
MAPLE: Multi-scale Attribute-enhanced Prompt Learning for Few-shot Whole Slide Image Classification

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Abstract

Prompt learning has emerged as a promising paradigm for adapting pre-trained vision-language models (VLMs) to few-shot whole slide image (WSI) classification by aligning visual features with textual representations, thereby reducing annotation cost and enhancing model generalization. Nevertheless, existing methods typically rely on slide-level prompts and fail to capture the subtype-specific phenotypic variations of histological entities (*e.g.*, nuclei, glands) that are critical for cancer diagnosis. To address this gap, we propose Multi-scale Attribute-enhanced Prompt Learning (MAPLE), a hierarchical framework for few-shot WSI classification that jointly integrates multi-scale visual semantics and performs prediction at both the entity and slide levels. Specifically, we first leverage large language models (LLMs) to generate entity-level prompts that can help identify multi-scale histological entities and their phenotypic attributes, as well as slide-level prompts to capture global visual descriptions. Then, an entity-guided cross-attention module is proposed to generate entity-level features, followed by aligning with their corresponding subtype-specific attributes for fine-grained entity-level prediction. To enrich entity representations, we further develop a cross-scale entity graph learning module that can update these representations by capturing their semantic correlations within and across scales. The refined representations are then aggregated into a slide-level representation and aligned with the corresponding prompts for slide-level prediction. Finally, we combine both entity-level and slide-level outputs to produce the final prediction results. Results on three cancer cohorts confirm the effectiveness of our approach in addressing few-shot pathology diagnosis tasks. Codes will be available at <https://github.com/JJ-ZHOU-Code/MAPLE>.

1 Introduction

Whole slide images (WSIs) have become the clinical gold standard for cancer diagnosis, offering gigapixel-resolution views of tissue architecture and cellular morphology [5, 6]. However, their huge size (*e.g.*, $150,000 \times 150,000$ pixels) and hierarchical structure render dense annotation of individual patches impractical. To overcome this challenge, multiple instance learning (MIL) has emerged as an effective way for weakly supervised WSI analysis [18, 32, 23, 39, 9], where each WSI is divided into thousands of patches, encoded via a pre-trained feature extractor, and aggregated into a slide-level representation for classification [17]. Beyond weak supervision, WSI classification faces another critical challenge: the scarcity of the labeled images [26, 31]. This limitation stems from factors such

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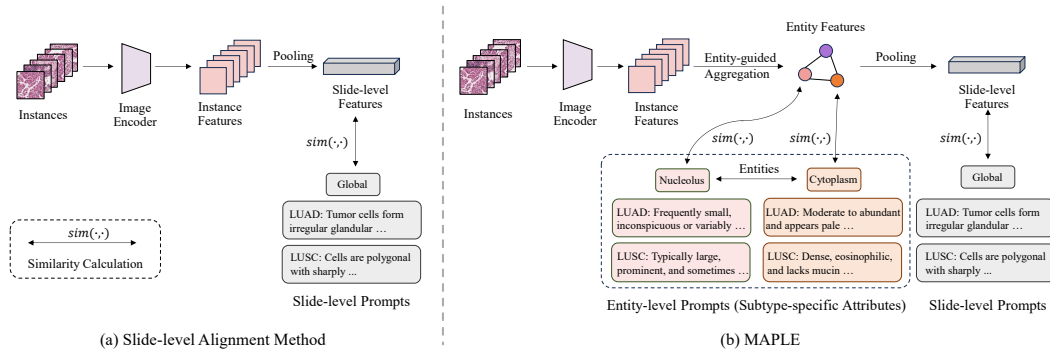


Figure 1: Comparison of MAPLE with existing slide-level alignment methods for the classification of lung adenocarcinoma (LUAD) and lung squamous cell carcinoma (LUSC). (a) Existing methods align slide-level features with corresponding prompts for classification. (b) Our proposed MAPLE introduces additional entity-level features and incorporates subtype-specific phenotypic attributes for more interpretable and precise alignment. For simplicity, only the single-scale data stream of MAPLE is visualized.

as privacy constraints, the difficulty of acquiring expert-labeled slides, and the low prevalence of certain cancer subtypes [12, 37, 16, 36]. Consequently, few-shot learning has become an attractive paradigm for developing robust classifiers on limited labeled data.

Recent progress in vision-language models (VLMs), such as CLIP [30], offers a promising path for few-shot learning by aligning image and text representations in a shared embedding space. Building upon VLMs, prompt learning techniques [44, 43, 25, 21, 4] adapt textual inputs using a small number of labeled examples, enabling effective transfer to new tasks without fine-tuning the vision backbone. However, applying these methods for WSI classification remains non-trivial. Unlike natural images, WSIs are extremely large and are typically divided into thousands of instances, making it difficult to construct a unified visual representation suitable for prompt alignment [29, 10]. At the same time, designing prompts that accurately reflect the complex tissue morphology and subtype-specific patterns within a WSI is also challenging. Simple prompts like “a WSI of [CLASS]” often fail to capture the localized, fine-grained attributes that are crucial for cancer diagnosis [34]. These limitations highlight a central question: *how can we bridge the gap between fine-grained instance-level visual details and semantically rich prompts for effective few-shot WSI classification?*

Recently, several methods have attempted to work on it. For instance, TOP [29] introduces instance-level phenotypic prompts to guide patch aggregation into slide-level features, while ViLa-MIL [34] leverages learnable visual prototypes to guide the fusion process of patch features and considers dual-scale visual descriptive text prompt to boost the performance. However, these approaches generally focus solely on slide-level feature alignment after the aggregation of instance-level representations, and fail to capture the subtype-specific phenotypic variations of histological entities (e.g., nuclei, cytoplasm, glands) that are critical for cancer diagnosis. For instance, nucleoli are typically small and inconspicuous in lung adenocarcinoma (LUAD) but appear large and prominent in lung squamous cell carcinoma (LUSC). Furthermore, different resolution levels in WSIs naturally correspond to different scales of histological entities, where low magnification reveals tissue architecture and organization patterns, while high magnification exposes cellular details and nuclear morphology. Ignoring such fine-grained, multi-scale entity variations limits the model’s ability to capture discriminative patterns and reduces interpretability for cancer diagnosis.

To this end, we propose Multi-scale Attribute-enhanced Prompt Learning (**MAPLE**), a hierarchical framework designed for few-shot WSI classification by the combination of entity-level and slide-level predictions. Different from the previous slide-level alignment methods [29, 34, 10, 11], MAPLE additionally considers that the diagnostic information among different cancer subtypes is also reflected by the phenotypic attributes of histological entities across different scales, as illustrated in Fig. 1. Specifically, we begin by leveraging large language models (LLMs) to construct two types of prompts: entity-level prompts that identify multi-scale histological entities and their distinctive phenotypic characteristics, and slide-level prompts that capture comprehensive global visual patterns. After employing language-guided instance selection strategy to identify discriminative tumor-related patches from WSIs, we subsequently introduce an entity-guided cross-attention module to extract entity-level features, which are then aligned with their respective subtype-specific attributes to enable

entity-level predictions. To enrich entity representations, we further develop a cross-scale entity graph learning module that can update these representations by capturing their semantic correlations within and across scales. The refined entity representations are aggregated to construct a slide-level representation, which is then aligned with the corresponding prompts to enable slide-level prediction. Finally, we combine both entity-level and slide-level outputs to produce the final prediction results. We conduct experiments on three cancer cohorts derived from the cancer genome atlas (TCGA), and the experimental results indicate the advantage of MAPLE on few-shot pathology diagnosis tasks.

