

Dr. Lekha Bist^{1*}, Shagun Agarwal², Dr. Amrapali Gajbhiye³, Supriya Pottal Ray⁴, Dr Suresh Kumar Sharma⁵

¹*Professor, Galgotias School of Nursing, Galgotias University, Greater Noida, lekhabist@gmail.com Orcid Id:- Orcid ID-0009-0006-3108-9118

²Professor, School of Allied Health Sciences, Galgotias University, Greater Noida, shagunmpt@gmail.com Orcid Id: 0000-0003-4265-2958

³Professor cum principal Vspm madhuribai Deshmukh institute of nursing education Nagpur. ORCID id 0009-0005-4089-4518

⁴PhD Nursing, Associate Professor Bharati Vidyapeeth (Deemed To Be University), College of Nursing, Pune. Orcid ID:- 0000-0002-6253-8346

⁵Consultant, Clinical and Nursing Informatics, CDAC, Pune, India. sharmasuru.aadi@gmail.com Orcid Id:- 0000-0002-2844-9542

*Corresponding Author: Dr. Lekha Bist

*Dean, Galgotias School of Nursing, Galgotias University, Greater Noida, lekhabist@gmail.com Orcid Id:- Orcid ID-0009-0006-3108-9118

Evaluating The Role Of Deep Learning In Enhancing Renal Health Assessment: A Comprehensive Review

For citation: Kidneys. 2026;15(1):01-11. Acceptance- 30/10/2025 Received- 15/10/2025

doi: 10.65327/kidneys.v15i1.596

Abstract

Kidney diseases, including chronic kidney disease (CKD) and acute kidney injury (AKI), pose a substantial global health burden and are associated with high morbidity, mortality, and healthcare costs. Conventional methods for renal health assessment are limited by delayed detection, inter-observer variability, and restricted capacity to integrate complex, longitudinal data. Recent advances in deep learning have created new opportunities to enhance renal disease assessment through data-driven, automated, and scalable approaches. This review aims to evaluate the role of deep learning in improving renal health assessment across structural, functional, and clinical domains, with a focus on its potential to support early diagnosis, risk stratification, and personalized renal care. A comprehensive narrative review of the literature was conducted, focusing on peer-reviewed studies that apply deep learning techniques to renal imaging, functional assessment, disease classification, renal replacement therapy, and transplantation. Key challenges related to data quality, interpretability, ethical considerations, and clinical implementation were also examined. Deep learning has demonstrated strong performance in structural renal assessment, including kidney segmentation, cyst quantification, and tumor classification. Functional applications include early prediction of AKI, estimation of renal function decline, and imaging-based glomerular filtration rate assessment. Integration with electronic health records has enabled improved disease classification, risk stratification, and outcome prediction. Emerging applications in dialysis and transplantation show promise for optimizing advanced renal care. Deep learning offers significant potential to enhance renal health assessment and clinical decision-making. Continued advances in explainability, data integration, and ethical deployment will be critical for successful clinical translation and widespread adoption in nephrology practice.

Keywords: Deep Learning; Renal Health Assessment; Chronic Kidney Disease; Artificial Intelligence in Nephrology

1. Introduction

Kidney diseases pose a significant and increasing worldwide population health issue, which has a significant morbidity and mortality burden on the healthcare system of the world. Chronic kidney disease (CKD) occurs in hundreds of millions of patients and is characterised by a gradual reduction in renal functioning, which results in end-stage renal disease and the heightened risk of cardiovascular diseases. Moreover, acute kidney injury (AKI) is a common and complicated complication of hospitalisation and critical

illness, and it is commonly a precursor to permanent renal failure. Renal disorders are complicated and heterogeneous conditions which require precise, timely, and thorough methods of kidney health assessment in order to enhance patient outcomes and inform clinical decision-making.

Chronic kidney disease is defined as a long-term or prolonged condition of abnormal kidney structure or functionality beyond three months that has major health consequences. Romagnani et al. gave an elaborate description of CKD as a multidimensional disease entity

that has various etiologies, progressive nature, and systemic effects [1]. In the early stages, CKD can be asymptomatic and this factor leads to the late diagnosis and restricts the possibility of early intervention. Early and accurate diagnosis of the disease is crucial because, as the renal functionality worsens, patients are more likely to develop cardiovascular disease, metabolic complications, and premature death.

The current burden of CKD has grown significantly during the last decades due to the ageing population and the escalating rates of diabetes, hypertension, and obesity. Bikbov et al. have made a thorough study of the global, regional and national trends in the burden of CKD, which show that all parts of the world are experiencing a steady rise in prevalence and mortality rates associated with CKD [2]. Their results point to the fact that there is a huge geographic difference in the disease burden and access to care, especially in low- and middle-income nations. These tendencies put increasing pressure on healthcare services and highlight the necessity of scalable and cost-effective kidney disease evaluation and monitoring tools.

Acute kidney injury is another severe element of renal disease burden that is especially present in hospitalised and critically ill groups. AKI has been linked to sudden decreases in renal function and is linked to a higher rate of short-term mortality, extended hospitalisation, and high healthcare expenses. Hoste et al. outlined the epidemiology of AKI in the world, stating its great prevalence in different clinical environments and its close correlation with unfavourable outcomes [3]. Notably, AKI is not merely an acute phenomenon but also a contributor to the further occurrence and progression of CKD, which further increases post-renal disease effects on the overall patient health.

Although kidney diseases are very heavy, traditional approaches to renal health evaluation have significant weaknesses. Conventional biomarkers like serum creatinine and estimated glomerular filtration rate give indirect and delayed indications of kidney functioning. Levey and Coresh pointed out the advantages and weaknesses of the existing CKD classification and assessment strategies and pointed out that such measures might be affected by age, muscle mass, and comorbidity [4]. The informative techniques of imaging and biopsy are resource-consuming, prone to inter-observer variability, and do not always lend themselves to repeated or large-scale use.

Here, the concept of using the most advanced computational methods to improve the assessment of renal health is gaining traction. The growing access of large-scale clinical, imaging, and longitudinal data has provided novel opportunities to use data to analyse nephrology. Artificial intelligence, and deep learning specifically, provides the capability to approximate the relationships between complex and non-linear entities in high-dimensional data and identify clinically significant patterns that might otherwise be inaccessible to traditional methods of analysis. These features make deep learning a prospective instrument in enhancing the process of early detection, risk stratification, and longitudinal monitoring of renal disease.

