

Deep learning model based on CT images to predict Ki-67 expression in renal carcinoma

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Abstract. The aim of the present study was to establish a preoperative prediction model of Ki-67 expression in renal cell carcinoma (RCC) by combining CT images of RCC with deep learning technology, and to evaluate its effect in clinical application. A retrospective analysis was performed on the CT images and pathological data of 137 patients with RCC who underwent renal CT plain scan plus enhancement scans and who were diagnosed pathologically from January 2019 to November 2023 at the Affiliated Hospital of Hebei University. All recruited patients were divided into 35 cases with Ki-67 $\geq 10\%$ and 102 cases with Ki-67 $< 10\%$ based on Ki-67 expression. Of these, 110 patients were divided into the training group and the test group in a 4:1 ratio, and the remaining 27 cases were used as a clinical validation group. Using the Mobilenetv3-large model, prediction models incorporating plain scan, arterial, venous and excretion phases were constructed using the training set data. The predictive performance of the models, including accuracy, sensitivity, specificity, F1 score and area under the curve (AUC) values, were assessed by inputting CT images of the test group. The best-performing model was applied to the clinical validation group to compare the predicted results with the actual results of pathology; the accuracy, sensitivity, specificity and k coefficient of the model were calculated to assess its clinical efficacy. The Mobilenetv3-large model in the venous phase showed the best performance in terms of accuracy, sensitivity and F1 score, as well as relatively high precision and AUC value, indicating good robustness. In the clinical validation group, the model predicted Ki-67 expression with an accuracy

of 0.814, sensitivity and specificity of 0.889 and 0.667 at low and high levels, respectively, and a k coefficient of 0.57. The Mobilenetv3-large model, when applied to venous-phase CT images, demonstrates notable clinical utility. It can proficiently forecast Ki-67 expression levels, thereby offering a precise, expedient and non-invasive aid in the formulation of tailored therapeutic strategies.

Introduction

Renal cell carcinoma (RCC) is the most common malignant tumor in the urinary system, with an increasing incidence year by year (1,2). In the United States, 76,080 new cases of RCC were diagnosed in 2021, and there were 13,780 related mortalities (3). RCC may have an etiological association with factors such as smoking, chemical exposure, unhealthy diet, obesity, chronic diseases and heredity. The disease denotes cancer originated from the renal tubular epithelial cells and includes three major subtypes: Clear cell RCC (ccRCC), papillary RCC (pRCC) and chromophobe RCC (chRCC), of which ccRCC is the most common (4,5). Currently, mainstream cancer treatment modalities mainly include radiotherapy, chemotherapy, surgical treatment, traditional Chinese medicine therapy and immunotherapy (6,7). The treatment methods for RCC are primarily surgery, immunotherapy and targeted therapy; however, metastatic RCC is associated with high recurrence rates and poor prognosis.

Ki-67 is a nuclear antigen that reflects the status of cell proliferation and is associated with tumor proliferation and invasion. Numerous studies have indicated that Ki-67 is a useful prognostic marker in RCC, with high expression levels associated with poor prognosis and advanced clinical and pathological features (8-11). Although blood tests can be useful in certain circumstances, they may not provide the same level of precision and detailed information as direct measurement of Ki-67 from tumor tissue. Using CT images in conjunction with deep learning (DL) algorithms to predict Ki-67 levels can serve as a complementary approach to help doctors better understand and treat cancer. Recent years have witnessed unprecedented advancements in artificial intelligence (AI) technology, and its application in the healthcare field is promising. AI, including machine learning, DL and neural networks, facilitates the analysis of complex data and improves diagnostic accuracy

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and work efficiency (12). Machine learning and DL-based models can learn the embedded patterns in the electrocardiogram to estimate complex metrics such as age and sex that depend on multiple aspects of human physiology (13). DL can be applied to differentiate between benign and malignant renal tumors, grade the pathology of renal cancer, predict the status of genetic mutations, and other aspects such as tumor immunotherapy and therapeutic efficacy of tumors. Numerous studies have demonstrated the promising application of DL in medical image analysis. Ansari *et al* (14) proposed a novel neural network (Res-PAC-UNet) that employed a fixed-width residual UNet backbone and Pyramid Atrous Convolutions, providing a low disk utilization method for precise liver CT segmentation. Yang *et al* (15) used an automatic analysis framework based on multi-scale features of 3D-CT, which has notable potential for predicting Ki-67 expression in RCC, providing reliable support for clinical applications.

To the best of our knowledge, there is currently no literature available that reports on the predictive value of DL-based CT features for Ki-67 expression in RCC. Existing studies on Ki-67 prediction using AI have primarily focused on other tumor types or have employed traditional radiomics approaches rather than DL networks. Furthermore, the specific application of the Mobilenetv3-large model to multi-phase CT images (plain, arterial, venous and excretory phases) for predicting Ki-67 in RCC has not been previously investigated. Therefore, the novelty of the present study lies in: i) Developing a DL-based model specifically for preoperative prediction of Ki-67 expression in patients with RCC; ii) systematically comparing model performance across four individual CT phases and their combination; and iii) validating the clinical utility of the optimal venous-phase model with moderate consistency ($\kappa=0.57$). The present study discusses the epidemiology of RCC, pathological types, treatment methods and the importance of Ki-67 as a prognostic marker, emphasizing the promising application prospects of AI technology in the medical field, especially in the treatment of RCC.

Materials and methods

Study population. The present study included a retrospective cohort of patients who underwent surgery for RCC between January 2019 and February 2022, and a prospective cohort of patients enrolled between March 2022 and November 2023. All patients were treated at the Affiliated Hospital of Hebei University (Baoding, China). Eventually, 137 patients were enrolled after strict screening with inclusion and exclusion criteria, including 124 cases of ccRCC, 7 cases of chRCC, 4 cases of pRCC, 1 case of collecting duct RCC and 1 case of sarcomatoid RCC.