2 Related Work

2.1 Multiple Instance Learning for WSI Classification

Due to the gigapixel size of WSIs and the infeasibility of dense patch-level annotation, MIL based methods [3, 28, 33, 13, 32] have become the prevailing approaches for WSI analysis. In the MIL framework, each WSI is represented as a bag of instances (patches), with only slide-level labels available for supervision. Early MIL approaches aggregate instance features using non-parametric max or mean pooling operations. Subsequent approaches introduce attention-based pooling mechanisms that learn to assign importance weights to instances, significantly enhancing discriminative power and classification performance [15, 32, 39, 41, 40]. Recent works have further advanced the MIL framework with more structured representations. For example, GTP [42] introduces a graph-based vision transformer that models WSIs using sparse token selection and inter-instance relations. WiKG [19] proposes a novel dynamic graph representation algorithm that conceptualizes WSIs as a form of the knowledge graph structure. While these methods demonstrate strong performance under full supervision, they typically require large annotated datasets for training, making them less suitable for scenarios with limited data availability, which is a common challenge in clinical settings. In this work, we propose a multi-scale attribute-enhanced prompt learning framework that combines MIL with vision-language models to enable effective WSI classification in few-shot scenarios, substantially reducing the annotation burden for practical clinical applications.

2.2 Prompt Learning for Few-shot WSI Classification

Prompt learning [44, 43, 25, 21, 4] has emerged as an efficient strategy for adapting VLMs to downstream tasks in data-scarce settings by optimizing only a small set of textual tokens rather than entire model parameters. Recent work has extended this paradigm to the WSI classification by combining prompt learning with MIL for few-shot classification [29, 34, 10, 11]. TOP [29] first introduces a two-level prompt learning strategy that incorporates linguistic priors to guide both instance- and slide-level feature aggregation. ViLa-MIL [34] extends this direction by proposing dual-scale visual prompts, enabling the fusion of features across high- and low-resolution magnifications. FOCUS [10] introduces a three-stage compression strategy that leverages both foundation models and language prompts for focused analysis of diagnostically relevant regions. MSCPT [11] employs a graph prompt tuning module to capture spatial context within WSIs. However, these methods primarily emphasize slide-level alignment and often overlook the fine-grained, subtype-specific phenotypic attributes of histological entities. Despite TOP first introduces a two-level framework, it solely focuses on slide-level alignment, treating histological instances implicitly through aggregation rather than modeling them as explicit diagnostic targets. Consequently, it fails to capture the fine-grained, subtype-specific phenotypic variations of nuclei, cytoplasm, glands, and other histological entities that pathologists rely on for differential diagnosis. Our MAPLE framework addresses this gap by introducing entity-level prompt learning that explicitly models these diagnostic cues across multiple scales, enabling more accurate and interpretable few-shot WSI classification.

3 Preliminaries

3.1 Problem Formulation

Given a dataset $\mathcal{X} = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N\}$ consisting of N WSIs, each slide X_i can be associated with a slide-level label $y_i \in \{1, 2, \dots, C\}$, where C is the number of diagnostic categories. Due to the extremely large size and high resolution of WSIs, it is computationally infeasible to process

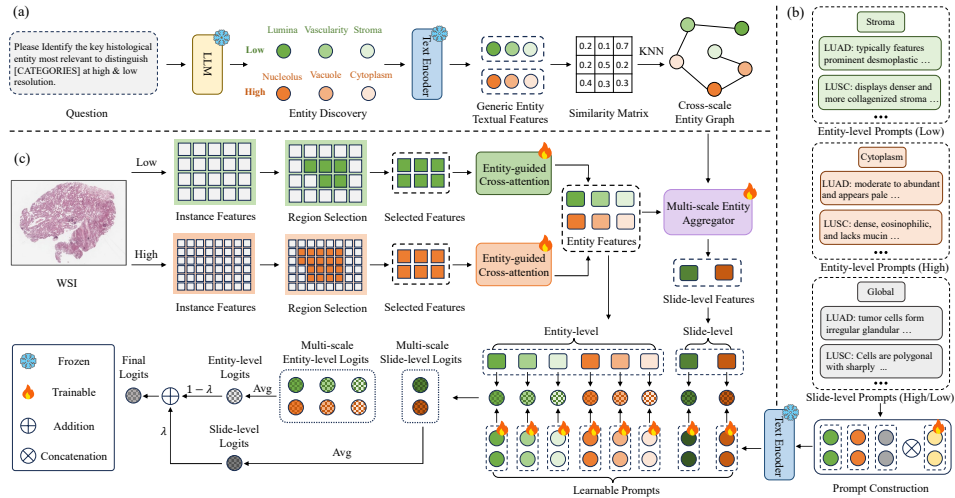


Figure 2: Framework of our proposed MAPLE. (a) MAPLE leverages the LLM to identify multi-scale histological entities, and then builds a cross-scale entity graph by modeling the semantic relationships within and across scales. (b) Both entity-level and slide-level prompts are enriched with learnable context vectors to enable effective alignment with corresponding visual features. (c) MAPLE jointly integrates multi-scale visual semantics and performs prediction at both the entity and slide levels.

entire slides directly. Instead, each WSI is divided into a set of non-overlapping K_i patches $X_i = \{x_{i,1}, x_{i,2}, \dots, x_{i,K_i}\}$, where $x_{i,j} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ denotes the feature vector of the j -th patch for slide X_i .

To address the WSI classification task, a common approach is to formulate such weakly supervised learning problem as multiple instance learning (MIL) [18, 32, 23, 9]. In the binary classification setting, MIL assumes that a bag (*i.e.*, a slide) is labeled positive if at least one of its instances is positive; otherwise, it is labeled negative [39, 17]:

$$y_i = 1 \iff \exists x_{i,j} \in X_i \text{ is positive.} \quad (1)$$

For multi-class scenarios, this formulation extends to identifying the dominant cancer subtype represented by the most discriminative patches within the slide.

In the few-shot classification setting, the problem becomes even more challenging: the objective is to learn a reliable classifier using only a limited number of labeled WSIs per class. The term “shot” refers to the number of labeled examples per class, commonly set to 1, 2, 4, 8, or 16.

3.2 Prompt Learning for Few Shot WSI classification

VLMs such as CLIP [30] typically consist of two parallel encoders: a vision encoder $f_v(\cdot)$ and a text encoder $f_t(\cdot)$, which are jointly trained using contrastive learning over large-scale image-text pairs. Prompt learning has emerged as a parameter-efficient strategy to adapt pre-trained VLMs to downstream tasks, such as few-shot WSI classification, without extensive fine-tuning [29, 34]. The typical pipeline for prompt learning-based few-shot WSI classification involves two key steps: instance-level feature aggregation and slide-level alignment with learnable prompts [29].