This review aims to critically analyse the importance of deep learning in improving the renal health assessment based on the synthesis of existing evidence in structural, functional, and clinical areas. This article aims to offer an introductory insight into the way deep learning can be used to assist in the provision of more accurate, efficient, and personalised renal care by reviewing the latest developments, problems, and opportunities and laying the groundwork towards the improvement of nephrology and urology practise.

2. Deep Learning Concepts Relevant to Renal Medicine

Deep learning (DL), a branch of machine learning on artificial neural networks with multiple hidden layers, has become a paradigm shift in contemporary medical research and practise. In contrast to traditional machine learning methods which are very dependent on hand designed features, deep learning models learn hierarchical representations using raw data, which gives them better results in complex and high dimensional biomedical data. The LeCun et al. seminal work made deep learning a paradigm, emphasising its ability to capture non-linear relationships, as well as its specific applicability to image, signal, and sequential data, which is often present in healthcare [5].

Convolutional neural networks (CNNs) are also the most popular deep learning structures used in medicine. CNNs are uniquely tailored to manipulate grid-like data like medical images and have shown impressive performance in processes like detection, segmentation and classification. CNN-based frameworks are especially useful in renal medicine to analyse ultrasound images, computed tomography (CT) images, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) images, and histopathological images. The extensive survey by Litjens et al. emphasises that CNNs are superior in medical image analysis and strong in extracting clinically significant spatial features which frequently outperform human performance at individual diagnostic tasks [6]. In addition to CNNs, representation learning can be used to find latent features that reflect complex patterns of diseases without direct annotation, allowing scalable and generalizable renal health evaluation.

Deep learning processes in healthcare are not confined to model architecture but are also the whole pipeline, including data acquisition and clinical deployment. Esteva et al. presented a standardised working process, which included data preprocessing, model training, model validation, and model testing and prospective evaluation in real-world clinical practise [7]. In the renal process, such workflow frequently incorporates multimodal data, such as imaging, laboratory values, and electronic health records. To maintain reproducibility and clinical reliability, proper dataset curation, missing data, and data leakage prevention are necessary. Further, clinically relevant metrics, including sensitivity, specificity, area under the receiver operating characteristic curve, and calibration, are essential in determining the usefulness of the model in the practise of nephrology.

Although deep learning models have impressive predictive performance, the black-box nature of deep

learning models presents considerable challenges to clinical adoption. The interpretability and explainability of models are especially important in renal medicine, where the results of diagnostic and treatment choices have long-term outcomes on patients. Explainable artificial intelligence (XAI) approaches seek to offer an understanding of how models reach certain predictions and thus improve clinician trust and enable regulatory acceptance. Samek et al. have examined a wide range of explainability methods such as saliency maps, layer-wise relevance propagation, and feature attribution methods, which are being more and more used in medical professional areas [8]. Such techniques in renal

imaging may emphasise anatomy or biomarkers that are driving model predictions, and bring algorithmic outputs in line with existing clinical reasoning.

Deep learning offers a solid methodological base to support the development of renal health evaluation with strong architectures, structured processes, as well as new explainability solutions. These are the key ideas that should be understood to critically assess the existing applications and to inform responsible implementation of deep learning models into nephrology and urology practise. A schematic overview of the deep learning workflow for renal health assessment is illustrated in Figure 1.

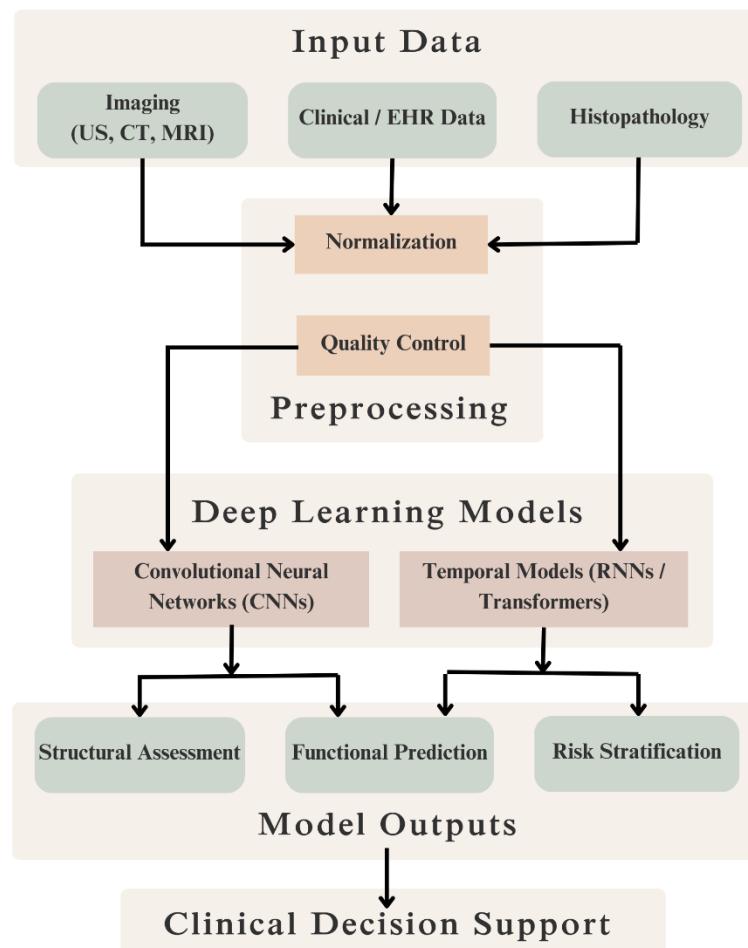


Figure 1. Deep Learning Pipeline for Renal Health Assessment

3. Renal Data Modalities and Sources

The success of the approaches based on deep learning in the context of renal health assessment primarily depends on the availability and diversity of underlying data and their quality. Renal medicine enjoys a broad spectrum of data modalities which offer complementary information on kidney structure, function and disease pathology. Of them, the medical imaging data represent one of the main points of deep learning usage, providing the non-invasive visualisation of the renal morphology and pathology. Erickson et al. pointed out the critical importance of imaging modalities which are ultrasound, computed tomography (CT), and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), as in machine learning-based medical analysis, they are ideally suited to the execution of such tasks as segmentation, lesion detection and disease

classification [9]. The imaging information in nephrology is regularly employed to assess the size, morphology, perfusion, and the existence of structural abnormalities, which makes it especially vulnerable to the analysis of convolutional neural networks.

