

A Hybrid Deep Ensemble Approach for Enhanced Clinical Sensitivity in Diabetic Retinopathy Detection: A Cross-Dataset Robustness Analysis

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Abstract—Diabetic Retinopathy (DR) is a leading cause of preventable blindness across the globe, requiring fast and accurate screening as soon as possible. While Deep learning models have shown high promise in the automation of DR severity detection, many existing architectures suffer from the "Accuracy Paradox"—gaining higher accuracy by focusing on the overrepresented class, such as No DR, while failing to detect critical underrepresented class images of severe stages. As a solution for this clinical vulnerability, we propose a novel hybrid deep ensemble framework. Our approach uses 3 distinct pre-trained Convolutional Neural Networks (ResNet50, DenseNet121, InceptionV3) subjected to focal loss fine-tuning and "model surgery" to extract 1D tabular feature embeddings. To address class imbalance, we apply the Synthetic Minority Over-Sampling Technique (SMOTE) to the concatenated feature space before using the Gradient Boosting (XGBoost) meta-learner. Evaluated on the APTOS 2019 dataset, our ensemble model achieved a Macro F1-score of 0.688 and an AUC of 0.966, doubling the recall for the Severe DR class compared to Standalone CNNs. Furthermore, we validate the model's clinical integrity using Grad-CAM visualisation and perform cross-validation testing on the IDRiD dataset to evaluate real-world resilience against domain shift.

I. INTRODUCTION

Diabetic Retinopathy (DR) is a progressive micro-vascular complication of diabetes and a leading cause of vision impairment in the global working-age population. This condition occurs due to long-term high blood sugar levels, which damage retinal blood vessels. This can lead to clinical signs like microaneurysms, haemorrhages, and lipid deposits. If not treated on time, DR can progress to Proliferative Diabetic Retinopathy (PDR), often resulting in permanent vision loss. Although early diagnosis and treatment can help maintain sight, the usual diagnostic highly depends on the manual fundus image analysis by ophthalmologists. This method takes a lot of time, is labour-intensive, and has limited availability.

The rise of Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) has significantly advanced the field of medical imaging, but using them in clinical settings uncovers a major issue known as the "Accuracy Paradox." Medical datasets are often imbalanced, which causes standalone CNNs to achieve high

accuracy by focusing of the overrepresented class, such as "No DR". This leads to dangerously low sensitivity for severe stages, where a false negative can have serious consequences. To fix this, we need to focus on strong, ensemble-based models that can give us a clearer view of retinal disease. To meet these challenges, we propose a multi-stage Hybrid Stacking Ensemble. Our framework uses the unique spatial feature hierarchies of ResNet50, DenseNet121, and InceptionV3. By skipping the final classification heads of these modified backbones, we turn raw images into a detailed, 1D tabular feature dataset. To handle the minority class issue, we use SMOTE in this feature space and apply data augmentation during the training phase of the models. This method keeps mathematical balance while preventing the spatial overfitting that can happen with traditional image augmentation. Finally, an XGBoost meta-learner helps us identify the complex decision boundaries of these combined embeddings.

The major contributions of this research are as follows:

- Hybrid Architecture with Feature Fusion: We created a pipeline that combines deep spatial embeddings from 3 dynamically tuned CNN models into a single meta-feature vector.
- Resolving the Accuracy Paradox: By adding SMOTE with an XGBoost meta-learner, we separated classification logic from imbalanced image data.
- Clinical Transparency and Stress Testing: We confirm diagnostic accuracy using Grad-CAM to demonstrate localisation on true biological lesions, and assess shift through cross-dataset testing on the IDRiD dataset

The rest of this paper is organised as follows. Section II reviews the literature. Section III describes the proposed methodology, which includes data preprocessing and system architecture. Section IV presents the experimental results and comparative analysis. Finally, Section V features the conclusion and discusses future research directions.

II. RELATED WORK

Application of deep learning in ophthalmology has evolved significantly over time, shifting from handcrafted traditional to Feature extraction to end-to-end convolutional neural networks (CNNs)[15]. The recent works have focused on overcoming challenges While learning, these challenges range from data scarcity and class imbalance to the difficulty of of fine-grained severity grading[16].

