard deep learning classification pipeline trained on the BreakHis dataset [10]. The pipeline includes the following core components.

1) *Preprocessing:* Images are resized to a uniform dimension and normalized. Notably, the original implementation does not enforce explicit RGB image usage; in fact, several studies and default loading routines often convert histopathology images to grayscale [10], [15], which risks losing important chromatic texture information necessary for accurate diagnosis.

2) *Model Architecture:* The primary architecture employed is a transfer learning model based on DenseNet121 [5]. This network leverages pretrained weights from ImageNet [3] and replaces the final classification layer to support binary classification (benign vs. malignant).

3) *Loss Function:* The original implementation uses CrossEntropyLoss [2], a standard loss function for classification tasks that penalizes incorrect predictions but does not account for structural similarity, perceptual sensitivity, or class imbalance.

4) *Data Augmentation:* Basic augmentation techniques such as resizing, normalization, and random horizontal flipping [17] are used to improve generalization during training. However, these methods are limited in their ability to simulate the biological diversity present in real histopathological datasets.

5) *Evaluation Metrics*: Model performance is measured using accuracy and top- $k$  accuracy metrics [14]. Although informative, these metrics do not provide deep insights into class-wise performance, particularly for imbalanced data scenarios where precision, recall, and F1-score are more appropriate.

This framework laid a solid foundation for automated breast cancer detection but leaves room for architectural innovation, richer data augmentation strategies, and the adoption of more expressive evaluation metrics and interpretability techniques [8], [9].

### B. Related Work

Multiple studies have investigated deep learning approaches for histopathological image analysis, particularly using the BreaKHis dataset [10]. The original framework builds upon prior work by incorporating a DenseNet-based model for binary classification of breast cancer subtypes [5]. Below is a summary of related studies and their limitations as reflected in the base implementation.

1) *Spanhol et al. (2016)*: Spanhol et al. introduced the BreaKHis dataset and performed classification using handcrafted features combined with traditional machine learning classifiers such as Support Vector Machines (SVMs) [10]. While foundational, these approaches suffered from low scalability and limited feature representation in complex medical imaging tasks.

2) *Araújo et al. (2017)*: Araújo et al. applied convolutional neural networks (CNNs) directly to histopathological patches, demonstrating improvement over handcrafted features [15]. However, the models employed were relatively shallow, lacked residual or dense connectivity, and often failed to generalize across different magnification levels.

3) *Oliveira et al. (2018)*: Oliveira et al. proposed a deep feature fusion strategy, where features extracted from pre-trained networks such as AlexNet and VGG [3] were combined with classical classifiers. Although this hybrid approach improved performance, it introduced high computational complexity and limited the ability to perform end-to-end learning.

4) *Original Framework (GitHub)*: The original framework available on GitHub [12] applied DenseNet121 [5] with transfer learning and minimal customization to the BreaKHis dataset. While it marked a shift toward modular and reproducible pipelines, it relied heavily on default settings (such as basic augmentation and CrossEntropyLoss [2]) and lacked model interpretability tools such as Grad-CAM++ [9].

While these studies contribute important steps toward automated histopathological analysis, they share common limitations in terms of model depth, interpretability, and robustness to variations in image quality and tumor presentation. These gaps motivate the development of more adaptive, efficient, and explainable deep learning solutions.

### C. Limitations in Existing Approaches

While the original framework provides a solid baseline using DenseNet121 [5] and basic preprocessing techniques,

it exhibits several limitations that restrict its performance, scalability, and interpretability in clinical-grade breast cancer diagnosis. These shortcomings include:

1) *Lack of Architectural Diversity*: The reliance on a single architecture (DenseNet121 [5]) does not allow exploration of other potentially more efficient or expressive models such as residual networks [4] or lightweight convolutional blocks designed for medical imaging tasks.

2) *Absence of Residual and Efficient Convolutions*: The framework does not incorporate advanced architectural concepts such as residual skip connections [4] or depthwise separable convolutions, both of which can significantly improve gradient flow, feature reuse, and inference efficiency.

3) *Limited Loss Function Strategy*: Using only CrossEntropyLoss [2] fails to address challenges such as class imbalance and misclassification of borderline cases. More expressive loss functions like Focal Loss [18] or Perceptual Loss [19] could improve feature sensitivity and learning stability.

4) *Basic Data Augmentation*: The use of only resizing and simple flipping [17] provides limited variability during training. It does not adequately simulate the real-world diversity seen in histopathology images, making the model more susceptible to overfitting and generalization errors.