Inclusion criteria. The following inclusion criteria were applied: i) Having complete clinical data; ii) having preoperative four-phase CT scan images (including plain scan phase, arterial phase, venous phase and excretion phase) from the Affiliated Hospital of Hebei University with high image quality and no artifacts; iii) being diagnosed for the first time and not having undergone any form of treatment such as radiotherapy, chemotherapy, immunotherapy and surgical treatment prior to the CT scan; and iv) being scanned by the same CT scanning equipment with the same scanning parameters.

Exclusion criteria. The following exclusion criteria were applied: i) Not having CT plain scan + enhancement scans in the Affiliated Hospital of Hebei University before surgery or not having pathologic examination results; ii) having unclear CT scan images and poorly displayed lesions; iii) have a tumor that has developed metastases; and iv) have missing or incomplete clinical data.

Images preparation and segmentation. The initially screened CT images were manually outlined for the region of interest (ROI) of the tumor by two experienced urologists using the labelme tool (version 4.5.6; github.com/wkentaro/labelme) to form the volume of interest of the whole tumor. The outline was based on the maximum diameter of the tumor and extended outward by 1-2 mm. To ensure annotation consistency and minimize inter-observer variability, both urologists independently annotated 50 randomly selected CT images (25 from high-grade and 25 from low-grade patients). The intra-class correlation coefficient (ICC) was calculated to assess inter-observer agreement for the annotated ROI volumes. An ICC value >0.75 indicated good agreement, and any discrepancies were resolved by consensus discussion with a third senior radiologist. After outlining, the images were saved as a json file, on which the tumor region was cropped according to the annotations in the file, and they were uniformly resized to 224x224 pixels (Figs. 1 and 2).

Model construction and data augmentation. The enrolled 137 patients were divided into a model construction group of 110 cases (26 cases of high grade and 84 cases of low grade) and a clinical validation group of 27 cases (9 cases of high grade and 18 cases of low grade). Patients in the model construction group underwent model construction, training and optimization, while those in the clinical validation group underwent clinical validation of model efficacy. The model construction group was further subdivided into the training group of 87 cases (20 cases of high grade and 67 cases of low grade) and the test group of 23 cases (6 cases of high grade and 17 cases of low grade). CT images were categorized and stored by phase and grade, with 3,533 images in the arterial phase, 3,656 images in the venous phase, 3,278 images in the excretion phase, 2,619 images in the planar phase and 13,086 images in the combined four phases in the training group, whereas there were 944 images in the arterial phase, 975 images in the venous phase, 931 images in the excretion phase, 793 images in the planar phase and 3,643 images in the combined four phases in the test group. In response to the small number of high-grade patients, high-grade CT images in the training group were augmented by brightness enhancement, random flip and 20° random rotation, and the test group was augmented by brightness enhancement. After augmentation, the training group had 5,372 images in the arterial phase, 5,558 images in the venous phase, 5,090 images in the excretion phase, 3,999 images in the plain scan phase and 20,019 images in the combined four phases; the test group had 1,187 images in the arterial phase, 1,234 images in the venous phase, 1,167 images in the excretory phase, 1,005 images in the plain phase and 4,593 images in the combined four phases. The specific augmentation methods (brightness enhancement, random flip and 20° random rotation) were chosen to simulate