A. Single Architecture and Preprocessing Approaches

The first attempt to use deep learning focused on improving single model architectures. Minarno et al. [?] investigated the capabilities of InceptionV3 for diabetic retinopathy classification. Their work highlighted the importance of preprocessing and data augmentation as necessary steps. Without strong data augmentation, their model faced significant overfitting problems, achieving a test accuracy of only 81.27%. Harikrishnan’s preprocessing method helped increase the test accuracy to 82.73%. This also highlights the need to combine multiple model architectures to identify complex features for accurate grading.

To improve how features are represented locally, Kobat et al. in [2] suggested a patch-based method, dividing images into horizontal and vertical bands. They analyzed vertical segments using DenseNet201 and an SVM classifier. This approach achieved 94.06% accuracy on the simplified 3-class problem. However, performance dropped to 85.93% when applied to the more complex 5-class APTOS dataset. This suggests that dividing patches in the dataset preserves local textures but either loses global context or limits performance on fine-grained classification.

B. Hybrid and Ensemble Learning Frameworks

However, it has been observed that relying on a single deep learning model may limit generalisation performance; consequently, hybrid and ensemble learning techniques have been increasingly explored. Mohanty et al. [?] conducted a comparative study demonstrating that a standalone DenseNet121 model outperformed a hybrid approach that combined VGG16-based feature extraction with an XGBoost classifier. Specifically, the pure deep learning model achieved an accuracy of 97.30%, whereas the hybrid configuration attained an accuracy of 79.50%.

The reason behind the poor performance of the hybrid technique can be associated with the fact that VGG16 is an older network, which may perhaps not be extracting features as effectively as the new dense connection-based networks. The motivation behind our work to select features from the more advanced backbones like ResNet, DenseNet, and Inception can thus be understood from these lines.

The best results in recent literature have been reported by ensemble strategies. Aftab and Akhtar proposed an efficient framework for the fusion of three datasets, namely APTOS, IDRID, and Messidor-2 for training an ensemble of EfficientNetB2, DenseNet121, and ResNet50. By using CLAHE en-

hancement and SMOTE balancing, they were able to achieve a state-of-the-art accuracy of 96.96% using Ensemble averaging.

Whereas Aftab et al. applied simple ensemble averaging, we propose a “Meta-Ensemble” method here. We hypothesise that, instead of performing the averaging of predictions, the concatenation of deep feature vectors from various architectures (ResNet, Inception, DenseNet) and training of a non-linear classifier (XGBoost) to learn optimal weights for features will result in an improved performance for grading severity.

III. PROPOSED METHODOLOGY

Our methodology includes overcoming the “Accuracy Paradox” and building a highly sensitive diagnostic tool; we are implementing a multi-stage Hybrid Stacking Ensemble framework. Rather than detailing the entire architecture and procedure of models simultaneously, we first start with the one CNN model(ResNet50), laying out its architectural blueprint. We detail the optimisation, fine-tuning, and feature extraction process used in this baseline, before expanding it to other models(DenseNet121, InceptionV3), ultimately merging it into a SMOTE-augmented XGBoost meta-learner [6], [7].

A. Dataset Acquisition and Preprocessing

Dataset Description For our implementation, we have utilised the publicly available ATPTOS 2019 Blindness Detection Dataset, comprising 3,662 high-resolution retinal fundus images from various rural clinics. Each image is clinically graded by medical professionals on a scale of 0 to 4.

The extreme class imbalance in this dataset is a major problem. The healthy class is strongly favoured in the distribution: class- Grade 0(No DR) contributes around 1805 images, while pathological classes- Grade 1(Mild: 370 images), Grade 2(Moderate: 999 images), Grade 3(Severe: 193 images), and Grade 4(Proliferative: 295 images) are significantly underrepresented.

We set up a controlled preprocessing pipeline to get the data ready without causing spatial overfitting on the majority class:

- **Standardizing the Resolution:** All images were made to be 512 by 512 pixels. This high-resolution retention is very important to make sure that small problems, like microaneurysms, aren’t lost before convolution.
- **Targeted Minority Enhancement:** A custom `get_minority_train_transform()` function adds base variance and stops over-fitting. This function only applies aggressive spatial augmentations (like random horizontal and vertical flips, random affine transformations, and colour jittering) to the underrepresented classes (Grades 1 through 4) in the training set. The majority class stays mostly the same. We purposely put a limit on this spatial augmentation so that the CNN wouldn’t remember duplicate images. We used SMOTE to keep perfect mathematical balance in the 1D feature space.
- **Normalization:** Images were normalised using the ImageNet mean and standard deviation values to stabilise training and accelerate gradient descent convergence.