5) *No Explicit RGB Handling*: While RGB information is essential for capturing color texture in histological slides [10], the original model does not ensure color-space preservation by default. Our review showed that some loading routines risk conversion to grayscale or do not utilize color-aware transforms, potentially losing diagnostic information.

6) *Lack of Interpretability Tools*: The absence of attention or heatmap-based visualizations, such as Grad-CAM or Grad-CAM++ [8], [9], makes it difficult for clinicians to validate or trust the model's predictions, limiting real-world adoption.

7) *Limited Evaluation Metrics*: The evaluation strategy focuses primarily on overall accuracy and top- $k$  accuracy [14], which can be misleading for imbalanced datasets. Comprehensive metrics such as precision, recall, and F1-score are needed for clinically reliable and robust model assessment.

These limitations highlight the need for a more modular, interpretable, and performance-optimized framework. The enhancements proposed in this study aim to address these gaps through improved architectural design, advanced loss function strategies, enriched data augmentation, and the integration of explainable AI techniques.

## III. PROPOSED METHODOLOGY

To address the limitations identified in the original framework, this study introduces a suite of enhancements across architecture design, loss functions, data augmentation, training configuration, and interpretability. These enhancements aim to improve classification accuracy, model robustness, and transparency in decision-making.

### A. Support for Multiple Architectures

The pipeline is extended to support a variety of optimized models, allowing researchers to select architectures best suited

for performance or efficiency. New models include the following.

- 1) *ResidualModel*: A ResNet-style architecture with skip connections for improved gradient propagation [4].
- 2) *EfficientConvModel*: A lightweight model using depth-wise separable convolutions for reduced computational overhead.
- 3) *UNetClassifier*: A custom U-Net variant combining downsampling with residual blocks for enhanced spatial feature extraction [6].
- 4) *SimpleCNN*: A basic convolutional neural network architecture used for baseline comparison.

### B. Advanced Loss Functions

Several loss functions were implemented to improve feature learning and address challenges like class imbalance and perceptual sensitivity.

- 1) *Focal Loss*: Focal Loss down-weights easy examples to focus the model's attention on harder, misclassified instances [18].
- 2) *Perceptual Loss*: Perceptual Loss aligns softmax outputs with one-hot target vectors by using mean squared error computed over feature representations rather than raw output probabilities [19].
- 3) *Composite Loss*: Composite Loss combines CrossEntropy and Perceptual Loss, balancing categorical prediction accuracy with feature-level similarity to enhance both classification performance and structural sensitivity.

### C. Enhanced Data Augmentation

In addition to basic resizing and normalization, an advanced augmentation scheme was introduced. This includes random resized cropping, horizontal flipping, color jittering, and rotation transformations [17], aiming to better simulate clinical variability and enhance model generalization.

### D. Modular Configuration System

A flexible configuration-driven system and command-line interface were developed to allow seamless switching between different architectures, loss functions, and augmentation strategies. This modularity enables reproducible experiments, scalable training, and easier hyperparameter tuning.

### E. Explainability

Manual implementations of Grad-CAM and Grad-CAM++ [8], [9] were integrated into the framework to generate heatmaps highlighting discriminative regions within histopathological images. These visualizations support clinical interpretability and build trust in the model's predictions. This idea builds upon the hybrid deep learning framework initially proposed in [13], which combined traditional CNN structures with enhanced interpretability methods for histopathology image analysis.

### F. RGB Image Utilization

The pipeline was explicitly updated to process RGB histopathological images instead of converting to grayscale. Preserving color texture information improves diagnostic sensitivity and captures critical histological features such as nuclear staining patterns [10].

### G. Expanded Evaluation Metrics

Evaluation now includes a broader set of metrics: precision, recall, F1-score, and class confidence probabilities, in addition to traditional accuracy [14]. This provides a more complete and clinically meaningful performance profile, especially important for imbalanced datasets.

## IV. ALGORITHM AND IMPLEMENTATION

The enhanced framework is designed with modularity and scalability in mind. It integrates configurable components for data loading, model selection, loss function, optimizer, augmentation, and training strategies. The overall implementation pipeline is summarized below.

### A. Dataset

The BreaKHis dataset [10] (made available via Kaggle [11]) is used in this study. It contains a total of 7,909 histopathological images of breast tumor tissue from 82 patients. Each image is categorized as either benign (2,486 images) or malignant (5,423 images) and is captured at four magnification levels: 40X, 100X, 200X, and 400X.

