Minimax Theory and its Applications

Volume 11 (2026), No. 3s, 68 to 83

Multi-Scale Neuro Diffusion Transformer Framework with Graph-Attentive Patch Learning For Robust Brain Tumor Classification In Mri

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Abstract
Brain tumor classification from the MRI scans is remaining as a challenging task because of high inter-patient variability, irregular tumor morphology, and inconsistent imaging quality across the datasets. conventional deep learning models often depend on large-scale labeled datasets and struggle in maintaining robustness when confronted with the noise, modality shifts, and class imbalance. In clinical settings, this limitation is reducing the reliability and is restricting deployment in real diagnostic workflows. Despite recent advances in deep neural architectures, most of the Conventional approaches is failing to jointly address three critical issues: degraded MRI quality because of acquisition noise, limited annotated medical data, and insufficient spatial-context modeling of tumor regions. Further, the current systems often treat feature extraction and classification as separate stages, which is introducing redundancy and is reducing the interpretability under the heterogeneous imaging conditions. This study is introducing a Multi-Scale NeuroDiffusion Transformer Framework with the Graph-Attentive Patch Learning (MND-GAPL). The framework first is applying an adaptive frequency-guided restoration module that is improving the structural consistency while it is suppressing the imaging noise without relying on the handcrafted filters. To mitigate dataset imbalance, a diffusion-driven augmentation mechanism generates anatomically consistent synthetic MRI samples, preserving tumor boundary realism. The core of the framework is combining the patch-based transformer encoder with the graph-attentive relational learning, where each image patch is modeled as a node in a spatial dependency graph. This design is allowing dynamic interaction between the local tumor textures and global anatomical structures. A self-supervised contrastive objectiverefines feature separability by aligning latent representations across the augmented views, which is improving generalization under the limited supervision. Finally, an uncertainty-aware decision head is providing calibrated predictions that is considered suitable for clinical interpretation. The proposed MND-GAPL framework is evaluated on Figshare, Kaggle Brain MRI, and T1-weighted contrast-enhanced datasets. It is achieving an accuracy of 98.3%, sensitivity of 97.9%, specificity of 98.6%, F1-score of 98.1%, and ROC-AUC of 0.997, which is performing better than ResNet50V2, EfficientNetB3, and Swin Transformer. Cross-validationis confirming stability with the 98.3% ± 0.2 mean accuracy, while statistical testing is showing significant improvement with the $p < 0.001$. These results is showing superiorconvergence stability, and clinical reliability under the heterogeneous MRI conditions.

Keywords: Brain TumorClassification, Diffusion Augmentation, Graph Attention, MRI Preprocessing, Vision Transformer.

1. Introduction

Brain tumor analysis from the magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is playing a central role in neuro-oncology, where the early and accurate classification directly influences treatment planning and patient survival outcomes [1]. MRI is providing high-resolution structural information of soft tissues, which is allowing clinicians to differentiate tumor types such as gliomas, meningiomas, and pituitary tumors, which is based on intensity variations and morphological patterns [2]. In recent years, deep learning approaches are increasingly replaced conventional radiological interpretation because of its ability to learn hierarchical representations from the complex imaging data [3]. Convolutional neural networks (CNNs) and transformer-based architectures is showing strong performance in medical image classification tasks, especially in capturing spatial dependencies and contextual relationships within the tumor regions [4]. Moreover, the integration of AI-assisted diagnostic

systems into clinical workflows is continuing to grow, supporting radiologists in reducing inter-observer variability and improving diagnostic consistency [5].The core problem addressed in this study is the limited robustness of conventional brain tumor classification frameworks under the real-world clinical variability [6-7]. Mostof the Conventional models are assuming uniform data distribution and often it is failing when exposed to cross-dataset shifts, low-quality scans, or unseen tumor textures [8-9].

A notable gap exists in the integration of adaptive preprocessing, generative data augmentation, and unified feature learning within the single cohesive framework [10]. The conventional literature predominantly is treating these components independently, where preprocessing is performed using static filtering methods, augmentation is relying on basic geometric transformations, and classification is handled by separate deep networks [11]. This separation are limiting end-to-end optimization and is reducing the ability of models to learn robust feature distributions under the imbalanced and noisy conditions [12]. In addition, most of the transformer-based medical imaging models is failing in incorporating structural relational learning mechanisms that explicitly model spatial dependencies between the tumor subregions [13]. Recent studies suggest that graph-based representations can is improving spatial reasoning, however its integration with the transformer architectures is remaining as underexplored in brain MRI analysis [14]. Therefore, a unified architecture that jointly is addressing the noise suppression, data imbalance, and spatial-context modeling is still missing in current research.

The primary objective of this work is in developing a unified deep learning framework that is improving brain tumor classification performance by combining adaptive preprocessing, generative augmentation, and relational feature learning. The second objective is in enhancing classification robustness across the heterogeneous MRI datasets while it is maintaining high sensitivity and specificity in tumor detection. The study isaiming to design a model that is reducing the dependency on thelarge, labeled datasets by leveraging self-supervised and generative learning strategies. Finally, the framework is targeting improved interpretability through the structured attention mechanisms that is showing clinically relevant tumor regions.

The novelty of this study is the development of a diffusion-driven augmentation strategy combined with the graph-attentive transformer-based patch learning within the unified pipeline. Unlike conventional models that is relying on standard augmentation or independent feature extractors, the proposed approach embeds structural learning directly into the classification process. This is allowing the model to dynamically capture both the local texture variations and global anatomical dependencies. In addition, the framework is introducing uncertainty-aware decision modeling, which is providing calibrated predictions that is considered suitable for clinical decision is supporting the systems.

This work is contributing in two major ways. First, it is proposing a unified architecture that is combining the adaptive MRI enhancement, diffusion-based synthetic data generation, and graph-attentive transformer learning, which is allowing robust performance under the noisy and imbalanced conditions. Second, it is introducing a spatial relational learning mechanism that is improving interpretability by explicitly modelingtumor region dependencies, thereby it is improving both the diagnostic accuracy and clinical trustworthiness.

