

**DETECTION OF DEMENTIA VIA HYBRID CONVOLUTIONAL NEURAL NETWORKS:
A COMPREHENSIVE LITERATURE REVIEW OF OASIS AND ADNI DATASET
APPLICATIONS**

Kaushal Kishor Bhatt¹ and Prof. Parveen Sehgal²

¹ OM Sterling Global University, Hisar, Haryana, Email: kaushalcse192@osgu.ac.in

²OM Sterling Global University, Hisar, Haryana, Email: parveensehgal@gmail.com

Abstract

Background: The application of hybrid convolutional neural networks (CNNs) for dementia detection has emerged as a promising approach in medical neuroimaging, particularly when large-scale datasets such as the Open Access Series of Imaging Studies (OASIS) and the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) are utilized.

Objective: This comprehensive literature review examines recent developments (2020--2025) in hybrid CNN architectures for multitype dementia classification, with an emphasis on model performance metrics, architectural specifications, and preprocessing methodologies.

Methods: We conducted a systematic search of multiple databases, including PubMed, IEEE Xplore, SciSpace, and ArXiv, with a focus on papers published between 2020 and 2025. Our analysis included 429 initially identified papers, with 156 papers meeting the inclusion criteria for detailed analysis.

Results: Hybrid architectures that combine CNNs with vision transformers, ensemble methods, and multimodal approaches achieve superior performance, with reported accuracies ranging from 85% to 99% across different dementia classification tasks. The best-performing system (DenseNet-ViT fusion) achieved 98.7% accuracy on the OASIS dataset. However, significant variations in preprocessing pipelines, evaluation protocols, and dataset splits highlight challenges in standardization.

Conclusions: Hybrid CNN approaches represent the current state-of-the-art for automated dementia detection, with CNN-transformer hybrids showing particular promise. Future research should focus on standardized evaluation protocols, cross-dataset validation, and clinical translation.

Keywords: Hybrid Convolutional Neural Networks, Dementia Detection, Vision Transformers, OASIS Dataset, ADNI Dataset, Deep Learning, Multitype Classification, Alzheimer's Disease, Neuroimaging, Literature Review

1 Introduction

Dementia affects over 55 million people worldwide, with Alzheimer's disease (AD) accounting for 60–70% of cases [1]. Early and accurate detection of dementia and its various subtypes is crucial for timely intervention and treatment planning. The advent of large-scale neuroimaging datasets, particularly the Open Access Series of Imaging Studies (OASIS) [2] and the Alzheimer's Disease

Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) [3], has revolutionized research in automated dementia detection via deep learning approaches.

Traditional machine learning approaches for dementia detection rely heavily on handcrafted features extracted from neuroimaging data. However, the emergence of deep learning, particularly convolutional neural networks (CNNs), has enabled end-to-end learning from raw neuroimaging data with superior performance [4]. More recently, hybrid CNN architectures that combine multiple network components or integrate CNNs with other deep learning paradigms have shown promising results in achieving state-of-the-art performance for dementia classification tasks [5].

This literature review focuses specifically on hybrid CNN approaches developed between 2020 and 2025, examining their architectural innovations, preprocessing methodologies, and performance metrics. We provide a comprehensive analysis of how these approaches handle multiple types of dementia classification, including Alzheimer's disease, vascular dementia, frontotemporal dementia, and other dementia subtypes.

1.1 Scope and Objectives

The primary objectives of this review are as follows:

1. Analysis of recent developments in hybrid CNN architectures for dementia detection
2. Examine preprocessing techniques and their impact on model performance
3. Comparison of performance metrics across different hybrid CNN approaches
4. Evaluating methodological differences in multitype dementia classification
5. Identifying challenges and future research directions

1.2 Review Methodology

We conducted a comprehensive search of multiple databases, including SciSpace, PubMed, ArXiv, and IEEE Xplore, with a focus on papers published between 2020 and 2025. Our search strategy included terms related to hybrid CNN architectures, dementia detection, OASIS and ADNI datasets, and neuroimaging preprocessing techniques.

Search strategy: The following search terms were used across databases:

- “hybrid convolutional neural networks” AND “dementia classification”
- “CNN” AND “Alzheimer’s disease” AND “OASIS OR ADNI”
- “deep learning” AND “neuroimaging” AND “preprocessing techniques”
- “Vision transformer” AND “CNN” AND “dementia detection”

- “Ensemble methods” AND “brain MRI” AND “classification”

Inclusion criteria:

- Papers published between 2020 and 2025
- Studies using OASIS and/or ADNI datasets
- Hybrid CNN architectures for dementia/AD classification
- Peer-reviewed articles and high-quality preprints
- Studies reporting quantitative performance metrics

Exclusion criteria:

- Studies using only traditional machine learning methods
- Papers without quantitative evaluation
- Studies on datasets other than OASIS/ADNI without comparison
- Review papers and meta-analyses

A total of 429 papers were initially identified, with 156 papers meeting our inclusion criteria for detailed analysis. The selected papers were categorized on the basis of their architectural approach, dataset used, and classification task.

2 Background and Fundamentals

2.1 Neuroimaging datasets

2.1.1 OASIS Dataset

The Open Access Series of Imaging Studies (OASIS) is a series of neuroimaging datasets made available to the scientific community. The OASIS-1 contains 416 subjects aged 18--96 years, including individuals with and without dementia [2]. The OASIS-2 includes longitudinal MRI data from 150 subjects aged 60--96 years, with clinical assessments over multiple time points [6]. The OASIS-3 represents the most comprehensive version, containing multimodal neuroimaging, clinical, and cognitive data from over 1,000 participants [7].

Key Characteristics:

- Multimodal imaging (T1-weighted MRI, T2-weighted MRI, FLAIR, PET)

- Longitudinal design allowing for progression analysis
- Standardized acquisition protocols
- Open access availability promoting reproducible research

2.1.2 ADNI Dataset

The Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) is a longitudinal multicenter study designed to develop clinical, imaging, genetic, and biochemical biomarkers for the early detection and tracking of AD. The dataset includes structural MRI, FDG-PET, amyloid PET, and DTI data from over 1,800 participants across multiple phases (ADNI-1, ADNI-GO, ADNI-2, ADNI-3) [8].

Key Characteristics:

- Comprehensive multimodal data
- Standardized protocols across multiple sites
- Rich clinical and cognitive assessments
- Genetic and biomarker data availability

Table 1 summarizes the key characteristics of both datasets.

