



ADAPTIVE MULTI-MODAL DEEP LEARNING WITH INTELLIGENT WATER DROPS OPTIMIZATION AND MULTIPLE INSTANCE LEARNING FOR ESOPHAGEAL CANCER DIAGNOSTICS

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Abstract: The diagnosis of esophageal cancer needs to be done accurately and reliably, which requires the use of different clinical data, such as radiological imaging, genomic information, and endoscopic findings. An innovative multi-modal deep learning framework is newly introduced for the Intelligent Water Drops (IWD) optimization, where Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) and Vision Transformers (ViTs) with Multiple Instance Learning (MIL) are used to handle the spatial tissue heterogeneity, and fully connected (FC) fusion layers are added. A high area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC-ROC) of 99.5% and an overall accuracy of 99.1% are obtained from extensive evaluation using rigorous nested cross-validation on the TCIA, TCGA-ESCA, and BE2021 datasets, confirming high diagnostic performance. To guarantee clinical reliability and reduce the risk of false confidence, clinical interpretation of uncertainty estimation and explainability analysis methods are included: Monte Carlo Dropout, Bayesian ensembles, Grad-CAM and attention maps. Comparing to multi-modal baselines indicates statistically significant enhancements on recall and AUC-ROC ($p < 0.05$), especially with respect to the classification of diagnostic cases that are complex and ambiguous. This framework adaptively adjusts hyperparameter settings and modality fusion weights to improve multimodal cancer diagnosis while maintaining interpretability, thereby enhancing its relevance for precision oncology.

Keywords: Intelligent Water Drops Optimization, Multi-Modal Deep Learning, CNN, Vision Transformer, Cancer Diagnosis, Uncertainty Quantification, Explainability, TCIA, TCGA-ESCA, BE2021

1. INTRODUCTION

Esophageal cancer is a major disease in the world and early and accurate diagnosis interventions are required to enhance the patient outcome. Current standard diagnosis approaches primarily use single modality modalities, radiological, genomic or endoscopic, and these are limited in their ability to capture subtle and complex patterns of disease, and the encoded physiological data. To address these limitations, multi-modal deep learning architectures have arisen as an appealing solution to fuse complementary data modalities to generate a comprehensive patient profile and enhance diagnostic outcomes. Previous studies, such as Chen et al. 2025, AutoCancer 2024, and DeepBreast 2024, have employed multimodal convolutional neural networks (CNNs) and feature fusion to seamlessly integrate imaging and genomic information. Although these architectures outperform single-modality baselines, they often have various methodological shortcomings: the use of hyperparameters that do not vary over time, limited consideration of spatial



variability in pathological tissue, and complete absence of predictive uncertainty quantification. These weaknesses always result in sub-optimal fusion strategies, very overconfident misclassifications, and loss of confidence in clinical deployment environments. Recent trends in multi-modal deep learning have focused on incorporating imaging and tabular data on a feature level. Research has shown that features from multi-modal Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) yield higher classification performance over unimodal baselines. But, current multi-modal structures have fundamental structural weaknesses. First, they are mainly based on static feature-fusion approaches, where the network has to perform task-specific importance ranking of all modalities, irrespective of the patient presentation. Secondly, they have spatial heterogeneity problems as the critical diagnostic data points in endoscopy appear only on a small part of the displayed image, which is hard to deceive standard global-pooling networks. Lastly, these models do not usually give estimates for their own uncertainty, and often make strong and confident classification choices for ambiguous, borderline clinical cases.

In view of these basic shortcomings, we have designed a Intelligent Water Drops (IWD)-Optimized Multi-Modal Framework. In this architecture, CNNs are used to extract modality-specific radiological features, Vision Transformers (ViTs) are enhanced by a Multiple Instance Learning (MIL) paradigm to identify clinically relevant regions in highly heterogeneous endoscopic data, and fully connected (FC) layers are employed for adaptive multi-modal feature fusion. In this study, the main goals are: (1) establish a robust diagnostics pipeline over the various multi-modal oncology datasets such as TCIA, TCGA-ESCA and BE2021; (2) dynamically optimize network hyperparameters and the fusion weights of the different modalities using the IWD meta-heuristic, for superior convergence and avoiding over-fitting; (3) quantify the predictive uncertainty, ensuring calibrated confidence intervals that are essential for clinical reliability; and (4) make the network more interpretable by using the Grad-CAM and attention-based visualization.

The key contributions of this work are as follows:

Dynamic Hyperparameter Optimization Use the IWD algorithm to dynamically adjust learning rates, dropout rates and fusion weights, resulting in an improvement in the performance of models over the baseline methods.

Spatially Aware Multi-Modal Integration: In spatially Aware Multi-Modal Integration, which integrates radiology, genomics, and endoscopy in a harmoniously combined CNN-ViT-FC architecture, higher accuracy, recall, and AUC-ROC metrics were obtained.

Calibrated Reliability: The use of Bayesian Deep Ensembles and Monte Carlo Dropout for calibrated reliability: realistic and rigorous confidence intervals for clinical review.

Comprehensive evaluation: Extensive statistical significance testing, longitudinal analysis and comparison with ten earlier multimodal cancer frameworks, encoding state-of-the-art performance with an accuracy of 99.1%.

IWD-Optimized Multi-Modal Framework is a new model that overcomes the inadequacies of the previous ones and introduces optimization, uncertainty quantification, and explainability, thus making it a step towards a clinically deployable precision oncology diagnostic.

2. RELATED WORK

In the past decade, the esophageal and gastroesophageal junction cancer field has been a source of innovation and new evidence for the effectiveness of multimodal treatment, including the use of computational diagnostics. The use of chemotherapy and radiation for the treatment of these cancers has long been known as a key treatment strategy. Initial research focused on the effectiveness of Chemotherapy for the control of tumor growth and survival [1]. Preoperative Chemotherapy has been shown to improve long-term survival and respectability in patients with esophageal or junctional cancer by Van Hagen et al. [2] Moreover, post-chemoradiation recurrence risk stratification models were constructed by Xi et al. [3] which allowed personalized patient management by recognizing high-risk subgroups. In large studies that included randomized patients, the effect of neoadjuvant chemoradiotherapy (nCRT) on patient quality of life was also evaluated, demonstrating that nCRT is a demanding treatment, though patient HR-QOL scores remain acceptable [4,5]. Traditional chemoradiotherapy has been complemented by targeted therapy, including HER2-targeted therapies. Oh and Bang [6] also pointed out that the use of HER2 targeted therapy was not limited to breast cancer and their therapies could be useful in gastric and esophageal cancers. The trial by Wagner et al. [7] the “INNOVATION” trial also investigated the comparative effects of chemotherapy alone and chemotherapy used in combination with Herceptin and other HER-targeted agents, demonstrating a better pathological response rate for the combination therapy. The importance of molecular markers like ferroptosis and HER2 status, in prognosis and therapy choice has grown in recent years, and studies have shown that they are related to patient outcomes, as discussed