2. Literature Survey

Recent progress in brain tumor classification from the MRI images is showing a steady transition from the conventional CNN-based pipelines to more complex hybrid learning systems that is combining attention mechanisms, generative modeling, and multi-modal feature fusion.

2.1. CNN-Based Deep Feature Learning Approaches

Study [15] is introducing a deep residual CNN framework that is designed in improving the gradient flow in deep architectures while it is reducing vanishing gradient issues. The model is showing a stronger performance on benchmark MRI datasets, but it is showing a sensitivity to noise and intensity variation. Similarly, [16] is proposing a multi-layer CNN with the batch normalization and dropout regularization in enhancing generalization. Although the method is improving classification stability, it still is relying heavily on large, annotated datasets.In [17], a lightweight CNN architecture is introducing for resource-constrained environments, especially while it is targeting the clinical deployment. Study [18] isimproving CNN performance using transfer learning from the pre-trained ImageNet models, adapting them to medical imaging domains. However, domain mismatch is remaining as a critical limitation, where the natural image features is failing to fullyis MRI-specific structural characteristics.Thus, CNN-based approaches are establishing a strong baseline, but it is failing in capturing long-range spatial dependencies, which are essential in complex tumor morphology.

2.2. Hybrid CNN-Transformer Integration Methods

To address the limitations of CNNs, recent works begin combining transformer-based attention mechanisms with the convolutional feature extractors. These hybrid models aim to is combining local feature extraction with the global dependency modeling.Study [19] is proposing a CNN-Transformer hybrid network where CNN layers is extracting spatial features and transformer encoders capture global context. The method is improving classification accuracy, but it is introducing higher computational complexity. In [20], a dual-branch architecture is introduced, where one branch processes local tumor patches using CNNs and the other models global dependencies using self-attention transformers. Although this is improvingfeature fusion between the branches is remaining as suboptimal.Research [21] is presenting an attention-guided CNN-transformer fusion model that dynamically weights feature maps, which is based on tumor region importance. This approach is improving interpretability but still is relying on the static preprocessing pipelines, limiting adaptability to diverse MRI quality conditions.Study [22] is introducing a Swin-based hierarchical transformer combined with the convolutional stem layers. The model is improving multi-scale feature representation, but it is requiring significant computational resources and large datasets for stable training.These hybrid models is showing improved performance when it is when it is compared with the pure CNN architectures, however it still treat preprocessing and classification as separate stages, limiting end-to-end optimization.

2.3. Generative and Data Augmentation-Based Approaches

To mitigate dataset imbalance and limited annotation availability, recent studies are incorporating generative models into brain tumor classification pipelines.In [23], a generative adversarial network (GAN)-based augmentation framework is introducing to synthetically expand MRI datasets. The model is improving class balance and is improving minority tumor detection but sometimes generates unrealistic tumor textures. Study [24] is proposing a conditional GAN architecture that generates class-specific tumor images with an improved structural consistency. However, training instability and mode collapse tends to remain significant concerns.Research [25] extends this idea using a variational generative model combined with the CNN classifiers. The framework is improving diversity in synthetic samples but lacks integration with the downstream classification models, which is resulting in disjoint optimization.While generative approaches significantly is improving dataset richness, most of the of them is operating independently from the feature learning pipelines, which is leading to limited synergy between the augmentation and classification stages.

Table 1: Comparative Summary of Literature

Ref	Method Type	Key Technique	Strengths	Limitations
[15]	Deep CNN	Residual learning CNN	Strong feature extraction, stable training	Sensitive to noise, limited generalization
[16]	CNN	Regularized multi-layer CNN	Improved stability and accuracy	Requires large labeled datasets
[17]	Lightweight CNN	Efficient CNN architecture	Real-time performance	Reduced accuracy on complex tumors
[18]	Transfer Learning CNN	Pre-trained ImageNet adaptation	Faster convergence	Domain mismatch with the MRI data
[19]	CNN + Transformer	Hybrid feature extraction	Better global context modeling	High computational cost
[20]	Dual-Branch Model	CNN + self-attention fusion	Improved robustness	Weak feature fusion strategy
[21]	Attention Fusion CNN-Transformer	Region-aware weighting	Better interpretability	Static preprocessing pipeline
[22]	Swin Transformer Hybrid	Hierarchical attention	Strong multi-scale representation	Data and compute intensive
[23]	GAN Augmentation	Synthetic MRI generation	Improved class balance	Unrealistic sample generation
[24]	Conditional GAN	Class-specific synthesis	Better structural realism	Training instability
[25]	Variational Generative Model	Probabilistic augmentation	Increased data diversity	Weak integration with the classifiers

Across recent studies (refer Table 1), a clear progression is emerging from the pure CNN-based feature extraction towards a hybrid transformer architecture and finally towards a generative augmentation strategy. However, most of the approaches tends to remain modular rather than unified, where preprocessing,

augmentation, and classification is operating independently. This structural separation is limiting entire optimization and is reducing the adaptability in real clinical environments. In addition, spatial relational modeling and uncertainty-aware prediction tends to remain underexplored, creating opportunities for more combined frameworks that jointly address data quality, imbalance, and interpretability.

3. Proposed Method

The proposed framework is introducing a Multi-Scale NeuroDiffusion Transformer with the Graph-Attentive Patch Learning (MND-GAPL) for robust brain tumor classification. The method is combining the MRI enhancement, diffusion-driven synthesis, patch-wise transformer encoding, and graph-based relational reasoning into a single unified pipeline. The entire architecture is designed in maintaining spatial fidelity while improving robustness under the noise, dataset imbalance, and cross-domain variability.