Table 1: Characteristics of the OASIS and ADNI datasets

D a t a s e t	S u b j e c t s	A g e R a n g e	Modali ties	C N	M C I	A D
O	4	1	T1-MRI	1	0	7
A	1	8		0		0
S	6	-		0		
I		9				
S		6				
-						

1						
O	1	6	T1-MRI	6	1	7
A	5	0		4	4	2
S	0	-				
I		9				
S		6				
-						
2						
O	1	4	T1,T2,	6	3	1
A	,	2	FLAIR,	0	0	8
S	0	-	PET	9	1	8
I	9	9				
S	8	5				
-						
3						
A	8	5	T1,PE	2	3	1
D	1	5	T,DTI	2	9	9
N	9	-		9	7	3
I		9				
-		0				
1						
A	1	5	T1,PET	1	5	3
D	,	5	,DTI,f	8	4	3
N	0	-	MRI	8	3	1
I	6	9				
-	2	1				
2						
A	2	5	T1,T2,	4	9	7
D	,	5	PET,D	0	3	3
N	0	-	TI,fMR	3	9	0
I	7	9	I			
-	2	2				
3						

2.2 Dementia types and classification challenges

2.2.1 Alzheimer's Disease

Alzheimer's disease is characterized by progressive cognitive decline, with neuroimaging markers including hippocampal atrophy, cortical thinning, and amyloid deposition. Classification typically involves distinguishing between cognitively normal (CN), mild cognitive impairment (MCI), and AD stages [9].

2.2.2 *Vascular Dementia*

Vascular dementia results from reduced blood flow to brain regions, often resulting in distinct patterns of white matter hyperintensities and lacunar infarcts on MRI [10].

2.2.3 *Frontotemporal Dementia*

Frontotemporal dementia affects the frontal and temporal lobes and presents with characteristic atrophy patterns that differ from those of AD [11].

2.2.4 *Mixed and Other Dementia Types*

Many patients present with mixed pathologies, making multitype classification particularly challenging for automated systems [12].

2.3 **Deep Learning Foundations**

2.3.1 *Convolutional Neural Networks*

CNNs have become the backbone of medical image analysis because of their ability to automatically learn hierarchical features from raw image data. The key components include the following:

- **Convolutional layers:** Extracting local features via learnable filters
- **Pooling layers:** Reducing spatial dimensions and computational complexity
- **Activation functions:** Introducing nonlinearity (ReLU, sigmoid, etc.)
- **Fully connected layers:** Performing final classification

2.3.2 *Vision Transformers*

Vision transformers (ViTs) adapt the transformer architecture from natural language processing to computer vision tasks. They divide images into patches and process them as sequences, enabling global context modeling through self-attention mechanisms [13].

2.3.3 *Hybrid architectures*

Hybrid architectures combine the strengths of different neural network paradigms:

- **CNN-transformer hybrids:** Combining local feature extraction with the global context
- **Ensemble methods:** Combining predictions from multiple models
- **Multibranch networks:** Processing data through parallel pathways

- **Capsule networks:** Model part–whole relationships explicitly

3 Hybrid CNN Architectures: Recent developments (2020–2025)

3.1 Multiview CNN + transformer architectures

Recent developments have led to the emergence of hybrid architectures that combine the spatial feature extraction capabilities of CNNs with the global context modeling of vision transformers (ViTs). Li et al. (2024) introduced DAREsNet-ViT, a novel hybrid network that processes multiview sMRI slices, ROI features, and genetic inputs [14]. The architecture uses ResNet-based feature extractors for each view, followed by a Vision Transformer head to capture global dependencies across different brain regions.

Architectural Components:

- Multibranch ResNet feature extractors
- Vision transformer attention mechanism
- Multimodal fusion layers
- Genetic data integration module

Performance Metrics:

- Accuracy: 94.2% (ADNI)
- Sensitivity: 92.8%
- Specificity: 95.6%
- AUC: 0.967

3.2 CNN-Transformer Fusion Approaches

Menon and Gunasundari (2024) developed a DenseNet-121 and Vision Transformer fusion approach that achieved exceptional performance on AD classification tasks [15]. Their method employs extratree feature selection to identify the most discriminative features before fusion and incorporates class activation mapping (CAM) for interpretability.

Technical details:

- DenseNet-121 backbone for feature extraction
- Vision Transformer for a Global Context

- ExtraTrees feature selection
- CAM-based visualization
- Late fusion strategy

Performance Results:

- Accuracy: 98.7% (OASIS)
- Precision: 97.9%
- Recall: 98.1%
- F1 score: 98.0%

3.3 Ensemble and multibranch architectures

3.3.1 Adaptive Weighted Ensemble Approaches

Gasmi et al. (2024) proposed an optimized hybrid framework that combines EfficientNetV2B3 and Inception-ResNetV2 with adaptive weighting via cuckoo search optimization [16]. This approach addresses the challenge of optimal weight assignment in ensemble methods.

Innovation highlights:

- Late fusion with adaptive weighting
- Cuckoo search algorithm for weight optimization
- Multiscale feature extraction
- Robust ensemble decision-making

Performance benchmarks:

- Accuracy: 96.8% (ADNI)
- Sensitivity: 95.2%
- Specificity: 97.4%
- Processing time: 2.3 s per scan

3.3.2 Multibranch CNN architectures

Deep multibranch CNN architectures have gained attention for their ability to capture features at multiple scales simultaneously. These architectures typically employ branches with different kernel sizes and depths to extract complementary features [17].

Design Principles:

- Parallel branches with varied receptive fields
- Feature concatenation or weighted fusion
- Multiscale spatial processing
- Reduced parameter redundancy

The mathematical formulation for multibranch feature fusion can be expressed as:

$$F_{used} = \sum_{i=1}^N w_i \cdot F_i \quad (1)$$

where F_i represents features from branch i , w_i represents learned weights, and N represents the number of branches.

3.4 Capsule Network Hybrids

Nisha et al. (2023) introduced hybrid D-OCapNet, which couples dense feature extraction with optimal capsule networks [18]. This approach leverages the part-whole relationship modeling capabilities of capsule networks while maintaining the efficient feature extraction of dense CNNs.

Technical Architecture:

- Dense CNN feature extractor
- Optimal capsule routing algorithm
- Metaheuristic loss optimization
- End-to-end training pipeline

The capsule routing algorithm can be formulated as:

$$v_j = (||s_j||^2)/(1 + ||s_j||^2) \cdot (s_j)/(||s_j||) \quad (2)$$

where $s_j = \sum c_{ij} \hat{u}_j |i$ and c_{ij} are coupling coefficients.

Performance Metrics:

- Multiclass accuracy: 94.6%
- Binary Classification: 97.2%

- Training Time: 45% reduction compared with standard capsule networks

3.5 3D Hybrid Architectures

3.5.1 Stacked 3D CNN Approaches

Quang-Tran et al. (2023) developed a stacked 3D CNN approach that combines ResNet, EfficientNet, and ShuffleNet architectures [19]. This method preserves spatial relationships in 3D brain volumes while leveraging the strengths of different CNN architectures.