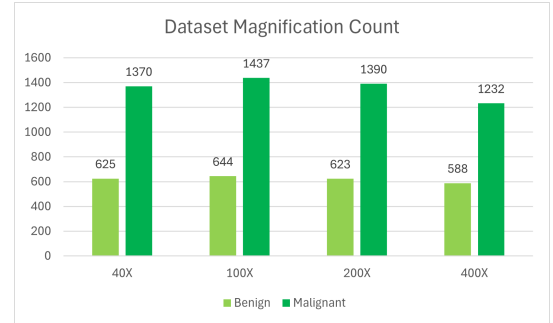


Fig. 1. Distribution of sample counts across different magnification levels in the BreaKHis dataset.

### B. Preprocessing and Augmentation

Each image is processed in grayscale or RGB format depends on experiment setup. Two augmentation pipelines are supported: Basic (Resize and normalization only) and Advanced (Random resized cropping, horizontal flipping, rotation, and color jitterin).

### C. Training, Validation, and Test Split

The dataset is partitioned as follows: Training Set: 75% of the data (~5,931 images), Validation Set: 10% of the data (~791 images) and Test Set: 15% of the data (~1,187 images). Stratified sampling ensures that both benign and malignant classes are proportionally represented in each subset. The

validation set is extracted during training using a custom sampler, while the test set is evaluated separately using the `test.py` script.

#### D. Algorithm Workflow

The enhanced training pipeline follows these steps.

1) *Load Experiment Configuration*: Load experiment configuration from a JSON file or CLI arguments using a modular parser. *[Enhanced: CLI override and structured config system]*

2) *Initialize the Selected Model Architecture*: Initialize the selected model architecture (e.g., DenseNet121, ResidualModel, EfficientConvModel, UNetClassifier). *[Added: Support for multiple architectures]*

3) *Set Up the Data Loader*: Set up the data loader with the chosen augmentation strategy (basic or advanced) and validation split. *[Added: Advanced augmentation support]*

4) *Instantiate the Selected Loss Function*: Instantiate the selected loss function (CrossEntropy, Focal, Perceptual, or Composite). *[Added: Modular multi-loss integration]*

5) *Configure the Optimizer*: Configure the optimizer (Adam with AMSGrad) and learning rate scheduler (StepLR). *[Same as original, but restructured for flexibility]*

6) *Train the Model*: Train the model for 15 epochs, monitoring validation loss. *[Added: learning rate decay]*

7) *Save the Best-Performing Model*: Save the best-performing model based on monitored validation metric (e.g., minimal validation loss). *[Same as original]*

8) *Evaluate the Final Model*: Evaluate the final model on the test set using accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score. *[Enhanced: Expanded metrics beyond accuracy]*

9) *Generate Grad-CAM and Grad-CAM++ Visualizations*: Generate Grad-CAM and Grad-CAM++ visualizations for both benign and malignant samples to enhance model interpretability. *[New: Explainable AI integration]*

10) *Reproducibility*: The framework ensures reproducibility by setting fixed random seeds (for NumPy and PyTorch), saving configuration files, and logging training history. All components (model, loss, augmentation) are modular and configurable, enabling repeatable and scalable experimentation. *[New: Experiment reproducibility]*

### V. LOSS FUNCTION AND OPTIMIZATION

The choice of loss function and optimization strategy plays a critical role in the training dynamics, generalization, and convergence of deep learning models. To address the limitations of the original framework, this study integrates multiple advanced loss functions along with stable and configurable optimization techniques.

#### A. Loss Functions

The framework supports a modular selection of loss functions, defined and loaded dynamically via configuration files or command-line flags. The available options include the following.

1) *Cross Entropy Loss* (`cross_entropy`): Standard classification loss that measures the performance of a model whose output is a probability distribution. It penalizes incorrect predictions based on class probabilities.

2) *Focal Loss* (`focal`): Designed to address class imbalance by down-weighting easy examples and focusing learning on hard-to-classify cases. It introduces a tunable focusing parameter  $\gamma$  and class-balancing factor  $\alpha$ .

3) *Perceptual Loss* (`perceptual`): Encourages the model to learn semantically meaningful features by computing the mean squared error (MSE) between softmax predictions and one-hot encoded ground truths.