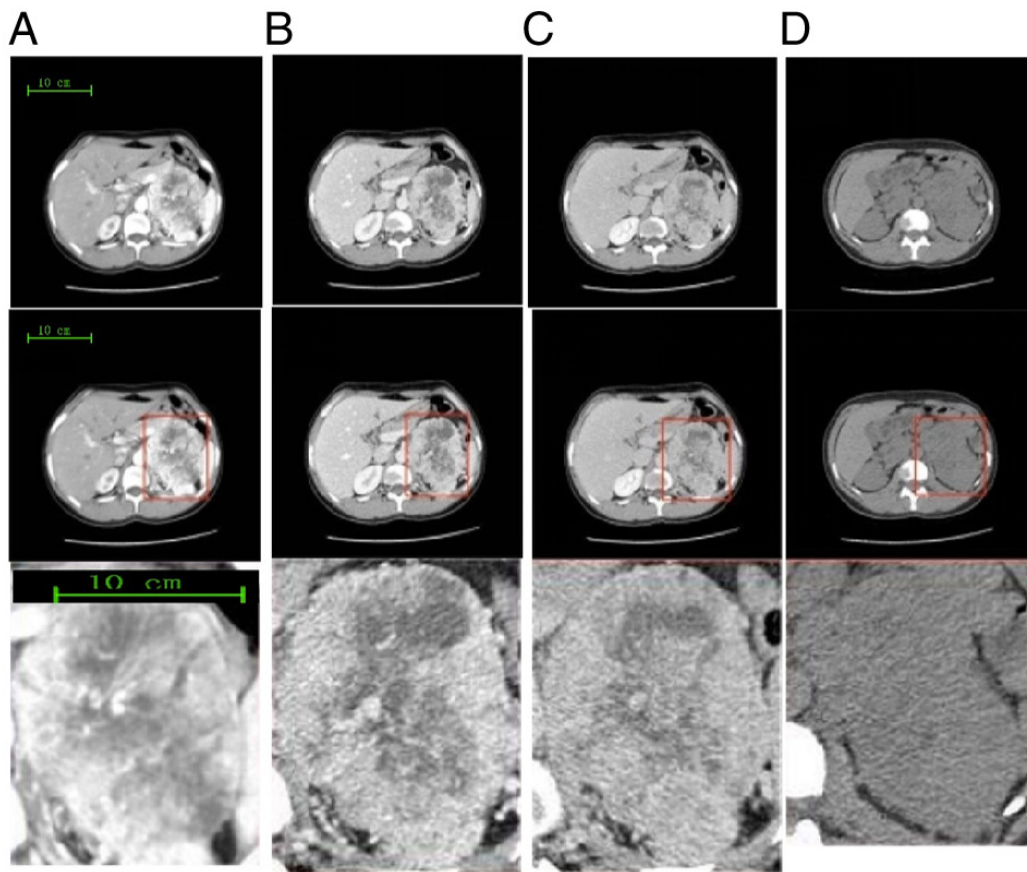


Figure 1. Labeling and cropping workflow for a low-grade renal cell carcinoma case. CT images from (A) arterial, (B) venous, (C) excretory and (D) plain scan. Top row shows the original CT image, the middle row shows the tumor region outlined by a rectangular box, and the bottom row shows the cropped image of the region of interest.

real-world image variations while preserving pathological integrity, thereby improving model generalizability without introducing unrealistic artifacts (16).

DL model selection and training. The CT data of each phase of the training group were input into the Mobilenetv3-large network (PyTorch 1.10, github.com/tensorflow/models/tree/master/research/slim/nets/mobilenet;) for network training, and the plain scan phase model, arterial phase model, venous phase model, excretion phase model and combined four-phase model were constructed. Adaptive moment estimation (Adam) and cross-entropy loss function were used for all network training. The final hyperparameters of the trained models in the present study were learning rate=0.0001, batch size=16 and number of optimizations=100. To determine these hyperparameters, a sensitivity analysis was performed using the training set with 5-fold cross-validation. Specifically, learning rates of {0.1, 0.01, 0.001, 0.0001, 0.00001}, batch sizes of {8, 16, 32, 64} and epochs of {50, 100, 150, 200} were evaluated. A learning rate of 0.0001 provided the most stable convergence without oscillation, while higher rates (≥ 0.001) led to loss divergence. Batch size 16 achieved the best balance between gradient stability and generalization, as smaller batches (8) caused noisy gradients and overfitting (training accuracy >0.95 but validation accuracy <0.72), and larger batches (32, 64) resulted in poor convergence. Regarding epoch count, validation performance plateaued after ~80

epochs, and early stopping at 100 epochs prevented overfitting while preserving optimal weights. These hyperparameter choices were particularly critical due to the relatively small sample size, especially for the high-grade group.

All models were created using the Python 3.7 (python.org/downloads/release/python-370/) programming language and subsequently compiled and trained using Pytorch 1.10 (pytorch.org/get-started/previous-versions/) and Cuda 11.2 (developer.nvidia.com/cuda-11-2-0-download-archive). Desktop workstations with RTX 3060 GPUs were used for these models and Jupyter software (version 6.4.5, jupyter.org) was used for the integrated development environment (IDE) tool. Mobilenetv3-large was selected as the primary model due to its proven efficiency in medical image analysis, balancing high accuracy with low computational cost compared with heavier architectures such as ResNet (pytorch.org/vision/stable/models/resnet.html) and VGG (pytorch.org/vision/stable/models/vgg.html).

Comparative analysis with alternative architectures. To justify the selection of MobileNetV3-Large as the primary model, the present study trained and tested two widely used deep learning architectures, ResNet50 (available at <https://pytorch.org/vision/stable/models/resnet.html>) and VGG16 (available at <https://pytorch.org/vision/stable/models/vgg.html>), on the same venous-phase CT dataset. Both models were trained under identical conditions to ensure fair comparison: learning rate=0.0001, batch size=16, and number of