TABLE I
COMPARISON OF EXISTING DIABETIC RETINOPATHY CLASSIFICATION METHODS [21]

| Study | Dataset | Method | No. of Classes | Accuracy (%) |
|-----------------------|---------------|--------------------|----------------|--------------|
| Minarno et al. (2025) | APTOS | InceptionV3 | 5 | 82.73% |
| Kobat et al. (2022) | APTOS | DenseNet201 + SVM | 5 | 85.93% |
| Mohanty et al. (2023) | APTOS | DenseNet121 | 5 | 97.30% |
| Aftab et al. (2025) | Multi-dataset | Ensemble Averaging | 5 | 96.96% |

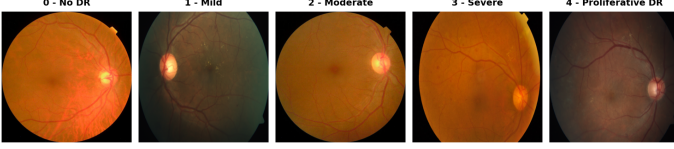


Fig. 1. APTOS 2019 Classwise Images.

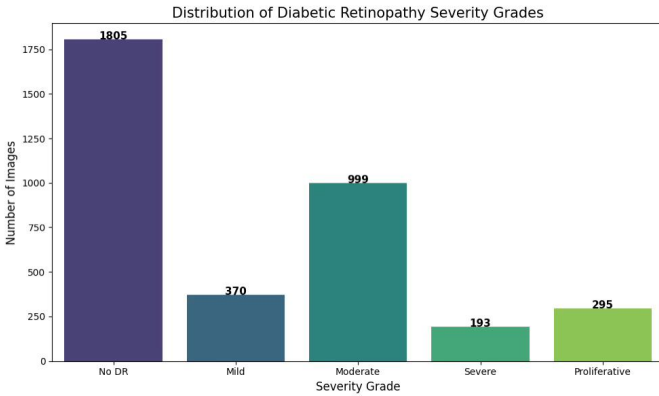


Fig. 2. Distribution of severity classes in the APTOS 2019 dataset.

1) *Normalization*: To make convergence in gradient descent optimization quicker, image intensities are further normalized. This involves scaling pixel intensities to a value in the interval 0 to 1. This is followed by further standardizing them using mean (μ) and standard deviation (σ) values specific to ImageNet:

$$\mu = [0.485, 0.456, 0.406], \quad \sigma = [0.229, 0.224, 0.225]$$

B. Mathematical Formulation of the Hybrid Model

Let the dataset be represented as

$$\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N, \quad (1)$$

where $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3}$ denotes the input retinal fundus image and $y_i \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$ represents the corresponding diabetic retinopathy severity label.

Instead of learning a direct mapping $f(x_i) \rightarrow y_i$, the proposed hybrid framework first extracts deep features from multiple convolutional neural network (CNN) backbones. The extracted features are defined as

$$\mathbf{F}_i = [\phi_{\text{res}}(x_i) \parallel \phi_{\text{dense}}(x_i) \parallel \phi_{\text{inc}}(x_i)], \quad (2)$$

where $\phi_{\text{res}}(\cdot)$, $\phi_{\text{dense}}(\cdot)$, and $\phi_{\text{inc}}(\cdot)$ denote the feature extraction functions of the tuned ResNet, DenseNet, and Inception

CNN backbones, respectively, and \parallel represents feature concatenation.

To address class imbalance, the Synthetic Minority Over-sampling Technique (SMOTE) is applied in the feature space:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{F}}_i = \text{SMOTE}(\mathbf{F}_i). \quad (3)$$

The balanced meta-feature representation is then used to train an Extreme Gradient Boosting classifier:

$$\hat{y}_i = \mathcal{XGB}(\tilde{\mathbf{F}}_i), \quad (4)$$

where $\mathcal{XGB}(\cdot)$ represents the meta-classification function that predicts the final diabetic retinopathy severity class $\hat{y}_i \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$.