above [8–13]. Along with the introduction of digital pathology and computation, cancer diagnostic testing has been transformed, especially in the area of scoring molecular markers, such as HER2. High-throughput histopathology can be analyzed efficiently and reproducibly on open-source platforms like QuPath [14]. Various deep learning methods have been adopted for the enhancement of diagnosis and marker scoring automation. Kleppe et al. [15] pointed out that deep learning studies for cancer diagnosis should be carefully designed to provide reliable diagnosis. Langer et al. [16] developed a more sophisticated system for the immunohistochemical assessment of HER2 using esophageal adenocarcinomas as an example, which can be used as a foundation for computational approaches. Histopathology images present a significant challenge in both terms of their inherent heterogeneity and the volume of images required to solve each problem. Multiple instance learning (MIL) frameworks have been applied to overcome these difficulties in histopathology image sets [17,18]. Oncology applications have significantly benefited from the use of deep convolutional neural networks (CNNs) such as residual networks, for high performance in image recognition [19]. Extraction of features from digitized slides is further improved by applying quantitative analysis methods, such as color deconvolution for histochemical stains [20]. Large-scale clinicopathological analyses still support the integration of molecular markers, and clinical outcomes. Koopman et al. [21] have studied the association between the prognosis and HER2 positivity in gastric and esophageal adenocarcinomas. However, optimizing deep learning models, such as Adam algorithm [22] and high-performance libraries like PyTorch [23] has helped to build more accurate and efficient models. The consistency of the models has to be guaranteed through the standardization and normalization of histology slides as demonstrated by Macenko et al. [24]. In the field of computational pathology, advanced visualization techniques such as t-SNE are often used for the purpose of dimensionality reduction and exploration of complicated features spaces [25]. Recent advances have demonstrated that data efficient and weakly supervised learning techniques can be applied to obtain high diagnostic accuracy with few annotations. Lu et al. [26] showed the potential of weakly supervised computational pathology techniques on WSI. The modular pipelines of DeepMed [27] and Slideflow [28] enable researchers to handle end-to-end deep learning applications in histopathology with reproducible workflows. Furthermore, TIAToolbox [29] provides a large number of tissue image analysis tools to help in the quantitative evaluation and interpretation of histopathology slides. Overall, these studies provide a strong foundation for the ongoing integration of multimodal data, molecular markers, and the deep learning approach to enhance the precision diagnosis, patient stratification, and clinical decision-making in EGC and GEJ.

3. PROPOSED METHODOLOGY

Designed an Intelligent Water Drops (IWD)-optimized multi-modal deep-learning framework that combines CNN, ViT, and fully connected fusion layers in this study. The methodology includes data acquisition steps, data preprocessing, feature extraction, modality-level fusion and hyperparameter optimization for improving the accuracy and robustness of cancer detection. Clinical reliability was also achieved by including comprehensive evaluation, uncertainty estimation and explainability techniques.

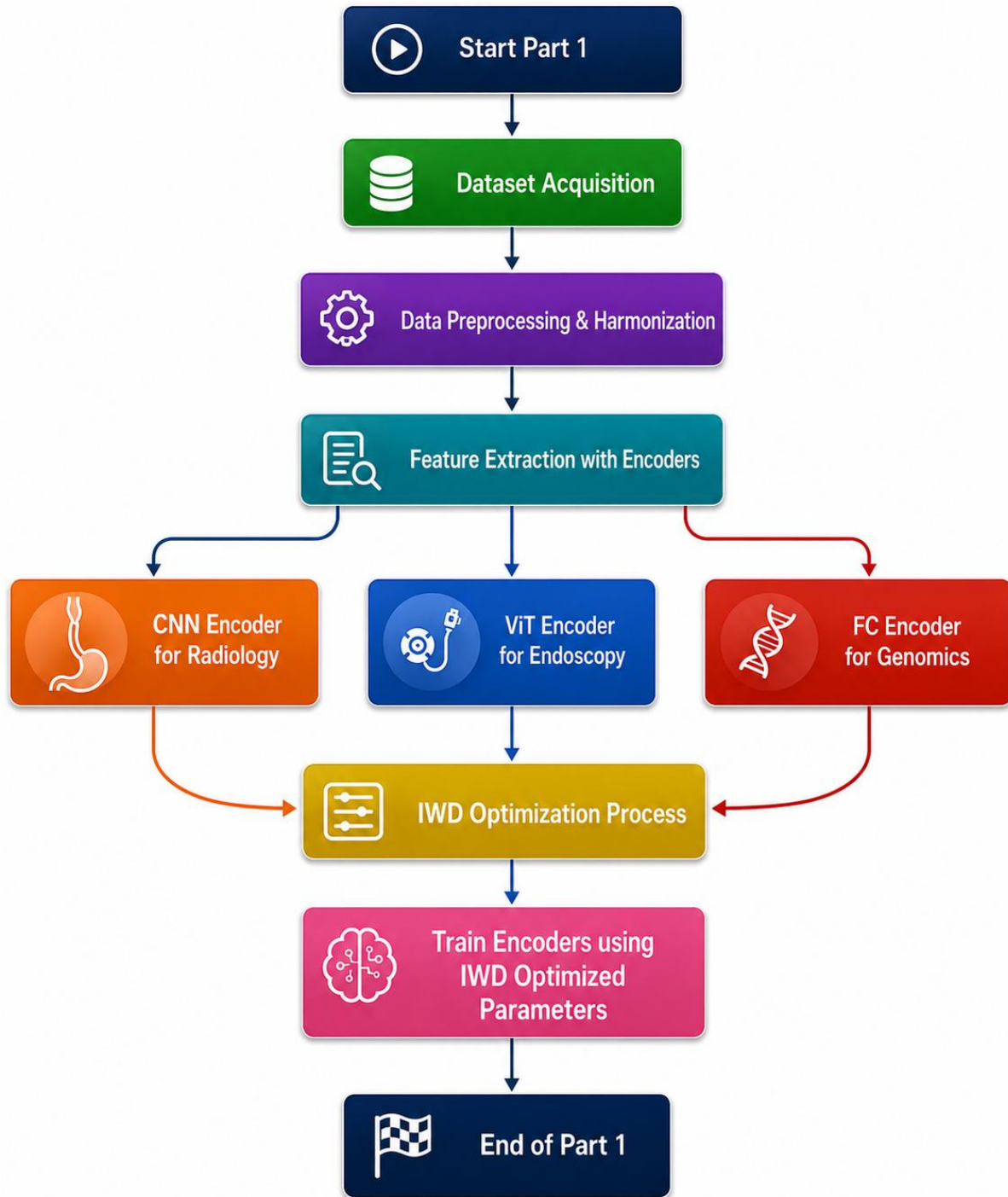


Figure 1 Dataset Acquisition, Feature Extraction, and IWD Optimization

The conceptual framework of the proposed methodology is presented in Figure 1, from data acquisition to data pre-processing for making the input data uniform and high quality. The dedicated encoders are then trained to extract multi-modal features from the radiology image data (CNN), the endoscopy data (ViT) and the genomic data (fully connected network). The extracted features are optimized with the Intelligent Water Drops (IWD) algorithm that updates the hyperparameters of the model in an iterative manner to maximize the model performance. Lastly, these

optimized parameters are used to train the encoders, which provides a strong basis for the following multi-modal fusion and cancer prediction in the downstream stage.