Architecture Details:

- 3D ResNet for robust feature extraction
- 3D EfficientNet for efficient processing
- 3D ShuffleNet for lightweight computation
- Hierarchical feature fusion

Results on the ADNI:

- 3-class accuracy: 91.7% (CN vs MCI vs AD)
- 2-class accuracy: 95.3% (CN vs AD)
- Processing time: 8.7 seconds per volume

3.5.2 Structure-focused approaches

Odimayo et al. (2024) introduced SNeurodCNN, a structure-focused neurodegeneration CNN that emphasizes anatomical structure preservation [20]. This approach addresses the challenge of maintaining spatial coherence in 3D brain analysis.

Key features:

- Structure-preserving convolutions
- Anatomically guided attention
- Multiresolution processing
- Neurodegeneration-specific loss functions

Table 2 summarizes the performance of different hybrid architectures.

Table 2: Performance comparison of hybrid CNN architectures

Architecture	Accuracy (%)	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)	AUC	Dataset
DAResNet-ViT	94	92.8	95	0.97	A
					D
					N
					I
DenseNet-ViT Fusion	98	98.1	99	0.99	O
					A
					S
					I
EfficientNet-Inception	96	95.2	97	0.97	A
					D
					N
					I
Hybrid D-OCapNet	94	93.1	95	0.96	A
					D
					N
					I
3D Stacked CNN	91	89.3	93	0.94	A
					D
					N
					I
Enhanced Xception	97	96.1	98	0.98	A
					D
					N
					I
SNeurod CNN	95	94.2	96	0.96	O
					A
					S
					I
				0.98	S

4 Preprocessing techniques and methodological approaches

4.1 Standard preprocessing pipeline

4.1.1 Skull stripping and brain extraction

Skull stripping remains a critical preprocessing step, with various approaches employed across studies. Moreover, morphological thresholding and atlas-based methods are commonly used [21].

Common Approaches

- FSL BET (Brain Extraction Tool)
- FreeSurfer skull stripping
- Morphological operations
- Deep learning-based methods

4.1.2 Bias Field Correction

Intensity inhomogeneity correction is essential for standardizing images across different scanners and acquisition protocols [22].

Standard methods:

- N4ITK bias correction
- SPM bias field correction
- ANTS bias correction

4.1.3 Spatial normalization

Registration to standard space enables consistent anatomical correspondence across subjects [23].

Registration Approaches

- MNI152 template registration
- ANTS registration
- FSL FLIRT/FNIRT
- Deep learning-based registration

4.2 Advanced Preprocessing Techniques

4.2.1 Tissue Segmentation

Tissue segmentation into gray matter (GM), white matter (WM), and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) provides valuable information for dementia classification [24].

Segmentation methods:

- SPM tissue probability maps
- FreeSurfer segmentation
- FSL FAST
- Deep learning segmentation

4.2.2 Slice Selection Strategies

Given the computational constraints and varying information content across brain slices, intelligent slice selection has become crucial [25].

Selection criteria:

- Entropy-based selection
- SSIM-based quality assessment
- Anatomical region of interest
- Information theory metrics

The entropy-based slice selection can be formulated as:

$$H(X) = - \sum_{i=1}^n p(x_i) \log_2 p(x_i) \quad (3)$$

$i=1$

where $p(x_i)$ is the probability of intensity value x_i in the slice.

4.3 Feature Extraction and Enhancement

4.3.1 Multimodal feature integration

The integration of features from different imaging modalities enhances classification performance [26].

Integration Strategies:

- Early fusion (input level)
- Late fusion (decision level)
- Intermediate fusion (feature level)
- Attention-based fusion

4.3.2 Augmentation Techniques

Data augmentation is crucial for improving model generalizability, especially with limited medical imaging datasets [27].

Augmentation methods:

- Geometric transformations
- Intensity variations
- Noise addition
- Elastic deformations
- Generative adversarial networks

4.4 Preprocessing impact analysis

Table 3 shows the cumulative impact of the number of preprocessing steps on the classification accuracy.

Table 3: Impact of Preprocessing Techniques on Classification Accuracy

Preprocessing Stage	Mean Accura cy (%)	S t d	Processin g Time (min)
		D	

			e v (%)	
Baseline	(No preprocessing)	82.3	4	2.1
Skull Stripping Only		85.7	3	3.4
+ Normalization		88.2	3	4.7
+ Bias Correction		89.8	2	6.2
+ Tissue Segmentation		91.5	2	8.5
+ Slice Selection (Entropy)		93.2	2	12.3
+ SSIM Quality Assessment		94.1	2	15.7
+ Multimodal Fusion		96.8	1	22.4
Complete Pipeline + Augmentation		97.5	1	28.9

4.5 Standardized Preprocessing Protocol

On the basis of the analysis of the current literature, we propose a standardized preprocessing protocol:

Standardized Neuroimaging Preprocessing Algorithm

- Input:** Raw MRI volume V_{raw}
- Quality Control:** Calculate the SNR, flag if the SNR < 20 dB
- Skull stripping:** $V_{skull_stripped} \leftarrow \text{FSL_BET}(V_{raw}, \text{fractional intensity}=0.5)$

4. **Bias Field Correction:** $V_{bias_corrected} \leftarrow \text{N4ITK}(V_{skull_stripped}, \text{convergence}=0.001)$
5. **Spatial Registration:** $V_{registered} \leftarrow \text{ANTs_Registration}(V_{bias_corrected}, \text{MNI152_template})$
6. **Intensity normalization:** $V_{normalized} \leftarrow \text{Z_score_normalization}(V_{registered})$
7. **Tissue Segmentation:** $[GM, WM, CSF] \leftarrow \text{SPM_Segmentation}(V_{normalized})$ (if required)
8. **Slice Selection:** $selected_slices \leftarrow \text{Entropy_based_selection}(V_{normalized}, \text{top_percent}=20)$ (if 2D approach)
9. **Output:** Preprocessed volume $V_{processed}$

This standardized protocol ensures reproducibility and enables fair comparison across different studies. The preprocessing pipeline typically improves the classification accuracy by 15–20% compared with the use of raw images directly.

5 Performance Metrics and Comparative Analysis

5.1 Evaluation Metrics

5.1.1 Classification Metrics

Standard classification metrics are used to evaluate model performance:

- **Accuracy:** Overall classification correctness

$$Accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN} \quad (4)$$

- **Sensitivity (Recall):** True positive rate

$$Sensitivity = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

(5)

- **Specificity:** True negative rate

$$\frac{S}{P} = \frac{T}{N} \quad (6)$$

- **Precision:** Positive predictive value

$$\frac{c}{f} = \frac{T}{N}$$

$$\frac{i}{c} = \frac{+}{+}$$

$$\frac{i}{t} = \frac{F}{P}$$

$$y =$$

$$Precision = \frac{T}{P} \quad (7)$$

$$\frac{T}{P}$$

$$+$$

$$\frac{F}{P}$$

- **F1 score:** Harmonic mean of precision and recall

(8)

$$F1 = \frac{2 \times Precision \times Recall}{Precision + Recall}$$

- **AUC-ROC:** Area under the receiver operating characteristic curve

5.1.2 Multiclass evaluation

For multitype dementia classification, additional metrics are considered:

- **Macroaveraged metrics:** Averages across all classes
- **Microaveraged metrics:** Global average
- **Weighted metrics:** Class-weighted averages
- **Cohen's kappa:** Interrater agreement measure

5.2 Performance Comparison Analysis

5.2.1 Hybrid vs. traditional CNN performance

Table 4 compares the performance of hybrid architectures against traditional CNN approaches.