Given a WSI $X_i = \{x_{i,1}, x_{i,2}, \dots, x_{i,K_i}\}$ partitioned into K_i patches, each patch $x_{i,j}$ is first embedded using a frozen image encoder f_v . The instance embeddings are then aggregated via a pooling operation (*e.g.*, max, mean or attention-based) to obtain a compact slide-level representation $z_i^v = \text{Aggregate}(f_v(x_{i,j}))_{j=1}^{K_i}$. Prompt learning then adapts the text encoder by introducing a set of M learnable context vectors $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_M\}$. For each class k , a textual prompt $t_k = \{v_1, \dots, v_M, c_k\}$ is constructed by concatenating these context vectors with the embedding of the class name c_k , and passed through the text encoder to generate the class-specific textual feature $z_k^t = f_t(t_k)$. The prediction probability for class k is computed based on the cosine similarity between the slide-level visual feature and the class-specific textual features:

$$P(y = k | X_i) = \frac{\exp(\text{sim}(z_i^v, z_k^t)/\tau)}{\sum_{k'=1}^C \exp(\text{sim}(z_i^v, z_{k'}^t)/\tau)} \quad (2)$$

where τ is a learnable temperature parameter and $\text{sim}(\cdot, \cdot)$ denotes cosine similarity. The learnable context vectors V are optimized by minimizing the standard cross-entropy loss between the prediction and the ground-truth label:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{CE}} = - \sum_{i=1}^N \log P(y = y_i | X_i), \quad (3)$$

where y_i is the ground-truth label for slide X_i .

4 Method

In this section, we present the details of our proposed method MAPLE, Multi-scale Attribute-enhanced Prompt Learning for few-shot WSI classification. An overview of the framework is illustrated in Fig. 2. Given a WSI X_i , we partition it into two sets of non-overlapping patches at both high resolution *i.e.*, $X_i^h = \{x_{i,j}^h\}_{j=1}^{K_i^h}$ and low resolution *i.e.*, $X_i^l = \{x_{i,j}^l\}_{j=1}^{K_i^l}$, where K_i^h and K_i^l denote the number of patches at different scales. Then, each patch is embedded with a frozen vision encoder f_v of the vision-language model (PLIP [14] in our implementation), resulting in the feature sets $Z_i^h = \{z_{i,j}^h\}_{j=1}^{K_i^h}$ and $Z_i^l = \{z_{i,j}^l\}_{j=1}^{K_i^l}$. We leverage the LLM to construct entity-level and slide-level prompts (Section 4.1), and employ a language-guided instance selection strategy to identify tumor-related regions that are most relevant for the discrimination of different cancer subtypes (Section 4.2). Next, the selected features are aggregated to construct entity representations and aligned with subtype-specific attributes to enable fine-grained entity-level classification (Section 4.3). Then, we refine entity representations via the cross-scale graph learning module and subsequently aggregate them to obtain slide-level representations that align with corresponding prompts for slide-level prediction (Section 4.4). Finally, MAPLE jointly optimizes entity-level and slide-level alignment, enabling robust and interpretable few-shot classification (Section 4.5).

4.1 LLM-powered Prompt Construction

For the cancer diagnosis from WSIs, pathologists usually combine the observations from key tissue entities (*e.g.*, nuclei, cytoplasm, glands) and the overall context of the entire slide to make decisions [1]. Specifically, for the WSIs observed at high resolution, pathologists analyze cellular components such as nuclear pleomorphism and cytoplasmic features for cancer diagnosis. As to the image with low-resolution, they distinguish different cancer subtypes by examining tissue architecture such as gland formation and tumor-stroma interfaces [20, 16]. Inspired by the aforementioned diagnostic way from the pathologists, we construct multi-scale prompts at both the entity and slide levels to capture discriminative visual attributes associated with specific cancer subtype patterns. Accordingly, the prompt construction process is composed of two parts, *i.e.*, Entity-level Prompt Discovery and Slide-level Prompt Summary, as detailed below.

Entity-level Prompt Discovery. Let $\mathcal{C} = \{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_C\}$ denote the set of cancer subtypes. We construct entities from two scales $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}^h \cup \mathcal{E}^l$, where $\mathcal{E}^h$ and $\mathcal{E}^l$ represent the entities derived from high-resolution and low-resolution images, respectively. For each entity $e \in \mathcal{E}^s$ at scale $s \in \{h, l\}$, we query the LLM to generate two types of textual prompts:

- (1) Generic visual description $p_e^{\text{gen},s}$: summarizes the general appearance of entity e at scale s ;
- (2) Subtype-specific attributes $\{p_{e,c}^s\}_{c \in \mathcal{C}}$: describes the attribute of entity e in subtype c at scale s .

Slide-level Prompt Summary. In prior works [29, 34], slide-level prompts are often defined using class names (*e.g.*, “a WSI of [CLASS]”) or with global descriptions directly generated from LLMs. However, such templates fail to reflect the fine-grained entity-level information. To address this, we use the LLM to generate the slide-level prompt $p_c^{\text{slide},s}$ for each cancer subtype $c \in \mathcal{C}$ at scale $s \in \{h, l\}$ by the combination of entity names $\mathcal{E}^s$, and thus can integrate fine-grained entity information into the slide-level representation. More details on prompt construction using LLMs are provided in Appendix A.

4.2 Language-guided Instance Selection

Accurate identification of tumor-related regions within gigapixel WSIs is crucial for cancer subtype classification, as these regions contain the most discriminative diagnostic information [7, 27]. Therefore, we propose a language-guided instance selection strategy that can help identify tumor-associated

patches by leveraging the pre-trained vision-language models. Specifically, we first query the LLM with the following instruction: “What are the visually descriptive characteristics of the tumor-related region in a WSI at high/low resolution?” Based on this query, the LLM generates region prompts $p_{\text{reg}} = \{p_{\text{reg}}^h, p_{\text{reg}}^l\}$ for high and low resolution, respectively. Then, each prompt is processed by the frozen text encoder f_t to obtain the corresponding text embeddings: t_{reg}^h and t_{reg}^l . Given the extracted patch features Z_i^h and Z_i^l for slide X_i from different resolutions, we compute the cosine similarity scores between the region text embeddings and patch features from different scales as $S_i^h = \text{sim}(t_{\text{reg}}^h, Z_i^h)$ and $S_i^l = \text{sim}(t_{\text{reg}}^l, Z_i^l)$. Based on these similarity scores, we select the top- k instances with the highest similarity scores at each scale to form the tumor-related instance sets:

$$\tilde{Z}_i^h = \{z_{i,j}^h \mid \text{rank}(S_i^h[j]) < k^h\}, \quad \tilde{Z}_i^l = \{z_{i,j}^l \mid \text{rank}(S_i^l[j]) < k^l\}, \quad (4)$$

where k^h and k^l denote the number of selected instances at high and low resolutions, respectively.