Besides imaging, critical care and longitudinal clinical data are also crucial in the assessment of renal health, particularly in the functional assessment and prognosis. Electronic health record systems of intensive care units and hospital-wide large-scale databases allow developing predictive models of acute kidney injury, disease progression, and mortality. MIMIC-III database was pioneered by Johnson et al. as an openly accessible critical care database, which included physiological measures (high-resolution), laboratory findings, and clinical documentation, all spanning very long periods

[10]. These longitudinal data have particular importance in modelling time-dependent changes in renal functionality and training deep learning-based solutions that can predict risks continuously and provide early warning, which are critical in the management of acute and chronic kidney diseases.

The information on pathology and radiology can also complement renal datasets with micro- and macro-level insights into kidney disease. Histopathological slides provide comprehensive information about the changes in glomerular, tubular, and interstitial, radiological images are used to record the structural changes in the organ level. Nonetheless, these data sources are very difficult to integrate. Shah and Gautam also mentioned several diagnostic and technical barriers to implementing artificial intelligence in pathology and radiology, such as inconsistency in image acquisition protocols, inter-observer differences in annotation, and non-standardised labelling practises [11]. In renal medicine, these issues are especially acute as the heterogeneity of the disease and minor morphological differences may make it hard to train and validate the model.

The quality of data, heterogeneity, and preprocessing are some of the essential factors to consider when designing

deep learning models to assess the renal condition. Renal datasets can be several institutions, imaging devices, and clinical settings which can contribute to significant differences in data distributions. According to Lundervold and Lundervold, strict preprocessing, such as normalisation, artefact removal, and data augmentation, is necessary to reduce scanner-specific biases and enhance model generalizability, especially in studies with MRI [12]. Also, lack of data, imbalance of classes, and small sample sizes are still an issue in the renal research that requires attentive dataset curation and validation measures.

The renal data modalities are a complicated ecosystem of imaging, clinical and pathological data. To effectively exploit such a wide range of sources, it is necessary not only to have sophisticated deep learning architectures but also to be careful about data quality and harmonisation. Overcoming these issues is a precondition to developing strong, clinically translatable deep learning systems in the renal health assessment. The major renal data modalities and their associated deep learning applications are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Renal Data Modalities and Their Applications in Deep Learning-Based Renal Health Assessment

Data Modality	Examples	Clinical Purpose	Deep Learning Tasks	References
Ultrasound	B-mode, Doppler	Renal size, obstruction	Segmentation, classification	Erickson et al. [9]
CT Imaging	Contrast-enhanced CT	Structural assessment	Lesion detection	Erickson et al. [9]
MRI	Structural & functional MRI	Tissue characterization	Feature learning	Lundervold and Lundervold [12]
Histopathology	Biopsy slides	Cellular-level diagnosis	Image quantification	Shah and Gautam [11]
Clinical/EHR Data	Labs, vitals	Longitudinal monitoring	Temporal modeling	Johnson et al. [10]

4. Deep Learning for Structural Renal Assessment

The structural evaluation of the kidneys is a fundamental part of the process of renal diagnosis and treatment since most renal diseases appear in the form of anatomical and morphological alterations. Deep learning has become a potent instrument of automation and upgrading of the renal structure analysis, especially because it can process complex images and histopathological data with high accuracy and consistency. Automated kidney and cyst segmentation is one of the most outstanding applications in this field and it is necessary to quantify the disease burden and progression. Kline et al. showed that semantic segmentation models based on deep learning are effective in detecting and localising kidney cysts in magnetic resonance images of patients with autosomal-dominant polycystic kidney disease with an acceptable precision level that is challenging to obtain manually [13].

In addition to gross anatomical imaging, deep learning has facilitated the analysis of renal histopathology by allowing objective assessment of tissue-level changes in high amounts of tissue. Histopathological examination has been the gold standard of diagnosis of most of the renal diseases, but is time-consuming and prone to inter-observer variability. Bouteldja et al. used deep learning-

based segmentation and quantification methods on experimental kidney histopathology and showed neural networks can be reliable in detecting and quantifying essential structural features, glomeruli, tubules, and fibrotic areas [14]. These methods do not only enhance reproducibility, but also enable large-scale quantitative analyses which can reveal hidden pathological trends, applicable to disease mechanisms and treatment response.

Deep learning has demonstrated a great potential in renal mass classification through cross-sectional imaging methods like contrast-enhanced computed tomography as well. Proper distinction between benign and malignant kidney lesions is instrumental in the provision of clinical decision-making and the prevention of avoidable treatments. Zabihollahy et al. proposed a convolutional neural network-based model with decision fusion method to classify solid renal masses on CT images, and with high diagnostic accuracy [15]. Radiologists can be assisted with such models as they offer high-quality, data-driven evaluations of renal tumours, especially in complicated or doubtful cases. Notably, recent works have transcended beyond the proof-of-concept research to the clinical implementation of deep learning models in structural renal evaluation.

Goel et al. published the clinical application of a deep learning-based kidney segmentation framework in polycystic kidney disease MRI, and it was integrated into the regular clinical practise [16]. This paper has emphasised essential factors in successful implementation such as robustness of models with different imaging protocols, easy-to-use interfaces, and compatibility with the current radiology systems. Clinical use is an important milestone in the process of transferring deep learning innovations to patient care.

The role of deep learning in improving the structural renal evaluation has significantly advanced on multiple scales, such as organ-level imaging to tissue-level histopathology. The objective quantification, automated segmentation and reliable classification of the renal structures are enhancing diagnostic accuracy and efficiency and minimising variations among the observers. With the continuous maturation of clinically deployed systems, deep learning will become an even more inseparable part of the structural assessment of the renal health.