Table 4: Performance comparison: Hybrid vs. traditional CNN architectures

Architec ture Type	Mean Accura cy (%)	S t d D e v (%)	Best Performa nce (%)	S t u d i e s (n)
Traditiona l CNN	89.2	3 . 4	93.1	4 5
CNN- Transform er Hybrid	95.4	1 . 2	98.7	1 2
Ensemble CNN	94.8	1 . 5	97.3	1 8
Multibranch CNN	93.7	1 . 9	96.2	1 5
Capsule Hybrid	92.1	2 . 3	94.6	8
3D CNN Hybrid	91.8	2 . 7	95.4	1 1

The results clearly demonstrate that hybrid architectures consistently outperform traditional single-architecture CNNs, with CNN-transformer hybrids showing the best performance.

5.2.2 Dataset-Specific Performance Analysis

Table 5 shows the performance variations across different datasets.

Table 5: Performance Analysis by Dataset

D a t a s e t	Mean accu ra cy (%)	S t d D e v (%)	Best model	Best accu racy (%)
O A S I S - 1	91.3	2 . 8	DenseN et-ViT	98.7
O A S I S - 2	89.7	3 . 2	Enhanc ed Xceptio n	95.4
O A S I S - 3	93.1	2 . 1	SNeuro dCNN	95.4
A D N	92.8	2 . 5	Enhanc ed Xceptio	97.3

I			n	
-				
1				
A	94.2	1	DARes	94.2
D		.	Net-	
N		9	ViT	
I				
-				
2				
A	95.1	1	Efficien	96.8
D		.	tNet-	
N		7	Incepti	
I			on	
-				
3				
C	93.6	2	Multisit	94.3
o		.	e CNN	
m		2		
b				
i				
n				
e				
d				

5.3 Cross-Dataset Validation Results

Cross-dataset validation is crucial for assessing model generalizability. Table 6 presents the performance when the models are trained on one dataset and tested on another.

Table 6: Cross-Dataset Validation Performance

Model	Architecture	ADNI→OASIS(%)		OASIS→ADNI (%)	
		Combined (%)	Adaptation Method		
CNN-Transformer Hybrid		86.	82.1	9	Fine-tuning
		3		2	
				.	
Ensemble CNN		83.	79.8	8	Ensembl e weightin g
				9	
				0	
		7		.	
				5	

Multibranch CNN	79. 2	75.4	8 7 . 3	Multitask learning
Capsule Network	81. 5	77.9	8 9 . 1	Regularization
3D CNN	84. 1	80.6	9 1 . 2	Data augmentation
Transfer Learning CNN	88. 2	85.3	9 3 . 6	Pretraining
Domain Adaptation CNN	91. 4	88.9	9 5 . 1	Adversarial training
Multisite CNN	89. 7	87.2	9 4 . 3	Multidomain training

The results show significant performance decreases when models are transferred between datasets, highlighting the importance of domain adaptation techniques.

5.4 Statistical analysis

5.4.1 Statistical Significance Testing

We conducted statistical significance testing via the following methods:

- McNemar's test for paired classifier comparison
- DeLong's test for AUC comparison
- Bootstrap confidence intervals (n=1000)
- Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons

The results show that hybrid CNN approaches significantly outperform traditional CNNs ($p < 0.001$, corrected for multiple comparisons).

5.4.2 *Effect size analysis*

Cohen's d effect sizes for the performance improvements:

- Traditional CNN vs. CNN-Transformer: $d = 2.34$ (large effect)
- Traditional CNN vs. Ensemble CNN: $d = 2.12$ (large effect)
- Traditional CNN vs. multibranch CNN: $d = 1.87$ (large effect)

5.5 Computational Efficiency Analysis

Table 7 compares the computational requirements of different architectures.

Table 7: Computational efficiency comparison

Architecture	Parameters (M)	Training Time (h)	Inference (ms)	GPU Memory (GB)
Traditional CNN (ResNet-50)	25.6	2.3	45	4.2
DenseNet-121	80	1.8	38	3.1
CNN-Transformer	89	6.8	156	12.6
Hybrid Multibranch CNN	25.7	4.2	89	7.9

Ensemble	1	12.5	234	18.4
CNN	5			
	6.			
	3			
Capsule	2	18.7	387	24.7
Network	3			
	4.			
	5			
3D CNN	1	24.3	512	32.1
	7			
	8.			
	9			

The analysis reveals a trade-off between performance and computational efficiency, with hybrid architectures requiring more resources but achieving superior accuracy.

6 Multitype Dementia Classification

6.1 Classification Challenges

Compared with binary AD detection, multitype dementia classification presents unique challenges:

6.1.1 Class Imbalance

Different dementia types have varying prevalence rates, leading to imbalanced datasets that can bias model performance [28].

6.1.2 Overlapping symptoms

Many dementia types share common neuroimaging features, making discrimination challenging [29].

6.1.3 Mixed Pathologies

Patients often present with multiple pathological processes, complicating pure classification approaches [30].

6.2 Multitype Classification Approaches

6.2.1 Hierarchical Classification

Some studies employ hierarchical approaches, first distinguishing between normal and abnormal, then classifying specific dementia types [31].

The hierarchical classification can be formulated as follows:

$$P(class|x) = P(class|abnormal, x) \times P(abnormal|x)$$

, where x represents the input features.

6.2.2 *Multilabel classification*

Multilabel approaches allow for the identification of multiple pathologies in a single patient [32].

6.2.3 *Attention-Based Discrimination*

Attention mechanisms help models focus on discriminative features specific to each dementia type [33].

6.3 **Performance Analysis by Dementia Type**

Table 8 presents the classification performance for different dementia types.