4.3 Entity-guided Attribute-enhanced Classification

To incorporate semantic guidance from entity-level prompts, we encode both the generic descriptions and subtype-specific attributes into learnable embeddings. For each entity $e \in \mathcal{E}^s$ at scale $s \in \{h, l\}$, we prepend a shared set of learnable context vectors $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_M\}$ to the textual descriptions, forming the learnable prompt tokens $t_e^{\text{gen},s} = \{v_1, \dots, v_M, p_e^{\text{gen},s}\}$ and $t_{e,c}^s = \{v_1, \dots, v_M, p_{e,c}^s\}$. These tokens are then encoded by a frozen text encoder f_t to obtain the final prompt embeddings:

$$d_e^{\text{gen},s} = f_t(t_e^{\text{gen},s}), \quad d_{e,c}^s = f_t(t_{e,c}^s). \quad (5)$$

Furthermore, we introduce an Entity-guided Cross-attention module to derive the visual representation of each entity by aggregating instance features. Given the instance set $\tilde{Z}_i^s = \{z_{i,j}^s\}_{j=1}^{K_i^s}$ from slide X_i at scale $s \in \{h, l\}$ and the generic prompt embedding $d_e^{\text{gen},s} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ for entity e , the entity-specific feature is computed as:

$$z_{e,i}^s = \text{Norm} \left(\text{softmax} \left(\frac{\mathbf{W}_q d_e^{\text{gen},s} (\mathbf{W}_k \tilde{Z}_i^s)^\top}{\sqrt{d_k}} \right) \mathbf{W}_v \tilde{Z}_i^s \right) + d_e^{\text{gen},s}, \quad (6)$$

where $\mathbf{W}_q, \mathbf{W}_k, \mathbf{W}_v \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d_k}$ are learnable projection matrices, and $\text{Norm}(\cdot)$ denotes layer normalization. This attention mechanism enables the model to selectively aggregate instances that exhibit strong semantic alignment with entity e , yielding a compact and discriminative representation of its visual characteristics within the slide.

For entity-level classification, we compute the cosine similarity between the visual representation $z_{e,i}^s$ of entity e in slide X_i and the corresponding subtype-specific prompt embedding $d_{e,c}^s$ for subtype c :

$$\ell_{e,i}^{c,s} = \text{sim}(z_{e,i}^s, d_{e,c}^s). \quad (7)$$

Next, we will integrate $\ell_{e,i}^{c,s}$ with slide-level predictions to derive the final classification results, as detailed in Section 4.5.

4.4 Multi-scale Entity Aggregator for Slide-level Classification

In this section, we propose a multi-scale entity aggregator, where we firstly construct a cross-scale entity graph that connects semantically related entities within and across different entity scales to enrich entity representation, and then aggregate the refined entity features to obtain slide-level representations which are aligned with corresponding prompts for slide-level prediction.

Cross-scale Entity Graph Learning. Let $\mathcal{Z}_i = \{z_{e,i}^h\}_{e \in \mathcal{E}^h} \cup \{z_{e,i}^l\}_{e \in \mathcal{E}^l}$ denote the set of entity features at different scales for slide X_i . We define a graph $\mathcal{G}_i = (\mathcal{V}_i, \mathcal{E}_i)$, where each node $v \in \mathcal{V}_i$ corresponds to an entity feature in $\mathcal{Z}_i$. To capture semantic relationships between entities across different scales, we compute the cosine similarity between features z_v and $z_{v'}$ as $\text{sim}(z_v, z_{v'}) = \frac{z_v^\top z_{v'}}{\|z_v\| \cdot \|z_{v'}\|}$. For each node v , its neighborhood $\mathcal{N}(v)$ is defined as the set of top- k most similar nodes:

$$\mathcal{N}(v) = \text{TopK}_{v'}(\text{sim}(z_v, z_{v'})). \quad (8)$$

Then, the Graph Attention Network (GAT) [35] is applied to propagate information across nodes based on learned attention weights. For each node v , the updated entity representation is computed as:

$$\hat{z}_v = \sigma \left(\sum_{v' \in \mathcal{N}(v)} \alpha_{v,v'} \mathbf{W}_g z_{v'} \right), \quad (9)$$

where $\mathbf{W}_g \in \mathbb{R}^{d' \times d}$ is a learnable weight matrix, $\sigma(\cdot)$ denotes a non-linear activation function (e.g., ReLU), and $\alpha_{v,v'}$ is the attention coefficient:

$$\alpha_{v,v'} = \frac{\exp(\text{LeakyReLU}(\mathbf{a}^\top [\mathbf{W}_g z_v \parallel \mathbf{W}_g z_{v'}]))}{\sum_{u \in \mathcal{N}(v)} \exp(\text{LeakyReLU}(\mathbf{a}^\top [\mathbf{W}_g z_v \parallel \mathbf{W}_g z_u]))}, \quad (10)$$

with $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^{2d'}$ being a learnable attention vector, and $\parallel$ denoting vector concatenation operation.

Slide-level Representation. We adopt a gated attention mechanism [23] to derive the slide-level visual representation by aggregating the refined entity features. Let $\hat{\mathbf{H}}_i^s = \{\hat{z}_{e,i}\}_{e \in \mathcal{E}^s} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_s \times d}$ denote the entity features at scale s , where $N_s = |\mathcal{E}^s|$. The slide-level feature for scale s can be obtained via the following weighted sum form:

$$z_i^{\text{slide},s} = \boldsymbol{\alpha}^s \hat{\mathbf{H}}_i^s \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times d}, \quad (11)$$

$$\mathbf{A}^V = \tanh(\hat{\mathbf{H}}_i^s \mathbf{W}_V), \mathbf{A}^U = \sigma(\hat{\mathbf{H}}_i^s \mathbf{W}_U), \boldsymbol{\alpha}^s = \text{softmax}((\mathbf{A}^V \odot \mathbf{A}^U) \mathbf{w})^\top, \quad (12)$$

where $\mathbf{W}_V, \mathbf{W}_U \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$, $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ are learnable parameters, $\odot$ denotes element-wise multiplication, and $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^s \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times N_s}$ represent the normalized attention scores.

Prompt-based Slide-level Alignment. For each subtype $c \in \mathcal{C}$ and scale $s \in \{h, l\}$, we construct the slide-level textual prompt by concatenating the learnable context vectors V with the scale-specific slide-level token $p_c^{\text{slide},s}$:

$$t_c^{\text{slide},s} = \{v_1, \dots, v_M, p_c^{\text{slide},s}\}, \quad d_c^{\text{slide},s} = f_T(t_c^{\text{slide},s}), \quad (13)$$

where $f_T(\cdot)$ denotes the text encoder. The slide-level classification logits for subtype c at scale s can be computed as:

$$\ell_{i,c}^{\text{slide},s} = \text{sim}(z_i^{\text{slide},s}, d_c^{\text{slide},s}). \quad (14)$$

4.5 Training Strategy

For each slide X_i , we obtain the slide-level logits $\ell_{i,c}^{\text{slide},s}$ (shown in Eq. 14) and entity-level logits $\ell_{e,i}^{c,s}$ (shown in Eq. 7). To integrate both slide-level and fine-grained entity-level logits across different scales, the final classification logits can be computed via weighted combination:

$$\ell_{i,c}^{\text{final}} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{s \in \{l, h\}} \left[\lambda \cdot \ell_{i,c}^{\text{slide},s} + (1 - \lambda) \cdot \frac{1}{|\mathcal{E}_i^s|} \sum_{e \in \mathcal{E}_i^s} \ell_{e,i}^{c,s} \right], \quad (15)$$

where λ is the hyperparameter that controls the contributions of the slide- and entity-level predictions. Finally, the objective function for our MAPLE is formulated as follows:

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{CE}}(\ell_{i,c}^{\text{final}}, y_i), \quad (16)$$

where $\mathcal{L}_{\text{CE}}$ is the cross-entropy loss defined in Eq. 3 and $y_i \in \mathcal{C}$ is the ground-truth label for slide X_i .