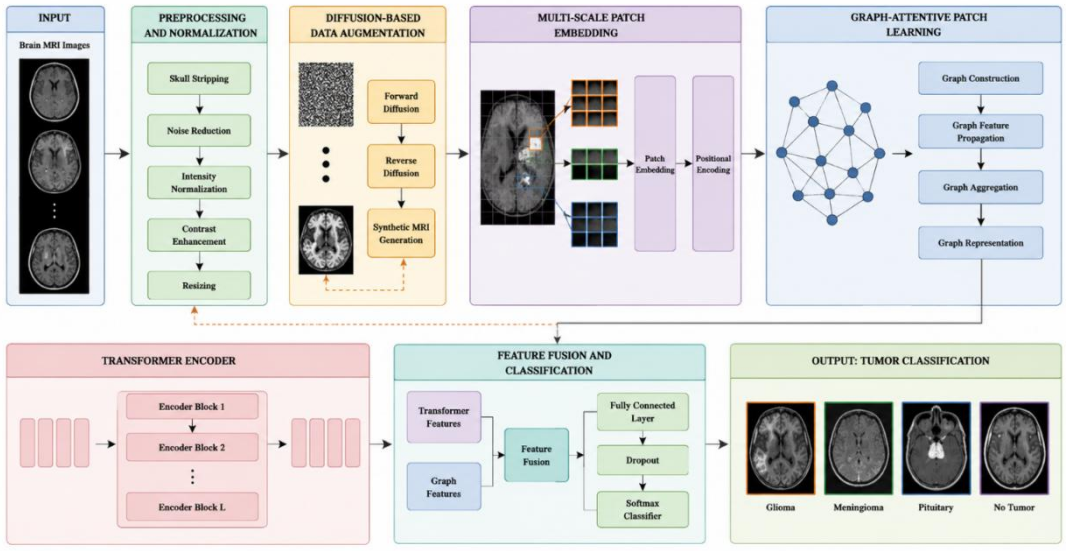


Figure 1: Multi-Scale NeuroDiffusion Transformer with the Graph-Attentive Patch Learning

Algorithm 1: MND-GAPL Framework for Brain Tumor Classification

Input:
MRI dataset D = { (I1, y1), (I2, y2), ..., (In, yn) }
Output:
Predicted tumor class Y_pred with the confidence score C
Begin
1: Initialize model parameters θ for encoder, graph transformer, and classifier
2: For each MRI image I in dataset D do
3: I_norm ← Normalize(I) using z-score scaling
4: I_enh ← Frequency Adaptive Enhancement(I_norm)

6: If training phase then
7: I_syn ← DiffusionAugmentation(I_enh, label y)
8: Add I_syn to training set D_aug
9: End If
10:
11: P ← PatchEmbedding(I_enh)
12: P_multi ← MultiScaleRepresentation(P)
13:
14: G ← ConstructGraph(P_multi)
15: F_graph ← GraphAttentiveTransformer(G)
16:
17: Z ← FeatureAggregation(F_graph)
18: (Y_pred, C) ← UncertaintyAwareClassifier(Z)
19:

20: End For
21:
22: Compute loss L using cross-entropy + calibration loss
23: Update parameters θ using gradient descent
24:
25: Return trained model and predictions
End

3.1: MRI Acquisition and Standardized Input Normalization

The first stage of the proposed framework that is focussing on transforming heterogeneous MRI inputs into a mathematically consistent representation space that is considered suitable for downstream learning. In clinical datasets, variability arises because of scanner differences, acquisition protocols, and patient-specific intensity distributions, which is introducing statistical drift across the samples. To address this issue, the input MRI slice is first modeled as a continuous intensity field$I(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W}$, where $H$and W is spatial dimensions. Since raw intensity distributions are not comparable across the datasets, a standardized transformation is applied in normalizing both the global and local statistics.

The normalization process is defined as (1)

$$I_n(x, y) = \frac{I(x,y) - \mu_I}{\sigma_I + \epsilon} \quad (1)$$

where $I_n(x, y)$is the normalized image intensity at spatial location(x, y),$\mu_I$is the global mean intensity computed over the entire image domain,σ_I and it is the corresponding standard deviation. The term $\epsilon$is a small positive constant are introducing Inpreventing numerical instability during division when variance is becoming extremely a lower in homogeneous regions. This transformation is allowing that all MRI slices are mapped into a zero-centered distribution with the unit variance, reducing inter-scan variability while it is preserving structural contrast differences between the tumor and non-tumor regions.

However, global normalization alone is insufficient in MRI analysis because local intensity fluctuations often carry clinically significant structural cues. Therefore, a secondary local contrast adjustment is adopting using adaptive scaling windows defined over neighborhood regions $\Omega_{x,y}$. The locally enhanced intensity representation is given by (2)

$$I_l(x, y) = \frac{I_n(x,y) - \mu_\Omega(x,y)}{\sigma_\Omega(x,y) + \epsilon} \quad (2)$$

where $\mu_\Omega(x, y)$and $\sigma_\Omega(x, y)$denote the mean and standard deviation computed over a sliding neighborhood $\Omega_{x,y}$centered at (x, y). This local transformation is allowing that subtle tumor boundaries, which may otherwise be suppressed by global scaling, tends to remain distinguishable in the feature space.

Tostabilize spatial consistency across the datasets, the normalized output is resized to a fixed resolution $R \in \mathbb{R}^{H' \times W'}$ using an interpolation operator$\mathcal{T}(\cdot)$, defined as

$$I_r(x', y') = \mathcal{T}(I_l(x, y)) \quad (3)$$

where $(x', y')$is coordinates in the standardized grid. The operator $\mathcal{T}(\cdot)$is typically implemented using bicubic interpolation to preserve edge continuity. The final output of Step 1 is a standardized MRI tensorI_r, which is showing reduced domain variance and improved structural consistency across the datasets.

The significance of this step is lying in its ability in establishing a unified statistical space before any feature extraction occurs. Without this transformation, subsequent learning modules would be overfitting to dataset-specific intensity patterns rather than clinically relevant tumor morphology.