5. Deep Learning for Functional Renal Assessment

The functional assessment of kidneys is critical in determining the severity of the disease, treatment decisions, and long-term prognosis among patients with renal diseases. The conventional renal function indices, including serum creatinine and estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) have shortcomings of slow responsiveness and inter-subject deviation. The increasing interest in deep learning-based approaches as having the capability to model complex, nonlinear relationships in high-dimensional clinical data and to offer earlier and more valid functional assessment has thus increased. A major use is the forecasting of cellular renal disease. Chen et al. created and externally tested an ensemble machine learning model that combines various clinical variables to forecast long-term worsening of renal status in patients with CKD with better predictive accuracy compared to traditional statistical models [17]. Another area of deep learning that can be of great clinical use is the early diagnosis of acute kidney injury (AKI). AKI usually leads to a rapid development and is linked to higher morbidity and mortality, especially in patients who are hospitalised and are in critical conditions. Koyner et al. have outlined the creation of an inpatient AKI prediction model that was developed

based on routinely gathered electronic health record data using machine learning and allowed risk stratification before serum creatinine levels had a chance to rise dramatically [18]. Clinicians can use such predictive systems to administer preventive interventions earlier, and this may help reduce renal damage and enhance patient outcomes. These models highlight the fact that deep learning can discern small time patterns in physiological and laboratory data that predict clinically known AKI.

Continuous and real-time functional monitoring has developed as one of the most important developments brought about by deep learning based on early detection. Instead of using the static or intermittent assessment, continuous prediction models can dynamically update risk estimates with the emergence of new data. Tomašev et al. presented a deep learning-based method of predicting future AKI continuously that can be used in clinical practise, showing its ability to provide real-time warning hours to days before clinical onset [19]. This renal care shift is a paradigm shift of reactive to proactive and demonstrates why deep learning has potential to help timely clinical decision-making and aid patient safety in high-risk environments.

Besides the data-driven functional prediction, deep learning has further widened the range of renal function assessment by imaging-based estimation methods. Traditional eGFR estimates can only give a worldwide estimate of kidney functionality and fails to recognise inter-kidney variability and localised impaired functionality. Bao et al. suggested a deep learning framework to estimate the single-kidney glomerular filtration rate by imaging data in a wide range of renal diseases and provided a non-invasive and more granular evaluation of renal functioning [20]. These methods are especially helpful with a unilateral disease, preoperative planning and post-transplant evaluation.

These developments show the increased use of deep learning in functional renal evaluation. Deep learning technologies are transforming the process of renal function assessment and treatment in a clinical environment, allowing to identify injury earlier, monitor renal status continuously, and estimate kidney function using innovative imaging methods. A summary of deep learning applications in structural and functional renal assessment is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Deep Learning Applications Across Structural and Functional Renal Domains

Assessment Domain	Clinical Task	Data Type	Deep Learning Approach	Clinical Utility	Key References
Structural	Kidney segmentation	MRI, CT	CNN-based segmentation	Disease burden quantification	Kline et al [13]; Goel et al. [16]
	Renal mass classification	CT	CNN with decision fusion	Tumor characterization	Zabihollahy et al. [15]
	Histopathology analysis	Biopsy images	DL-based image analysis	Objective tissue assessment	Bouteldja et al. [14]
Functional	CKD progression prediction	Clinical data	Ensemble ML/DL	Early intervention planning	Chen et al. [17]
	AKI early detection	EHR data	Temporal DL models	Real-time risk alerts	Koyner et al. [18]; Tomašev et al. [19]
	GFR estimation	Imaging data	CNN regression models	Non-invasive function assessment	Bao et al. [20]

6. Disease Classification and Risk Stratification

The key to personalised renal care is accurate disease classification and risk stratification because patients with kidney disease are highly heterogeneous in their disease progression, response to treatment, and clinical outcome. The traditional classification systems which are usually founded on fixed clinical cutoffs can be inadequate to record the interplay among demographic, biochemical, and comorbid variables that determine the courses of renal diseases. There has been an increased adoption of machine learning and deep learning approaches to enhance risk prediction and to facilitate a more careful stratification of patients. Lerner et al. conducted a review of modern risk predictive models of chronic kidney disease progression and found that to predict high-risk patients and implement an intervention strategy in time, it is essential to consider a combination of various clinical factors [21].

In addition to chronic kidney disease, stratification with machine learning has demonstrated special potential in the acute kidney injury, in which it is essential to identify high-risk patients as early as possible. Zhang et al. used machine learning to forecast volume responsiveness in oliguric acute kidney injury patients in the intensive care unit and found out that data-driven models could be more effective than traditional clinical parameters in ranking patients by physiological response and risk [22]. This stratification allows making decisions on the treatment of each person more individually, which may prevent complications related to the management of fluids and increase short-term outcomes in critically ill populations.

The mainstream implementation of electronic health records (EHRs) has increased the pace of deep learning in nephrology even further by promoting the use of deep learning in the classification of diseases and the evaluation of risks. Longitudinal and multimodal data including laboratory results, medications, vital signs and clinical notes can be found in EHRs, creating a rich substrate on which predictive modelling can be performed. A deep learning-based method of risk prediction based on electronic health records was presented by Cheng et al., and it was shown that neural networks can automatically learn more complex representations of features based on large-scale clinical data [23]. These methods can be used in renal medicine to support ongoing risk evaluation at various levels of care, including outpatient management of CKD and the inpatient monitoring of AKI.

Deep learning can perform phenotyping of large populations of patients and subgroups on a large scale, beyond a disease nomenclature and more specifically characterise clinical phenotypes. Landi et al. have shown how deep representation learning can be used to identify latent patient subgroups in electronic health records and scale stratification without depending on predefined labels [24]. This method can be used in the setting of renal disease to identify previously unknown phenotypes related to specific progression patterns, responses to treatment, or the risk of complication. This type of data-based phenotyping has been used to enable precision nephrology approaches, in which interventions are not

applied to all patients but to particular subgroups of patients.

The disease classification and risk stratification based on deep learning have profound benefits compared to traditional methods because they can represent the high-dimensional and complicated relationships present in clinical data. These approaches are helping to increase the individualization and effectiveness of renal care through better prediction of CKD progression, more precise stratification of AKI patients, and scalable analysis of electronic health records.