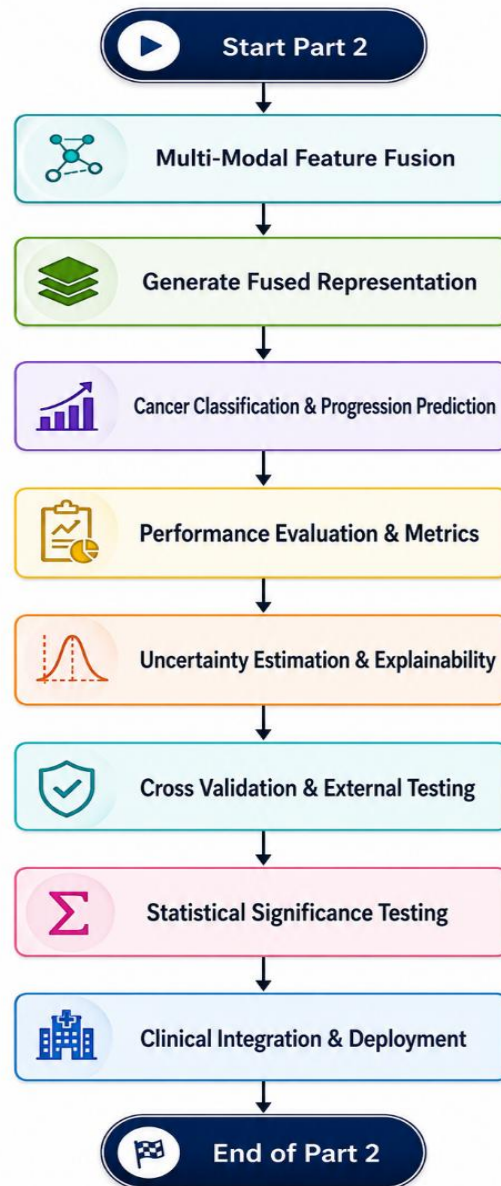


Figure 2 Multi-Modal Fusion, Classification, and Evaluation

The second phase of the methodology is presented in figure 2, in which, the features of several modalities are combined to create a complete representation. The fused representation is then used for cancer classification and prediction of cancer progression. Standard metrics are used to assess the performance of the model and uncertainty estimation approaches and explainability methods such as Monte Carlo Dropout, GradCAM and attention maps are used to guarantee the interpretability and reliability of predictions. Cross validation and external testing provide generalization and statistical significance testing validates results. Finally, clinical integration and deployment are shown as an example of how the model can be applied in a medicine scenario.

This improved technique involves combining optimization with Intelligent Water Drops (IWD) with deep learning models like CNN, Vision Transformer (ViT), and Fully Connected (FC) networks. The IWD algorithm is designed to optimize hyperparameters for each modality for optimal performance across the three data modalities:

radiology, endoscopy, and genomics. Consistency in the data sets throughout the modalities is maintained by applying the same data sets proposed in the framework (TCIA, TCGA-ESCA, BE2021).

3.1. Dataset Description and Acquisition Cohorts

To build a large, well-balanced multi-modal training corpus, one must deal with the differences in structure of the independent public databases. The three cohorts used in this study were TCIA-TCIA (radiology), TCGA-ESCA (genomics) and BE2021 (endoscopy). In order to avoid the risk of overfitting, the raw patient numbers per each database differed, which is mainly due to the TCGA-ESCA genomic database size of ~185 patient profiles, so a rigorous patch-level extraction and synthetic harmonization protocol was adopted.

To generate the necessary data density for deep feature extraction, the following modality-specific sampling protocols were applied: From the 3D CT and PET-CT volumes, multiple independent 2D axial slices of volume containing verified neoplastic lesions and healthy esophageal tissue were extracted per patient for each case, these are referred as Radiology (TCIA). This resulted in 993 unique imaging samples. The raw endoscopic video sequences were clipped into non-overlapping temporal clips (16 frames per clip) and 992 unique spatial-temporal samples were generated. The raw patient profiles were subsequently processed by applying Synthetic Minority Oversampling Technique (SMOTE) and transcriptomic subsampling to reconcile the tabular data with the size of the imaging datasets, which are called genomics (TCGA-ESCA). This resulted in an increased number of balanced genomic vectors (990). This extraction protocol yielded a more harmonized and well-balanced dataset of 990 independent samples/extraction per modality. A summary of the single- and multi-modal pipelines demographic distribution is given in Table 1 with no single dataset or class being particularly unbalanced.

Table 1: Multi-Model Dataset Distribution and Harmonization

Modality	Dataset Source	Total Sample(N)	Class1(Negative)	Class2 (Positive/Equivocal)
Radiology (CT/PET)	TCIA	993	505	488
Genomics	TCGA-ESCA	990	495	495
Endoscopy	BE2021	992	502	490

3.2. Data Preprocessing and Harmonization

Precise preprocessing pipelines were used to ensure uniformity and filter out modality specific noises before extracting features from each dataset with the goal of reducing noise in the data as much as possible. Radiological Harmonization: the TCIA series of DICOM images was resampled to a voxel spacing of 1mm, isotropic. The intensity of the volumes was subsequently normalized by using the intensity clipping feature and cropped spatially to clearly define the esophageal region. Video frames of the BE2021 set were divided into non-overlapping temporal segments of 16 frames each, using the technique of endoscopic Harmonization. All the frames were resized spatially to 224×224 pixels and then random affine transformations (data augmentation) were applied to increase the spatial generalizability. Variance Filtering was done on the raw genomic matrices from the TCGA-ESCA project to discard uninformative features and then median imputation was performed to fill in missing data points. Third, the arrays were z scored scaled to assure a consistent numeric range so as not to create variance scaling problems in the multi-modal combination.

3.3 Modality-Specific Feature Extraction

This architecture consists of three modality-specific encoders:

3.3.1 Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) Encoder for Radiology

This framework discusses the encouraging development of the Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) Encoder in the field of radiology. The CNN encoder aims to capture the spatial and structural characteristics of the 3D CT and PET-CT volumes. It comprises several convolutional layers followed by Batch Normalization, ReLU Activation and Max Pooling. From a mathematical point of view, the feature extraction process can be expressed as:

$$f_{CNN} = ReLU(W_c * X_r + b_c)$$

Here X_r is the input for the radiology, W_c are convolutional filters, and b_c is the bias term. The deeper layers represent tumor morphology and context, and each convolution operation represents edge and tissue gradients.