5 Experiments

Datasets. We evaluate MAPLE on three benchmark WSI datasets from The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA): TCGA-BRCA, TCGA-RCC, and TCGA-NSCLC. More details for the classification task on each cohort are provided in Appendix B.1. To simulate the few-shot learning scenario in clinical practice, we randomly sample K WSIs per class, where ($K = 4, 8, 16$ in our implementation).

Table 1: Few-shot WSI classification results on TCGA-BRCA, TCGA-RCC, and TCGA-NSCLC datasets under 4-shot, 8-shot, and 16-shot settings. The best results are in **bold**, and the second-best results are underlined.

Dataset	Methods	TCGA-BRCA			TCGA-RCC			TCGA-NSCLC		
		AUC	F1	ACC	AUC	F1	ACC	AUC	F1	ACC
4-shot	ABMIL	0.665 ± 0.097	0.555 ± 0.061	0.607 ± 0.068	0.876 ± 0.028	0.650 ± 0.053	0.681 ± 0.053	0.626 ± 0.057	0.581 ± 0.063	0.586 ± 0.061
	TransMIL	0.646 ± 0.036	0.558 ± 0.109	0.621 ± 0.139	0.881 ± 0.024	0.656 ± 0.057	0.662 ± 0.063	0.629 ± 0.047	0.565 ± 0.049	0.581 ± 0.041
	GTMIL	0.679 ± 0.048	0.542 ± 0.105	0.604 ± 0.136	0.883 ± 0.017	<u>0.685 ± 0.042</u>	<u>0.713 ± 0.048</u>	0.663 ± 0.046	0.600 ± 0.051	0.608 ± 0.040
	WiKG	0.653 ± 0.029	0.536 ± 0.107	0.615 ± 0.163	<u>0.890 ± 0.030</u>	0.658 ± 0.098	0.680 ± 0.094	0.620 ± 0.050	0.563 ± 0.072	0.579 ± 0.049
	TOP	0.652 ± 0.024	0.515 ± 0.149	0.611 ± 0.186	0.854 ± 0.035	0.626 ± 0.067	0.657 ± 0.069	0.624 ± 0.050	0.531 ± 0.123	0.588 ± 0.061
	ViLa-MIL	0.663 ± 0.092	0.503 ± 0.101	0.616 ± 0.159	0.878 ± 0.052	0.635 ± 0.038	0.658 ± 0.037	0.629 ± 0.043	0.580 ± 0.045	0.589 ± 0.037
	MSCPT	0.678 ± 0.045	0.550 ± 0.050	0.593 ± 0.077	0.872 ± 0.067	0.654 ± 0.052	0.673 ± 0.062	0.626 ± 0.020	0.582 ± 0.040	0.588 ± 0.038
	FOCUS	0.703 ± 0.051	<u>0.564 ± 0.095</u>	<u>0.633 ± 0.148</u>	0.880 ± 0.035	0.663 ± 0.059	0.702 ± 0.054	<u>0.713 ± 0.093</u>	<u>0.631 ± 0.078</u>	<u>0.646 ± 0.067</u>
	MAPLE	0.722 ± 0.063	0.594 ± 0.076	0.664 ± 0.134	0.909 ± 0.020	0.705 ± 0.055	0.728 ± 0.057	0.740 ± 0.056	0.663 ± 0.052	0.675 ± 0.053
8-shot	ABMIL	0.748 ± 0.061	0.557 ± 0.098	0.593 ± 0.118	0.917 ± 0.014	0.752 ± 0.028	0.768 ± 0.042	0.724 ± 0.026	0.632 ± 0.031	0.634 ± 0.032
	TransMIL	0.746 ± 0.063	0.578 ± 0.035	0.630 ± 0.035	0.915 ± 0.019	0.751 ± 0.040	0.765 ± 0.048	0.715 ± 0.086	0.627 ± 0.127	0.631 ± 0.095
	GTMIL	0.764 ± 0.056	0.586 ± 0.092	0.633 ± 0.113	0.917 ± 0.018	0.765 ± 0.036	0.781 ± 0.039	0.746 ± 0.041	0.626 ± 0.072	0.644 ± 0.054
	WiKG	0.709 ± 0.047	0.537 ± 0.073	0.579 ± 0.100	0.909 ± 0.017	0.728 ± 0.069	0.752 ± 0.065	0.740 ± 0.071	0.654 ± 0.070	0.666 ± 0.066
	TOP	0.733 ± 0.047	0.546 ± 0.059	0.580 ± 0.078	0.900 ± 0.026	0.702 ± 0.067	0.736 ± 0.060	0.752 ± 0.068	0.652 ± 0.038	0.663 ± 0.041
	ViLa-MIL	<u>0.770 ± 0.062</u>	<u>0.605 ± 0.065</u>	<u>0.653 ± 0.080</u>	0.931 ± 0.003	0.745 ± 0.032	0.777 ± 0.034	0.709 ± 0.048	0.643 ± 0.042	0.649 ± 0.039
	MSCPT	0.768 ± 0.064	0.558 ± 0.067	0.596 ± 0.080	0.926 ± 0.021	<u>0.771 ± 0.038</u>	<u>0.792 ± 0.033</u>	0.768 ± 0.066	0.685 ± 0.072	0.692 ± 0.067
	FOCUS	0.767 ± 0.054	0.579 ± 0.100	0.616 ± 0.124	<u>0.944 ± 0.016</u>	0.765 ± 0.043	0.783 ± 0.050	<u>0.818 ± 0.054</u>	<u>0.737 ± 0.066</u>	<u>0.739 ± 0.063</u>
	MAPLE	0.786 ± 0.070	0.618 ± 0.024	0.673 ± 0.018	0.957 ± 0.015	0.791 ± 0.024	0.806 ± 0.024	0.855 ± 0.041	0.762 ± 0.031	0.766 ± 0.030
16-shot	ABMIL	0.724 ± 0.048	0.587 ± 0.047	0.637 ± 0.056	0.937 ± 0.012	0.757 ± 0.024	0.790 ± 0.028	0.815 ± 0.041	0.747 ± 0.049	0.753 ± 0.048
	TransMIL	0.738 ± 0.092	0.597 ± 0.082	0.639 ± 0.091	0.941 ± 0.029	0.812 ± 0.037	0.829 ± 0.046	0.807 ± 0.057	0.740 ± 0.052	0.741 ± 0.053
	GTMIL	0.743 ± 0.051	0.619 ± 0.069	0.681 ± 0.090	0.930 ± 0.009	0.803 ± 0.046	0.829 ± 0.042	0.827 ± 0.040	0.750 ± 0.040	0.752 ± 0.038
	WiKG	0.754 ± 0.036	0.593 ± 0.054	0.637 ± 0.072	0.943 ± 0.018	0.793 ± 0.037	0.816 ± 0.037	0.832 ± 0.040	0.755 ± 0.039	0.756 ± 0.039
	TOP	0.775 ± 0.025	0.636 ± 0.067	0.682 ± 0.113	0.939 ± 0.015	0.769 ± 0.043	0.791 ± 0.037	0.804 ± 0.066	0.738 ± 0.125	0.730 ± 0.069
	ViLa-MIL	<u>0.789 ± 0.026</u>	<u>0.651 ± 0.041</u>	<u>0.703 ± 0.043</u>	<u>0.952 ± 0.007</u>	0.797 ± 0.046	0.827 ± 0.042	0.824 ± 0.055	0.757 ± 0.046	0.757 ± 0.047
	MSCPT	0.758 ± 0.043	0.642 ± 0.047	0.702 ± 0.046	0.940 ± 0.013	0.813 ± 0.027	0.834 ± 0.027	0.833 ± 0.027	0.765 ± 0.029	0.766 ± 0.029
	FOCUS	0.745 ± 0.052	0.633 ± 0.046	0.693 ± 0.093	0.951 ± 0.008	<u>0.826 ± 0.021</u>	<u>0.851 ± 0.021</u>	<u>0.862 ± 0.056</u>	0.781 ± 0.064	0.783 ± 0.064
	MAPLE	0.801 ± 0.031	0.672 ± 0.076	0.735 ± 0.039	0.969 ± 0.014	0.838 ± 0.034	0.867 ± 0.031	0.903 ± 0.033	0.806 ± 0.060	0.810 ± 0.055