7. Applications in Renal Replacement Therapy and Transplantation

Renal replacement therapy and kidney transplantation are more advanced levels of renal care, in which clinical judgement is complicated and outcomes vary depending on a vast array of patient-, donor-, and treatment-related variables. Artificial intelligence and specifically machine learning and deep learning methods have also been used more and more to aid in decision-making in these environments by enhancing outcome prediction and risk stratification. Among the most important ones, it can be listed the prediction of long-term results after kidney transplantation. Badrouchi et al. showed that the multidimensional clinical variables could be effectively combined with the help of artificial intelligence-based models to predict long-term transplant outcomes and provide greater prognostic accuracy than traditional statistical methods [25]. These models can be used to assist in customising post-transplant care and maximising the graft function in the long-term.

Another important aspect of transplant medicine is the accurate modelling of graft failure and prognosis of survival risk because early detection of patients at risk of developing graft losses can be used to provide surveillance measures and treatment. A systematic review of kidney transplantation graft failure risk prediction models was performed by Kaboré et al., which indicates a potential and weaknesses of the current methods [26]. Their results highlight the importance of the strong, tested machine learning models that can help to model intricate interplay of immunological, clinical, and demographic variables. The issues of non-linear relationships that deep learning methods can learn make them especially applicable to the specified challenges and contribute to better graft survival predictions.

The risk of mortality after the commencement of renal replacement therapy is unacceptable in the situation of dialysis, particularly in the first period of the treatment. Machine learning models are created to recognise patients who are at high risk of dying shortly to allow targeted interventions and better care planning. Rankin et al. introduced a model of machine learning to predict mortality in 90 days after dialysis start and it proved to be more effective in comparison with traditional risk assessment instruments [27]. Timely clinical decision-making, such as dialysis modality, dialysis intensity, or supportive care may be achieved by identifying high-risk patients early in their course.

In addition to individual predictive tasks, artificial intelligence is being implemented more and more in larger decision support systems in renal replacement therapy. Badruchi et al. suggested a holistic machine learning system predicting long-term graft survival following kidney transplantation with a focus on the clinical processes of predictive output integration [28]. These frameworks are not only expected to produce correct predictions, but also provide actionable insights that can be easily interpreted by clinicians. AI-based decision support systems can enhance the outcomes throughout the spectrum of renal replacement therapy by assisting in making decisions associated with donor-

recipient matching, treatment planning, and follow-up strategies.

Deep learning applications in renal replacement therapy and transplantation are examples of how artificial intelligence is increasingly being applied in managing complex, high-stakes clinical scenarios. AI-based solutions provide a promising solution to the idea of improving the personalised care and resource use in the management of advanced renal disease through better prediction of transplant outcomes, graft survival, and dialysis-related mortality. Representative deep learning models applied across renal imaging, functional assessment, dialysis, and transplantation are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3. Representative Deep Learning Models in Renal Health Assessment

Clinical Domain	Application	Data Type	Model Type	Key Outcome	References
Structural imaging	Kidney & cyst segmentation	MRI	CNN	Accurate volumetric assessment	Kline et al [13]; Goel et al. [16]
Histopathology	Tissue quantification	Biopsy images	CNN-based analysis	Reduced observer variability	Bouteldja et al. [14]
Tumor assessment	Renal mass classification	CT	CNN + fusion	Improved diagnostic accuracy	Zabihollahy et al. [15]
Functional assessment	CKD progression prediction	Clinical data	Ensemble ML/DL	Early risk identification	Chen et al. [17]
Acute care	AKI early detection	EHR	Temporal DL	Advance warning of AKI	Koyner et al. [18]; Tomašev et al. [19]
Dialysis	Mortality prediction	Registry data	ML models	Short-term mortality risk	Rankin et al. [27]
Transplantation	Graft survival prediction	Multicenter data	ML/DL models	Long-term outcome prediction	Badruchi et al. [25]; Badruchi et al. [28]

8. Clinical Translation and Implementation

A major challenge in the process of translating deep learning systems out of the research setting to everyday nephrology practise is still present, even though the technical performance is increasingly being demonstrated. There are several obstacles to clinical implementation, such as the limitation of data quality, the inability to generalise the results in different healthcare environments, and regulatory approval and patient safety concerns. Kelly et al. pointed out the major barriers to clinical impact of artificial intelligence and included such issues as bias in algorithms, lack of external validation, and the mismatch between the development of the model and real-world clinical requirements [29]. Such issues are exacerbated by heterogeneity of the diseases and differences in clinical workflow in institutions in renal medicine.

Human-AI cooperation is becoming an indispensable condition of successful implementation of deep learning tools in the practise of nephrology. Instead of substituting clinicians, artificial intelligence systems are best used when created to support human expertise by giving decision support and actionable advice. Topol explained the idea of high-performance medicine, whereby human judgement and artificial intelligence collaborate to increase the accuracy of the diagnosis, its efficiency, and patient outcomes [30]. The approach to collaboration is especially pertinent in the field of nephrology since clinical judgments may frequently

involve the delicate interpretation of patient history, lab trends, and imaging results beyond the output of algorithms.

Real-world implementation studies offer useful information on the practical implications of deploying deep learning models into clinical practise. The article by Sendak et al. describes the implementation of a deep learning-based sepsis prediction system in regular clinical practise and shows issues concerning clinician engagement, workflow interference, and model maintenance [31]. Despite the sepsis focus, the insights gained during the study are very applicable to the renal context, where the provision of timely alerts and prediction of risk should be integrated into the current electronic health record systems to prevent the problem of alert fatigue and make clinical use. Interdisciplinary collaboration of clinicians, data scientists and health system leaders is crucial in such studies during implementation.

Clinical decision support systems that run on deep learning are essential to assess their safety, effectiveness, and long-term adoption. Magrabi et al. raised methodological issues of evaluating artificial intelligence-based clinical decision support systems, such as the necessity to develop stringent evaluation models that consider the human-system interaction and changing clinical circumstances [32]. In nephrology, the assessment should not be limited to predictive accuracy, but it should also involve clinical impact, workflow, and

patient outcome measures. Performance drift and unwanted consequences may also be detected over time through continuous monitoring and post-deployment auditing.