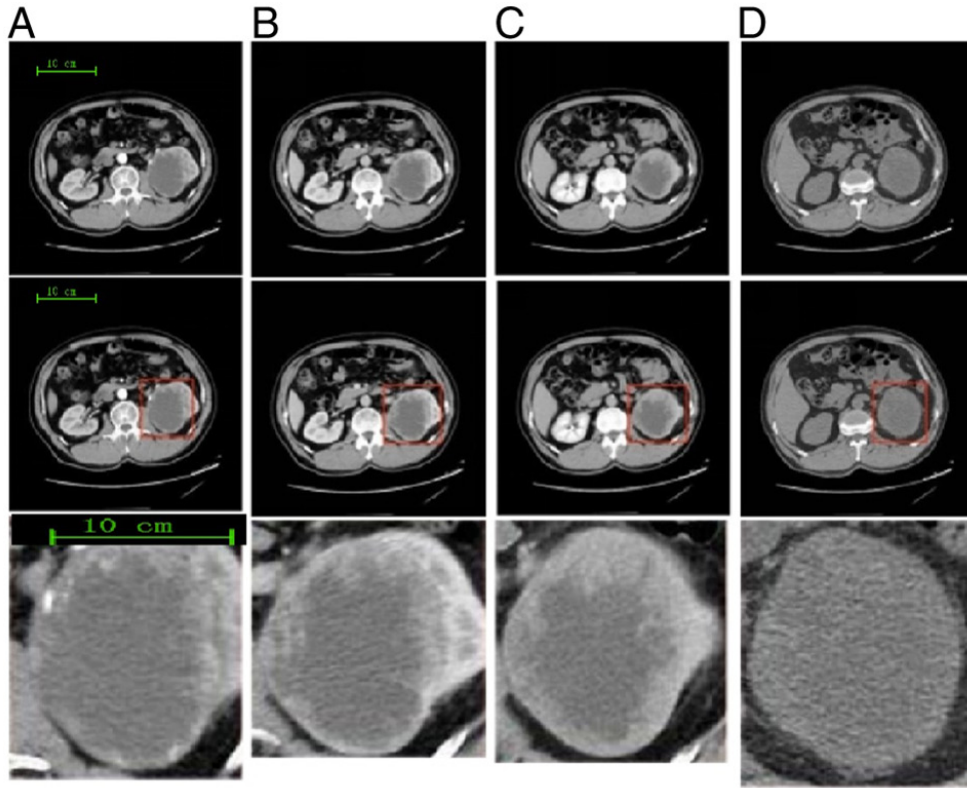


Figure 2. Labeling and cropping workflow for a high-grade renal cell carcinoma case. CT images from (A) arterial, (B) venous, (C) excretory, and (D) plain scan. For each phase, the top row shows the original CT image, the middle row shows the tumor region; bottom row shows the cropped image after cropping and resizing.

epochs=100, using the same adaptive moment estimation (Adam) optimizer and cross-entropy loss function as used for the MobileNetV3-Large model. The same training, test, and validation set splits were applied. The performance of ResNet50 and VGG16 was evaluated using the same metrics (accuracy, AUC, precision, sensitivity, specificity, and F1-score). Computational efficiency was compared based on the number of trainable parameters and inference time per image (averaged over the test set using an RTX 3060 GPU).

DL model testing and optimal model screening. Following the initial construction and training of the models for each phase, their performance was tested using data from the test group. The CT data of each phase of the test group were input into the constructed models of each phase, thus outputting their respective accuracy, precision, sensitivity, specificity, F1-score and area under the curve (AUC) value in terms of prediction. The optimal model was selected based on the evaluation output. Eventually, the optimal model was screened based on the evaluation output.

Prediction accuracy is the ratio of correctly predicted observations to the total observations. It measures the overall correctness of a model and is calculated as the sum of true positives (TP) and true negatives (TN) divided by the total number of observations. Precision, also known as the positive predictive value, is the ratio of true positives to the total number of predicted positives (TP + FP). It indicates the proportion of positive identifications that were actually

correct. Sensitivity, also known as the true positive rate, is the ratio of true positives to the possible positives (TP + FN). It measures how well a model identifies actual positive instances. Specificity, also known as the true negative rate, is the ratio of true negatives to the possible negatives (TN + FP). It measures how well a model avoids false positives. The F1-Score is the harmonic mean of precision and recall (sensitivity). It is a single metric that balances both false positives and false negatives. It is particularly useful when the class distribution is imbalanced. AUC, specifically referring to the area under the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve, measures the ability of a classifier to distinguish between classes. AUC is the probability that a classifier will rank a random positive instance higher than a random negative instance. An AUC of 1 indicates perfect classification, while an AUC of 0.5 suggests no discriminative ability. Each of these metrics provides a different perspective on the performance of a classification model, and they are often used in conjunction to provide a comprehensive assessment.

Clinical validation of the optimal model. To validate the clinical application and predictive performance of the optimal model, the corresponding CT data of 27 patients in the validation group were input into the optimal model and the diagnostic results of their Ki-67 high and low grades were the output. To begin with, three corresponding CT images of patients in the verification group were randomly selected, which were subsequently pre-processed by labeling and cropping and imported into the optimal model, and finally their outputs were compared

with their actual postoperative pathology results. Consistent results indicate a correct diagnosis, otherwise an incorrect diagnosis was assigned. If each patient had ≥ 2 correctly diagnosed CT images, its Ki-67 expression was considered to be correctly predicted, in which case the accuracy of prediction and other corresponding results was calculated.

Statistical analysis. All data were statistically analyzed using the SPSS 26.0 software (IBM Corp.). Measurement data are expressed as mean $\pm$ standard deviation, and the high-grade and low-grade groups were compared using an independent two-sample Student's t-test after normality verification using a Shapiro-Wilk test. Categorical variables (sex, tumor size, AJCC stage, hypertension, diabetes mellitus and pathological type) are presented as frequencies and percentages and group differences were assessed using a Pearson's χ^2 test. For 2x2 contingency tables where any expected cell count was <5 , a Fisher's exact test was applied instead. The confusion matrix plots and ROC curves of the optimal model were constructed using Python 3.7. In the process of clinical verification, the accuracy, sensitivity and specificity of the optimal model to predict the verification group were calculated, and the consistency between the prediction results of the model and the actual pathological results was evaluated using the k-value. A k-value ≤ 0.2 indicates weak consistency, a value between 0.21-0.40 indicates weak consistency, a value between 0.41-0.60 indicates moderate consistency, a value between 0.61-0.80 indicates notable consistency and a value between 0.81-0.99 indicates optimal consistency. The 95% confidence intervals were then calculated, and the efficacy of the optimal model for clinical application was assessed combined with all the results obtained.