Implementation Details. We utilize CLAM [23] for WSI pre-processing, followed by ViLa-MIL [34] to crop both high-resolution (10×) and low-resolution (5×) WSIs into patches with the size of 256×256. We employ PLIP [14] as our vision-language backbone, with a feature dimension of 512 for both visual and textual modalities. GPT-4 [2] is taken as the frozen large language model (LLM). For hyperparameter settings, the number of entities at each scale n_k is tuned from 4 to 20 with an interval of 4 (Section 4.1), while the number of neighbors for constructing the cross-scale entity graph $n_e = 7$ is tuned from 1 to 13 with interval 2 (Section 4.4). Since WSIs are with different numbers of divided patches, we select the top % r percentage tumor-related patches for each WSI as the top- k patches, and we tune r from 0.1 to 1 with interval 0.2. Finally, the weighting parameter λ (Section 4.5) for combining entity-level and slide-level predictions is tuned from 0 to 1 with interval 0.1. The model is optimized using AdamW with a learning rate of 1×10^{-4} and trained for up to 80 epochs with early stopping based on validation performance. All experiments are conducted using PyTorch 2.0.1 and CUDA 11.7 on Python 3.8 with NVIDIA RTX 3090 GPUs.

Evaluation Metrics. The area under the curve (AUC) score, F1 score (F1), and accuracy (ACC) are utilized as the evaluation metrics in our experiment. We conduct five-fold cross-validation and the mean and standard deviation are calculated according to the results of all folds.

5.1 Main Results

We compare MAPLE with SOTA MIL based methods including ABMIL [15], TransMIL [32], GTMIL [42], and WiKG-MIL [19], as well as SOTA prompt based methods in few-shot WSI classification methods like TOP [29], ViLa-MIL [34], MSCPT [11] and FOCUS [10]. PLIP [14] is applied to extract both visual and textual features for all methods. We compare MAPLE with these methods across three datasets under three few-shot settings (4-shot, 8-shot, and 16-shot), as shown in Tab. 1. We provide additional comparison results using different vision-language models (*i.e.*, CLIP [30] and CONCH [24]) in Appendix C.1 and C.3 and further comparisons of model complexity and efficiency in Appendix B.3.

TCGA-BRCA (2 classes). On the TCGA-BRCA dataset, our proposed MAPLE consistently outperforms all baseline methods across all few-shot settings. In the 16-shot scenario, MAPLE achieves an AUC of 80.1%, F1 of 67.2% and ACC of 73.5%, surpassing the second-best performing ViLa-MIL with an improvement of 1.2% in AUC, 2.1% in F1 and 3.2% in ACC. This advantage is

Table 2: Effects of different levels and entity scales under the 16-shot setting.

Methods	TCGA-BRCA			TCGA-RCC			TCGA-NSCLC		
	AUC	F1	ACC	AUC	F1	ACC	AUC	F1	ACC
MAPLE-Low	0.790 ± 0.052	0.640 ± 0.079	0.704 ± 0.101	0.949 ± 0.009	0.796 ± 0.037	0.832 ± 0.030	0.866 ± 0.045	0.780 ± 0.046	0.782 ± 0.045
MAPLE-High	0.779 ± 0.046	0.651 ± 0.057	0.729 ± 0.080	0.956 ± 0.016	0.817 ± 0.044	0.842 ± 0.041	0.875 ± 0.050	0.789 ± 0.049	0.791 ± 0.048
MAPLE-Entity	0.792 ± 0.052	0.653 ± 0.077	0.714 ± 0.104	0.960 ± 0.014	0.815 ± 0.032	0.846 ± 0.031	0.879 ± 0.060	0.787 ± 0.045	0.796 ± 0.044
MAPLE-Slide	0.789 ± 0.036	0.644 ± 0.050	0.702 ± 0.076	0.951 ± 0.011	0.819 ± 0.041	0.850 ± 0.037	0.891 ± 0.033	0.777 ± 0.046	0.785 ± 0.043
MAPLE	0.801 ± 0.031	0.672 ± 0.076	0.735 ± 0.039	0.969 ± 0.014	0.838 ± 0.034	0.867 ± 0.031	0.903 ± 0.033	0.806 ± 0.060	0.810 ± 0.055

Table 3: Ablation study of each component under the 16-shot setting. “w/o Selection” refers to MAPLE without language-guided instance selection step, “w/o EGCA” refers to MAPLE without entity-guided cross-attention module, and “w/o Graph” refers to MAPLE without the module of cross-scale entity graph learning.

Methods	TCGA-BRCA			TCGA-RCC			TCGA-NSCLC		
	AUC	F1	ACC	AUC	F1	ACC	AUC	F1	ACC
MAPLE (w/o Selection)	0.792 ± 0.059	0.655 ± 0.040	0.710 ± 0.045	0.962 ± 0.015	0.828 ± 0.056	0.859 ± 0.053	0.885 ± 0.064	0.786 ± 0.058	0.791 ± 0.057
MAPLE (w/o EGCA)	0.784 ± 0.019	0.651 ± 0.043	0.710 ± 0.061	0.959 ± 0.015	0.820 ± 0.031	0.852 ± 0.032	0.879 ± 0.042	0.782 ± 0.048	0.790 ± 0.047
MAPLE (w/o Graph)	0.793 ± 0.038	0.658 ± 0.073	0.716 ± 0.101	0.957 ± 0.011	0.823 ± 0.036	0.855 ± 0.031	0.887 ± 0.039	0.791 ± 0.047	0.792 ± 0.046
MAPLE	0.801 ± 0.031	0.672 ± 0.076	0.735 ± 0.039	0.969 ± 0.014	0.838 ± 0.034	0.867 ± 0.031	0.903 ± 0.033	0.806 ± 0.060	0.810 ± 0.055

maintained with extremely limited training data. In the challenging 4-shot setting, MAPLE achieves an AUC of 72.2%, F1 of 59.4%, and ACC of 66.4%, demonstrating significant improvements over the second-best method FOCUS (AUC: 70.3%, F1: 56.4%, ACC: 63.3%).

TCGA-RCC (3 classes). For the multi-class TCGA-RCC dataset, MAPLE delivers exceptional performance across all metrics and settings. In the 16-shot scenario, MAPLE achieves the highest AUC (96.9%), F1 (83.8%), and ACC (86.7%), showing significant improvements over the second-best method FOCUS. As the number of shots decreases to 8 and 4, MAPLE maintains its superior performance with AUC scores of 95.7% and 90.9%, respectively.

