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# Investigating Reinforcement Learning for Histopathological Image Analysis

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**Keywords:** Deep Reinforcement Learning, Computational Pathology, Whole Slide Images, Medical Image Analysis, Goal-Conditioned Reinforcement Learning.

**Abstract:** In computational pathology, whole slide images represent the primary data source for AI-driven diagnostic algorithms. However, due to their high resolution and large size, these images undergo a patching phase. In this paper, we approach the diagnostic process from a pathologist's perspective, modeling it as a Sequential decision-making problem using reinforcement learning. We build a foundational environment designed to support a range of whole slide applications. We showcase its capability by using it to construct a toy goal-conditioned Navigation environment. Finally, we present an agent trained within this environment and provide results that emphasize both the promise of reinforcement learning in histopathology and the distinct challenges it faces.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

In modern histopathology, precise and efficient analysis of tissue samples is crucial for accurate diagnostics that determine appropriate treatment. Pathologists examine slides under a light microscope, identifying histopathological lesions with various diseases (cancers, inflammatory disorders, infectious diseases...). However, recent technological advances, especially in digital imaging and computational pathology (Pantanowitz et al., 2011; Cornish et al., 2012), have revolutionized this process. Whole slide imaging (WSI) has played an essential role in this transformation. WSI allows entire glass slides to be scanned at high resolution and stored digitally. With WSI, pathologists can visually analyze the digitalized slides in a pyramidal, multi-magnification format ( see Figure 1), accessing both structural and granular information that enhances diagnostic capabilities.

WSI has not only improved the diagnostic processes for pathologists but also facilitated the creation and development of computer-aided systems us-

ing digital slides. In particular, the integration of advances in machine learning (ML) and deep learning (DL) has facilitated the creation of a variety of models and algorithms (Cui and Zhang, 2021). These encompass traditional ML approaches (Naik et al., 2007), supervised and weakly supervised DL methods (Mukherjee et al., 2019; Shao et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2018; Ponzio et al., 2023), and the latest advancements in self-supervised DL (Chen et al., 2024a; Xu et al., 2024). However, due to their substantial size, WSIs cannot be processed entirely by these models. Instead, they are segmented into smaller patches from a specified magnification level, which are then input into the algorithms for prediction. This results in predictions made at the patch level, necessitating an additional aggregation step. This process often requires considerable manual tuning and the intuitive design of various pre-processing and post-processing steps, frequently relying on the expertise of pathologists. As a result, these approaches tend to produce less flexible pipelines. Moreover, they require significant computational resources and time during the inference stage.

Pathologists follow a different diagnostic process;

\*The code is available at the following repository: <https://github.com/mohamad-m2/HistoRL>

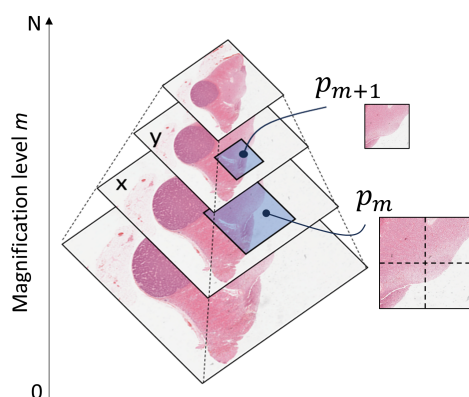


Figure 1: WSI. An illustration of a WSI showcasing its multi-magnification levels. Here, level 0 represents the highest magnification and level N is the lowest.

they handle diagnoses by zooming in and out and navigating different slide regions, which is more akin to a sequential decision process, rather than brute-force patch analysis. A Markov decision process (Sutton and Barto, 2018) (MDP) is a standard framework for modeling sequential decision-making. The complex nature of the histopathological environment, and the absence of any modelization for WSIs, demand interactive, experience-dependent learning, naturally guiding us toward the reinforcement learning (RL) paradigm (Sutton and Barto, 2018), which builds upon the MDP formulation. In an RL problem, at each time step, an *agent*, such as a pathologist, observes the *environment*—in this case, the WSI image state—and takes action accordingly. This action alters the *state* of the environment and produces a new observation along with a *reward* for the agent. The agent should learn optimal actions through the reward feedback. Figure 2 provides a breakdown of the above-mentioned RL scenario, embodying the decision-making procedure of pathologists.