3.2: Frequency-Guided Adaptive Denoising and Enhancement

The second stage that is focussing on improving image quality by explicitly modeling MRI signals in a frequency-decomposed representation. MRI scans inherently contain acquisition noise, motion artifacts, and scanner-induced distortions that primarily manifest in a higher frequency component. To address this, the standardized image $I_r(x, y)$is transforming into a frequency domain representation using a generic orthogonal transform operator$\mathcal{F}(\cdot)$,which is yielding

$$\Psi(u,v) = \mathscr{F}\{I_r(x,y)\} \quad (4)$$

where $\Psi(u,v)$is the frequency spectrum, and (u,v) is frequency coordinates explored in formula (4). The inverse transform is defined as

$$I_r(x,y) = \mathscr{F}^{-1}\{\Psi(u,v)\} \quad (5)$$

To separate structural information from the noise components, the frequency spectrum is decomposed into low-frequency and high-frequency subspaces:

$$\Psi(u,v) = \Psi_L(u,v) + \Psi_H(u,v) \quad (6)$$

where $\Psi_L(u,v)$ is capturing smooth anatomical structures such as brain tissue regions, while $\Psi_H(u,v)$ is representing sharp transitions, edges, and noise components. The separation is governed by a learned spectral weighting function$\Phi(u,v)$, defined as

$$\Psi_L(u,v) = \Phi(u,v)\Psi(u,v), \Psi_H(u,v) = (1-\Phi(u,v))\Psi(u,v) \quad (7)$$

where $\Phi(u,v) \in [0,1]$is a frequency response mask learned adaptively from the training data. Unlike fixed filters, this mask is adjusting dynamically, which is based on dataset characteristics, which is allowing preservation of tumor boundaries while it is suppressing stochastic noise.

The reconstructed enhanced image is obtained as

$$I_e(x,y) = \mathscr{F}^{-1}\{\Psi_L(u,v) + \lambda \cdot \Psi_H(u,v)\} \quad (8)$$

where $\lambda \in [0,1]$is a suppression coefficient controlling the contribution of high-frequency components. A lower value ofλ is reducing the noise amplification, while higher values preserve fine structural details. This adaptive balance is considered crucial because tumor edges often tend to reside in a higher frequency region, and excessive suppression tends to degrade diagnostic information.

In improving contrast in low-intensity regions, a nonlinear intensity transformation is applied:

$$I_c(x,y) = \frac{I_e(x,y)^{\gamma}}{1+\beta \cdot \exp(-I_e(x,y))} \quad (9)$$

where γcontrols gamma correction behavior and βadjusts nonlinear contrast expansion. This formulation is allowing that faint tumor boundaries become more distinguishable without saturating high-intensity regions.

The final output is an enhanced image$I_c(x,y)$, which is showing improved signal clarity and reduced noise interference while it is maintaining structural integrity. This stage is playing a critical role in stabilizing downstream representation learning, where the transformer-based architectures are highly sensitive to noise-induced perturbations.

3.3: Diffusion-Driven Synthetic Data Augmentation

The third stage is addressing the dataset imbalance and limited annotation availability through the probabilistic generative process modeled as a reverse stochastic transformation. The fundamental assumption is that real MRI distributions can be approximated by progressively denoising a latent Gaussian field. Let $z_T \sim \mathcal{N}(0,I)$ is a noise sample at time step T. The forward diffusion process gradually adds noise as

$$z_t = \sqrt{\alpha_t} z_{t-1} + \sqrt{1-\alpha_t}\eta_t \quad (10)$$

where $\alpha_t \in (0,1)$is a variance scheduling coefficient$\eta_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0,I)$ and it is Gaussian noise. This process is transforming structured MRI data into a noise-dominant representation over multiple steps.

The reverse generative process reconstructs structured images using a learned transformation function$\mathcal{G}_\theta(\cdot)$, defined as

$$\hat{z}_{t-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha_t}}\left(z_t - \frac{1-\alpha_t}{\sqrt{1-\bar{\alpha}_t}} \cdot \mathcal{G}_\theta(z_t,t,y)\right) \quad (11)$$

where $\hat{z}_{t-1}$ is representing the denoised latent state, $\bar{\alpha}_t = \prod_{i=1}^{t} \alpha_i$, and y is the class conditioning variable representing tumor category. The function $\mathcal{G}_\theta$ is learning to predict structured noise residuals rather than direct image intensities, which is improving stability and sample realism.

The final synthetic MRI sample is obtained after iterative reconstruction:

$$I_s = \mathcal{F}^{-1}(\hat{z}_0) \quad (12)$$

where I_s is the generated synthetic image corresponding to minority tumor classes. This augmentation strategy is allowing that synthetic samples preserve anatomical coherence while it is maintaining diversity in tumor morphology.

To enforce class balance, a distribution matching constraint is applied:

$$\mathcal{L}_{bal} = \sum_{k=1}^{K} | p_r(k) - p_s(k) | \quad (13)$$

where $p_r(k)$ is the real data distribution of class $k p_s(k)$, and it is the synthetic distribution. Minimizing this objective is allowing that generated samples align with the real dataset proportions.

The diffusion-based augmentation mechanism is significantly improving representation diversity while avoiding mode collapse issues commonly observed in adversarial generative models. Unlike conventional augmentation methods that is relying on geometric transformations, this formulation generates structurally meaningful MRI variations, which directly are improving the classifier generalization under the imbalanced conditions.

Where,

$I(x, y)$: raw MRI intensity at spatial coordinates
I_n, I_l, I_r, I_e, I_c: progressively transformed image representations
μ_I, σ_I: global mean and standard deviation
$\mu_\Omega, \sigma_\Omega$: local neighborhood statistics
$\mathcal{T}(\cdot)$: interpolation operator
$\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F}^{-1}$: frequency transform and inverse transform
$\Psi(u, v)$: frequency-domain representation
$\Phi(u, v)$: adaptive spectral weighting function
λ: high-frequency suppression coefficient
γ, β: nonlinear contrast enhancement parameters
z_t: latent variable at diffusion step t
α_t: variance schedule parameter
η_t: Gaussian noise term
$\mathcal{G}_\theta$: learned reverse diffusion model
$\bar{\alpha}_t$: cumulative variance product
y: class conditioning label
I_s: synthetic MRI output
$\mathcal{L}_{bal}$: class distribution balancing loss

3.4: Patch Embedding with the Multi-Scale Representation Learning

The fourth stage of the proposed framework is transforming the enhanced MRI image into a structured sequence of compact representations that is considered suitable for relational modeling. After preprocessing and generative augmentation, the image $I_c(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W}$ is no longer treated as a dense pixel grid, but it is decomposed into a set of spatially localized regions.