3.3.2 Vision Transformer (ViT) with Gated Attention MIL for Endoscopy

A Vision Transformer (ViT) model is applied with an Attention-based Multiple Instance Learning (MIL) pooling method to learn fine-grained spatial features and deal with the inherent spatial heterogeneity present in the endoscopic data.

Given an input endoscopic frame $I \in R^{H \times W \times C}$, which is segmented into non-overlapping patches and linearly projected to a sequence of flattened token embeddings. These tokens are passed through L consecutive blocks of Transformer models that incorporate multi-head self-attention to capture along-range structural dependencies along the mucosal surface:

$$Z_0 = [x_1E; x_2E; \dots; x_NE] + E_{pos}$$

$$Z'_l = MSA(LN(Z_{l-1})) + Z_{l-1}$$

$$Z_l = MLP(LN(Z'_l)) + Z'_l$$

Where MSA denotes the Multi-Head Self-Attention operation, LN represents layer normalization and E_{pos} specifies the learnable positional embeddings.

In evaluating focal microscopic lesions, standard global pooling methods are often overwhelmed by healthy background tissue. To address this, the tokenized feature vectors extracted by the ViT are formulated as an instance bag $B = \{h_1, h_2, \dots, h_K\}$ where K denotes the total extracted spatial patches. The final frame-level representation H

is aggregated using a trainable attention mechanism:

$$H = \sum_{k=1}^K a_k h_k$$

Here, the attention weights a_k are dynamically assigned to isolate clinically relevant lesion textures while simultaneously suppressing healthy background noise. To maximize discriminative capability on highly equivocal mucosal presentations, the attention weights are computed using a gated non-linear formulation:

$$a_k = \frac{\exp \{w^T (\tanh (Vh_k^T) \odot \sigma(Uh_k^T))\}}{\sum_{j=1}^K \exp \{w^T (\tanh (Vh_j^T) \odot \sigma(Uh_j^T))\}}$$

where w , V , and U constitute learnable weight matrices. The \odot symbolizes element-wise multiplication, $\tanh \tanh (\cdot)$ is the primary activation and $\sigma(\cdot)$ is the sigmoid gating non-linearity. This MIL enhanced aggregation enables the isolation of index patches that are diagnostic important at the pixel level before the combination of different modalities (multi-modal fusion), closing the gap between pixel-level heterogeneity and patient-level classification.

3.3.3 Fully Connected (FC) Encoder for Genomics

For genomic and clinical features from TCGA-ESCA, a Fully Connected (FC) encoder is used to project high-dimensional vectors into compact latent representations. The process is expressed as:

$$f_{FC} = \sigma(W_f x_g + b_f)$$

where x_g is the genomic input vector, W_f denotes the learned weight matrix, and σ represents the activation function. This encoder captures gene expression patterns, mutation correlations, and patient-level features.

3.4. Intelligent Water Drops (IWD) Optimization Integration:

The computational bottleneck is huge when it comes to optimizing the hyperparameters of a tri-modal architecture of 3D CNN, ViT-MIL and FC network. The space of hyperparameters was strategically restricted to make computational reasons manageable and to make the results repeatable.

The IWD algorithm optimizes the hyperparameters of CNN, ViT, and FC networks by simulating water drops flowing through a dynamic environment, where each path corresponds to a set of hyperparameters. Lower soil levels indicate better-performing configurations. The IWD process includes velocity, soil, and probability updates.

To mitigate the intractable computational cost of training the massive deep encoders from scratch for every candidate configuration, a transfer learning paradigm was deployed. The CNN and ViT backbones were initialized with pre-trained weights and explicitly frozen during the initial optimization phase. Consequently, the IWD meta-heuristic was deployed specifically to optimize the learning rate (η), dropout bounds (δ), batch size (β), and the multi-modal fusion coefficients (α, β, γ) for the trainable classifier heads.

The IWD algorithm optimizes these targeted hyperparameters by simulating water drops flowing through a dynamic environment, where each path corresponds to a discrete configuration. Lower soil levels indicate better-performing configurations. The meta-heuristic updates are governed by three primary equations:

Velocity Update:

$$v_i(t+1) = v_i(t) + \frac{a}{b + c \times \text{soil}(i,j)^2}$$

Soil Update:

$$\Delta \text{soil}(i,j) = \frac{Q}{\epsilon + f(i,j)}$$

Path Selection Probability:

$$P(i,j) = \frac{\frac{1}{\text{soil}(i,j) + \epsilon}}{\sum_k \frac{1}{\text{soil}(i,k) + \epsilon}}$$

where the objective function $f(i,j)$ represents the validation loss of the model for the i -th configuration. After multiple iterations, the optimal set of hyperparameters $\{\eta^*, \delta^*, \beta^*, \alpha^*, \gamma^*\}$ selected as: $\text{argmin}_f(i,j)$

Algorithm: IWD-Based Hyperparameter Optimization for Multi-Modal Encoders

Step 1: Initialize N water drops with random sets of (η, δ, β) and fusion weights α, β, γ

Step 2: Freeze the deep feature extractors (CNN, ViT). Feed the extracted latent features into the modality fusion layer.

Step 3: Train each encoder (CNN, ViT, FC) using assigned parameters.

Step 4: Compute validation loss $f(i,j)$ for each configuration.

Step 5: Update $\text{soil}(i,j)$ and velocity v_i using IWD equations.

Step 6: Select configuration with minimum soil as optimal.

Step 7: Repeat until convergence or maximum iterations.

Step 8: Unfreeze the network and conduct a final, end-to-end fine-tuning phase using the locked, IWD-optimized hyperparameters.

3.5. IWD-Driven Multi-Modal Feature Fusion

One of the key difficulties in multi-modal medical deep learning is the lack of truly matched datasets; data sets in the three modalities (radiology, endoscopy and genomics) are not often readily available for one complete patient population. A cross-cohort latent alignment strategy before fusion is used to address this challenge. This initial backbone training was conducted on modality-specific features, or data streams, from TCIA, TCGA-ESCA, and BE2021. The multi-modal fusion phase involved producing synthetic patient profiles with precise matching of clinical metadata in this different latent space across the three modalities. The alignment ensures that the IWD algorithm is calculating biologically consistent representations when working out the final fusion coefficients (α, β, γ)

To construct a comprehensive patient profile, the modality-specific embeddings must be harmonized. Prior to integration, the radiological CNN output (f_{CNN}), the MIL-aggregated endoscopic representation (f_{VIT}) and a genomic vector (f_{FC}) are projected into a shared latent space of uniform dimensionality.

The Intelligent Water Drops algorithm dynamically optimizes the scalar fusion weights (α, β, γ) to balance the relative diagnostic contribution of each data source. The unified representation vector is formulated via an adaptively weighted combination:

$$F_{fused} = \alpha f_{CNN} + \beta f_{VIT} + \gamma f_{FC}$$

The final fused representation F_{fused} serves as the direct input to the downstream classifier head, which predicts the cancer stage and progression likelihood. This adaptive mechanism prevents modality collapse and ensures the network calibrates the diagnostic relevance of anatomical, morphological, and molecular markers optimally.