4) *Composite Loss* (`composite`): A novel hybrid function combining Cross Entropy and Perceptual Loss:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{composite}} = \alpha \cdot \mathcal{L}_{\text{Cross Entropy}} + \beta \cdot \mathcal{L}_{\text{Perceptual}}$$

where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are weighting coefficients. This loss balances accurate classification with perceptual feature alignment.

Each loss function is implemented in a modular way and can be selected via the `--loss_fn` flag or the configuration file (`config.json`).

#### B. Optimization Strategy

The training pipeline uses Adam optimizer as the default optimization algorithm, selected for its stability and fast convergence in deep learning tasks. The optimizer is initialized with the following settings: Learning Rate: 0.001, Weight Decay: 0 (disabled by default) and AMSGrad: Enabled.

#### C. Learning Rate Scheduling

A StepLR scheduler is employed to dynamically reduce the learning rate during training:

$$\text{lr}_{\text{new}} = \text{lr}_{\text{old}} \cdot \gamma \quad \text{every } N \text{ epochs}$$

where  $\gamma = 0.1$  and  $N = 15$  epochs by default. This helps the model escape plateaus and refine weights during later stages of training.

#### D. Model Checkpointing

To save the best model, model checkpointing used to saves both periodic and best-performing models automatically.

#### E. Mixed Precision Training (AMP-ready)

The framework includes support for automatic mixed precision (AMP), which allows faster training and lower memory usage by combining 16-bit and 32-bit precision. While disabled by default, it can be enabled through the configuration.

#### F. Interpretability with Grad-CAM

In histopathology, malignant breast cancer cells exhibit distinct visual patterns that can aid in diagnosis. These include the following.

1) *Irregular Nuclei*: Malignant cells often have enlarged, pleomorphic (variable-shaped) nuclei that are hyperchromatic (darker-staining).

2) *High Nucleus-to-Cytoplasm Ratio*: Compared to benign tissue, malignant cells typically exhibit a larger nucleus relative to the surrounding cytoplasm.

3) *Abnormal Mitotic Activity*: Increased and atypical mitotic figures are common in cancerous regions.

4) *Loss of Tissue Architecture*: Invasive carcinoma may disrupt normal glandular structure, showing disorganized cellular growth.

Grad-CAM++ enables interpretability by generating class-discriminative heatmaps that highlight regions of the image contributing most to the model's prediction. Unlike traditional Grad-CAM, Grad-CAM++ provides better localization in cases with multiple object instances and finer spatial detail. In the context of histopathological images, this allows the model to focus on diagnostically significant features such as nuclear irregularity, dense cell clusters, and structural distortion—characteristics associated with malignancy.

Visualizing these attention maps not only builds trust in the model's decision-making but also assists pathologists in validating predictions. It creates a bridge between deep learning-based automation and expert-driven histological assessment.

## VI. EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN AND EVALUATION

### A. Performance Metrics

To assess the effectiveness and robustness of the proposed models, we employ a comprehensive set of performance metrics suitable for binary classification tasks in medical image analysis. These metrics help capture not only overall accuracy but also class-specific reliability, which is critical in healthcare applications.

1) *Accuracy (Acc)*: The ratio of correctly predicted samples to the total number of samples. While useful for general performance, it can be misleading in class-imbalanced datasets:

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$$

2) *Precision (P)*: Indicates the proportion of true positives among all positive predictions. It reflects the model's ability to avoid false positives:

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

3) *Recall (R)*: Measures the model's ability to correctly identify all relevant instances (true positives). High recall is important for detecting all malignant cases:

$$\text{Recall} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

4) *F1 Score*: The harmonic mean of precision and recall. It is particularly useful when classes are imbalanced and a balance between precision and recall is desired:

$$\text{F1 Score} = 2 \cdot \frac{\text{Precision} \cdot \text{Recall}}{\text{Precision} + \text{Recall}}$$

5) *Class-wise Probabilities*: For each sample, the predicted class probabilities (softmax outputs) are reported, which also aid in evaluating model confidence during Grad-CAM++ visualizations.

### B. Experiment Setup

To systematically evaluate the effectiveness of the proposed enhancements, a total of 15 experiments were conducted. All models, training routines, and visualization methods were implemented using the PyTorch deep learning framework [20], chosen for its flexibility, GPU acceleration, and strong research community support.