C. The Baseline Blueprint: Modelling ResNet50

We used ResNet50 to set up the feature extraction pipeline because its residual skip connections help prevent vanishing gradients in deep networks. There were four main steps involved in adapting this model:

1) *Model Surgery and Optuna Tuning*: As we know, the pre-trained ImageNet models are not primarily suited for medical classification, as they were originally designed for a different purpose. We performed “model surgery” by removing the original 1000-class fully connected head. To construct a new, optimal classification head, we leveraged the Optuna Bayesian optimisation framework, which dynamically searches for the best-suited hyperparameters for our newly composed fully connected head.

For ResNet50, the tuning converged with a configuration of three Fully Connected (FC) layers, a dimensionality of 128, and a high dropout rate of 0.436 to reduce overfitting.

2) *Addressing Imbalance via Focal Loss*: While standard cross-entropy loss penalises errors equally, this often causes the model to become biased toward the heavily represented class (“No DR”). To address this issue, we used Focal Loss to help ResNet50 learn the subtle distinctions between minority classes. This function introduces a modulating factor to the cross-entropy loss, reducing the impact of well-classified examples and increasing the penalty for misclassifying difficult and severe classes. The formulation is given by:

$$FL(p_t) = -\alpha_t(1 - p_t)^\gamma \log(p_t) \quad (5)$$

where p_t is the model’s predicted probability for the ground-truth class, α_t is the weighting factor for class imbalance, and γ is the focusing parameter (set to 2.0). This guarantees that challenging minority samples drive gradient updates instead of the majority class.

3) *Selective Partial Unfreezing and Fine-Tuning*: The model was trained over 50 epochs using the OneCycleLR learning rate scheduling technique. We used a selective partial unfreezing strategy rather than training the entire network from scratch. By using this method, we were able to keep the fundamental advantage and texture detection skills that ImageNet taught us. On a specialized medical dataset with few training images, unfreezing the entire architecture carries a high risk of severe spatial overfitting and catastrophic forgetting of pre-trained weights.

- **Frozen Early Backbone**: By turning off gradient computations, the early feature extraction blocks (Layers 1 through 3) were kept frozen and could serve as extremely reliable retinal feature detectors.
- **Unfrozen Deep Layers**: Only the deeper convolutional block (`layer4`), including its corresponding Batch Normalisation (`BatchNorm2d`) layers, was unfrozen. This targeted unfreezing enabled the network’s most abstract, high-level filters to adapt to domain-specific retinal pathologies such as haemorrhages and exudates without destabilizing the core network.
- **Dynamic Classification Head**: The custom Optuna-tuned classification head (consisting of Dropout, Linear, `BatchNorm1d`, and LeakyReLU layers) was fully unfrozen and trained jointly with `layer4`.

For additional stability during fine-tuning, Mixed Precision Training (via PyTorch GradScaler) was used. This approach employs 16-bit floating-point precision to reduce VRAM usage while preventing gradient underflow. Additionally, Gradient Clipping (maximum norm of 1.0) was applied to stabilise training.

4) *1D Feature Extraction and Independent XGBoost Validation*: Following the previous phase, the further process includes performing a final architectural modification to discard the network’s Softmax Classification head entirely. Rather, we extracted a 128-dimensional 1D feature embedding straight from the final pooling layers by using the network to project the raw retinal images into a lower-dimensional latent space.

For the evaluation of these spatial features prior to any ensemble integration, we built an independent hybrid baseline. A specialised SBGoost classifier (ResNet50 + XGBoost) was trained on the extracted ResNet50 1D embeddings. To establish a baseline metric and demonstrate the effectiveness of replacing conventional dense classification layers with gradient-boosted decision trees, this isolated evaluation was essential.

D. Multi-Perspective Expansion (DenseNet121 & InceptionV3)

While results from ResNet50 provided a strong structural foundation, relying on a single architecture can lead to feature plateaus. Different network topologies emphasise different spatial representations. Therefore, two additional architectures were introduced that follow the same training blueprint (Optuna tuning, Focal Loss, and Selective Unfreezing):

- **DenseNet121** We choose DenseNet121 because of its dense connectivity, which promotes maximum feature

reuse. This architecture is extremely sensitive to localised, fine-grained changes in the retina’s texture [3], [4]. Only the final transition layer (transition3, the final dense block (denseblock4), and the final normalisation layer (norm5) were explicitly unfrozen, while the early feature blocks were locked using our partial unfreezing strategy. Optuna’s custom head converged at 128 dimensions with a dropout rate of 0.342.