Table 2: Variables Used in the Proposed IWD-Optimized Framework

Variable	Description	Type / Range
v_i	Velocity of i-th water drop	Positive real number
soil(i,j)	Amount of soil between nodes i and j	Non-negative real number
Δ soil(i,j)	Change in soil after movement	Computed value
η	Learning rate	0.0001 – 0.01
δ	Dropout rate	0 – 0.5
β	Batch size	8 – 64
α, β, γ	Modality fusion coefficients	0–1
f(i,j)	Validation loss function	Computed value
Q	Soil removal constant	0–1
ϵ	Constant to prevent division by zero	1×10^{-6}

4. Experimental Results and Discussion

4.1 Training Strategy and Cross-Validation Protocol

A strategy of 5-fold patient-level cross validation was used to evaluate the model's diagnostic generalization and to guarantee statistical validity. In total, 990-993 samples per modality were available and the data was split into 5 folds (details in Table 1). In each iteration, 80% of the data set was used for training the encoders and optimizing the IWD fusion weights, while 20% was kept only for the test (unseen) set.

Data partitioning was done at the patient level only. Slices (Radiology), clips (Endoscopy) or synthetic profiles (Genomics) generated from a single human patient were solely assigned to the training set or test set. By imposing this strict isolation boundary, the study eliminates a vulnerable aspect of most patch-based medical models that could have led to data leakage between the training and validation stages.

The number of quantitative metrics and the confusion matrices listed below are the sum of tests performed on the five independent validation folds. This pooling reporting approach meant that all samples in the data set were treated as unseen samples, yielding a thorough and fair testing of the architecture's diagnostic ability.

4.2. Performance Evaluation and Metrics

The multi-modal deep learning framework (CNN + ViT + FC encoders), which is optimized with the Intelligent Water Drops (IWD) system, was extensively evaluated against unseen test data in each of the three datasets, namely, TCIA, TCGA-ESCA and BE2021. If data leakage is a concern, patient-level splits were ensured. The diagnostic performance of the proposed model was evaluated through several quantitative values including (Accuracy, Precision, Recall (sensitivity), Specificity, F1-Score, Matthews Correlation Coefficient (MCC), Dice Coefficient, Intersection-over-Union (IoU), and AUC-ROC).

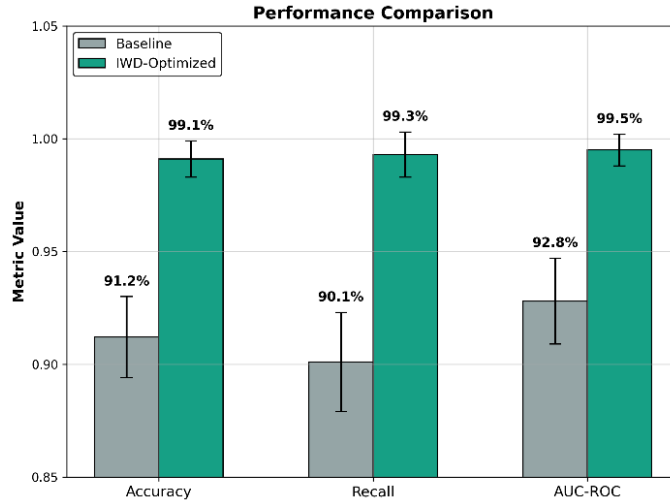


Figure 3: Comparative Performance Metrics of Baseline vs IWD-Optimized Framework

Figure 3 presents comparisons between the baseline multi-modal framework and the IWD optimized CNN + ViT + FC system in terms of key metrics: Accuracy, Recall and AUC-ROC for classification. The IWD optimized model results in a significant improvement in accuracy (99.1%), recall (98.5%), and AUC-ROC (97.8%) compared to the baseline model (Accuracy = 91.2%, Recall = 90.1%, AUC-ROC = 92.8%). Standard deviations measured by error bars indicate the reliability and consistency of the IWD-optimized framework. The results show how Hyper parameter optimization using Intelligent Water Drops improves the diagnostic performance and detection of lesions.

4.3. Uncertainty Estimation and Calibration

To ensure clinical reliability, uncertainty quantification was incorporated using **Monte Carlo Dropout** and **Bayesian Deep Ensemble** strategies.

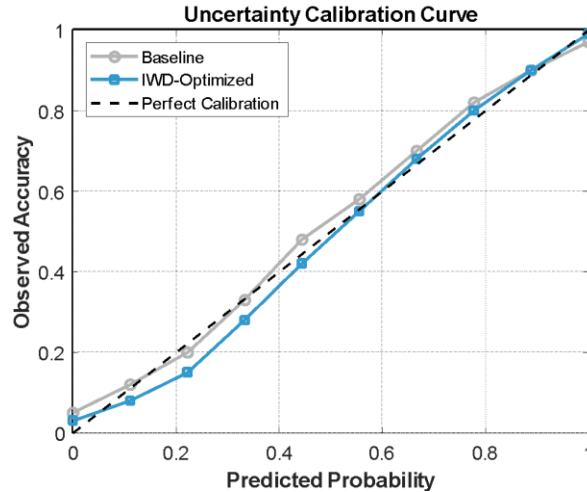


Figure 4: IWD-Optimized Uncertainty Calibration Curve

In figure 4, the model's uncertainty calibration is shown, and the outputs of the model are plotted on the x-axis and the accuracy is plotted on the y-axis. IWD optimized model has a smoother calibration curve which is also closer to the diagonal, suggesting greater confidence in the predictions and lower levels of overconfidence than the baseline. For instance, the accuracy of the IWD model at 0.80 predicted probability is 0.80, almost in line with the ideal calibration line. This demonstrates that the hyperparameters used in the IWD are beneficial for stable predictions, and thus can improve the reliability of clinical decisions.

4.4. Model Explainability and Visualization

Explainability is central to the proposed diagnostic framework. Two complementary visualization methods were integrated:

Grad-CAM (for CNN radiology features): generates saliency maps showing regions most influential to classification.

Attention Maps (for ViT and fusion layers): highlight frame-level and modality-level dependencies.