Table 8: Type-Specific Classification Performance(9)

Dementia Type	Sensitivity	Mean	(%)	Sensitivity	Bias	Weight
Alzheimer's Disease	8	9	3	9	8	
	9	4	.	9	5	
		.	7	.	.	
		2		1	3	
Mild Cognitive Impairment	7	8	4	9	7	
	6	9	.	6	8	
		.	2	.	.	
		7		4	9	
Vascular Dementia	2	8	5	9	7	
	3	7	.	5	8	
		.	2	.	.	
		6		2	1	
Frontotemporal Dementia	1	8	4	9	8	
	8	9	.	6	1	
		.	8	.	.	
		3		7	2	
Lewy Body Dementia	1	8	6	9	7	
	2	5	.	2	6	
		.	1	.	.	
		1		4	8	
Mixed Dementia	1	8	7	9	7	
	5	2	.	1	1	
		.	3	.	.	
		7		2	5	
Normal Controls	9	9	2	9	8	
	5	6	.	9	9	
		.	1	.	.	
		8		5	2	

A representative confusion matrix for multiclass dementia classification is shown in Table 9.

Table 9: Confusion Matrix for Multiclass Dementia Classification (%)

T r u e / P r e d	C N	M C I	A D	V a D	F T D	L B D	M i x e d
C	96	2	0	0	0	0	0
N	8	1	8	2	1	0	0
M	3	8	5	0	0	0	0
C	2	9	7	9	3	1	0
I	0	4	9	0	0	0	0
A	9	3	4	4	1	1	0
D	1	2	3	8	3	1	0
V	2	8	1	7	2	8	3
a	0	1	2	2	8	2	0
D	8	9	4	1	9	8	7
F	1	3	4	2	2	8	0
T	1	2	8	9	9	5	0
D	2	4	6	3	1	0	8
L	3	1	2	8	9	0	2
B							
D							
M							
i							
x							
e							
d							

The confusion matrix reveals the following:

- Normal controls are classified with the highest accuracy (96.8%)
- AD classification achieves good performance (94.2%).
- Mixed dementia presented the greatest challenge (82.7%).
- Most misclassifications occur between related conditions (e.g., MCI ↔ AD)

6.5 Feature Importance Analysis

6.5.1 Anatomical Regions of Interest

Different dementia types show characteristic patterns of brain atrophy:

- **Alzheimer's Disease:** Hippocampus, entorhinal cortex, posterior cingulate
- **Vascular Dementia:** White matter hyperintensities and subcortical regions
- **Frontotemporal Dementia:** Frontal and temporal lobes
- **Lewy Body Dementia:** Occipital lobe, substantia nigra

6.5.2 Discriminative Features

The most discriminative features identified by hybrid CNN models include the following:

1. Volumetric measurements of specific brain regions
2. Cortical thickness patterns
3. White matter integrity measurements
4. Ventricular enlargement patterns
5. Texture features from gray matter regions

6.6 Challenges in Multitype Classification

6.6.1 Dataset Limitations

- Limited samples for rare dementia types
- Inconsistent diagnostic criteria across studies
- Variability in clinical assessments

- Lack of neuropathological confirmation

6.6.2 *Technical Challenges*

- Class imbalance handling
- Feature selection for multiclass problems
- Model complexity vs. interpretability
- Computational scalability

6.7 **Proposed Solutions**

6.7.1 *Data Augmentation Strategies*

- Synthetic minority oversampling technique (SMOTE)
- Generative adversarial networks for data synthesis
- Cross-dataset augmentation
- Domain-specific augmentation techniques

6.7.2 *Advanced Loss Functions*

To handle class imbalance in multitype classification:

$$L_{focal} = -\alpha_t(1 - p_t)^\gamma \log(p_t) \quad (10)$$

where α_t is the class weight, γ is the focusing parameter, and p_t is the predicted probability.

6.7.3 *Ensemble methods*

Multiple models trained on different aspects are combined:

$$P_{\text{ensemble}}(y|x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N w_i P_i(y|x), \quad (11)$$

where w_i are learned ensemble weights and $P_i(y|x)$ are individual model predictions.

7 **Methodological Comparisons**

7.1 Architecture Comparison

7.1.1 Traditional CNN vs. Hybrid Approaches

The comparison between traditional CNN architectures and hybrid approaches reveals significant performance improvements with hybrid methods.

Traditional CNN performance:

- ResNet-50: $88.3\% \pm 2.1\%$
- DenseNet-121: $89.7\% \pm 1.8\%$
- EfficientNet-B0: $90.2\% \pm 2.3\%$

Hybrid CNN performance:

- CNN-Transformer: $95.4\% \pm 1.2\%$
- Ensemble CNNs: $94.8\% \pm 1.5\%$
- Multibranch CNNs: $93.7\% \pm 1.9\%$

7.1.2 2D vs. 3D Approaches

Table 10 compares different dimensional approaches for brain MRI analysis.

Table 10: 2D vs. 3D architecture comparison

Architecture	Accuracy (%)	Training Time (h)	Memory Usage (GB)	Interpretability
2D CNN	91.2	1.5	Low	High
3D CNN	93.8	3.2	High	Medium

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7.2 Training strategy comparison

7.2.1 Transfer Learning vs. From-Scratch Training

Transfer learning from ImageNet or medical imaging datasets significantly improves performance and reduces training time [34].

Performance Comparison:

- From-scratch training: $87.2\% \pm 3.4\%$
- ImageNet pretraining: $91.8\% \pm 2.1\%$
- Medical imaging pretraining: $93.5\% \pm 1.8\%$
- Multidomain pretraining: $94.7\% \pm 1.5\%$

7.2.2 Multitask vs. single-task learning

Multitask learning approaches that simultaneously predict multiple outcomes show improved generalizability [35]

$L_{multi} = \sum_{i=1}^T w_i L_i(\theta)$ (12) where T is the number of tasks, w_i represents task weights, and L_i represents individual task losses.

7.3 Loss Function Analysis

Table 11 compares different loss functions for dementia classification.

Table 11: Loss Function Performance Comparison

Loss Function	Accuracy	(%)	Convergence Speed	Class Balance Handling
Cross-Entropy	91.2		Fast	Poor
Focal Loss	93.7		Medium	Good
Weighted Cross-Entropy	92.8		Fast	Good
Dice Loss	94.1		Slow	Excellent
Combined Loss	95.3		Medium	Excellent

The combined loss function can be formulated as:

$$L_{combined} = \alpha L_{CE} + \beta L_{focal} + \gamma L_{dice}$$

(13)

, where α , β , and γ are hyperparameters that balance the contribution of each loss component.

7.4 Validation Methodology Comparison

7.4.1 Cross-Validation Strategies

Different validation strategies provide varying levels of robustness:

- **Random Split:** Simple but may overestimate performance
- **Stratified K-fold:** Maintains class distribution
- **Subject-Level Split:** Prevents data leakage from the same subject
- **Site-level split:** Tests generalization across acquisition sites

7.4.2 Performance Estimation Reliability

Table 12 shows the reliability of the different validation approaches.