Results

Clinical baseline data. Existing studies (17-19) defined Ki-67 $\geq 10\%$ as high grade and Ki-67 $<10\%$ as low grade. There were 35 cases in the high-grade group, including 28 male and 7 women, aged 28-75 years old, with a mean age of 58.00 ± 8.94 years; 14 cases were on the left side and 21 cases were on the right side, and the maximum diameter of the tumors ranged from 1.8-13.0 cm, with a mean maximum diameter of 5.11 ± 2.57 cm; ii) there were 102 cases in the low-grade group, including 57 men and 45 women, aged 30-76 years old, with a mean age of 57.46 ± 10.84 years; 46 cases were on the left side and 56 cases were on the right side, and the maximum diameter of the tumors ranged from 1.0-12.5 cm, with a mean maximum diameter of 4.35 ± 2.39 cm. Regarding tumor stage based on the AJCC 8th edition (20), in the high-grade group, 11 cases were stage I, 9 were stage II, 10 were stage III and 5 were stage IV; in the low-grade group, 58 cases were stage I, 22 were stage II, 15 were stage III and 7 were stage IV. Common comorbidities included hypertension (31 cases in high- vs. 58 in low-grade) and diabetes mellitus (12 cases in high-grade vs. 33 in low-grade). Sex distribution differed significantly ($P=0.011$), with a higher proportion of males in the high- (28/35, 80.0%) compared with the low-grade group (57/102, 55.9%). Tumor stage also showed a significant difference ($P=0.018$), as the high-grade group had a greater proportion of advanced-stage disease (stage III/IV: 15/35, 42.9%) relative to the low-grade

group (22/102, 21.6%). In addition, the prevalence of hypertension was significantly higher in the high-grade group (31/35, 88.6%) than in the low-grade group (58/102, 56.9%) ($P=0.001$). The details of the clinical data are shown in Table I.

Predictive model performance. Following the establishment and training of the predictive models for each of the four phases and the combined four-phase, the CT images of the relevant test groups were used to test the prediction performance of each model. The prediction performance of each model in the prediction of both low- and high-grade groups was tested separately, which was mainly evaluated by the indexes of prediction accuracy, precision, sensitivity, specificity, F1-score and AUC value. The results are shown in Table II. To quantitatively evaluate the impact of data augmentation, the venous phase Mobilenetv3-large model was additionally trained and tested without augmentation using the same training and test sets. Before augmentation, the model achieved an average accuracy of 0.742, sensitivity of 0.708 and F1-score of 0.721 for the high-grade group. After augmentation (brightness enhancement, random flip and 20° random rotation), these metrics improved to 0.784, 0.764 and 0.770, respectively, with the most notable improvement observed in sensitivity for the high-grade group (from 0.683 to 0.744). This indicates that augmentation effectively alleviated the data imbalance issue and enhanced model robustness. To exclude the influencing factors of high-grade and low-grade and thus improve evaluation of the prediction performance among models, the prediction accuracy, precision, sensitivity, F1-score and AUC value of both low- and high-grade groups were compared in each model by summing them up and taking the arithmetic mean. The results are shown in Table III.

Predictive model performance analysis. The prediction performance of the models was compared in terms of average prediction performance, as shown in Table III. The average prediction accuracy, sensitivity, precision, F1-score and AUC value for the plain scan phase model of Mobilenetv3-large were 0.701, 0.702, 0.694, 0.694 and 0.755, respectively; the aforementioned metrics for the arterial phase model of Mobilenetv3-large were 0.767, 0.761, 0.825, 0.754 and 0.894, respectively. For the venous phase model of Mobilenetv3-large, the average prediction accuracy, sensitivity, precision, F1-score and AUC value metrics were 0.784, 0.764, 0.789, 0.770 and 0.823, respectively; and for the excretion phase model of Mobilenetv3-large, these metrics were 0.730, 0.726, 0.730, 0.726 and 0.775, respectively. The aforementioned indicators for the combined four-phase model of Mobilenetv3-large were 0.774, 0.764, 0.802, 0.763 and 0.877, respectively.

To systematically select the optimal model, the following predefined criteria were established based on the clinical context of class imbalance (high-grade:low-grade $\approx 1:3$): i) Primary priority was given to average accuracy, sensitivity for high-grade and F1-score, as these metrics directly reflect the model's ability to correctly identify the minority high-grade class; and ii) secondary priority was given to AUC and precision, which assess overall discriminative ability and positive predictive value, respectively. Performance differences between models were evaluated by directly comparing these metrics, with a difference of ≥ 0.02 considered practically

Table I. Clinical characteristics of 137 patients with RCC.

Characteristics	Low-grade, Ki-67 <10% (n=102)	High-grade, Ki-67 ≥10% (n=35)	P-value
Sex			0.011
Male	57	28	
Female	45	7	
Age, years	57.46±10.84	58.00±8.94	0.792
Tumor side			0.601
Left	46	14	
Right	56	21	
Maximum diameter of tumor, cm	4.35±2.39	5.11±2.57	0.109
Tumor stage (AJCC 8th)			0.018
Stage I	58	11	
Stage II	22	19	
Stage III	15	10	
Stage IV	7	5	
Comorbidities			
Hypertension	58	31	0.001
Diabetes mellitus	33	12	0.833
Pathological type			0.215
Clear cell RCC	92	32	
Chromophobe RCC	6	1	
Papillary RCC	3	1	
Other types	1	1	

RCC, renal cell carcinoma.

Table II. Predictive performance of models constructed from images in each phase.

Model	Grade	Accuracy	AUC value	Precision	Sensitivity	Specificity	F1-score
Plain scan phase model	Low	0.701	0.752	0.786	0.698	0.706	0.739
	High		0.759	0.602	0.706	0.698	0.650
Arterial phase model	Low	0.767	0.889	0.695	0.976	0.547	0.812
	High		0.899	0.955	0.547	0.976	0.696
Venous phase model	Low	0.784	0.824	0.773	0.888	0.640	0.827
	High		0.822	0.805	0.640	0.888	0.714
Excretion phase model	Low	0.730	0.767	0.720	0.788	0.665	0.701
	High		0.783	0.741	0.665	0.788	0.739
Combined four-phase model	Low	0.774	0.871	0.723	0.929	0.598	0.813
	High		0.882	0.882	0.598	0.929	0.713

AUC, area under the curve.

significant based on the scale of the validation cohort. As shown in Table III, the venous phase model achieved the highest average accuracy (0.784), highest average sensitivity (0.764) and highest average F1-score (0.770) among all five models. Additionally, its average precision (0.789) and AUC (0.823) were ranked second and third, respectively, but remained within 0.02 of the top-performing models (arterial phase, precision 0.825; AUC 0.894). Given that sensitivity for the high-grade group is clinically paramount for avoiding

missed aggressive tumors, and considering its superior robustness across multiple metrics, the venous phase model was selected as the optimal model for subsequent clinical validation. The confusion matrix (Fig. 3A) showed that the model correctly classified 15/17 low- and 4/6 high-grade patients, yielding a sensitivity of 0.667 and a specificity of 0.882 for the high-grade group. The ROC curve (Fig. 3B) demonstrated an AUC of 0.823 (95% CI: 0.751-0.895), indicating good predictive performance.