Clinical translation and implementation are important processes of achieving the promise of deep learning in renal health assessment. The deployment barriers, effective human-AI collaboration, learning about the

real-world implementation experiences, and critical evaluation of clinical decision support systems are critical in ensuring that deep learning technologies can provide meaningful and sustainable benefits to nephrology practise. The integration of deep learning applications across the renal care continuum is summarized in Figure 2.

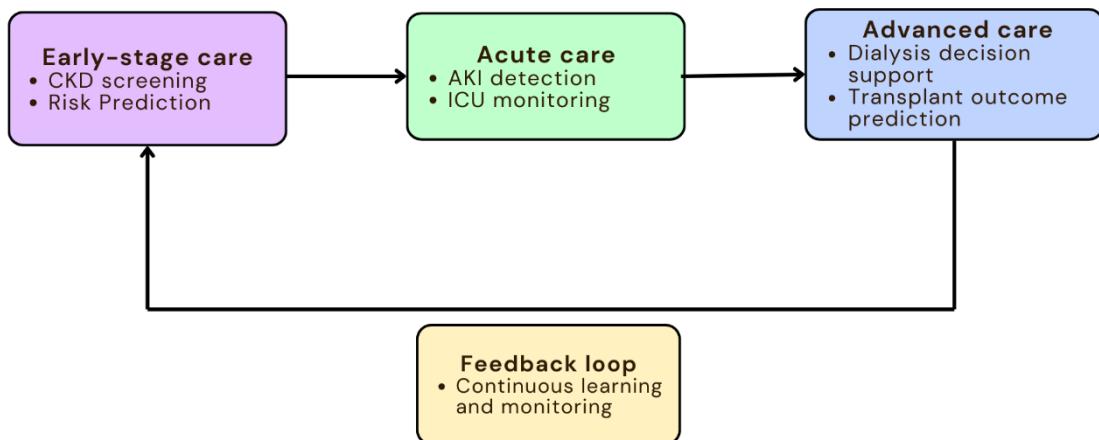


Figure 2. Clinical Integration of Deep Learning Across the Renal Care Continuum

9. Challenges, Ethical Considerations, and Limitations

Even though deep learning in the renal health assessment is increasingly promising, there are major challenges and ethical issues that need to be addressed to foster safe, equitable, and responsible clinical practise. The problem of algorithmic bias is one of the most urgent ones that may occur when training data fails to adequately represent different populations of patients. Obermeyer emphasised the ability of biased healthcare algorithms to reproduce and even increase existing health disparities especially when socioeconomic and racial factors are not sufficiently considered in the model design [33]. Such biases in renal medicine can lead to disproportionate risk prediction or slower intervention of underrepresented groups, which highlights the importance of developing models fairly and validating them with external data in a diverse range of cohorts.

The issue of regulatory and legal hurdles also makes the implementation of artificial intelligence in medicine more complex. Contrary to conventional medical devices, deep learning systems are not static but can change with time as they are updated or retrained on new data. Minssen et al. reviewed regulatory reactions to medical machine learning, highlighting the challenge of the application of currently existing laws to adaptive AI technologies [34]. Regulatory clarity is critical in nephrology, where AI-driven tools are likely to impact such vital decisions as dialysis or transplant initiation, as this field is likely to expose patients to potential harm, liability, and non-adherence to healthcare practises. It is also a challenge to set up clear guidelines that would be used to approve, monitor and undertake post-market surveillance.

Clinician trust and acceptance of AI-assisted tools also focus on explainability and transparency. Most deep

learning models are black-box and thus clinicians find it hard to comprehend the way predictions are made. The model-agnostic explainability methods presented by Ribeiro et al. enable the provision of interpretable explanations to individual predictions to improve the bridging of the gap between clinical reasoning and algorithmic output [35]. Explainable models can be used to boost clinician confidence in renal health assessment by emphasising features, which may include laboratory trends or imaging regions, that lead to predictions. Even highly accurate models can be resisted by the clinicians and rarely adopted in practise without sufficient transparency.

Ethical responsibility and accountability are other issues in AI-assisted care. In case an AI system is involved in a clinical decision that harms patients, it becomes tricky to ascertain the responsibility of the clinicians, the developers, and the healthcare institutions. Naik et al. addressed the issue of legal and ethical aspects of accountability and liability in healthcare AI, pointing to the significance of the roles definition and the development of the governance frameworks [36]. In nephrology, where intervention choices may have prolonged consequences, to be morally used, AI systems should serve as tools and not as decision-makers, and clinicians need to stay in charge of patient care.

Although the opportunities of deep learning to improve the process of renal health assessment are significant, it has limited implementation due to its problem of bias, regulation, interpretability, and accountability. To overcome these shortcomings, it is critical to consider these technologies in terms of ethical design, transparent assessment, and solid governance frameworks to make sure that AI technologies are implemented in a responsible and fair way in the field of renal medicine.

10. Future Directions in Deep Learning–Driven Renal Assessment

Since deep learning is still in its infancy, there are a number of new trends that will define the future of the renal health assessment systems. The use of federated and privacy-preserving learning models is one of the most promising ones, as it allows training models collaboratively across multiple institutions without sharing the raw data of patients. Kaassis et al. showed that federated learning methods have the potential to preserve data privacy and provide strong performance in medical images, which is vital in the context of data security and the ability to comply with regulatory policies [37]. Such frameworks may be useful in nephrology, where patient data is very sensitive and may be siloed across healthcare systems, yet still support the development of large-scale, multicenter models and maintain patient confidentiality.

It is also anticipated that deep learning will be the key to the improvement of precision and personalised nephrology. The conventional renal care tends to be based on the population-wide rules that are not always able to consider the differences in disease development and response to treatment. Martel et al. have talked about the use of artificial intelligence in precision medicine and stress that it could personalise diagnostic and therapeutic plans to the profiles of the individual patient [38]. Deep learning models that are capable of combining genetic, clinical, and environmental data may allow predicting disease progression more precisely and providing more individualised intervention plans in renal assessment, which will eventually lead to better patient outcomes.