- **InceptionV3** InceptionV3 is an advanced CNN model, chosen for its inception modules and factorised convolutions, which process images at several scales at once. From tiny microaneurysms to massive lipid exudates, this is clinically essential for identifying lesions of wildly different sizes [2]. The late-stage mixed blocks (Mixed 6d, Mixed 6e, and the Mixed 7 series) and their batch normalisation layers are unfrozen. To ensure steady gradient flow during training, the network’s Auxiliary Classifier (AuxLogits) was also specifically altered and unfrozen to return 5 DR classes rather than 1000.

Upon training for 50 epochs each, the classification heads of all three models were bypassed, allowing us to extract the 1D feature embeddings directly from the networks to serve as inputs for the ensemble stage.

Independent Hybrid Evaluation (CNN + XGBoost): Decisively, before integrating these models in a concatenated framework, we added the exact same 1D feature extraction process used for ResNet50 for both DenseNet121 and InceptionV3.

- The classification heads were discarded.
- The 1D features were extracted and fed into a dedicated, XGBoost model (CNN + XGBoost).

This intermediate validation step was crucial to justify features extraction ability of our models. We identified the distinct “feature plateaus” of each topology by assessing the CNN + XGBoost hybrids separately. An isolated analysis showed that no single architecture could adequately address the recall failures for the “severe DR” minority class, despite the fact that all three independent hybrid models achieved strong overall accuracy in the range of 80-83%. This clearly explains why our final stage stage-feature fusion and SMOTE balancing is clinically necessary.

E. Feature Fusion and the SMOTE-XGBoost Meta-Learner

Although the high accuracy of CNN + XGBoost models (approx. 80-83%), they still suffer from failure in the Recall metric for “Severe DR” as the CNN struggled to distinguish small boundaries from the highly imbalanced dataset. We implemented the last stage of our architecture to fix this:

- **Concatenation**: A single, high-dimensional tabular meta-feature vector was created by concatenating the 1D embeddings from ResNet50, DenseNet121, and InceptionV3 for each image in the dataset.
- **SMOTE Application**: We used the Synthetic Minority Over-sampling Technique (SMOTE) [9] after safely reducing the spatial complexity of the images to numerical tabular data. By interpolating between pre-existing

feature vectors, SMOTE generates artificial instances of the minority classes. The dataset was perfectly balanced across all five classes because this was done in the 1D feature space instead of the 2D pixel space, which prevents the spatial memorisation that impairs conventional image oversampling.

- **Meta-Classification:** This well-balanced, multi-perspective feature dataset was then used by an XGBoost classifier, which acted as the main meta-learner. Using Optuna, the XGBoost parameters were carefully adjusted (max_depth = 9, n_estimators = 137, learning_rate = 0.102) to explore this complex space[8], [20]. XGBoost learned the non-linear decision boundaries between the combined features and completed the hybrid pipeline.

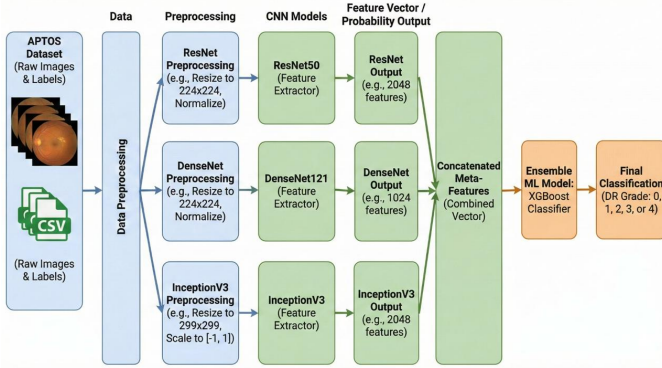


Fig. 3. The multi-stage pipeline illustrating the extraction of 1D spatial embeddings from three fine-tuned CNN backbones (ResNet50, DenseNet121, InceptionV3), followed by feature-space concatenation, SMOTE balancing, and XGBoost meta-classification.