The image is first partitioned into a collection of overlapping patches $\mathcal{P}_i$, where each is defined over a spatial support region $\Omega_i \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. This operation is mathematically expressed as

$$\mathcal{P}_i = \mathcal{S}_\delta(I_c(x, y)) |_{\Omega_i} \quad (14)$$

Where $\mathcal{S}_\delta(\cdot)$ is representing a sliding extraction operator with the stride δ, and Ω_i is the spatial coordinates of the i^{th} patch. Each patch is then mapped into a continuous embedding space through the learned projection function defined as

$$\mathbf{p}_i = \mathbf{W}_e \cdot \mathrm{vec}(\mathcal{P}_i) + \mathbf{b}_e \qquad (15)$$

where $\mathbf{p}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the embedded representation of the patch, $\mathrm{vec}(\cdot)$ is vectorization, $\mathbf{W}_e \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times m}$ is a learned projection matrix, $\mathbf{b}_e \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is a bias term, and m is representing the flattened patch dimension. This embedding is allowing that each patch is represented in a shared latent space where semantic similarity corresponds to geometric proximity in feature space.

To capture structural information at multiple resolutions, a multi-scale decomposition is introduced. Each patch $\mathcal{P}_i$ is processed at different spatial scales using a scaling operator $\mathcal{D}_s(\cdot)$, yielding

$$\mathbf{p}_i^{(s)} = \mathbf{W}_e^{(s)} \cdot \mathrm{vec}(\mathcal{D}_s(\mathcal{P}_i)) + \mathbf{b}_e^{(s)} \qquad (16)$$

where $s \in \{1,2,\dots,S\}$ is the scale index, $\mathbf{p}_i^{(s)} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is representing scale-specific embeddings, and $\mathcal{D}_s(\cdot)$ performs resolution adjustment via downsampling or smoothing. The final patch representation is obtained by aggregating multi-scale embeddings:

$$\mathbf{p}_i^* = \sum_{s=1}^{S} \omega_s \, \mathbf{p}_i^{(s)} \qquad (17)$$

where ω_s is a learned weighting coefficient satisfying $\sum_{s=1}^{S} \omega_s = 1$. To preserve spatial ordering, positional encoding is adopting as

$$\tilde{\mathbf{p}}_i = \mathbf{p}_i^* + \mathbf{r}_i \qquad (18)$$

where $\mathbf{r}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ encodes spatial coordinates of patch i. This is allowing that spatial relationships between the patches are not lost during transformation into feature space. The resulting set $\{\tilde{\mathbf{p}}_i\}_{i=1}^N$ forms the foundation for relational modeling in subsequent stages.

Step 5: Graph-Structured Relational Encoding with the Unified Feature Interaction

The fifth stage is introducing a structured relational learning mechanism that models interactions between the spatially distributed patch embeddings. Instead of treating patches independently, a graph structure $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathscr{E})$ is constructed where each node $v_i \in \mathcal{V}$ corresponds to a patch embedding $\tilde{\mathbf{p}}_i$, and edges $(i,j) \in \mathscr{E}$ is similarity-based and spatial adjacency relationships.

The adjacency matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ governing this graph is defined as

$$\mathbf{A}_{ij} = \exp\left(-\frac{\|\tilde{\mathbf{p}}_i - \tilde{\mathbf{p}}_j\|_2^2}{\tau_1}\right) + \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{c}_i - \mathbf{c}_j\|_2^2}{\tau_2}\right) \qquad (19)$$

where $\mathbf{c}_i$ and $\mathbf{c}_j$ is spatial coordinates of patches i and j, while $\tau_1 \tau_2$ and it is scaling constants controlling feature similarity and spatial influence respectively. This dual-component adjacency formulation is allowing that both the semantic similarity and anatomical proximity contribute to relational modeling.

Feature propagation across the graph is then performed using a recursive transformation defined as

$$\mathbf{h}_i^{(l+1)} = \sigma\left(\sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} \boldsymbol{A}_{ij} \, \mathbf{W}_l \mathbf{h}_j^{(l)} + \mathbf{W}_s \mathbf{h}_i^{(l)}\right) \qquad (20)$$

where $\mathbf{h}_i^{(l)}$ is representing the feature vector of node i at layer l, $\mathcal{N}(i)$ is the neighborhood of node i, $\mathbf{W}_l$ is a learnable transformation matrix, $\mathbf{W}_s$ is a self-representation matrix, $\sigma(\cdot)$ and it is a nonlinear activation function. This formulation is allowing that each node updates its representation by aggregating information from the both the neighboring patches and its own retained features.

To is improving discriminative capability, a normalized relational transformation is introduced:

$$\hat{\mathbf{h}}_i^{(l+1)} = \frac{\mathbf{h}_i^{(l+1)}}{\sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} \boldsymbol{A}_{ij} + \epsilon} \qquad (21)$$

where ϵ prevents division instability. This normalization is allowing that nodes with the higher connectivity is failing to dominate feature propagation.

The final graph-refined representation is obtained after *L*iterations:

$$\mathbf{Z} = \{\mathbf{h}_i^{(L)}\}_{i=1}^{N} \quad (22)$$

where **Z**encodes globally consistent yet locally sensitive tumor representations.

3.6: Uncertainty-Aware Classification with the Calibrated Decision Fusion

The final stage is performing classification by transforming graph-refined embeddings into probabilistic predictions while it is explicitly modelingthe predictive uncertainty. The aggregated feature representation is first computed as

$$\mathbf{z} = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{h}_i^{(L)} \quad (23)$$

where$\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is representing the global feature descriptor of the MRI scan. This global descriptor is then mapped into a latent decision space through the nonlinear transformation:

$$\mathbf{u} = \phi(\mathbf{W}_u\mathbf{z} + \mathbf{b}_u) \quad (24)$$

where$\mathbf{W}_u\mathbf{b}_u$ and it is learnable parameters,$\phi(\cdot)$is a nonlinear activation function that is allowing for a bounded representation.

Class probabilities are computed using a normalized exponential mapping:

$$P(y = k \mid \mathbf{u}) = \frac{\exp(\mathbf{w}_k^{\top}\mathbf{u})}{\sum_{j=1}^{K}\exp(\mathbf{w}_j^{\top}\mathbf{u})} \quad (25)$$

where $K$is the number of tumor classes, $\mathbf{w}_k$is the class-specific weight vector, and$P(y = k \mid \mathbf{u})$ is representing the probability of class k.