Another imperative frontier of renal AI is the integration of large-scale multimodal data. The current healthcare systems produce massive amounts of heterogeneous data such as imaging, laboratory findings, electronic health records, and omics data. Beam and Kohane emphasised the potential of using big data and machine learning together in order to reveal intricate patterns that cannot be discovered with the help of traditional analytic tools [39]. Multimodal integration in nephrology has the potential to offer a more detailed picture of renal disease through the correlation of structural, functional, and molecular data and improve the accuracy of diagnoses and prognostic model building.

Looking ahead, opportunities for next-generation renal AI systems lie in the development of more holistic and adaptive models capable of learning from diverse data streams. Boehm et al. demonstrated that multimodal data integration using machine learning can significantly improve risk stratification in complex diseases, underscoring the value of combining multiple data types within a unified analytical framework [40]. Applied to renal health assessment, such systems could support continuous monitoring, dynamic risk prediction, and real-time clinical decision support across the entire care continuum.

Future advances in deep learning–driven renal assessment will be shaped by innovations in privacy-preserving learning, precision medicine, and multimodal data integration. By addressing current limitations and embracing these emerging directions, next-generation

renal AI systems have the potential to deliver more personalized, secure, and clinically impactful solutions for nephrology practice.

11. Conclusion

This comprehensive review highlights the increased role of deep learning in improving the renal health assessment on structural, functional, and clinical levels. The innovations in the deep learning-based image analysis have facilitated the correct and automatic assessment of renal morphology, kidney segmentation, cyst count and tumour classification. At the functional level, predictive models have shown high potential in early identification of acute kidney damage, renal functionality estimation as well as disease development projection in chronic kidney disease. Simultaneously, the combination of deep learning and electronic health records has enabled the process of fine-tuning of classifying diseases, risk stratification, and outcome prediction, enabling more data-driven and personalised renal care. The potential effects of these developments to the nephrology and urology practise are significant. Deep learning systems may supplement clinical decision-making by enhancing diagnostic accuracy, allowing earlier intervention, and facilitating personalised treatment approaches at both ends of the renal care spectrum, including early disease detection and renal replacement therapy and transplantation. Such tools can be implemented in clinical workflows and can lead to increased efficiency, decreased workload of clinicians and better patient outcomes. Nevertheless, the successful implementation requires addressing the issues of data quality and interpretability, equity and regulatory controls and promoting significant human-AI interaction. In the future, deep learning-based renal health may be taken to a new level by creating reliable, explainable, and privacy-sensitive systems that utilise multimodal data and enable precision nephrology. It will be necessary to continue interdisciplinary partnerships between clinicians, data scientists and policymakers to convert technological change into solutions that can have a clinical impact. This is to be expected as the challenges are resolved, and deep learning will become an inseparable part of the renal medicine, forming the future of kidney disease evaluation and treatment.

References

1. Romagnani P, Remuzzi G, Glasscock R, Levin A, Jager KJ, Tonelli M, Massy Z, Wanner C, Anders HJ. Chronic kidney disease. *Nature reviews Disease primers*. 2017 Nov 23;3(1):1-24.
2. Bikbov B, Purcell CA, Levey AS, Smith M, Abdoli A, Abebe M, Adebayo OM, Afarideh M, Agarwal SK, Agudelo-Botero M, Ahmadian E. Global, regional, and national burden of chronic kidney disease, 1990–2017: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2017. *The lancet*. 2020 Feb 29;395(10225):709-33.
3. Hoste EA, Kellum JA, Selby NM, Zarbock A, Palevsky PM, Bagshaw SM, Goldstein SL, Cerdá J, Chawla LS. Global epidemiology and outcomes of acute kidney injury. *Nature Reviews Nephrology*. 2018 Oct;14(10):607-25.