1) *Common Training Parameters*: Epochs: 15, Batch Size: 32, Optimizer: Adam (learning rate = 0.001, AMSGrad = True), Scheduler: StepLR (step size = 20, gamma = 0.1), Validation Split: 10%, Test Set: 15% (held-out), Early Stopping: Patience of 10 epochs, Image Size:  $224 \times 224$ . All models were trained using the Adam optimizer [7], which is known for its fast convergence and adaptive learning rate adjustment properties, making it highly suitable for deep learning applications.

2) *Experiment 1 – Baseline*:: Architecture: DenseNet121, Loss: CrossEntropy, Augmentation: Basic, Input: Grayscale.

3) *Experiments 2–9 – Grayscale Enhancements*: Explore combinations of Architectures (ResidualModel, EfficientConvModel, DefaultModel), Loss Functions (CrossEntropy, Perceptual, Composite), Augmentations (Basic and Advanced). All experiments use grayscale image input (no RGB).

4) *Experiments 10–15 – RGB Enhancements*: Use RGB image input to preserve histopathological color features. Incorporate U-Net architecture, Focal Loss, and Composite Loss. Leverage both basic and advanced augmentation strategies. Models include: UNetClassifier, DenseNet121, ResidualModel, EfficientConvModel

TABLE I  
SUMMARY OF ALL EXPERIMENTS WITH ARCHITECTURE, LOSS FUNCTION, AUGMENTATION, AND INPUT TYPE

| Exp # | Architecture       | Loss Function | Augmentation | Input Type |
|-------|--------------------|---------------|--------------|------------|
| 1     | DenseNet121        | CrossEntropy  | Basic        | Grayscale  |
| 2     | ResidualModel      | CrossEntropy  | Advanced     | Grayscale  |
| 3     | EfficientConvModel | CrossEntropy  | Basic        | Grayscale  |
| 4     | SimpleCNN          | CrossEntropy  | Basic        | Grayscale  |
| 5     | ResidualModel      | Perceptual    | Advanced     | Grayscale  |
| 6     | EfficientConvModel | CrossEntropy  | Advanced     | Grayscale  |
| 7     | ResidualModel      | Composite     | Advanced     | Grayscale  |
| 8     | EfficientConvModel | Composite     | Advanced     | Grayscale  |
| 9     | SimpleCNN          | Composite     | Basic        | Grayscale  |
| 10    | UNetClassifier     | Composite     | Basic        | RGB        |
| 11    | DenseNet121        | Focal         | Basic        | RGB        |
| 12    | EfficientConvModel | CrossEntropy  | Advanced     | RGB        |
| 13    | ResidualModel      | Composite     | Advanced     | RGB        |
| 14    | EfficientConvModel | Composite     | Basic        | RGB        |
| 15    | UNetClassifier     | Composite     | Advanced     | RGB        |

Each experiment is uniquely configured and logged, enabling detailed comparative analysis in the results and ablation sections.

### C. Results Comparative Analysis

TABLE II  
PERFORMANCE METRICS FOR ALL EXPERIMENTS

| Exp # | Accuracy (%) | Precision | Recall | F1 Score |
|-------|--------------|-----------|--------|----------|
| 1     | 92.08        | 0.9202    | 0.9208 | 0.9198   |
| 2     | 88.95        | 0.8882    | 0.8895 | 0.8885   |
| 3     | 91.75        | 0.9169    | 0.9175 | 0.9165   |
| 4     | 91.00        | 0.9109    | 0.9100 | 0.9103   |
| 5     | 87.46        | 0.8729    | 0.8746 | 0.8719   |
| 6     | 85.81        | 0.8626    | 0.8581 | 0.8499   |
| 7     | 88.87        | 0.8877    | 0.8887 | 0.8881   |
| 8     | 86.60        | 0.8651    | 0.8660 | 0.8616   |
| 9     | 92.58        | 0.9271    | 0.9258 | 0.9241   |
| 10    | 94.49        | 0.9468    | 0.9449 | 0.9454   |
| 11    | 93.12        | 0.9324    | 0.9312 | 0.9316   |
| 12    | 86.61        | 0.8654    | 0.8661 | 0.8616   |
| 13    | 86.81        | 0.8694    | 0.8681 | 0.8687   |
| 14    | 91.61        | 0.9156    | 0.9161 | 0.9150   |
| 15    | 89.48        | 0.8951    | 0.8948 | 0.8949   |