In this work, we model the pathologist’s diagnostic procedure following an RL paradigm, exploiting its capability of learning skills and optimal behavior through direct interaction with the environment. This approach minimizes human intervention in defining and fine-tuning pipelines that are application-dependent or based on prior knowledge. Besides, we expect RL to reduce the computation time at inference by focusing on the most relevant patches. In this primary work, our objective is to frame WSI diagnosis as a general RL problem, rather than applying RL agents to address a specific WSI case study. Specifically, due to the scarcity of RL works in the histopathological community, we first develop a modular, general RL environment built on the TorchRL framework (Bou et al., 2023), suitable

to manage WSI, which we termed *HistoRL*. Our environment should be ideally capable of supporting a wide variety of WSI diagnostic applications, thus serving as a framework for all specific functionalities. As a first step towards a fully working RL framework for WSI analysis, we showcase an example on a toy problem and demonstrate how its environment can be created on top of HistoRL. Lastly, we train an RL agent on some instances of this problem, highlighting the potential and challenges of RL in the histopathological imaging field. To summarize, our main contributions are:

- **HistoRL:** A modular and versatile environment framework designed specifically for WSI diagnostic applications, capable of supporting a variety of histopathological use cases and serving as a foundation for application-specific environments.
- **Practical Environment Example:** A demonstration of HistoRL in practice through the development of a toy problem environment, illustrating how new WSI-related tasks can be built and managed within this framework.
- **RL Agent Training:** Implementation and training of an RL agent on instances of the toy problem, showcasing the feasibility, potential, and challenges of applying RL approaches in histopathological imaging.

## 2 BACKGROUND

Over the past decade, RL algorithms have achieved significant success across a range of fields, including video games (Mnih, 2013; Mnih et al., 2015), robotics (Han et al., 2023), self-driving cars (Kiran et al., 2021), and large language models (LLMs) (Ziegler et al., 2019). Despite its considerable advancements, RL exploration in histopathology remains limited. Qaiser (Qaiser and Rajpoot, 2019) and Dong (Dong et al., 2018) were pioneers in exploring RL for histopathological images. Qaiser’s approach involves using a policy to select diagnostically relevant regions from an image tile for calculating the Her2 score (Vance et al., 2009), coupled with a recurrent convolutional neural network. Dong, on the other hand, proposed Auto-Zoom Net, which segments tumors in breast cancer at different magnification levels using RL to determine the optimal level for segmentation tile by tile. Chen et al. (Chen et al., 2024b) was the first to deploy a hierarchical reinforcement learning scheme with a worker and manager for super-resolution. Unfortunately, none of these works established a general environment for histopathological