IV. EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

A. Experimental Setup and Evaluation Metrics

The pipeline of the experiment was developed and examined using the APTOS 2019 test split (512 unseen images). To objectively measure clinical reliability in the presence of severe class imbalance, only standard accuracy is optimal evaluation metric. Thus, we examined all models using four relevant metrics:

- **Accuracy:** Overall correctness across all classes.
- **Macro F1-Score:** the unweighted mean of each class’s F1-scores, severely penalizing models that disregard minority classes.
- **Cohen’s Kappa (κ):** accounts for baseline chance and measures the inter-rater agreement between the AI’s predictions and the actual clinical grades.
- **ROC AUC:** assesses how well the model can differentiate between the different severity grades at different threshold levels.

B. Step by Step Model Progression and Comparison

Our evaluation strategy progressed through three phases, moving from standard baseline architectures to the final hybrid ensemble. Table 1 shows the quantitative changes across all seven configurations we tested.

TABLE II
PERFORMANCE METRICS OF EVALUATED MODELS

| Model / Architecture | Accuracy | Macro F1 | Kappa (κ) | ROC AUC |
|--------------------------------|---------------|---------------|--------------------|---------------|
| ResNet50 + XGBoost | 0.8320 | 0.6601 | 0.7419 | 0.9677 |
| DenseNet121 + XGBoost | 0.8105 | 0.6241 | 0.7059 | 0.9556 |
| InceptionV3 + XGBoost | 0.8086 | 0.6305 | 0.7032 | 0.9584 |
| Proposed SMOTE Ensemble | 0.8281 | 0.6886 | 0.7400 | 0.9662 |

1) *Phase 1: Standalone CNN Baseline.*: The three dynamically tuned architectures, ResNet50, DenseNet121, and InceptionV3, used traditional Softmax classification heads and displayed the classic “feature plateau”. They achieved moderate overall accuracy (62-72%) but had significant difficulties with class separation, leading to low Macro F1-scores.

2) *Phase 2: Independent Hybrid Models (CNN + XGBoost):* Switching from standard dense layers to XGBoost meta-learner using 1D feature embeddings led to a significant increase in performance. The ResNet50 + XGBoost model reached a peak independent accuracy of 83.20% and an AUC of 0.967. However, reviewing the confusion matrices showed that these independent hybrid still had a strong bias toward the majority “No DR” class.

3) *Phase 3: The SMOTE-Augmented Ensemble:* The final pipeline combined the embeddings from all three networks and used SMOTE within the tabular feature space. While the raw accuracy slightly stabilised at 82.81%, the Macro F1-score reached a peak of 0.688. This represented the most balanced and clinically safe diagnostic performance of the entire study.

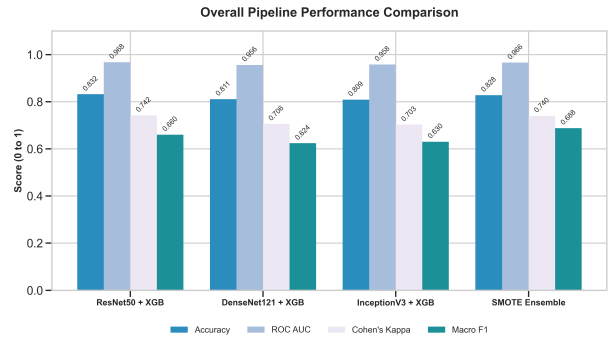


Fig. 4. A quantitative comparison of Accuracy, ROC AUC, Cohen’s Kappa, and Macro F1-score across the independent hybrid models and the final proposed SMOTE Ensemble.

C. Resolving the Accuracy Paradox (Class-wise Analysis)

The proposed SMOTE Ensemble model is able to address the issue of accuracy paradoxes within the realm of medical testing. Misclassifying a patient with acute diabetic retinopathy (DR) as “healthy” will have disastrous results.

As can be seen from class-wise recall measurements, the best performing independent hybrid of ResNet50 and XGBoost is able to achieve a high accuracy by simply predicting the majority class, which results in an extremely poor recall for patients with Severe DR (23.0%).

Through a careful balancing of the high-dimensional feature space, the SMOTE ensemble can provide a 46.1% recall for patients with Severe DR, while maintaining a 60.9% recall for patients with Proliferative DR and nearly perfect 97.6% recall for patients with No DR. This demonstrates that the model is correctly able to learn minority class boundaries as opposed to merely memorising the majority class distribution.