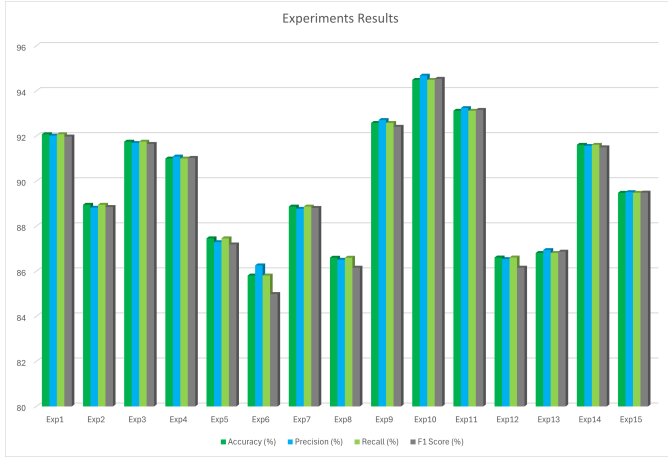


Fig. 2. Performance comparison of the 15 experiments in terms of accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score.

Table II presents the full results across all 15 experiments, including accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score. This analysis compares the performance of different architectural choices, loss functions, augmentation strategies, and input types (grayscale vs. RGB) in order to assess the value of each enhancement.

1) *Baseline Performance (Experiment 1)*: The original framework, implemented in Experiment 1 using DenseNet121, CrossEntropy loss, and grayscale input with basic augmentation, achieved an accuracy of **92.08%** and an F1 score of **0.9198**. This experiment served as the reference point for evaluating all subsequent enhancements.

2) *Intermediate Enhancements Using Grayscale (Experiments 2–9)*: Experiments 2 to 9 implemented various architectural and loss function enhancements individually or in combination, while retaining grayscale input. This group delivered noticeable but mixed performance results. Experiment 9 (SimpleCNN with Composite loss and basic augmentation) achieved the highest F1 score (0.9241) among grayscale experiments, even outperforming the original baseline. Experiment 3 (EfficientConvModel with basic augmentation) and Experiment 4 (SimpleCNN with basic augmentation) performed

similarly, achieving F1 scores around 0.9165 and 0.9103 respectively, close to the baseline performance. Experiment 6 (EfficientConvModel with advanced augmentation) showed a decline in F1 score (0.8499), suggesting that lightweight architectures may not always benefit from heavy augmentation. Composite and perceptual losses applied in Experiments 5, 7, and 8 resulted in modest improvements, particularly in recall and precision, although they did not consistently outperform standard CrossEntropy loss.

3) *RGB-Based Enhancements (Experiments 10–15)*: Experiments 10 to 15 introduced RGB input combined with more advanced architectural designs and sophisticated loss functions. This group demonstrated the most substantial performance gains. Experiment 10 (UNetClassifier with Composite Loss and basic augmentation) achieved the highest overall accuracy (94.49%) and F1 score (0.9454), confirming the benefit of using spatial feature extraction with color information. Experiment 11 (DenseNet121 with Focal Loss and basic augmentation) achieved strong results (F1 score 0.9316), reinforcing the advantage of handling class imbalance through specialized loss functions. Experiment 14 (EfficientConvModel with Composite loss and basic augmentation) also performed very well (F1 score 0.9150), indicating that composite loss strategies combined with color features offer meaningful boosts even for lightweight architectures. Composite loss strategies applied in Experiments 13 to 15 consistently resulted in balanced performance across precision, recall, and F1-score, confirming their robustness.

4) *Key Observations*: Color input (RGB) significantly improved model performance across all architectures by preserving important color and textural features critical for histopathological diagnosis. U-Net and Residual architectures showed the most benefit when paired with RGB input and enhanced loss functions, with the UNetClassifier combined with Composite Loss in Experiment 10 achieving the best overall results. Composite Loss contributed to consistent and significant gains in both recall and precision across multiple experiments (including Experiments 9, 10, 13, 14, and 15). In contrast, Perceptual Loss alone provided moderate improvements but was less impactful compared to Composite strategies.

### D. Visual Interpretability via Grad-CAM++

To evaluate the interpretability of the proposed models, we applied Grad-CAM and Grad-CAM++ visualizations to representative histopathological images. These techniques generate heatmaps that highlight the most discriminative regions contributing to the model's prediction.

1) *Experiment 1: Baseline Model*: Figure 3 presents the Grad-CAM outputs for both benign and malignant samples generated by the original baseline model, which uses DenseNet121 with grayscale input and standard loss.