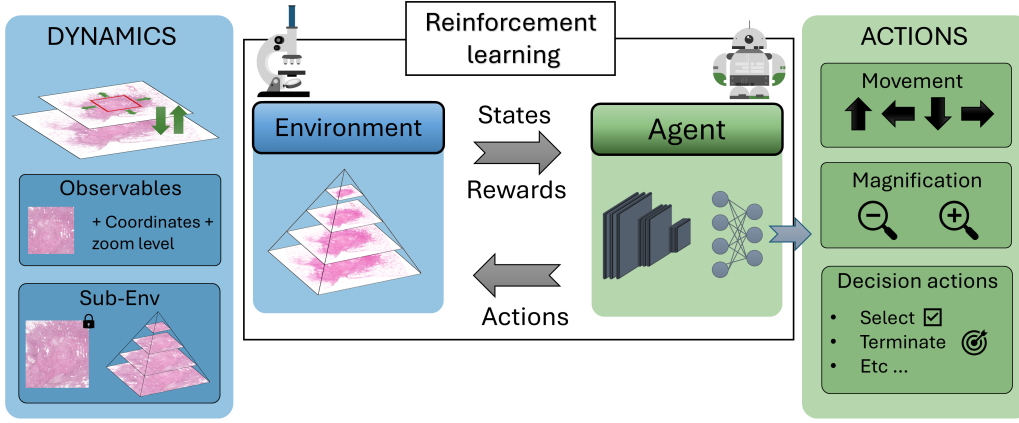


Figure 2: The reinforcement learning scheme applied to histopathology. On the right side, the neural network represents the agent, which can take actions such as moving up, down, left, or right, as well as zooming in and out, along with other decision-making actions. On the left side, the environment is represented by a WSI image, which dynamically responds to the agent’s actions. The environment provides basic observations, including the current patch image at the agent’s position, the x and y coordinates, the zoom level, and the ability to create sub-environments within defined bounds of the WSI.

images. Recently, Liu et al. (Liu et al., 2024) proposed an environment built on OpenAI Gym framework (Brockman, 2016), specifically for tumor region identification. While this environment offers some degree of configurability in terms of actions and observations, it is inherently tailored for tumor area identification, making it less suitable and challenging to extend for other types of histopathological applications. Thus, there remains a need for a generic environment capable of supporting a wide range of applications in histopathological research and adaptable to enable broader RL research in histopathology.

### 3 METHODOLOGY

Seeking the modeling of histopathological image diagnosis as a sequential decision-making problem, we aim to develop a versatile environment that supports a wide range of downstream applications on WSIs, including tumor detection, tumor segmentation, and tissue classification tasks. In this section, we present a general problem formulation using RL. In the following, we detail our HistoRL, highlighting the RL elements it defines and solidifies, as well as those it leaves to be specified by downstream applications. We then illustrate how the complete framework comes together using a simple goal-conditioned environment designed to solve a localization task. Lastly, we detail the fully defined elements of its RL formulation.

#### 3.1 RL Formulation

We follow the definition of an MDP, where  $M = (S, A, G, R, \gamma)$ , with the following components (Schaul et al., 2015):

- $S$  is the set of possible states  $s \in S$ .
- $A$  is the set of possible actions  $a \in A$ .
- $G$  is the set of goals  $g \in G$ .
- $R(s, a | g)$  is the reward function that provides a reward for being in state  $s$  and taking action  $a$  given the goal  $g$ .
- $\gamma$  is the discount factor,  $\gamma \in [0, 1)$ .

The objective is to find a goal-dependent policy  $\pi_g : S \times G \rightarrow A$ . The policy  $\pi_g(a | s, g)$  defines the probability of taking action  $a$  when in state  $s$  and under goal  $g$ , aiming to maximize the expected discounted future reward. The optimal policy  $\pi_g^*$  is defined as:

$$\pi_g^* = \arg \max_{\pi_g} E_{\pi_g}[G_t | s, g] \quad (1)$$

where the return  $G_t$  over a specific timestep  $t$  in an episode is given by:

$$G_t = \sum_{n=t}^T \gamma^{n-t} r_{n+1} \quad (2)$$

$r_{n+1}$  represents  $R(s_n, a_n | g)$ . An episode consists of a sequence  $\{(s_0, a_0, r_1), (s_1, a_1, r_2), \dots, (s_T, a_T, r_{T+1})\}$  following policy  $\pi_g$ . The episode terminates when the termination condition is met or when another stopping condition is enforced.

$$V^{\pi_g}(s, g) = E_{\pi_g}[G_t | s, g] \quad (3)$$

Finally, the value function is the expectation of the returns  $G_t$ . It defines the "goodness" of being in a specific state  $s$  under the policy  $\pi_g$ , while considering the goal  $g$ .

### 3.2 HistoRL

As aforementioned, the purpose of our base environment is to serve as a framework for WSI downstream applications. Hence, it implements all the shared and general functionalities across these various applications. Observing how pathologists perform diagnoses by navigating WSI, we find that they primarily engage in two actions: moving along the X and Y axes and zooming in and out. Thus, HistoRL defines and handles these two actions, while not hindering the definition of others, thus rendering A to  $\{A_{move}, A_{zoom}, \dots\}$ . Note that the exact implementation of  $A_{move}$  and  $A_{zoom}$  is left to the downstream environment. This means that HistoRL does not directly impose a specific implementation for these actions (for example move one or half a patch to the right); instead, it expects to receive and handle them within its dynamics (move horizontally by factor X). In addition, it can simultaneously execute multiple actions, such as zooming and moving within a single timestep. Managing these movements lays the foundation for WSIs' navigation and, consequently, for any RL-defined task based on WSIs.