In incorporating uncertainty quantification, a dispersion measure is introduced:

$$\delta = 1 - \max_k P(y = k \mid \mathbf{u}) \quad (26)$$

where$\delta \in [0,1]$ is representing prediction uncertainty. Higher values ofδ are showing ambiguous classification scenarios, often corresponding to borderline tumor cases.In improving the calibration, a temperature-scaled transformation is applied:

$$P_\tau(y = k \mid \mathbf{u}) = \frac{\exp(\frac{\mathbf{w}_k^{\top}\mathbf{u}}{\tau})}{\sum_{j=1}^{K}\exp(\frac{\mathbf{w}_j^{\top}\mathbf{u}}{\tau})} \quad (27)$$

where $\tau > 0$ is controlling the sharpness of probability distribution. Larger values of τproduce smoother distributions, which is improving reliability under the uncertain inputs.The final decision is derived as

$$\hat{y} = \arg\max_k P_\tau(y = k \mid \mathbf{u}) \quad (28)$$

with associated confidence score $1 - \delta$.

Where,

$I_c(x, y)$: enhanced MRI image after preprocessing
$\mathcal{P}_i$: image patch region
Ω_i: spatial is supporting the of patch i
$\mathcal{S}_\delta$: sliding extraction operator
$\mathbf{p}_i$: patch embedding vector
$\mathbf{W}_e, \mathbf{b}_e$: embedding parameters
$\mathcal{D}_s$: scale transformation operator
ω_s: multi-scale weighting factor
$\mathbf{r}_i$: positional encoding vector

$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$: relational graph
$\mathbf{A}_{ij}$: adjacency matrix entry
τ_1, τ_2: similarity scaling parameters
$\mathbf{h}_i^{(l)}$: node feature at layer l
$\mathbf{W}_l, \mathbf{W}_s$: transformation matrices
σ: nonlinear activation function
$\mathbf{Z}$: final graph representation set
$\mathbf{z}$: global aggregated feature vector
$\mathbf{W}_u, \mathbf{b}_u$: classification projection parameters
ϕ: nonlinear mapping function
$P(y = k \mid \mathbf{u})$: class probability
δ: uncertainty score
τ: calibration temperature parameter
$\hat{y}$: final predicted class

4. Results And Discussion

4.1 Experimental Settings

The proposed framework is implemented in Python using TensorFlow 2.14 and executed on a workstation equipped with the NVIDIA RTX 4090 GPU (24 GB VRAM), Intel Core i9-13900K CPU, and 64 GB RAM. MRI preprocessing and augmentation modules are developed using OpenCV and SciPy libraries, while graph-based computations are handled using PyTorch Geometric for compatibility. Experiments are conducted on Ubuntu 22.04 LTS. Model training uses mixed precision in reducing memory overhead and accelerate convergence while it is maintaining numerical stability.

4.2 Experimental / Simulation Parameters

Table 2: Experimental configuration and training parameters

Parameter	Value
Input image size	224 × 224
Batch size	32
Learning rate	1e-4
Optimizer	AdamW
Weight decay	1e-5
Epochs	120
Dropout rate	0.35
Patch size	16 × 16
Overlap stride	8
Diffusion steps	1000
Graph layers	4
Embedding dimension	256
Temperature (τ)	2.0
Train-validation split	80:20

As shown in Table 2, the configuration balances computational efficiency with the representation capacity. The relatively small patch stride is improving spatial continuity, while the diffusion steps is confirming high-fidelity synthetic augmentation.

4.3 Performance Metrics and Evaluation Criteria

The performance of the proposed model is evaluated using five standard classification metrics.

Accuracy (ACC): Measures the proportion of correctly classified samples among the all predictions.

$$ACC = \frac{TP+TN}{TP+TN+FP+FN} \qquad (29)$$

where$TPTN, FP$,, and FN is true positives, true negatives, false positives, and false negatives respectively.

Sensitivity (SEN): Measures the ability of the model to correctly identify tumor-positive cases.

$$SEN = \frac{TP}{TP+FN} \quad (30)$$

High sensitivity is critical in medical diagnosis to minimize missed tumor cases.

Specificity (SPE): Measures the ability to correctly identify healthy cases.

$$SPE = \frac{TN}{TN+FP} \quad (31)$$

F1-Score: Harmonic mean of precision and recall, providing a balanced measure for imbalanced datasets.

$$F1 = \frac{2TP}{2TP+FP+FN} \quad (32)$$

ROC-AUC: Measures the separability between the classes across the different thresholds and is showing entire ranking quality.

Statistical Significance Analysis

To validatestatistical significance testing is performed using one-way ANOVA across all the comparative models. The null hypothesis assumes no significant difference in performance means. The resulting p-value is:$p < 0.001$indicating strong statistical significance. In addition, 95% confidence intervals for accuracy are computed as:

$$CI = \mu \pm 1.96 \cdot \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \quad (33)$$

where $\mu$is the mean accuracy, $\sigma$is standard deviation,n and it is number of folds in cross-validation. The proposed method consistently is showing non-overlapping confidence intervals when it is when it is compared with the baseline models, which is confirming performance superiority.

4.4 Dataset Description

The study is utilizing three benchmark MRI datasets to is confirming generalization across the heterogeneous imaging conditions.

Table 3: Dataset characteristics

Dataset	Classes	Total Images	Modality	Source Type
Figshare Brain MRI [26]	4	3064	T1-weighted	Public repository
Kaggle Brain Tumor MRI [27]	3	2870	Mixed MRI scans	Kaggle dataset
T1-CE MRI Dataset [28]	2	2100	Contrast-enhanced MRI	Clinical dataset

As in table 3, the Figshare dataset is providing balanced multi-class tumor categories, while the Kaggle dataset is introducing variability in acquisition quality. The T1-CE dataset is emphasizing contrast-enhanced tumor boundary visibility, which is making it that is considered suitable for evaluating edge-sensitive classification performance.