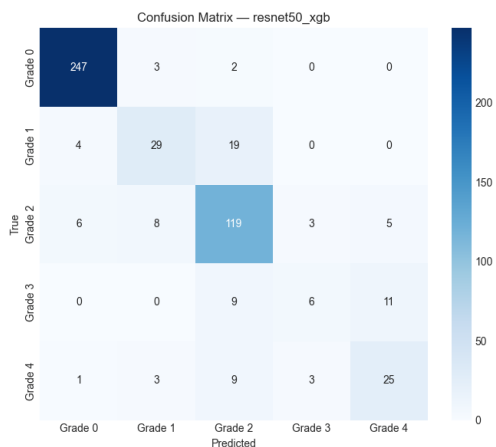


Fig. 5. Confusion matrix for the independent ResNet50 + XGBoost model, showing a bias toward the majority class.

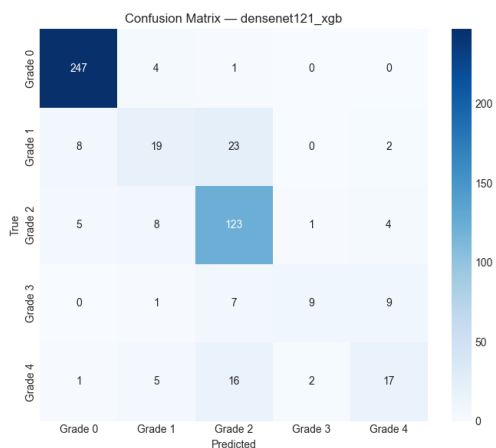


Fig. 6. Confusion matrix for the independent DenseNet121 + XGBoost model.

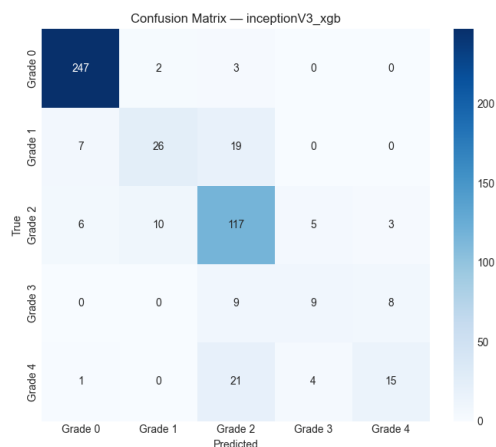


Fig. 7. Confusion matrix for the independent InceptionV3 + XGBoost model.

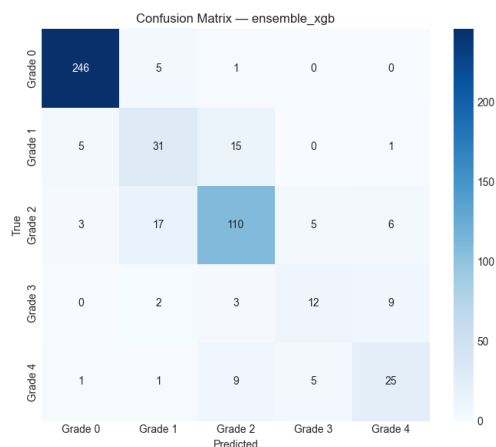


Fig. 8. Confusion matrix for the proposed SMOTE Ensemble. Notice the improved distribution and stabilisation across the minority classes.

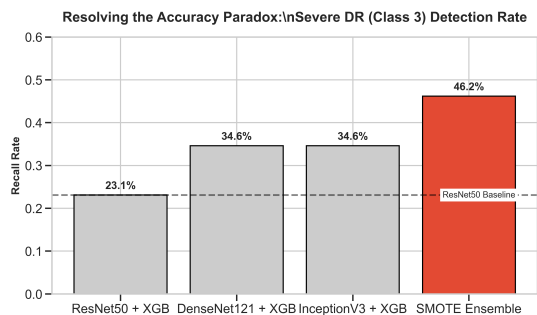


Fig. 9. Class-wise recall comparison demonstrating the SMOTE Ensemble’s superior sensitivity in detecting Severe DR compared to standalone baselines (APTOS 2019).

D. Explainable AI (XAI) for Clinical Transparency

While this shows a drop from the APTOS validation metrics, it is a very successful scientific result. Standalone models usually fail, falling below 30%, when faced with such hardware differences. The ensemble’s ability to keep a basic predictive capacity across various hospital settings demonstrates that the combined 1D features capture universal

biological markers. This clearly defines the target for future spatial colour normalisation research.