Being in a state  $s$ , at a specific position  $p$  in the WSI, and receiving the navigator actions  $a_{move}$  and  $a_{zoom}$ , forces the current position to evolve to the state  $s'$  at the position  $p'$ . While HistoRL does not define what exactly is the state space, it forces one of its components to be the image view (patch) at the current position  $p$  (where  $p$  includes the  $x$ ,  $y$ , and zoom level coordinates). It also allows for the position coordinates to be included in the state if the downstream task requests them (see Figure 2, Observable section), resulting in a state space structured as  $\{S_{current\ patch}, \dots\}$ . Any extra components of the state must be defined by the downstream environment. The other components, including goals, reward functions, and termination conditions, are entirely left for the downstream environment to implement, as they are fully application-dependent. However, HistoRL provides the functionality to handle these elements once they are provided. When the goal is omitted, the task shifts to a standard, non-goal-conditioned RL problem.

Finally, due to the complexity of WSI images, HistoRL can create a sub-environment that focuses on a bounded region within the WSI instead of using the entire WSI as the environment (see Figure 2 on the left, Sub-Env).

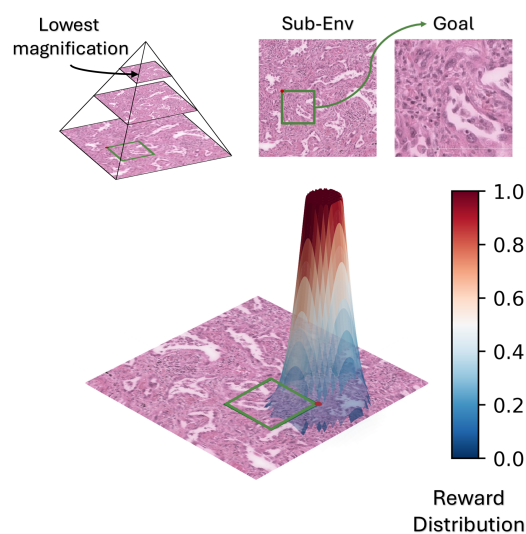


Figure 3: The localization task and its reward distribution. The top-left pyramid illustrates a bounded environment for the task, with three magnification levels. Here, the goal belongs to the highest magnification level at the bottom of the pyramid. The graph at the bottom of the figure displays the reward distribution: when the agent approaches the goal's location, a reward is provided, starting within a specific area around the goal and increasing as the agent gets closer, capping at a maximum value of one.

### 3.3 Localisation Pre-Text Environment

We developed a goal-conditioned toy task on top of our HistoRL, showcasing a well-defined reinforcement learning problem in action. Our application focuses on patch localization, leveraging a self-supervised pretext task that we introduced in previous work for whole slide images (Mohamad et al., 2024). In this task, a low-magnification patch  $p_y$  is extracted from the image at level  $y$ , while a high-magnification patch  $p_x$  is extracted at level  $x$ , where  $0 \leq x < y \leq n$ ; 0 represents the highest magnification level, and  $n$  represents the lowest. Furthermore,  $p_x$  is selected in a way that ensures it lies within the area defined by  $p_y$ . The goal is to locate  $p_x$  using  $p_y$  as our sub-environment (see Figure 3). Our primary motivation for deploying this task as our initial application, lies in its nature as a purely navigational task, requiring the search for a specific patch using only visual input. This task necessitates learning a goal-dependent navigation behavior, a behavior we argue to be essential in many WSI-based diagnostic procedures.

- **Actions:** The action space for the self-supervised environment does not introduce any new actions. It implements the existing actions of zooming and moving as discrete actions defined as follows:
  - Moving along the  $x$  and  $y$  axes by a factor of  $-0.25$ ,  $0$ , or  $+0.25$  relative to the current patch.