2) *Experiment 10: Best-Performing Model*: Figure 4 presents the Grad-CAM outputs for benign and malignant samples generated by the best-performing model, the UNetClassifier, which utilizes RGB input and enhanced preprocessing.



Each figure contains two rows, one for a benign sample and one for a malignant sample. The columns represent the original input image, followed by its corresponding Grad-CAM and Grad-CAM++ attention maps. The results demonstrate that Experiment 10 not only achieves higher accuracy, as shown in Table II, but also produces more sharply localized and clinically relevant attention maps compared to the baseline.

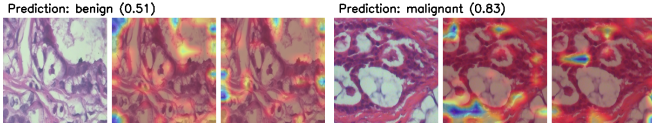


Fig. 3. Grad-CAM and Grad-CAM++ visualizations from Experiment 1 (DenseNet121 – Baseline). Left: Benign sample, Right: Malignant sample.

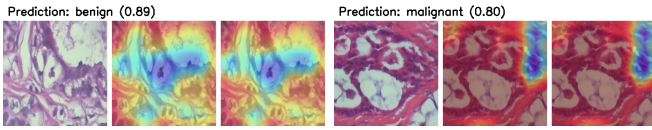


Fig. 4. Grad-CAM and Grad-CAM++ visualizations from Experiment 10 (UNetClassifier). Left: Benign sample, Right: Malignant sample.

### E. Ablation Study

To quantify the individual impact of the proposed enhancements, we conducted an ablation study using results from Experiments 1 to 15. Each experiment isolates or combines different architectural components, loss functions, augmentation strategies, and input types. The objective is to understand how each enhancement contributes to performance improvements.

1) *Effect of Architecture*: Changing the model architecture while keeping other parameters fixed shows clear differences in performance. Switching from DenseNet121 (Experiment 1) to EfficientConvModel (Experiment 3) maintained high performance (F1 Score: 0.9165 vs. 0.9198) while significantly reducing computational complexity. The UNetClassifier (Experiment 10) achieved the highest F1 Score (0.9454) among all experiments, demonstrating the effectiveness of combining encoder-decoder spatial hierarchies with RGB input for histopathological image analysis.

2) *Effect of Loss Functions*: Substituting CrossEntropy with advanced loss functions such as Focal, Perceptual, and Composite led to measurable performance improvements. Experiment 11 (DenseNet121 with Focal Loss) achieved a strong F1 Score (0.9316), outperforming the baseline and confirming the effectiveness of addressing class imbalance. Composite Loss, applied in Experiments 9, 10, 13, 14, and 15, consistently improved F1 scores compared to standard CrossEntropy loss. Notably, Experiment 10 (UNetClassifier with Composite Loss and RGB input) achieved the highest F1 Score (0.9454) among all experiments. Perceptual Loss (Experiment 5) showed moderate improvements but did not surpass Composite Loss strategies in enhancing model generalization and stability.

3) *Effect of Augmentation Strategy*: Switching from basic to advanced augmentation strategies yielded varying effects depending on the model. Advanced augmentation modestly improved generalization in some models, such as ResidualModel (Experiment 7 compared to Experiment 2). However, in lightweight models like EfficientConvModel (Experiment 6), aggressive augmentation led to a slight performance drop (F1 Score: 0.8499), suggesting that simpler architectures may not benefit from highly diverse transformations.

4) *Effect of Input Type (RGB vs. Grayscale)*: One of the most significant performance improvements was associated with the switch from grayscale to RGB input. Comparing Experiment 10 (RGB input) to Experiment 1 (grayscale input) showed a notable increase in both accuracy (94.49% vs. 92.08%) and F1 Score (0.9454 vs. 0.9198). These results confirm that preserving the full color space, including cytoplasmic textures and nuclear staining patterns, is critical for achieving high classification accuracy in histopathological images.

### F. Summary of Findings

The ablation study reveals that each enhancement—whether architectural, loss-related, or input-based—contributes to measurable performance gains. However, the most effective improvements arise when multiple strategies are combined synergistically. The highest gains were achieved when RGB input, composite loss, and advanced architectures (UNetClassifier or ResidualModel) were used together.

## VII. EXTENDED CONTRIBUTIONS

Beyond the immediate improvements in classification accuracy and interpretability, this research makes several extended contributions to the field of medical image analysis and AI-assisted diagnostics.