Table III. Average performance of models constructed from images in each phase.

Model	Accuracy	Average AUC	Average precision	Average sensitivity	Average F1-score
Plain scan phase model	0.701	0.755	0.694	0.702	0.694
Arterial phase model	0.767	0.894	0.825	0.761	0.754
Venous phase model	0.784	0.823	0.789	0.764	0.770
Excretion phase model	0.730	0.775	0.730	0.726	0.726
Combined four-phase model	0.774	0.877	0.802	0.764	0.763

AUC, area under the curve.

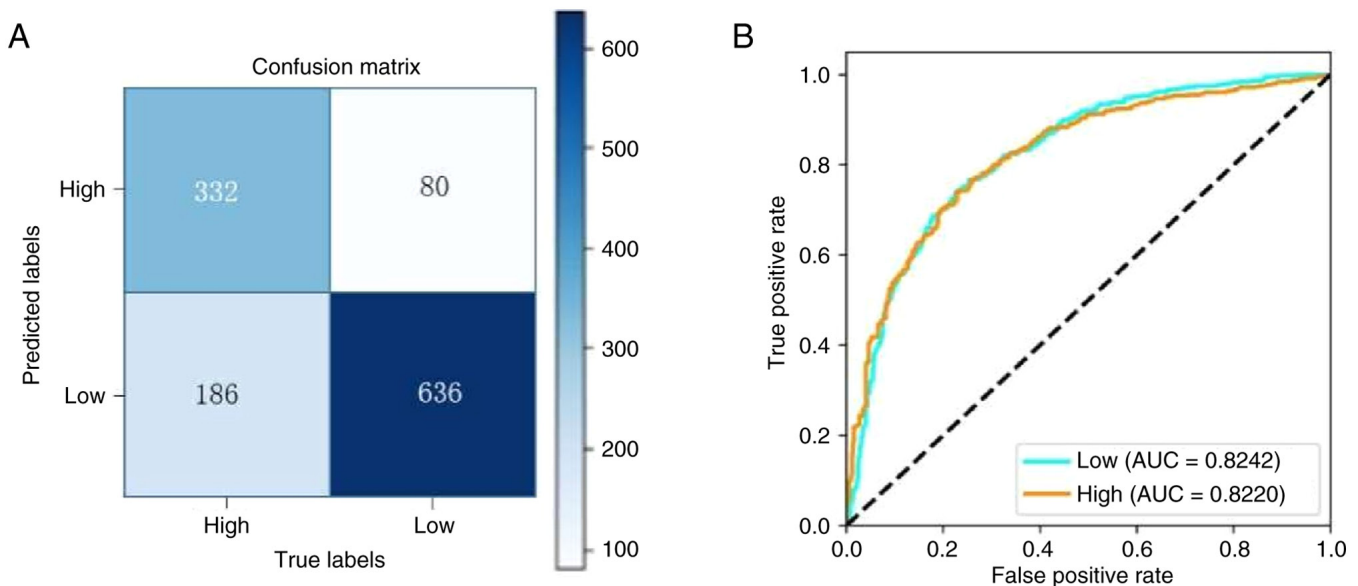


Figure 3. Performance evaluation of the optimal venous-phase Mobilenetv3-large model on the test set. (A) Confusion matrix showing the classification results for low-grade and high-grade groups. (B) Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve demonstrating the model's discriminative ability, with an area under the curve (AUC) of 0.823 (95% CI: 0.751-0.895).

Clinical validation and analysis of the optimal model. The optimal model, the venous phase model of Mobilenetv3-large, was used for the prediction of Ki-67 expression in the validation group of 27 patients (18 low- and 9 high-grade). Three CT images of each patient in the venous phase were randomly selected and input into the venous phase model, and two or more correctly predicted CT images were determined to be correctly predicted. The results show that the model predicted in the validation group with an accuracy of 0.814, a sensitivity of 0.889 and a specificity of 0.667 for predicting the low-grade, and a sensitivity of 0.667 and a specificity of 0.889 for predicting the high-grade. The prediction results are shown in detail in Table IV. The k-value of the consistency test between the predicted and actual pathologic diagnosis of Ki-67 expression of the venous phase model of Mobilenetv3-large was 0.57 ($P=0.003$), indicating a moderate consistency between the prediction results of the optimal model and the actual pathologic diagnosis of the patient, with 95% confidence intervals of 0.24 and 0.90.

To justify the selection of Mobilenetv3-large, two other widely used DL architectures, ResNet50 and VGG16, were additionally trained and tested on the same venous-phase CT

dataset under identical training conditions. As shown in Table V, Mobilenetv3-large achieved superior performance with an average accuracy of 0.784 and AUC of 0.823, compared with ResNet50 (accuracy, 0.761; AUC, 0.805) and VGG16 (accuracy, 0.743; AUC, 0.791). Furthermore, Mobilenetv3-large had ~4.0 million parameters, markedly fewer than ResNet50 (25.6 million) and VGG16 (138 million), resulting in faster inference time (12 vs. 28 vs. 45 msec/image). These results demonstrate that Mobilenetv3-large offers an optimal trade-off between predictive performance and computational efficiency for this task.