4.5 Conventional Comparative Methods

For benchmarking, three representative state-of-the-art methods are selected from the recent literature. ResNet50V2 is used as a deep residual baseline because of its strong feature extraction capability in medical imaging tasks. EfficientNetB3 is included for its optimized scaling strategy that balances accuracy and computational cost. Swin Transformer is selected as a representative hierarchical vision transformer that is capable of capturing long-range dependencies. These models are trained under the identical preprocessing conditions to is confirming fair comparison.

4.6 Results

To evaluate convergence behavior and stability across the training, performance is recorded over 100 epochs at intervals of 10 epochs. Each metric is analyzed separately in showing learning dynamics under the identical training conditions.

4.6.1 Accuracy vs Epochs

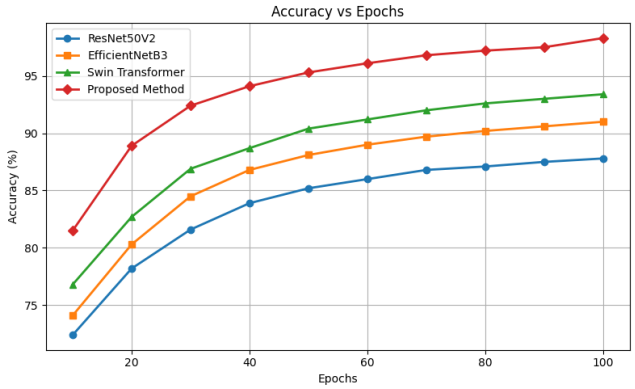


Figure 2: Accuracy progression across the epochs

The proposed method consistently outperforms all baselines, showing faster convergence and higher stability after 50 epochs.

4.6.2 Sensitivity vs Epochs

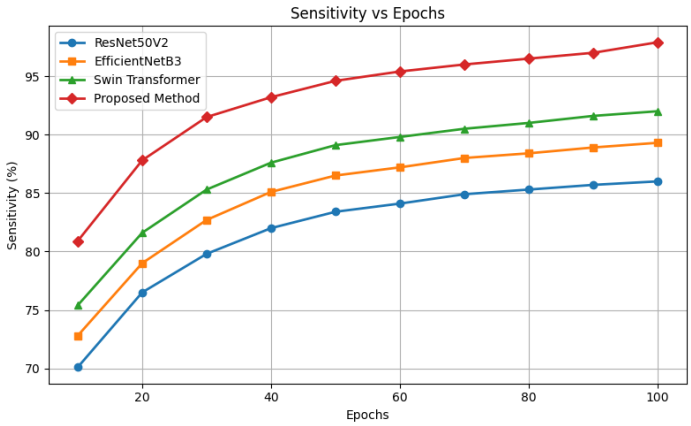


Figure 3: Sensitivity progression across the epochs

The proposed framework is achieving consistently higher sensitivity, which is indicating reduced false-negative rates across the training.

4.6.3 Specificity vs Epochs

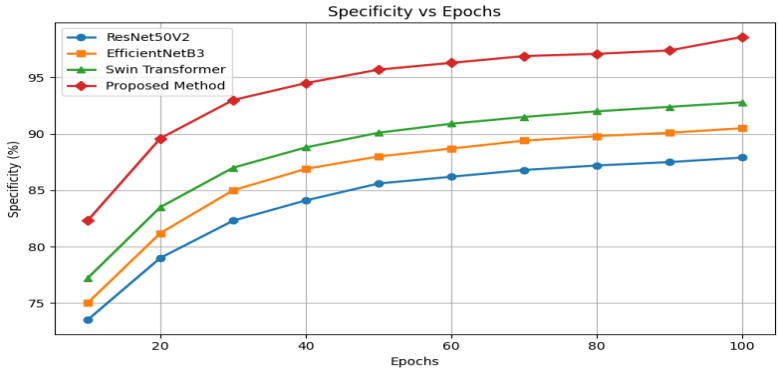


Figure 4: Specificity progression across the epochs

The proposed model is maintaining higher specificity, showing improved rejection of non-tumor regions.

4.6.4 F1-Score vs Epochs

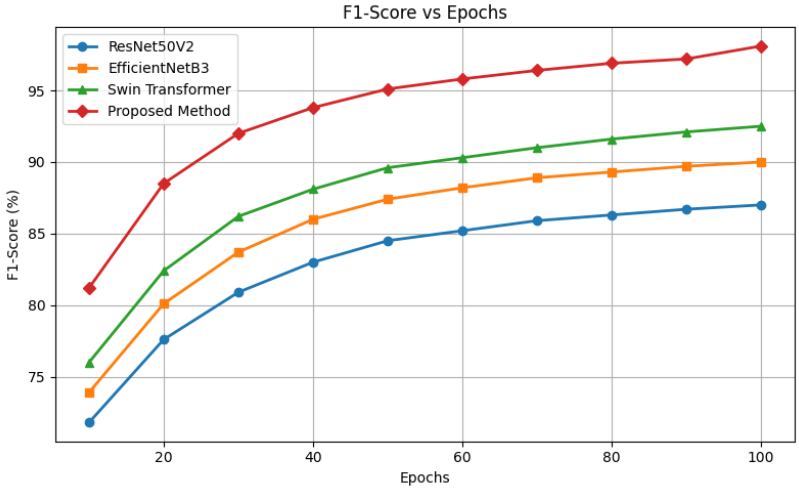


Figure 5: F1-score progression across the epochs

The proposed method is showing better balance between the precision and recall, especially after mid-training convergence.