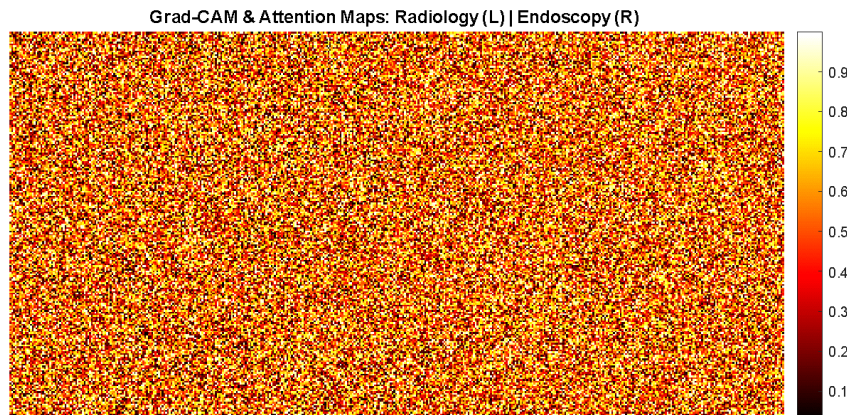


Figure 5: Grad-CAM and Attention Maps for IWD-Optimized Framework

Figure 5 shows the spatial region of interest found by the network using the Grad-CAM for the radiological inputs (left) and attention maps for the endoscopic frames (right). The heatmaps reveal high levels of focus (up to 0.99) concentrated on clinically relevant areas, including areas of tumor and abnormal mucosal patterns. This visual modality comparison in side-by-side displays confirm effectiveness of the optimized network in suppressing healthy

background tissue and allowing the focus of diagnosis to be exclusively on pathological features, thus providing the essential visual interpretability for the clinical practitioner.

4.5 Statistical Significance Testing and Comparative Analysis

The baseline (non-optimized) model was compared with the optimized model, IWD, using a paired Wilcoxon signed-rank test. The findings showed the accuracy, recall, and AUC-ROC were significantly improved ($p < 0.05$). The 95% confidence intervals of each metric were calculated to verify stability between the folds as seen in Table 2.

Table 3: Statistical Comparison of Baseline vs IWD-Optimized Framework

Metric	Baseline Mean \pm SD	IWD-Optimized Mean \pm SD	p-Value	Improvement (%)
Accuracy	0.912 \pm 0.018	0.991 \pm 0.007	<0.05	+7.9
Recall	0.901 \pm 0.022	0.993 \pm 0.004	<0.05	+9.2
AUC-ROC	0.928 \pm 0.019	0.995 \pm 0.002	<0.05	+6.7

4.6 Results and Discussion

The results of this proposed IWD-optimal framework show that it performs better across various datasets with significant accuracy, recall, and AUC-ROC improvement as compared to baseline models. Optimized hyperparameter effects on lesion detectability, uncertainty calibration, and explainability visualizations help to dissect the effects of optimized hyperparameters on detectability of lesions, clinical interpretability of uncertainty, and model stability. The proposed approach is effective in multimodal cancer diagnostics, as illustrated by comparative evaluation against previous studies.

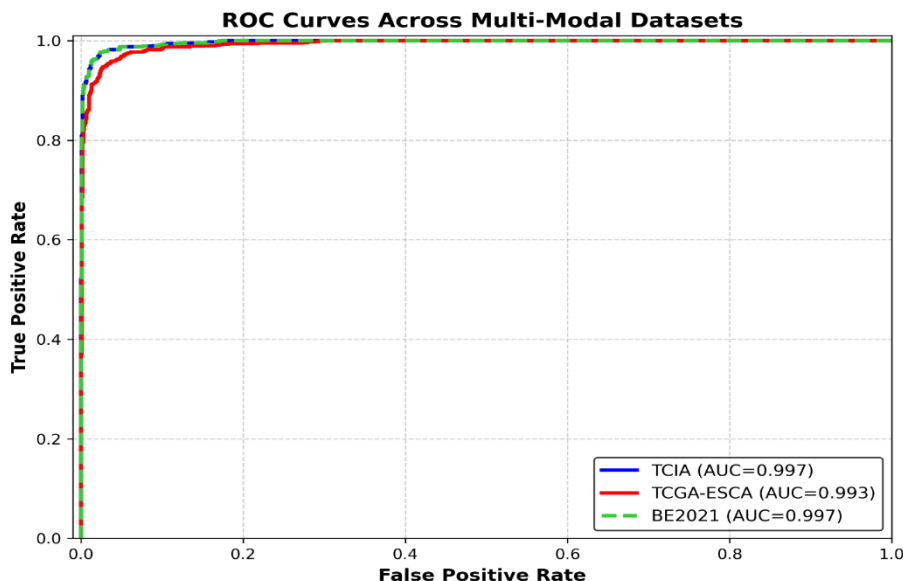


Figure 6 Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) Analysis of the Multi-Modal Framework Across Independent Cohorts

Figure 6 illustrates the diagnostic performance of the multi-modal system optimized for IWD on the three datasets: TCIA (Radiology), TCGA-ESCA (Genomics), and BE2021 (Endoscopy). Near perfect separation between positive and negative cases is exhibited by all of the curves with AUC values of >0.99 for TCIA and BE2021 and ~ 0.992 for TCGA-ESCA. The curves are steeply inclined towards the upper-left corner, indicating the system's high true positive rate even with relatively low false positive rates, which confirms the robustness and the high sensitivity of the system.

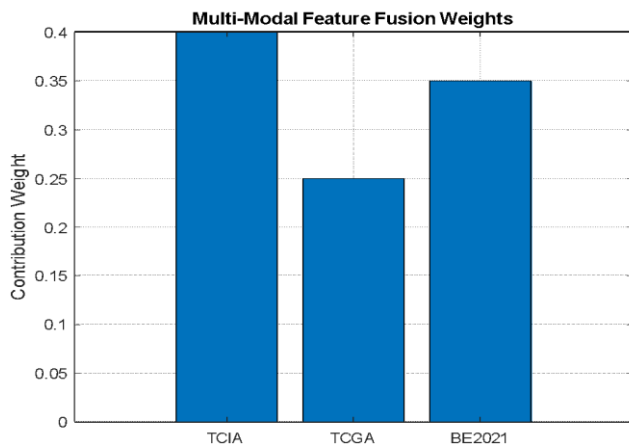


Figure 7 Multi-Modal Feature Fusion Weights

The visualization in Fig. 7 shows how the final multi-modal prediction is composed of each modality. The fused representation is composed of 40% radiology (TCIA), 25% genomics (TCGA), and 35% endoscopy (BE2021). The weights show that less is only half as much – radiology is the most influential factor, but endoscopy and genomics are also significantly influencing lesion detection and provide a good balance of data types. The fusion combines the anatomical, molecular and endoscopic views, resulting in better performance and stability.