- Zooming in and out by a factor of 2 or staying still.
- **Goals:** The goal is defined as the image representing  $p_x$  in  $p_y$ , and the coordinates are provided to be used by the reward function.
- **States:** The state is composed of the current observation, represented by the patch image at the current coordinates, the low-resolution image  $p_y$  which serves as a view of the entire space, and the goal image. Additionally, the coordinates are included for the calculation of the reward function.
- **Rewards:** The reward function is defined such that it increases as the current position gets closer to the goal in terms of  $x$  and  $y$  coordinates (see Figure 3 bottom), if and only if the zoom level of the observation is the same as the goal's.

$$r = \begin{cases} \min\left(\frac{25 \times 2^{g_t}}{\|g_c - o_c\|_2 + \epsilon}, 1\right) & \text{if } \|g_c - o_c\|_2 < t \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

**Where:**

$g_t$  is the zoom level for the goal state, scaling the reward accordingly.

$g_c$  denotes the  $(x, y)$  coordinates of the goal.

$o_c$  denotes the  $(x, y)$  coordinates of the observed patch.

$\epsilon$  is a small positive constant added for numerical stability.

$t$  is the threshold distance value below which a reward is granted.

- **Termination:** The episode ends when the agent reaches the goal, as identified by the reward signal. Specifically, the termination condition is met when  $r > 0.5$  which represents an intersection  $> 70\%$  with the goal patch.

## 4 EXPERIMENTS

### 4.1 Experimental Setup

The agent architecture is based on a convolutional neural network designed for feature extraction, specifically utilizing a ResNet18 model that has been pre-trained on ImageNet. This architecture features two multi-layer perceptrons (MLPs), each comprising two hidden layers with each layer containing 1536 neurons: one MLP is dedicated to the critic network, while the other is dedicated to the actor network. We employ Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) (Schulman et al., 2017) for training the agent. The actor's output is a discrete probability distribution

over seven possible actions: moving up, down, left, right, zooming in, zooming out, and staying still. Both the critic and actor share the weights of the ResNet18 backbone, we perform the training while keeping the batch-norm layers (Ioffe and Szegedy, 2015) in eval mode. The training process spanned 7 hours on a single NVIDIA A100 GPU.

In this study, we implement an instance of the Localisation Pre-text with a fixed sub-environment and a varying goal across episodes. Ideally, we would like to have them both change. However, this is not trivial for our agent at this stage. The experimental design incorporates three levels of magnification (see Figure 3 top-left) where the agent can move. The lowest magnification level consists of a low-resolution image that represents the sub-environment. Goals are randomly selected from the two higher magnification levels, with an increased probability assigned to the highest magnification level. This approach is chosen because patches at higher magnifications are more abundant, and the larger movement space makes them more challenging to reach. Additionally, the initial position of the agent is randomly determined across all three levels. All of the images in the state are of size  $224 \times 224 \times 3$ . It is noteworthy that for the results presented, extensive hyper-parameter tuning of the agent was not performed.

### 4.2 Results and Discussion

As reported by the training curve, the agent shows significant improvement, increasing from an average reward of approximately 0.01 to 0.23. The average reward is computed by aggregating rewards across numerous steps over multiple episodes. Notably, the model nearly achieves the optimal policy's performance, which yields a mean reward of 0.245, calculated over 12 randomly generated episodes. The agent's learned behavior is particularly promising, as demonstrated by the episodes visualized in Figure 4. The first row of images shows the initial timestep of each episode, with the green box marking the goal and the orange box indicating the agent's position. The intermediate images illustrate the agent's trajectory as it progresses through the episode, while the final row displays the last timestep. The model demonstrates a strong ability to act upon visual cues, consistently reaching the goal in all trials. A particularly interesting behavior emerges in episodes A and B, where the agent learns to use the "zoom-out" action to take larger steps. This behavior aligns with the optimal policy and is a critical step toward efficient navigation. However, the agent's use of the zoom-out action remains imperfect; its probability of selecting this ac-