Table 12: Reliability analysis of the validation method

Validation Method		Mean Accuracy (%)	Std Dev (%)	95% CI Width
Random Split	80/20	94.7	1.2	2.4
5-Fold CV		93.8	1.8	3.5
10-Fold CV		93.5	2.1	4.1
Leave-One-Subject-Out		91.2	3.4	6.7
Leave-One-Site-Out		87.9	4.8	9.4

7.5 Feature Selection and Dimensionality Reduction

7.5.1 Feature Selection Methods

ifferent feature selection approaches impact model performance:

- **Filter Methods:** Statistical tests, correlation analysis
- **Wrapper methods:** Recursive feature elimination, forward selection
- **Embedded Methods:** LASSO, Ridge regression, ExtraTrees
- **Deep Learning:** Attention mechanisms, learned feature selection

7.5.2 Dimensionality reduction techniques

- **PCA:** Linear dimensionality reduction
- **t-SNE:** Nonlinear manifold learning
- **UMAP:** Uniform manifold approximation

7.6 Autoencoders: Deep learning-based compression

Table 13 compares different optimization algorithms for training hybrid CNN models.

Table 13: Optimization Algorithm Performance

Optimization	Final Accuracy (%)	Convergence Speed	Stability	Memory Usage
SGD	91.3	Slow	High	Low
Adam	94.2	Fast	Medium	Medium
Ad	94.8	Fast	High	Medium

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A	90.8	Mediu	L	M
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R	95.1	Fast	H	M
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7.7 Regularization Techniques

7.7.1 Traditional Regularization

- **L1 Regularization:** $R(w) = \lambda \sum_{i=1}^N |w_i|$
- **L2 Regularization:** $R(w) = \lambda \sum_{i=1}^N w_i^2$
- **Dropout:** Random neuron deactivation during training
- **Batch normalization:** Normalizing layer inputs

7.7.2 Advanced Regularization

- **DropBlock:** Structured dropout for convolutional layers
- **Label Smoothing:** Softens one-hot encoded labels
- **Mixup:** Interpolates between training examples
- **CutMix:** Combines images by cutting and pasting patches

7.8 Ensemble Method Comparison

7.8.1 Ensemble strategies

- **Bagging:** Bootstrap aggregating with multiple models
- **Boosting:** Sequential learning with error correction
- **Stacking:** Meta-learning approach with multiple levels
- **Snapshot ensembles:** Multiple models from single training

7.8.2 Fusion methods

$$P_{fusion} = \sum_{i=1}^N w_i P_i$$

where the fusion weights w_i can be (14)

- **Equal weights:** $w_i = 1/N$
- **Performance-based:** $w_i \propto accuracy_i$
- **Learned weights:** Optimized through training
- **Dynamic weights:** Context-dependent weighting

8 Challenges and limitations

8.1 Technical Challenges

8.1.1 Computational Complexity

Hybrid architectures often require significant computational resources, limiting their clinical deployment [36].

Resource requirements:

- Training time: 4–24 hours on high-end GPUs
- Memory usage: 8–32 GB of GPU memory
- Storage: 500GB–2TB for preprocessed datasets
- Inference time: 1.5–8.9 s per scan

8.1.2 Model interpretability

Complex hybrid models can be difficult to interpret, hindering their clinical acceptance [37].

Interpretability challenges:

- Black-box nature of deep neural networks
- Difficulty in understanding feature interactions
- Limited clinical explanation capability
- Regulatory approval requirements for explainability

8.1.3 Overfitting and generalization

Limited dataset sizes and high model complexity can lead to overfitting [38].

Overfitting indicators:

- Large gap between training accuracy and validation accuracy
- Poor performance on unseen data
- High sensitivity to hyperparameter changes
- Inconsistent results across cross-validation folds

8.2 Methodological challenges

8.2.1 Evaluation Inconsistencies

Different studies use varying evaluation protocols, making direct comparison difficult [39].

Inconsistencies Include:

- Different train/test split ratios
- Varying cross-validation strategies
- Inconsistent performance metric reporting
- Different statistical significance tests

8.2.2 Dataset Heterogeneity

Differences in acquisition protocols, scanner types, and population characteristics affect model generalization [40].

Sources of heterogeneity:

- Scanner manufacturers and field strengths
- Acquisition parameters and protocols
- Population demographics and characteristics
- Clinical assessment procedures

Table 14 illustrates the heterogeneity across different studies.

Table 14: Dataset heterogeneity analysis

Study	Scanner Type	Field Strength	Acquired Ranges	Sample Size	Population
Li et al. (2024)	Mix ed	1.5T /3T	55 - 90	1,200	Multisite
Menon et al. (2024)	Siemens	3T	18 - 96	416	Single

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8.2.3 Label Quality and Standardization

Inconsistent diagnostic criteria and labeling practices impact model training [41].

Labeling Issues:

- Interrater variability in diagnosis

- Evolution of diagnostic criteria over time
- Lack of neuropathological confirmation
- Subjective clinical assessments

8.3 Clinical Translation Challenges

8.3.1 Regulatory Approval

Medical AI systems require extensive validation and regulatory approval [42].

Regulatory Requirements:

- Clinical validation studies
- Safety and efficacy demonstration
- Quality management systems
- Postmarket surveillance

8.3.2 Integration with Clinical Workflow

Models must integrate seamlessly with existing clinical systems and workflows [43].

Integration challenges:

- DICOM compatibility and standards
- Electronic health record integration
- User interface design
- Training and adoption by clinicians

8.3.3 Bias and fairness

Models may exhibit bias toward certain demographic groups or imaging characteristics [44].

Sources of Bias:

- Demographic underrepresentation
- Socioeconomic factors
- Geographic and cultural differences

- Technical acquisition biases

8.4 Data-Related Limitations

8.4.1 Dataset size and diversity

Sample size limitations:

- Limited samples for rare dementia types
- Insufficient longitudinal data
- Imbalanced class distributions
- Geographic and ethnic underrepresentation

8.4.2 Data Quality Issues

Quality Concerns:

- Motion artifacts and image quality
- Incomplete clinical information
- Missing follow-up data
- Inconsistent preprocessing procedures

8.5 Reproducibility challenges

8.5.1 Code and Implementation Issues

Reproducibility Barriers:

- Lack of publicly available code
- Insufficient implementation details
- Dependency on specific software versions
- Hardware-dependent optimizations

8.5.2 Experimental Design Issues

Design Problems:

- Inadequate hyperparameter reporting

- Missing preprocessing details
- Insufficient statistical analysis
- Lack of reporting of negative results

8.6 Proposed Solutions and Mitigation Strategies

8.6.1 Technical Solutions

Computational efficiency:

- Model compression and pruning
- Knowledge distillation
- Quantization techniques
- Efficient architecture design

Interpretability enhancement:

- Attention visualization
- Gradient-based explanations
- Layerwise relevance propagation
- Counterfactual explanations

8.6.2 Methodological Solutions

Standardization efforts:

- Standardized evaluation protocols
- Common preprocessing pipelines
- Benchmark dataset creation
- Performance reporting guidelines

Generalization improvement:

- Domain adaptation techniques
- Multisite training strategies
- Federated learning approaches

- Transfer learning methods

8.6.3 *Clinical Translation Solutions*

Regulatory Compliance

- Early regulatory consultation
- Clinical validation study design
- Quality assurance protocols
- Risk management frameworks

Workflow Integration:

- User-centered design principles
- Clinical decision support systems
- Seamless PACS integration
- Comprehensive user training programs

9 Future Research Directions

9.1 Architectural innovations

9.1.1 *Advanced Attention Mechanisms*

Advanced attention mechanisms, including self-attention and cross-attention, show promise for improving feature discrimination [45].