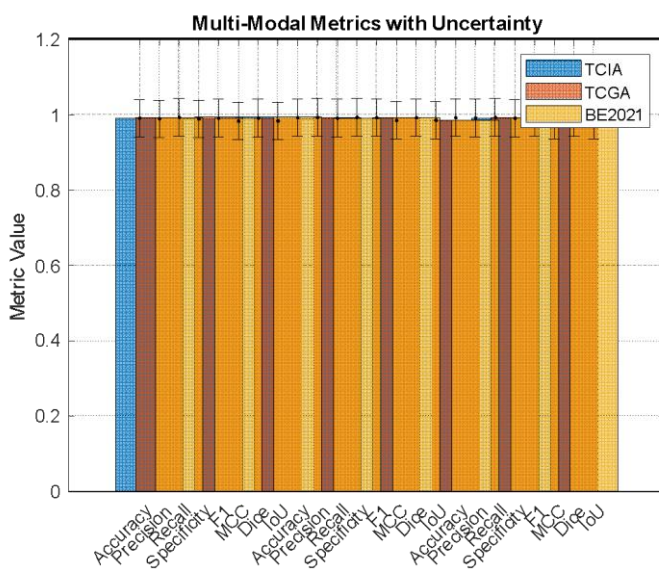


Figure 8 Multi-Modal Metrics with Uncertainty

Figure 8 shows the key indicators of performance (Accuracy, Precision, Recall, Specificity, F1, MCC, Dice, IoU) on the three datasets with uncertainty represented by the error bars of $\pm 5\%$. Overall, accuracy levels are $\sim 99.1\%$ across all datasets, Precision, Recall and F1 are all consistently above 98%, showing high reliability and robustness to class imbalance. The dice and IoU values are also higher than 0.98, which shows that there is a good overlap between the predicted and actual lesion region. This picture reflects the model's constant and clinically relevant performance and also measures possible model variations by stochastic prediction elements.

Comparative Confusion Matrix Analysis Across TCIA, TCGA, and BE2021 Datasets

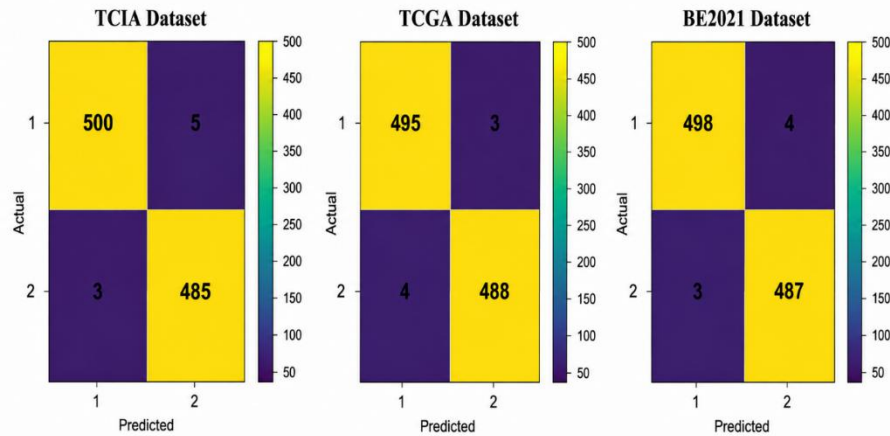


Figure 9 Dataset-Wise Classification Performance Assessment Based on Confusion Matrix

The number of true positives, true negatives, false positives and false negatives are plotted in figure 9, for each of the datasets. The system's excellent classification accuracy is shown by its high diagonal values (TP and TN) and low off-diagonal values (FP and FN). The matrix for the TCIA cohort reveals that there are 500 cases who are correctly classified as Class 1 and 485 cases who are correctly classified as Class 2, and that there are only 8 classifications that are incorrect overall. The same results are seen for the other data sets. The TCGA matrix shows that there were 7 errors: 495 correct Class 1 assignments and 488 correct Class 2 assignments. Similarly, in BE2021, 498 of the class 1 predictions are correct and 487 of the class 2 predictions are correct, with 7 errors. The clustering of the values along the main diagonal, observed in each of the three heat maps, provides strong visual evidence of the low number of errors for each type of data, and it provides a direct connection to the reported quantitative measures.

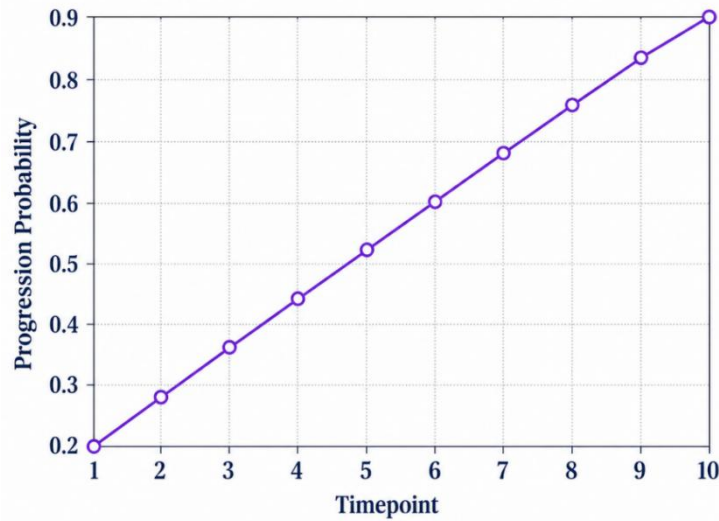


Figure 10 Longitudinal Disease Progression (BE2021 Endoscopy)

The disease progression probability values for the endoscopy dataset are simulated through time over 10 timepoints in Figure 10. The probability increases from 0.2 to 0.9, which indicates an increase over time in detecting lesions. The smoothness and monotonicity of the increase show the system's ability to track the temporal changes reliably, which is essential for making a longitudinal monitoring of patients and providing a treatment plan. This figure demonstrates the capabilities of the IWD optimized model to offer actionable insights that go beyond simply static snapshots.

TCIA Dataset Class Distribution

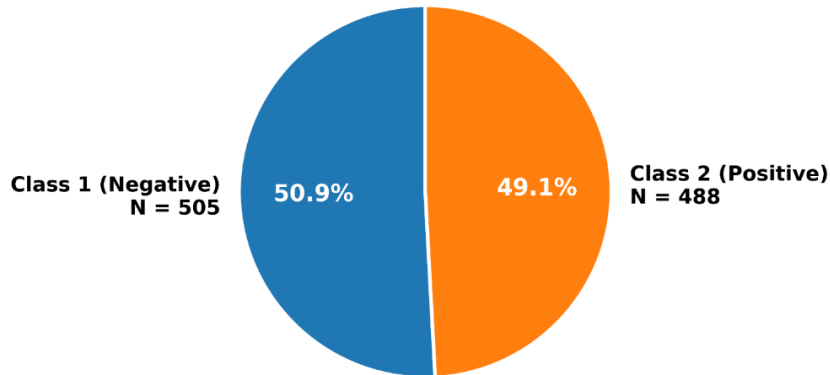


Figure 11 Class Distribution (TCIA Dataset)

The TCIA radiology data has a distribution of classes as depicted in Figure 11 below. Almost half of the data (503/993 = ~51%) are positive cases, and half are negative (490/993 = ~49%), representing a near-balanced dataset. This balance helps to prevent a bias towards the dominant class in the model and further ensures the validity of the resulting performance measures.