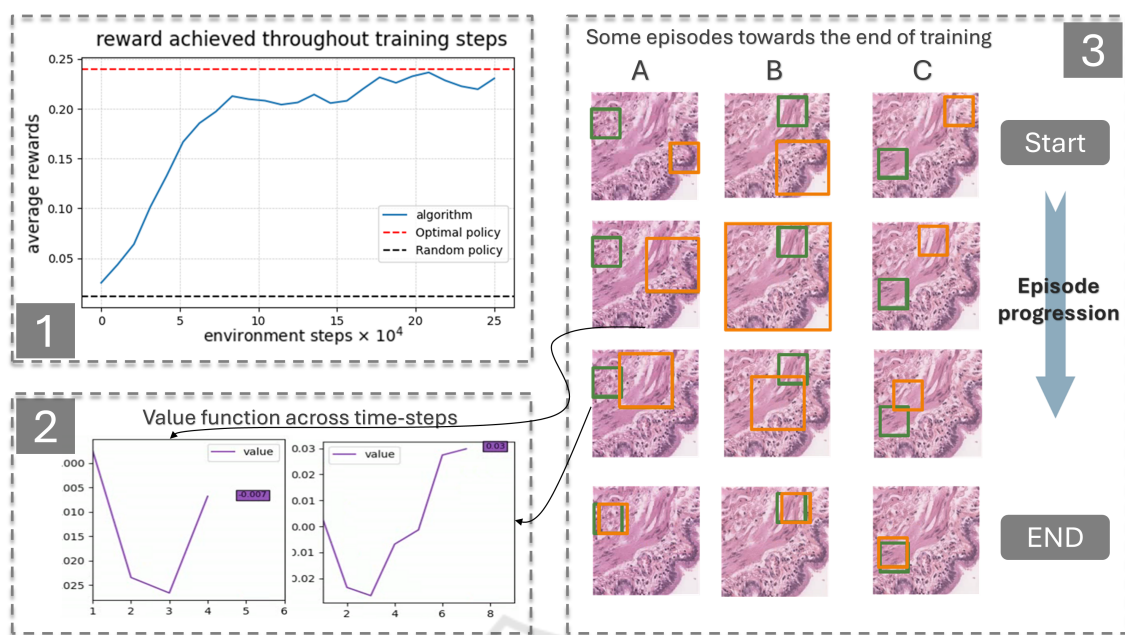


Figure 4: Results. Figure 1 illustrates the average reward achieved by the agent during training, compared to an optimal policy. The reward steadily increases throughout training, narrowing the gap between the agent and optimal policy. Figure 2 depicts the value functions estimated by the model for two specific states during a single episode. The results show that the estimated value is higher when the agent is closer to the goal. Figure 3 highlights three episodes (A, B, and C) at the end of the optimization process. The green box denotes the goal while the orange box indicates the actor’s current position. The first row shows the starting states for each episode, while the last row displays the corresponding end states. The intermediate images, captured sequentially over time, provide insight into the agent’s behavior and the transitions through significant states.

tion is not yet sufficiently high in the relevant cases, and the behavior is absent in episode C. This highlights room for improvement in the agent’s policy refinement. Additionally, the value function estimates across different states demonstrate logical patterns: states closer to the goal have higher estimated values than those farther away. In summary, while the model is still under development, its ability to learn, improve, and navigate effectively within the WSI environment demonstrates both its potential and feasibility for further advancement.

## 5 CONCLUSIONS

We presented our work of modeling WSI as an RL problem, established a versatile environment for WSI applications, and trained an agent for a navigation task. Our results demonstrate the potential of RL in histopathological image navigation and highlight the interesting navigational behaviors that can be effectively learned. However, this study remains preliminary and does not yet address the challenges of generalization across different environments and patients. Such a problem is inherently more complex and requires further optimization. Our future work

focuses on tackling the generalization problem and increasing task complexity by incorporating larger sub-environments and introducing additional zoom levels. Additionally, we aim to apply the algorithm to a real-world case study, where we can showcase the primary advantage of our formulation of reducing the inference time required by the agent.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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