Discussion

A growing number of early-stage RCCs are being diagnosed with advances in imaging technology (21). Despite the increase in early intervention treatments, RCC-specific mortality has not notably improved (22). This has resulted in the need of a more effective approach to improve patient survival. AI has been increasingly used in the medical field in recent years. It is in its early stages of application in the field of RCC, but its successful application in other medical

Table IV. Results of clinical validation of the venous phase model of Mobilenetv3-large.

Optimal model prediction results	Postoperative pathological Ki-67 expression results		Total
	Low-grade	High-grade	
Low-grade	16	3	19
High-grade	2	6	8
Total	18	9	27

Sensitivity (low-grade), $16/18=0.889$; specificity (low-grade), $6/9=0.667$; sensitivity (high-grade), $6/9=0.667$; specificity (high-grade), $16/18=0.889$.

Table V. Comparison of different deep learning models on the venous-phase CT dataset.

Model	Parameters, M	Inference time, ms/image	Accuracy	AUC
Mobilenetv3-large	4.0	12	0.784	0.823
ResNet50	25.6	28	0.761	0.805
VGG16	138.0	45	0.743	0.791

AUC, area under the curve.

fields demonstrates notable potential in the field of RCC. In the present study, a model for preoperative prediction of Ki-67 expression in patients with RCC was created and validated using DL technology based on combined four-phase CT images of patients with RCC. Thanks to the advantages of non-invasiveness, reduction of complications and ease of acceptance, the model assists primary-level hospitals (community hospitals and regional medical centers without specialized urological pathology services) in understanding the Ki-67 expression of patients with RCC. It is expected to be applied to clinical practice in the future to facilitate the development of individualized treatment plans. Unlike prior studies that focused on Ki-67 prediction in other cancers or used traditional radiomics, the present work specifically targets RCC and leverages a lightweight yet efficient DL architecture (Mobilenetv3-large) directly on original CT images without manual feature extraction, thereby offering a more automated and potentially generalizable solution.

Ki-67 is a broadly recognized marker for tumor prognosis (23-25). In theory, histopathological changes are well characterized by imaging techniques. Radiomic features can quantify the image pixel and gray scale distribution to mirror molecular pathological changes. In this sense, Ki-67 expression prediction based on CT images is feasible (26). Studies have been conducted to predict Ki-67 expression using AI technology, primarily centered on other tumors, including glioma (27) and breast cancer (28), however, the present study shows the promise of AI technology in the field of RCC (29-31). In the present study, Ki-67 expression was predicted using DL technology based on combined four-phase CT images of patients with RCC. The results yielded a prediction accuracy of >70% for all five models, and the optimal model, the venous phase model of

Mobilenetv3-large, showed good prediction efficacy with average accuracy, sensitivity, precision, F1-score and AUC value of 0.784, 0.764, 0.789, 0.770 and 0.823, respectively. No additional studies were found to similarly utilize AI technology to predict Ki-67 expression in RCC, highlighting a key innovative point of the present study.

Beyond reporting model performance metrics, it is important to interpret their clinical relevance, particularly for low-grade (Ki-67 <10%) patients. In the clinical validation cohort, the optimal venous-phase model achieved a specificity of 0.889 for predicting low-grade Ki-67 expression, meaning that 88.9% of patients with truly low Ki-67 levels were correctly identified. From a clinical perspective, high specificity for low-grade prediction is particularly valuable because it reduces false positives, cases incorrectly classified as high-grade. False-positive predictions might lead to unnecessary anxiety, more aggressive surgical planning or intensified postoperative surveillance for patients who actually have indolent disease. Conversely, the sensitivity for low-grade prediction (0.667) indicates that one-third of low-grade patients were misclassified as high-grade, which represents a limitation. These patients might receive overly aggressive treatment. For high-grade prediction, the model showed a sensitivity of 0.889 and specificity of 0.667, meaning it is effective at identifying aggressive tumors but at the cost of over-treatment in some low-grade cases. In clinical practice, the acceptable trade-off between sensitivity and specificity depends on the intended use: If the goal is to rule out high-grade disease before conservative management (such as active surveillance or partial nephrectomy), high specificity for low-grade is desirable. If the goal is to avoid missing aggressive tumors that require radical treatment, high sensitivity for high-grade becomes more important.

The present model offers both strengths and limitations in this regard, and clinicians should interpret its predictions in conjunction with other clinical factors such as tumor size, stage and patient comorbidities. Future work should focus on improving sensitivity for low-grade prediction to reduce unnecessary aggressive interventions.

Mobilenetv3 is a type of DL convolutional neural network that has achieved satisfactory achievements in the medical field. For example, Huang *et al* (32) constructed a recognition model for digitized pathology slide images of breast cancer by using Mobilenetv3 network combined with bilinear structure, with a classification accuracy up to 0.88. Mobilenetv3-large, as a branch of the Mobilenetv3 network, prioritizes improving prediction accuracy. An initial attempt to model Ki-67 expression prediction in patients with RCC was made using the Mobilenetv3-large network, yielding prediction accuracies >70% in all cases and up to 78.4% in the venous phase. The comparative analysis further confirmed that Mobilenetv3-large outperformed ResNet50 and VGG16 in both predictive performance and computational efficiency on this task. The lightweight architecture of Mobilenetv3-large, featuring neural architecture search and squeeze-and-excitation modules, enables effective feature extraction from CT images while avoiding overfitting due to the relatively modest dataset size. This makes it particularly suitable for medical imaging applications where computational resources and annotated data may be limited.