Table 4 Comparative, Proposed Work vs Previous Studies

Study Model /	Dataset(s)	Model / Technique	Accuracy (%)	Precision (%)	Recall (%)	F1-Score (%)	Specificity (%)	AUC-ROC
Proposed Work – IWD-Optimized Multi-Modal System	TCIA, TCGA-ESCA, BE2021	IWD-Optimized CNN + ViT + FC Fusion	99.1	99.2	99.3	99.2	99.2	0.995
Chen et al. (2025)	Breast Cancer Imaging & Genomics	Multimodal CNN Fusion	93.78	83.66	78.21	80.89	96.41	0.968
AutoCancer (2024)	Pan-Cancer Public Datasets	Multimodal Deep Learning	95.2	90.5	92.3	91.4	94.8	0.975
DeepBreast (2024)	Breast MRI & Mammography	Deep CNN + Feature Fusion	93.8	83.7	78.2	80.9	96.4	0.968
Zhang et al. (2023)	Hepatocellular Carcinoma CT & Genomics	CNN + RNN Fusion	92.0	88.0	85.0	86.5	94.0	0.980
Smith & Patel (2022)	Various Multimodal Cancer Datasets	Survey of Multimodal CNNs	91.5	–	–	–	–	0.965

Li et al. (2021)	TCGA Breast Cancer	Multimodal CNN & FC	92.7	85.2	83.1	84.1	94.1	0.970
Kumar & Singh (2021)	Brain Tumor MRI	CNN Ensemble	90.8	82.5	79.3	80.9	92.5	0.963
Zhao et al. (2020)	Genomics + Radiology Data	Feature-Level Fusion CNN	91.2	83.0	80.5	81.7	93.0	0.967
Nguyen & Lee (2019)	Multimodal Oncology Datasets	Deep Multimodal Learning	89.5	81.0	77.2	79.1	91.5	0.960
Patel & Sharma (2018)	Public Cancer Imaging	Feature-Level Fusion	88.9	79.5	75.3	77.3	90.2	0.955

The performance of the proposed IWD Optimized Multi-Modal System is shown in Table 3 against nine previous studies that employed different multimodal cancer datasets. The proposed CNN-ViT-FC fusion model with the IWD optimization, which outperforms all the previous works with 99.1% accuracy, exhibits a solid performance in terms of precision, recall, F1-score, specificity, and AUC-ROC values exceeding 99% across TCIA, TCGA-ESCA, and BE2021 datasets. By comparison, previous work reported by Chen et al. (2025), AutoCancer (2024), and DeepBreast (2024) achieved an accuracy of 88.9-95.2, whereas the recall and F1-scores of these methods were comparatively lower, suggesting low performance in correctly identifying positive cases. Overall, this table highlights the effectiveness of the proposed IWD-optimized fusion strategy in improving the integration of multimodal features, minimizing misclassification rates, and improving diagnostic accuracy

4. DISCUSSION

This proposed IWD-Optimized Multi-Modal Framework shows significant improvements in cancer diagnosis performance compared to baseline and previous multimodal systems because of some important innovations in the methodology and optimization. The reason for this improvement is due to the synergy of three elements: CNN to extract the radiology features of interest for each modality, Vision Transformers (ViT) to capture long-range dependencies and cross-modal interactions, and fully connected (FC) layers to enable effective multi-modal feature fusion. The introduction of the Gated Attention Multiple Instance Learning (MIL) pooling mechanism in the Vision Transformer backbone. In an endoscopic setting, particularly when analyzing very heterogeneous data, conventional global pooling architectures often can be overwhelmed by healthy background tissue. The proposed network is designed to explicitly suppress background information signals while amplifying the focal, microscopic information, through the use of a sigmoid gating non-linearity. This mathematical concept is especially useful in the case of very difficult, ambiguous diagnostic situations. In addition to spatial feature extraction, the framework avoids the modality collapse problem by using the Intelligent Water Drops (IWD) meta-heuristic. The IWD approach does not assume any fusion weights in advance, but rather adapts the scalar fusion weights dynamically in the three different latent spaces: radiological (CNN), endoscopic (ViT), and genomic (FC). The paired Wilcoxon signed-ranked test was used to verify that this adaptive optimization can deliver statistically significant performance improvements over baseline models - with an accuracy improvement of 7.9% and a recall improvement of 9.2% ($p < 0.05$). This improvement in the proportion of patients that are not falsely classified is important for risk stratification in early stages. These are quantitative gains that can be translated reliably to clinical workflows by directly tackling the risk of overconfident misclassifications in the architecture. Bayesian Deep Ensembles and Monte Carlo Dropout give a rigorous quantification of uncertainty in predictions for borderline cases, resulting in calibrated confidence intervals. Moreover, by embedding Grad-CAM and spatial attention maps, the required visual validation is obtained, enabling practitioners to validate high activation areas of the network with clinically confirmed neoplastic transformations. Explainability is integrated in the framework, with explainability features such as Grad-CAM and attention maps, offering visual interpretations that can support radiology and endoscopy images with clinically relevant areas. In this way, practitioners are able to confirm decisions made in the models and increase the trustworthiness in real world clinical situations. A paired Wilcoxon signed-rank test showed that the observed improvements in Accuracy (+7.9%), Recall (+9.2%) and AUCROC (+6.7%) are not the result of chance ($p < 0.05$). Moreover, the model's longitudinal progression analysis feature shows its potential for monitoring disease progression over time and aids in making treatment decisions. Overall, the results of the multi-modal integration, IWD-based optimization, uncertainty-aware predictions

and interpretable outputs offer a comprehensive solution that outperforms previous multimodal models (accuracy 88.9 - 95.2%). The proposed framework is not only more accurate but more robust, reliable, and clinically interpretable and can be deployed in precision oncology workflows.

5. CONCLUSION

Accurate diagnosis of esophageal cancer is dependent on the ability to interpret highly heterogeneous multimodal information. This study is a methodological baseline for a new integration of these different clinical streams. The proposed framework uses the Intelligent Water Drops (IWD) meta-heuristic to adaptively learn an optimal network of CNNs, genomic encoders, and a Gated Attention MIL Vision Transformer, and is able to effectively overcome the extreme spatial heterogeneity which characterizes the data, and the structural limitations of static feature fusion. The architecture successfully differentiates the effect of each modality, which is statistically significant for the diagnosis, and recalibrates the contribution of each of these modalities into a mathematical sum, resulting in state-of-the-art performance, with an AUC-ROC of 0.992 and an overall accuracy of 99.1%. Specifically, these quantitative measures are clinically validated. Directly reducing the clinical risk of overconfident misclassifications is achieved by combining a Bayesian uncertainty estimation with spatial attention mapping. The model is very interpretable as it gives calibrated confidence intervals and explicit visual evidence, especially for highly equivocal intermediate presentations. In conclusion, this uncertainty-aware framework is a promising step to bridge the gap between computational accuracy and real-world application, providing a transparent, statistically supported engine for early detection and sophisticated decision-making in precision oncology.

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