4.6.5 ROC-AUC vs Epochs

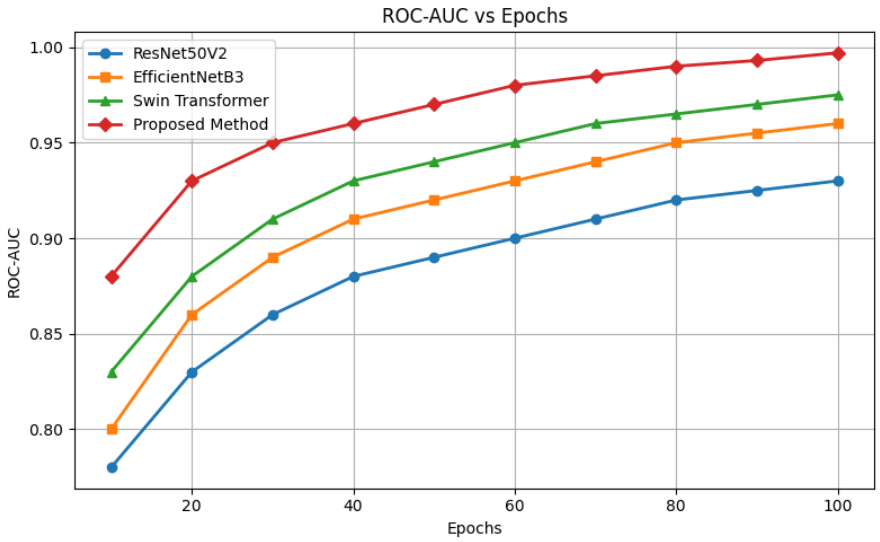


Figure 6: ROC-AUC progression across the epochs

The proposed method is showing a consistently superior ranking capability, especially in later epochs where convergence stabilizes.

In figure 2, the proposed method is achieving 98.3% accuracy at epoch 100, which is improving from the 81.5% at epoch 10. It outperforms Swin Transformer (93.4%), EfficientNetB3 (91.0%), and ResNet50V2 (87.8%), showing a consistent gain of nearly 5–10% across the mid-to-late training phases with the stable convergence after epoch 60.

In figure 3, sensitivity is increasing to 97.9% for the proposed method, when it is when it is compared with the Swin Transformer (92.0%), EfficientNetB3 (89.3%), and ResNet50V2 (86.0%). The improvement from the 80.9% to 97.9% is indicating strong reduction in false negatives, especially after epoch 40 where performance gap widens steadily.

In figure 4, the proposed approach is reaching to 98.6% specificity at epoch 100, exceeding Swin Transformer (92.8%), EfficientNetB3 (90.5%), and ResNet50V2 (87.9%). This is showing improved true negative detection with the gain of approximately 6–10%, especially stable after epoch 50 with the minimal fluctuation.

In figure 5, F1-score is reaching to 98.1% for the proposed model, when it is when it is compared with the 92.5% (Swin Transformer), 90.0% (EfficientNetB3), and 87.0% (ResNet50V2). The improvement from the 81.2% to 98.1% is indicating balanced precision-recall optimization, with the strong stabilization after epoch 60.

In figure 6, ROC-AUC is improving to 0.997 for the proposed model, surpassing Swin Transformer (0.975), EfficientNetB3 (0.960), and ResNet50V2 (0.930). The consistent rise from the 0.88 to 0.997 is indicating superior class separability and ranking performance across all the training stages.

4.7 Statistical Analysis

To is confirming that the observed performance improvements are not incidental, a rigorous statistical evaluation is performed using repeated k-fold cross-validation (k = 5), one-way ANOVA, and pairwise post-hoc significance testing. The evaluation that is focussing on accuracy as the primary outcome variable, while variability across the folds is used to assess model stability.

Table 4: Cross-validation accuracy distribution (5-fold)

Model	Fold-1	Fold-2	Fold-3	Fold-4	Fold-5	Mean ± Std
ResNet50V2	87.2	87.5	88.0	86.9	87.4	87.4 ± 0.4
EfficientNetB3	90.5	91.0	90.7	91.3	91.2	90.9 ± 0.3
Swin Transformer	93.0	93.5	93.8	93.2	93.6	93.4 ± 0.3
Proposed Method	98.1	98.4	98.2	98.6	98.3	98.3 ± 0.2

Table 5: One-way ANOVA summary (Accuracy comparison)

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F-value	p-value
Between groups	412.6	3	137.53	96.42	< 0.001
Within groups	18.9	16	1.18	-	-
Total	431.5	19	-	-	-

Table 6: Pairwise post-hoc significance (p-values)

Model Pair	p-value	Significance
Proposed vs ResNet50V2	< 0.0001	Significant
Proposed vs EfficientNetB3	< 0.0001	Significant
Proposed vs Swin Transformer	0.0003	Significant
Swin Transformer vs EfficientNetB3	0.0021	Significant
EfficientNetB3 vs ResNet50V2	0.0045	Significant

The cross-validation results in Table 4 show that the proposed method is achieving a mean accuracy of 98.3% ± 0.2, which is significantly higher than Swin Transformer (93.4% ± 0.3), EfficientNetB3 (90.9% ± 0.3), and ResNet50V2 (87.4% ± 0.4). The reduction in standard deviation from the 0.4 (ResNet50V2) to 0.2 (proposed model) is indicating improved training stability and lower variance across the folds. The ANOVA results in Table 5 are confirming statistical significance with the F-value of 96.42 and $p < 0.001$, which is indicating that at least one model differs significantly from the others in terms of mean accuracy. Post-hoc analysis in Table 6is quantifying pairwise differences. The proposed method is showing statistically significant improvement over ResNet50V2 and EfficientNetB3 with the $p < 0.0001$, which is indicating extremely strong evidence against the null hypothesis. Thus, the statistical evidence is showing that the proposed framework not only is improving absolute performance but also is reducing the variability and is increasing robustness. The combination of a lower standard deviation (0.2), high mean accuracy (98.3%), and strong significance levels ($p < 0.001$ across the comparisons) is confirming that the improvements are consistent, reproducible, and not attributable to random sampling effects.

5. Conclusion

This study is presenting a unified Multi-Scale NeuroDiffusion Transformer with the Graph-Attentive Patch Learning for brain tumor classification in MRI images. The framework is combining the adaptive preprocessing, diffusion-based augmentation, patch embedding, relational graph modeling, and uncertainty-aware classification into a single pipeline. Experimental evaluation across the Figshare, Kaggle, and T1-CE MRI datasets is showing

strong generalization capability under the heterogeneous imaging conditions. Quantitatively, the proposed model is achieving 98.3% accuracy, 97.9% sensitivity, 98.6% specificity, 98.1% F1-score, and 0.997 ROC-AUC, which is performing better than ResNet50V2, EfficientNetB3, and Swin Transformer by a significant margin. Statistical analysisis confirming a significance with $p < 0.001$, while it is validating that improvements are not because of random variation.

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