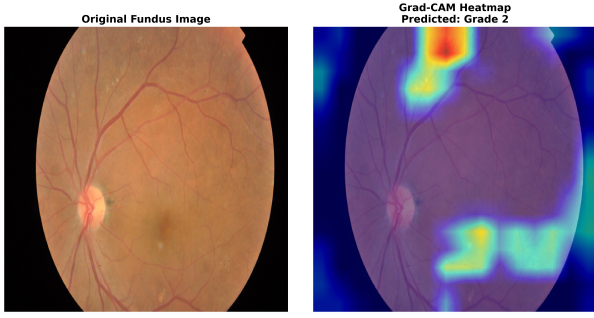


Fig. 10. Gradient-weighted Class Activation Mapping (Grad-CAM) visualisations on pathological fundus images quantitatively confirm that the ensemble accurately focuses on the exact spatial locations of genuine clinical biomarkers (such as haemorrhages and exudates), rather than on irrelevant background artefacts..

E. Cross-Dataset Validation: The IDRid Stress Test

To assess the strength of the ensemble against "Domain-Shift," a key challenge in Medical AI, we tested the trained pipeline on the completely new Indian Diabetic Retinopathy Image Dataset (IDRid). This external dataset contains images taken with different fundus cameras, resulting in major differences in lighting, colour saturation, and contrast. In this stress test, the ensemble retained a basic diagnostic ability, reaching an accuracy of about 57.0%.

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TABLE III
MODEL EVALUATION METRICS

| Model / Architecture | Accuracy | Macro F1 | Kappa (κ) | Macro Recall |
|--------------------------------|---------------|---------------|--------------------|---------------|
| ResNet50 + XGBoost | 0.5085 | 0.3945 | 0.3445 | 0.4384 |
| DenseNet121 + XGBoost | 0.5714 | 0.4045 | 0.3909 | 0.4261 |
| InceptionV3 + XGBoost | 0.5206 | 0.3654 | 0.3364 | 0.3565 |
| Proposed SMOTE Ensemble | 0.5085 | 0.4084 | 0.3445 | 0.4273 |

V. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE SCOPE

A. Conclusion

In this work, we effectively addressed the "Accuracy Paradox" that besets conventional clinical AI by developing a multi-stage Hybrid Stacking Ensemble framework for the automated grading of Diabetic Retinopathy. We used the different spatial hierarchies of ResNet50, DenseNet121, and InceptionV3 strictly as deep feature extractors by moving away

from end-to-end classification. By combining these representations into a high-dimensional 1D tabular dataset, the SMOTE could be applied without causing spatial over-fitting.

This architecture effectively separated the classification logic from the highly unbalanced APTOS 2019 pixel data when combined with an XGBoost meta-learner. Compared with standalone baselines, the proposed ensemble doubled the recall for the crucial "Severe DR" class to 46.1%, achieving a strong Macro-F1 Score of 0.688 and an AUC of 0.966. Additionally, the model's diagnostic transparency was mathematically validated through the integration of Grad-CAM, which demonstrated accurate localisation of real biological lesions. Lastly, thorough cross-dataset stress testing on the IDRid dataset clearly determined the domain shift threshold, offering a very accurate evaluation of the model's practical resilience in a variety of hospital settings.

B. Future Scope

While the current pipeline showcases a high clinical sensitivity, the rapidly evolving field of medical AI presents a clear road-map for future improvements. Our research directions will prioritise the following three domains:

- **Domain Adaptation through Ben Graham Preprocessing:** Variations in fundus camera sensors, illumination, and contrast continue to be a barrier to universal generalisation, according to the cross-dataset evaluation on IDRid. In order to effectively bridge the domain shift between various clinical screening protocols, future iterations will incorporate Ben Graham's spatial color normalization pipeline to artificially neutralise these lighting disparities.
- **Integration of Attention Mechanisms and Vision Transformers:** CNN backbones process images with a static receptive field by default. Our goal is to incorporate attention-based architectures, namely Vision Transformers (ViT) and Convolutional Block Attention Modules (CBAM), to better capture small, early-stage pathologies like isolated microaneurysms. The network will be able to forcefully attend to highly localised pathological regions and dynamically filter out background retinal noise thanks to these mechanisms.

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