4. Levey AS, Coresh J. Chronic kidney disease. *The lancet*. 2012 Jan 14;379(9811):165-80.
5. LeCun Y, Bengio Y, Hinton G. Deep learning. *nature*. 2015 May 28;521(7553):436-44.
6. Litjens G, Kooi T, Bejnordi BE, Setio AA, Ciompi F, Ghafoorian M, Van Der Laak JA, Van Ginneken B, Sánchez CI. A survey on deep learning in medical image analysis. *Medical image analysis*. 2017 Dec 1;42:60-88.
7. Esteva A, Robicquet A, Ramsundar B, Kuleshov V, DePristo M, Chou K, Cui C, Corrado G, Thrun S, Dean J. A guide to deep learning in healthcare. *Nature medicine*. 2019 Jan;25(1):24-9.
8. Samek W, Montavon G, Lapuschkin S, Anders CJ, Müller KR. Explaining deep neural networks and beyond: A review of methods and applications. *Proceedings of the IEEE*. 2021 Mar 4;109(3):247-78.
9. Erickson BJ, Korfiatis P, Akkus Z, Kline TL. Machine learning for medical imaging. *radiographics*. 2017 Mar;37(2):505-15.
10. Johnson AE, Pollard TJ, Shen L, Lehman LW, Feng M, Ghassemi M, Moody B, Szolovits P, Anthony Celi L, Mark RG. MIMIC-III, a freely accessible critical care database. *Scientific data*. 2016 May 24;3(1):1-9.
11. Shah RM, Gautam R. Overcoming diagnostic challenges of artificial intelligence in pathology and radiology: Innovative solutions and strategies. *Indian Journal of Medical Sciences*. 2023 Oct 19;75(3):107-13.
12. Lundervold AS, Lundervold A. An overview of deep learning in medical imaging focusing on MRI. *Zeitschrift fuer medizinische Physik*. 2019 May 1;29(2):102-27.
13. Kline TL, Edwards ME, Fetzer J, Gregory AV, Anaam D, Metzger AJ, Erickson BJ. Automatic semantic segmentation of kidney cysts in MR images of patients affected by autosomal-dominant polycystic kidney disease. *Abdominal Radiology*. 2021 Mar;46(3):1053-61.
14. Bouteldja N, Klinkhammer BM, Bülow RD, Droste P, Otten SW, Von Stillfried SF, Moellmann J, Sheehan SM, Korstanje R, Menzel S, Bankhead P. Deep learning-based segmentation and quantification in experimental kidney histopathology. *Journal of the American Society of Nephrology*. 2021 Jan 1;32(1):52-68.
15. Zabihollahy F, Schieda N, Krishna S, Ukwatta E. Automated classification of solid renal masses on contrast-enhanced computed tomography images using convolutional neural network with decision fusion. *European Radiology*. 2020 Sep;30(9):5183-90.
16. Goel A, Shih G, Riyahi S, Jeph S, Dev H, Hu R, Romano D, Teichman K, Blumenfeld JD, Barash I, Chicos I. Deployed deep learning kidney segmentation for polycystic kidney disease MRI. *Radiology: Artificial Intelligence*. 2022 Feb 16;4(2):e210205.
17. Chen H, Huang Y, Chen L. Ensemble machine learning for predicting renal function decline in chronic kidney disease: development and external validation. *Frontiers in Medicine*. 2025 Oct 27;12:1598065.
18. Koyner JL, Carey KA, Edelson DP, Churpek MM. The development of a machine learning inpatient acute kidney injury prediction model. *Critical care medicine*. 2018 Jul 1;46(7):1070-7.
19. Tomašev N, Glorot X, Rae JW, Zielinski M, Askham H, Saraiva A, Mottram A, Meyer C, Ravuri S, Protsyuk I, Connell A. A clinically applicable approach to continuous prediction of future acute kidney injury. *Nature*. 2019 Aug 1;572(7767):116-9.
20. Bao L, Wu X, Feng Z, Wei Q. Deep Learning-Based Estimation of Single-Kidney Glomerular Filtration Rate: A Multicenter Retrospective Study across Diverse Renal Diseases. Available at SSRN 5844968.
21. Lerner B, Desrochers S, Tangri N. Risk prediction models in CKD. In *Seminars in Nephrology* 2017 Mar 1 (Vol. 37, No. 2, pp. 144-150). WB Saunders.
22. Zhang Z, Ho KM, Hong Y. Machine learning for the prediction of volume responsiveness in patients with oliguric acute kidney injury in critical care. *Critical Care*. 2019 Apr 8;23(1):112.
23. Cheng Y, Wang F, Zhang P, Hu J. Risk prediction with electronic health records: A deep learning approach. In *Proceedings of the 2016 SIAM international conference on data mining* 2016 Jun 30 (pp. 432-440). Society for Industrial and Applied Mathematics.
24. Landi I, Glicksberg BS, Lee HC, Cherng S, Landi G, Danieletto M, Dudley JT, Furlanello C, Miotto R. Deep representation learning of electronic health records to unlock patient stratification at scale. *NPJ digital medicine*. 2020 Jul 17;3(1):96.
25. Badrouri S, Bacha MM, Ahmed A, Ben Abdallah T, Abderrahim E. Predicting long-term outcomes of kidney transplantation in the era of artificial intelligence. *Scientific Reports*. 2023 Dec 2;13(1):21273.
26. Kaboré R, Haller MC, Harambat J, Heinze G, Leffondré K. Risk prediction models for graft failure in kidney transplantation: a systematic review. *Nephrology Dialysis Transplantation*. 2017 Apr 1;32(suppl_2):ii68-76.
27. Rankin S, Han L, Scherzer R, Tenney S, Keating M, Genberg K, Rahn M, Wilkins K, Shlipak M, Estrella M. A machine learning model for predicting mortality within 90 days of dialysis initiation. *Kidney360*. 2022 Sep 29;3(9):1556-65.
28. Badrouri S, Ahmed A, Bacha MM, Abderrahim E, Abdallah TB. A machine learning framework for predicting long-term graft survival after kidney transplantation. *Expert Systems with Applications*. 2021 Nov 15;182:115235.
29. Kelly CJ, Karthikesalingam A, Suleyman M, Corrado G, King D. Key challenges for delivering clinical impact with artificial intelligence. *BMC medicine*. 2019 Oct 29;17(1):195.
30. Topol EJ. High-performance medicine: the convergence of human and artificial intelligence. *Nature medicine*. 2019 Jan;25(1):44-56.
31. Sendak MP, Ratliff W, Sarro D, Alderton E, Futoma J, Gao M, Nichols M, Revoir M, Yashar F, Miller C,

Kester K. Real-world integration of a sepsis deep learning technology into routine clinical care: implementation study. *JMIR medical informatics*. 2020 Jul 15;8(7):e15182.

32. Magrabi F, Ammenwerth E, McNair JB, De Keizer NF, Hyppönen H, Nykänen P, Rigby M, Scott PJ, Vehko T, Wong ZS, Georgiou A. Artificial intelligence in clinical decision support: challenges for evaluating AI and practical implications. *Yearbook of medical informatics*. 2019 Aug;28(01):128-34.

33. Obermeyer Z. Dissecting racial bias in health algorithms. *Science*. 2019.

34. Minssen T, Gerke S, Aboy M, Price N, Cohen G. Regulatory responses to medical machine learning. *Journal of Law and the Biosciences*. 2020 Jan;7(1):lsaa002.

35. Ribeiro MT, Singh S, Guestrin C. "Why should i trust you?" Explaining the predictions of any classifier. InProceedings of the 22nd ACM SIGKDD international conference on knowledge discovery and data mining 2016 Aug 13 (pp. 1135-1144).

36. Naik N, Hameed BM, Shetty DK, Swain D, Shah M, Paul R, Aggarwal K, Ibrahim S, Patil V, Smriti K, Shetty S. Legal and ethical consideration in artificial intelligence in healthcare: who takes responsibility?. *Frontiers in surgery*. 2022 Mar 14;9:862322.

37. Kaassis GA, Makowski MR, Rückert D, Braren RF. Secure, privacy-preserving and federated machine learning in medical imaging. *Nature Machine Intelligence*. 2020 Jun;2(6):305-11.

38. Martel ME, José-Garcia A, Vens C, De Vos M, Sobanski V. Artificial intelligence for precision medicine. *Therapies*. 2025 Oct 8.

39. Beam AL, Kohane IS. Big data and machine learning in health care. *Jama*. 2018 Apr 3;319(13):1317-8.

40. Boehm KM, Aherne EA, Ellenson L, Nikolovski I, Alghamdi M, Vázquez-García I, Zamarín D, Long Roche K, Liu Y, Patel D, Aukerman A. Multimodal data integration using machine learning improves risk stratification of high-grade serous ovarian cancer. *Nature cancer*. 2022 Jun;3(6):723-33.