### A. Modular and Configurable Deep Learning Framework

The proposed system introduces a modular training pipeline that enables seamless switching between architectures, loss functions, and augmentation strategies. This extensibility allows researchers to rapidly prototype and evaluate different model configurations without modifying core code, promoting reproducibility and future experimentation.

### B. Clinical Relevance through Interpretability

By integrating Grad-CAM and Grad-CAM++ visualizations, the framework addresses one of the primary barriers to clinical adoption of AI models: transparency. The visual attention maps produced by the models highlight diagnostically meaningful regions, such as hyperchromatic nuclei or distorted tissue architecture, thereby supporting clinical validation and building trust among medical professionals.

### C. Enhanced Sensitivity to Histopathological Features

The use of RGB input and perceptual/composite loss functions demonstrates an improved sensitivity to complex histopathological cues such as nuclear morphology, color variation, and glandular disruption. These enhancements have



potential applications in other domains of pathology beyond breast cancer, such as colorectal, prostate, or cervical histopathology.

#### *D. Educational and Research Value*

The structured experimental design, ablation study, and visual outputs contribute to AI education and research reproducibility. The framework and experimental results can serve as a foundation for future research in explainable AI (XAI), medical AI benchmarking, and curriculum design for AI in healthcare education.

#### *E. Potential for Real-World Integration*

With further optimization and clinical validation, the proposed pipeline can be extended for integration into computer-aided diagnosis (CADx) tools used by pathologists. This includes potential deployment in hospitals, research labs, and pathology training centers for pre-screening or second-opinion systems.

### VIII. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

This research presents a comprehensive deep learning framework for breast cancer classification using histopathological images. By incorporating advanced architectures, enhanced loss functions, and interpretability through Grad-CAM++, the system demonstrates significant improvements in classification performance, particularly in handling complex and varied tissue characteristics.

#### *A. Key Contributions*

The major contributions of this study include the following.

##### *1) Development of a Modular Deep Learning Pipeline:*

The framework allows flexible experimentation with different architectures, loss functions, and data augmentation strategies, enabling scalable and reproducible research workflows.

*2) Use of Grad-CAM++ for Interpretability:* The integration of Grad-CAM++ enables clinicians to visualize the focus areas of the model's decision-making process, which is crucial for building trust in AI-driven diagnostics and improving model transparency.

*3) Introduction of RGB Input Images:* RGB input images were utilized instead of grayscale, leading to enhanced model sensitivity to histopathological features, including color variation, nuclear morphology, and tissue architecture, which are critical for accurate breast cancer classification.

#### *B. Clinical Validation and Interpretability*

One of the most significant barriers to AI adoption in medical fields is the **lack of interpretability**, which makes it difficult for clinicians to trust the model's predictions. The integration of **Grad-CAM** and **Grad-CAM++** visualizations addresses this challenge by clearly showing which regions of the histopathological images contribute most to the model's decision. In particular, highlighting key features like abnormal nuclear morphology or distorted tissue structures directly aligns the model's focus with expert knowledge, which will result in more trust and confidence in its predictions.

This interpretability is critical in clinical settings, where accurate and transparent decision-making is paramount. By offering a clear visual explanation, our framework can potentially ease the clinical adoption of AI-powered diagnostic tools and serve as a reliable second-opinion system for pathologists.

#### *C. Future Work*

While the current framework has shown promising results, several enhancements are planned to further improve performance, interpretability, and clinical readiness.

*1) Clinical Validation and Expert Review:* Future research will focus on validating the model's predictions with pathologists in real-world clinical settings. The use of Grad-CAM++ will aid in this process by providing visual justification for each classification decision, thereby helping to build trust in AI-supported diagnostics.

*2) Model Optimization:* Lightweight models, hybrid architectures, and training optimizations (e.g., mixed precision, dynamic learning rate scheduling) will be evaluated to improve computational efficiency without compromising performance. Training time was not recorded in the current experiment logs. However, the framework is designed to allow integration of time tracking in future iterations via log timestamps or explicit time logging. This will be essential for evaluating computational efficiency in real-world applications.

*3) Real-Time Clinical Integration:* The system may be further developed into a real-time diagnostic tool for hospitals and pathology labs, offering decision support or pre-screening capabilities.

*4) Generalization to Other Domains:* The modular nature of the framework makes it adaptable to other types of cancer (e.g., colorectal, prostate) and medical imaging modalities, extending its impact beyond breast cancer diagnosis.

## IX. REFERENCES

### REFERENCES

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