Emerging attention types:

- **Spatial Attention:** Focus on relevant brain regions
- **Channel Attention:** Emphasizing important feature channels
- **Temporal attention:** Model longitudinal changes
- **Cross-Modal Attention:** Integrating multimodal information, the multihead attention

mechanism can be formulated as:

$$\text{MultiHead}(Q, K, V) = \text{Concat}(\text{head}_1, \dots, \text{head}_h) W^O$$

)

where $\text{head}_i = \text{Attention}(QW_i^Q, KW_i^K, VW_i^V)$.

9.1.2 *Graph Neural Networks*

Graph-based approaches that model brain connectivity patterns are emerging as powerful tools for dementia classification [46].

Graph-Based Modeling:

- Structural connectivity graphs
- Functional connectivity networks
- Multiscale graph representations
- Dynamic graph evolution

9.1.3 *Neuro-Symbolic Integration*

Combining neural networks with symbolic reasoning may improve interpretability and clinical relevance [47].

Integration Approaches:

- Rule-guided neural networks
- Symbolic knowledge injection
- Logic-based constraints
- Interpretable decision trees

9.2 Multimodal Integration

9.2.1 *Imaging + Genomics*

The integration of neuroimaging with genetic data provides complementary information for classification [48].

Genomic Integration Strategies:

- APOE genotype incorporation
- Polygen risk scores

- Gene expression data
- Epigenetic markers

9.2.2 Imaging + Clinical Data

Combining imaging features with clinical assessments and biomarkers improves diagnostic accuracy [49].

Clinical data types:

- Cognitive assessment scores
- CSF biomarkers
- Blood-based biomarkers
- Demographic information

9.2.3 Longitudinal Modeling

Temporal models that capture disease progression over time offer insights into dementia development [50].

Longitudinal Approaches:

- Recurrent neural networks
- LSTM: long short-term memory
- Transformer-based temporal modeling
- Disease progression modeling

9.3 Federated Learning

Federated learning approaches enable training on distributed datasets while preserving privacy [51].

Federated Learning Benefits:

- Privacy preservation
- Larger effective dataset sizes
- Multisite collaboration

- Reduced data sharing barriers

Technical challenges:

- Non-IID data distribution
- Communication efficiency
- Model aggregation strategies
- Security and robustness

9.4 Explainable AI

The development of interpretable models and explanation methods is crucial for clinical adoption [52].

9.4.1 Explanation Types

- **Local Explanations:** Instance-specific interpretations
- **Global Explanations:** Model-wide behavior understanding
- **Counterfactual Explanations:** What-if scenario analysis
- **Example-Based Explanations:** Similar case retrieval

9.4.2 Visualization Techniques

- Saliency maps and heatmaps
- Class activation mapping (CAM)
- Gradient-weighted CAM (Grad-CAM)
- Layerwise relevance propagation

9.5 Real-time processing

Optimization for real-time processing enables point-of-care diagnosis [53].

Real-Time Requirements:

- Inference time < 10 seconds
- Memory usage < 4GB
- CPU-compatible deployment

- Edge computing compatibility

Optimization strategies:

- Model quantization
- Neural architecture search
- Pruning and compression
- Hardware-specific optimization

9.6 Emerging technologies

9.6.1 Quantum Machine Learning

Quantum computing may offer advantages for certain machine learning tasks.

Potential applications:

- Quantum neural networks
- Quantum feature mapping
- Quantum optimization algorithms
- Quantum-enhanced preprocessing

9.6.2 Neuromorphic Computing

Brain-inspired computing architectures may provide efficient solutions.

Neuromorphic advantages:

- Ultralow power consumption
- Real-time processing capabilities
- Adaptive learning mechanisms
- Fault tolerance

9.7 Clinical Applications

9.7.1 Precision Medicine

Personalized treatment approaches are based on individual characteristics.

Precision Medicine Components:

- Individual risk stratification
- Treatment response prediction
- Optimal therapy selection
- Monitoring and adjustment

9.7.2 Drug Discovery and Development

AI-assisted pharmaceutical research and development.

Applications in Drug Development:

- Target identification
- Biomarker discovery
- Clinical trial optimization
- Drug repurposing

9.8 Standardization and Validation

9.8.1 Benchmark development

Creation of standardized benchmarks for fair comparison.

Benchmark requirements:

- Diverse and representative datasets
- Standardized evaluation metrics
- Baseline model implementations
- Regular updates and maintenance

9.8.2 Clinical Validation Frameworks

Systematic approaches for clinical validation.

Validation Components:

- Multicenter validation studies
- Prospective clinical trials

- Real-world evidence generation
- Long-term outcome tracking

9.9 Ethical and Social Considerations

9.9.1 Ethical AI development

Ensuring the responsible development and deployment of AI systems.

Ethical principles:

- Fairness and nondiscrimination
- Transparency and accountability
- Privacy and data protection
- Human oversight and control

9.9.2 Social Impact

Considering the broader societal implications of AI in healthcare.

Social considerations:

- Healthcare accessibility
- Digital divide issues
- Workforce impact
- Patient autonomy

9.10 Research Priorities

On the basis of the comprehensive analysis, the following research priorities emerge:

1. High priority:

- Standardized evaluation protocols
- Cross-dataset validation methods
- Interpretability enhancement

- Clinical validation studies

2. **Medium Priority:**

- Federated learning implementation
- Real-time optimization
- Multimodal integration
- Longitudinal modeling

3. **Long-term goals:**

- Quantum machine learning exploration
- Neuromorphic computing adaptation
- Precision medicine integration
- Global healthcare deployment

10 Conclusions

This comprehensive literature review of hybrid CNN architectures for dementia detection using OASIS and ADNI datasets reveals significant advances in the field between 2020 and 2025. The analysis of 156 high-quality studies demonstrated that hybrid approaches consistently outperform traditional single-architecture methods, representing a paradigm shift in automated dementia diagnosis.

10.1 Key Findings

10.1.1 Architectural Superiority

Hybrid CNN architectures demonstrate clear superiority over traditional approaches:

- The **CNN-Transformer hybrids** achieve the highest performance ($95.4\% \pm 1.2\%$ average accuracy).
- **Ensemble methods** provide robust performance ($94.8\% \pm 1.5\%$ average accuracy)
- The multibranch CNNs achieve a good balance of performance and efficiency ($93.7\% \pm 1.9\%$ average accuracy).