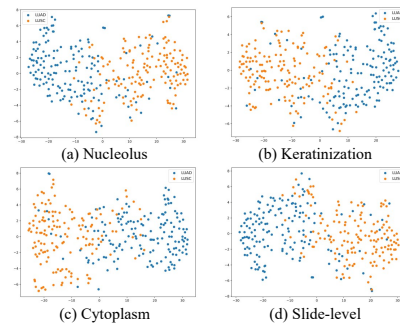
TCGA-NSCLC (2 classes). For the TCGA-NSCLC dataset, MAPLE again achieves superior performance across all metrics, with AUCs of 74.0%, 85.5%, and 90.3% in the 4, 8, and 16-shot settings respectively, consistently outperforming FOCUS (AUC: 71.3%, 81.8%, and 86.2%).

Overall, MAPLE consistently outperforms all baselines across three cancer datasets under different few-shot settings, validating the effectiveness of MAPLE in few-shot WSI classification.

5.2 Ablation Study

We conduct comprehensive ablation studies to investigate the effectiveness of each component in MAPLE. The more detailed analysis of the hyperparameters (*i.e.*, n_e , n_k , r , and λ mentioned in *implementation details*) and the impact of different large language models is provided in Appendix D.

Impact of Combining Slide-level and Entity-level Logits. To evaluate the effectiveness of combining both slide-level and entity-level logits for cancer diagnosis, we compare MAPLE with its competitors that only using entity-level (MAPLE-Entity) and slide-level (MAPLE-Slide) logits under the 16-shot setting in Tab. 2. Notably, the entity-level information can achieve comparable or even slightly superior performance to the results using slide-level logits, demonstrating the effectiveness of modeling fine-grained histological entities and their subtype-specific attributes for cancer diagnosis. In addition, it is obviously that our MAPLE performs better than MAPLE-Entity and MAPLE-Slide, which confirms the complementary nature of entity-level and slide-level information for cancer subtype classification. We also discuss the effects of parameter λ that is applied to balance the contribution of slide-level and entity-level logits in Appendix D.4.

**Figure 3:** t-SNE results of entity-level (a–c) and slide-level (d) embeddings on the TCGA-NSCLC dataset.

To further demonstrate the discriminative power of entity-level and slide-level representations, we visualize the learned representations from the entities of Nucleolus (Fig. 3 (a)), Keratinization (Fig. 3 (b)) and Cytoplasm (Fig. 3 (c)), and slide-level embeddings ((Fig. 3 (d))) on the TCGA-NSCLC dataset using t-SNE. As shown in Fig. 3, all representations exhibit clear separation among different cancer subtypes, confirming their ability to capture subtype-specific patterns.

Impact of Multi-scale Entities. To evaluate the effectiveness of integrating multi-scale entities for few-shot WSI classification, we compare MAPLE with its two variants that rely solely on entities

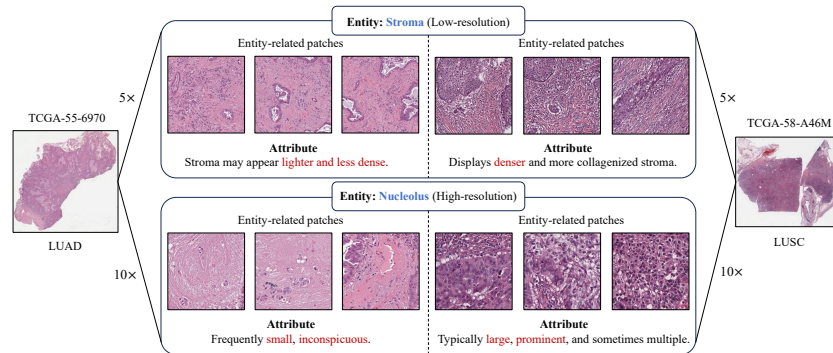


Figure 4: Visualization of entity-relevant patches selected by the entity-guided cross-attention module for lung adenocarcinoma (LUAD) and lung squamous cell carcinoma (LUSC) on the TCGA-NSCLC dataset. Top rows show patches and their corresponding entity attributes (*e.g.*, stroma) at low resolution, while bottom rows show patches and their corresponding entity attributes (*e.g.*, nucleoli) at high resolution.

extracted from high-resolution (MAPLE-High) or low-resolution (MAPLE-Low) images. As shown in Tab. 2, MAPLE yields higher classification results to MAPLE-High and MAPLE-Low, which validates the superiority of integrating multi-scale entities for cancer subtype classification.

Impact of Each Component. We further ablate three key components of MAPLE, *i.e.*, language-guided instance selection module, entity-guided cross-attention module and cross-scale entity graph learning module, to assess their contributions. As shown in Tab. 3, each ablation study achieves inferior performance to MAPLE, indicating that each component contributes positively to the results.

5.3 Visualization Results

To validate entity-level interpretability of MAPLE, we visualize instances identified by our entity-guided cross-attention module on the TCGA-NSCLC dataset. Fig. 4 presents patches selected using generic entity descriptions, which exhibit subtype-specific characteristics matching their corresponding attribute prompts. For example, for the image patch at low resolution, stroma-related patches from lung adenocarcinoma (LUAD) appear lighter and less dense, while those from lung squamous cell carcinoma (LUSC) display denser and more collagenized patterns. Similarly, for the image patch at high resolution, nucleolus-focused patches from LUAD contain small, inconspicuous nucleoli, whereas those from LUSC exhibit large, prominent nucleoli. These visualizations confirm that MAPLE effectively captures the relationships between entity-related patches and their subtype-specific phenotypic attributes described in our LLM-generated prompts, providing visual evidence for our classification decisions. More visualization results on the TCGA-BRCA and TCGA-RCC datasets are provided in Appendix E.

6 Conclusion

In this paper, we introduce MAPLE, a hierarchical prompt learning framework for few-shot WSI classification that explicitly models multi-scale histological entities and their phenotypic attributes. By bridging the semantic gap between fine-grained visual details and textual descriptions through entity-level and slide-level alignment, MAPLE provides both enhanced classification accuracy and improved interpretability for cancer diagnosis. Extensive experiments across three cancer datasets demonstrate that our approach consistently outperforms state-of-the-art methods. The hierarchical nature of MAPLE aligns well with pathologists' diagnostic workflow, offering a promising direction for computer-aided diagnosis in computational pathology.