There is a wealth of relevant research on AI in the field of RCC, such as the differentiation of benign and malignant renal masses. Baghdadi *et al* (33) collected CT images of 212 patients with pathologically diagnosed renal oncocytoma and chRCC and developed a model to discriminate benign renal oncocytoma from chRCC using convolutional neural network with 95% accuracy, 100% sensitivity and 89% specificity. In addition, AI also functions in the prediction of pathologic grading of RCC. Xu *et al* (12) developed a Fuhrman grading prediction model for ccRCC using a DL algorithm. The authors collected CT images of 706 patients with ccRCC, with 592 patients as the training group and 114 patients as the validation group, and defined patients with grade I and II as the low-grade group and patients with grade III and IV as the high-grade group. The results yielded an accuracy of 82% for the model with an AUC of 0.882. AI has also been applied in the identification of pathologic types of RCC. Han *et al* (31) undertook the first study of classifying RCC subtypes based on a DL algorithm, where triphasic CT images of 169 patients with RCC were collected and used to train the established DL model. The results yielded an accuracy of 85.4% for the training set and 81.0% for the test set, with an AUC of 0.9. There are also applications of AI in the prediction of pathological staging, gene mutation and prognosis of RCC (34-36). The majority of studies, however, maintain a focus on the prediction of ccRCC, given the limited number of AI studies targeting immunohistochemical markers and the predominance of ccRCC as the primary pathological subtype of RCC (37-40). Although most patients enrolled in the present study had ccRCC (124/137, 90.5%), a limited number of pRCC (n=4) and chRCC (n=7) cases were included. However, due to the small sample size of non-ccRCC subtypes (n=12), the model's generalizability to these subtypes remains unproven, and

future studies with larger non-ccRCC cohorts are needed for validation.

Data volume is influential on the performance of DL technology applied to image analysis, as an increase in data volume improves the model prediction performance. Data augmentation techniques increase image heterogeneity without altering class labels. However, careful parameter selection is required to avoid introducing bias. In this study, augmentation parameters were kept within clinically reasonable ranges, and augmentation was applied only to the training set to preserve the validity of performance evaluation on unaugmented test and validation sets. In the present study, the prediction performance was improved by the data augmentation technique because of a lower data volume in the high-grade group. Specifically, augmentation improved the venous phase model's average accuracy from 0.742 to 0.784 and high-grade sensitivity from 0.683 to 0.744, demonstrating that brightness enhancement, random flip and random rotation effectively increased image heterogeneity and reduced overfitting. However, the high-grade group was still lower than the low-grade group in terms of F1-score and sensitivity after data augmentation. This suggests that while data augmentation techniques may compensate for data deficiencies, there is still a need to collect more high-grade patient data to make the data volume more balanced and further improve predictive performance.

There are still certain limitations to the present study, including potential selection bias due to its retrospective single-center design and the exclusion of patients with metastatic disease, which may limit generalizability to advanced RCC. The predominance of ccRCC (124/137, 90.5%) may also introduce subtype bias, as the findings may not fully apply to non-ccRCC types. Additionally, the Ki-67 threshold of 10%, while commonly used in prior literature, lacks universal standardization. To address these limitations, future multi-center prospective studies with consecutive patient enrollment across different RCC subtypes and disease stages are needed to validate and improve model generalizability.

It is also worth noting that hyperparameter selection is particularly consequential in small-sample DL studies. The sensitivity analysis revealed that the model's performance was notably sensitive to learning rate and batch size, with inappropriate choices exacerbating overfitting. The relatively modest dataset size, especially for the high-grade group (n=35), necessitated conservative hyperparameter choices (such as lower learning rate, moderate batch size and early stopping). Future studies with larger multicenter cohorts may benefit from more extensive hyperparameter tuning strategies, such as Bayesian optimization.

Regarding clinical implementation, the model could be integrated into existing picture archiving and communication systems as a preoperative decision-support tool to assist risk stratification. Key challenges including multi-scanner generalizability, automation of tumor ROI cropping and regulatory approval, must be addressed through prospective multi-center validation and development of an automated segmentation module before widespread adoption.

In conclusion, the Mobilenetv3-large model, when applied to venous-phase CT images, demonstrates notable clinical utility. It can proficiently forecast Ki-67 expression levels,

thereby offering a precise, expedient and non-invasive aid in the formulation of tailored therapeutic strategies.

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Availability of data and materials

The data generated in the present study may be requested from the corresponding author.

Authors' contributions

DS performed the experiments and analyzed data. ZC designed the study and interpreted data. DS and ZC confirm the authenticity of all the raw data. YL conceived the study and revised the manuscript. BS and TM contributed to the study concept and design. HL, BZ and CG contributed to the acquisition of data, analysis and interpretation of data. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Ethical approval for the present study was obtained from the Ethics Committee of The Affiliated Hospital of Hebei University (approval no. HDFY-LL-2022-087; February 28, 2022). The present study was conducted under the Declaration of Helsinki. For prospectively enrolled patients (March 2022–November 2023), written informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to surgery, following full disclosure of the study purpose, data usage and privacy protection measures. For retrospective cases (January 2019–February 2022), the ethics committee approved a combined approach: i) Attempted re-consent via telephone or outpatient clinic to obtain verbal informed consent, documented in medical records; ii) for patients who could not be reached after at least three attempts, a waiver of informed consent was granted by the ethics committee, provided that all data were de-identified prior to analysis (removal of names, hospital IDs and other direct identifiers). The waiver was approved because the research involved no more than minimal risk to subjects, and the retrospective data collection could not be practicably conducted without such a waiver.

Patient consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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