- **The traditional CNNs** lag significantly behind ($89.2\% \pm 3.4\%$ average accuracy).

The best-performing system (DenseNet-ViT fusion) achieved 98.7% accuracy on the OASIS dataset, representing a 9.5% improvement over the best traditional CNN approach.

10.1.2 Preprocessing Impact

Advanced preprocessing techniques significantly impact model performance:

- Complete preprocessing pipelines improve accuracy by 15.2% on average
- Entropy-based slice selection provides a 4.5% improvement
- Multimodal fusion contributes 5.5% accuracy gain
- SSIM quality assessment adds a 4.1% improvement

10.1.3 Multitype Classification Progress

Multitype dementia classification shows promising but challenging results:

- Alzheimer's disease: $94.2\% \pm 3.7\%$ accuracy
- Normal controls: $96.8\% \pm 2.1\%$ accuracy
- Vascular dementia: $87.6\% \pm 5.2\%$ accuracy
- Mixed dementia: $82.7\% \pm 7.3\%$ accuracy (most challenging)

10.1.4 Generalization challenges

Cross-dataset validation reveals significant challenges:

- The performance decreases by 8–16% when the data are transferred between datasets
- Domain adaptation techniques reduce this gap to 3–7%
- Multisite training significantly improves the degree of generalizability
- Federated learning shows promise for addressing these issues

10.2 Clinical implications

10.2.1 Diagnostic accuracy

The reviewed approaches demonstrate significant potential for clinical translation:

- Several systems achieve performance levels comparable to those of human experts
- Sensitivity rates of 95% for AD detection are clinically relevant
- Multitype classification capabilities support differential diagnosis
- Longitudinal modeling enables progression tracking

10.2.2 Implementation Considerations

Clinical deployment requires addressing several factors:

- The computational requirements range from 1.5–8.9 seconds of inference time.
- Memory usage varies from 5.2--32.1 GB during training
- Model interpretability remains a key concern for clinical acceptance
- Integration with existing clinical workflows needs careful planning

10.3 Research Gaps and Opportunities

10.3.1 Standardization Needs

The field requires urgent standardization efforts:

- **Preprocessing pipelines:** Inconsistent approaches hinder comparison
- **Evaluation protocols:** Varying metrics and validation strategies
- **Dataset splits:** Need for standardized training/testing divisions
- **Performance reporting:** Comprehensive metrics and statistical analysis

10.3.2 Technical advances required

Several technical challenges need to be addressed:

- **Interpretability:** Development of explainable hybrid architectures
- **Efficiency:** Optimization for clinical deployment constraints

- **Robustness:** Improved generalization across datasets and populations
- **Scalability:** Handling larger datasets and more complex models

10.3.3 Clinical Validation

Comprehensive clinical validation remains essential:

- Large-scale prospective studies
- Multicenter validation trials
- Real-world evidence generation
- Long-term outcome assessment

10.4 Future Outlook

10.4.1 Technological evolution

The field is rapidly evolving toward more sophisticated approaches:

- **Advanced architectures:** Vision Transformers, Graph Neural Networks
- **Multimodal integration:** Imaging + genomics + clinical data
- **Federated learning:** Privacy-preserving collaborative training
- **Edge computing:** Real-time processing capabilities

10.4.2 Clinical Integration

Successful clinical translation will require the following:

- Regulatory approval and validation
- Seamless workflow integration
- Comprehensive clinician training
- Ongoing performance monitoring

10.5 Recommendations

On the basis of this comprehensive analysis, we recommend the following:

10.5.1 For Researchers

1. Adopt standardized preprocessing and evaluation protocols
2. Focus on cross-dataset validation and generalization
3. Prioritizing model interpretability alongside performance
4. Collaborating on large-scale multicenter studies
5. Shared code and implementation details for reproducibility

10.5.2 For Clinicians

1. Engaging in AI system validation and testing
2. Provide feedback on clinical utility and workflow integration
3. Participating in training and education programs
4. Advocate for transparent and explainable AI systems
5. Consider AI as a diagnostic aid, not replacement

10.5.3 Policymakers

1. Development of appropriate regulatory frameworks
2. Support standardization efforts
3. Fund large-scale validation studies
4. Address ethical and privacy concerns
5. Promotion of equitable access to AI-enhanced healthcare

10.6 Final Remarks

The convergence of advanced deep learning architectures, large-scale neuroimaging datasets, and clinical expertise positions hybrid CNN approaches as transformative tools for dementia diagnosis and

patient care. The significant performance improvements demonstrated by hybrid architectures, particularly CNN-transformer combinations, represent a major advancement in automated medical image analysis.

However, the path to clinical deployment requires addressing substantial challenges in standardization, interpretability, and validation. The field must prioritize reproducible research practices, comprehensive clinical validation, and seamless integration with existing healthcare systems.

Future research should focus on developing more interpretable models, improving cross-dataset generalizability, and conducting large-scale clinical validation studies. The integration of multimodal data, implementation of federated learning approaches, and development of real-time processing capabilities will further increase the clinical utility of these systems.

Ultimately, the success of hybrid CNN approaches for dementia detection will be measured not only by their technical performance but also by their ability to improve patient outcomes, support clinical decision-making, and enhance the quality of dementia care worldwide. Continued collaboration between technologists, clinicians, and policymakers will be essential to realize this potential and translate these promising research advances into meaningful clinical impact.

10.7 Author Contributions:

Kaushal Kishor Bhatt (Corresponding Author): Conception and design of the review, systematic literature search and selection, data analysis and interpretation, drafting of the manuscript, critical revision for intellectual content, and final approval of the version to be published.

Prof. Parveen Sehgal: Study supervision, conception and design guidance, critical revision of the manuscript for intellectual content, and final approval of the version to be published. Both authors agree to be accountable for all aspects of the work and ensure that questions related to the accuracy or integrity of any part of the work are appropriately investigated and resolved.

10.8 Competing Interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

10.9 Funding

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10.10 Data availability statement

This study is a comprehensive literature review that analyzes published research papers. The data supporting the conclusions of this review are available in the published articles referenced throughout the manuscript. All papers analyzed in this review were obtained from publicly accessible databases,

including PubMed, IEEE Xplore, SciSpace, and ArXiv. The search strategy, inclusion/exclusion criteria, and analysis methodology are fully described in the Review Methodology section. The complete list of 156 analyzed papers and their performance metrics are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request for research purposes, subject to any applicable copyright restrictions. The OASIS and ADNI datasets referenced in this review are publicly available through their respective official channels: OASIS data can be accessed at <https://www.oasis-brains.org/>, and ADNI data can be requested at <https://adni.loni.usc.edu/>, subject to their respective data use agreements.

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