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Appendix for

“MAPLE: Multi-scale Attribute-enhanced Prompt Learning for Few-shot Whole Slide Image Classification”

Appendix organization:

A	Prompt Construction	21
A.1	Algorithms	21
A.2	Examples	22
B	Experimental Details	22
B.1	Dataset Details	22
B.2	Descriptions of Compared Methods	24
B.3	Computational Complexity	25
C	Additional Results	25
C.1	Comparisons with SOTAs using CLIP	25
C.2	Comparisons between PLIP and CLIP	26
C.3	Comparisons with SOTAs using CONCH	26
C.4	Comparisons with multi-scale MIL methods	26
D	More Ablation Studies	27
D.1	Number of Neighbors	27
D.2	Number of Entities	27
D.3	Number of Tumor-related Patches	28
D.4	Impact of Lambda	28
D.5	Impact of Large Language Models	29
E	More Visualization Results	29
F	Discussion	30
F.1	Limitations	30
F.2	Broader Impacts	30

A Prompt Construction

A.1 Algorithms

The detailed prompt construction process described in Section 4.1 can be conducted by using an LLM (*e.g.*, GPT-4) as outlined in Algorithm 1. This includes iterative entity-level prompt discovery, and slide-level prompt synthesis. Specifically, we begin by iteratively expanding a pool of histologically meaningful entities, where each selected entity highlights distinct structures relevant to subtype classification. For each entity, the LLM is queried to generate both a general visual description and subtype-specific morphological characteristics. These outputs are formatted into structured

Algorithm 1 LLM-powered Prompt Construction

Require: Subtype list $\mathcal{C} = \{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_C\}$; maximum number of entities N_e

Ensure: Entity-level prompts $\mathcal{P}_{\text{entity}}^s$, slide-level prompts $\mathcal{P}_{\text{slide}}^s$

```
1: Initialize entity pool  $\mathcal{E}^s \leftarrow \emptyset$ , prompts  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{entity}}^s \leftarrow \emptyset$ 
2: while  $|\mathcal{E}^s| < N_e$  do
3:    $e \leftarrow \text{QUERYLLM}(\text{"Suggest a discriminative histological entity not in } \mathcal{E} \text{ that helps distinguish subtypes in } \mathcal{C} \text{ at scale } s\text{"})$ 
4:   Add  $e$  to  $\mathcal{E}^s$ 
5:    $p_e^{\text{gen}, s} \leftarrow \text{QUERYLLM}(\text{"Describe generic visual characteristics of } e \text{ at scale } s\text{"})$ 
6:   for each subtype  $c \in \mathcal{C}$  do
7:      $p_{e,c}^s \leftarrow \text{QUERYLLM}(\text{"Describe how } e \text{ appears in subtype } c \text{ at scale } s\text{"})$ 
8:   end for
9:    $p_e^s \leftarrow \text{FORMATPROMPT}(e, p_e^{\text{gen}, s}, \{p_{e,c}^s\}_{c \in \mathcal{C}})$ 
10:  Append  $p_e^s$  to  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{entity}}^s$ 
11: end while
12: Initialize  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{slide}}^s \leftarrow \emptyset$ 
13: for each subtype  $c \in \mathcal{C}$  do
14:    $\text{context}_c \leftarrow \text{COLLECTENTITIES}(c, \mathcal{P}_{\text{entity}}^s)$ 
15:    $p_c^{\text{slide}, s} \leftarrow \text{QUERYLLM}(\text{"Describe a WSI of } c \text{ at scale } s \text{ based on: } \text{context}_c\text{"})$ 
16:   Append  $p_c^{\text{slide}, s}$  to  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{slide}}^s$ 
17: end for
18: return  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{entity}}^s, \mathcal{P}_{\text{slide}}^s$ 
```

prompts used for fine-grained entity-level alignment. After constructing the entity-level prompts, we generate slide-level prompts by prompting the LLM to compose holistic WSI descriptions. These are conditioned on the entity attributes associated with each subtype, thereby enriching slide-level prompts with fine-grained context. This approach enables our model to jointly capture both entity-level and slide-level semantic cues essential for few-shot classification.

A.2 Examples

We provide examples of the constructed prompts at low and high resolutions on the TCGA-NSCLC in Fig. 5 and 6, respectively.

B Experimental Details

B.1 Dataset Details

TCGA-BRCA. This dataset contains 1,054 whole-slide images (WSIs) of breast invasive carcinoma (BRCA) collected from TCGA². It comprises 843 slides of invasive ductal carcinoma (IDC) and 211 slides of invasive lobular carcinoma (ILC).

TCGA-RCC. This dataset includes 873 WSIs of renal cell carcinoma (RCC) obtained from TCGA. It consists of 455 chromophobe RCC (CHRC), 121 papillary RCC (PRCC), and 297 clear cell RCC (CCRCC) slides.

TCGA-NSCLC. This dataset comprises 1,039 WSIs of non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) from TCGA, including 530 slides of lung adenocarcinoma (LUAD) and 509 slides of lung squamous cell carcinoma (LUSC).

²<https://portal.gdc.cancer.gov>

Examples

```

"low": {
  "entities": [
    {
      "name": "Architecture",
      "general_feature": "Overall pattern or arrangement of tumor cells and structures within the tumor region visible at low magnification.",
      "attributes": {
        "lung adenocarcinoma": "Shows glandular, acinar, or papillary arrangements with well-formed gland-like spaces and frequent areas of lepidic (growth along alveolar spaces) pattern.",
        "lung squamous cell carcinoma": "Displays solid nests, sheets, or islands of tumor cells with evidence of keratinization or central necrosis (keratin pearls), lacking glandular or papillary structures."
      }
    },
    {
      "name": "Stroma",
      "general_feature": "The connective tissue and extracellular matrix surrounding tumor cell nests; appears as fibrous or desmoplastic regions.",
      "attributes": {
        "lung adenocarcinoma": "Typically features prominent desmoplastic reaction with loose, myxoid, or fibrous stroma separating irregular glandular structures; stroma may appear lighter and less dense at low magnification.",
        "lung squamous cell carcinoma": "Displays denser and more collagenized stroma, often with fewer desmoplastic changes and a tendency for stromal tissue to tightly encase solid sheets or nests of tumor cells."
      }
    },
    {
      "name": "Lumina",
      "general_feature": "Round to oval empty spaces or gland-like areas within tumor cell nests seen under low magnification.",
      "attributes": {
        "lung adenocarcinoma": "Frequent presence of well-formed glandular lumina, sometimes with mucin, demonstrating distinct glandular differentiation in the tumor nests.",
        "lung squamous cell carcinoma": "Rare to absent true lumina; if present, are irregular, slit-like, or represent necrotic debris rather than glandular differentiation, with tumor nests generally appearing solid."
      }
    }
  ],
  .....

```

Figure 5: Example of the constructed prompts at low resolution on the TCGA-NSCLC dataset.

Examples

```
"high": {
  "entities": [
    {
      "name": "Cytoplasmic Border",
      "general_feature": "The outline or edge of the cytoplasm surrounding the nucleus,
often seen as the boundary between adjacent tumor cells.",
      "attributes": {
        "lung adenocarcinoma": "Cytoplasmic borders are generally indistinct and poorly
defined, with cells often demonstrating overlapping or poorly separated cytoplasm. Cell
cohesion is low.",
        "lung squamous cell carcinoma": "Cytoplasmic borders are well-delineated and
sharp, with clear cell-to-cell boundaries. Tumor cells exhibit strong cohesion and
polygonal shapes."
      }
    },
    {
      "name": "Nucleolus",
      "general_feature": "Prominent, round to oval intranuclear structure, appears as a
distinct spot within the nucleus under high magnification.",
      "attributes": {
        "lung adenocarcinoma": "Frequently small, inconspicuous or variably prominent;
may be solitary or few per nucleus with generally fine chromatin background.",
        "lung squamous cell carcinoma": "Typically large, prominent, and sometimes
multiple; often eosinophilic with hyperchromatic surrounding chromatin and increased
irregularity."
      }
    },
    {
      "name": "Keratinization",
      "general_feature": "Presence and appearance of eosinophilic, dense, concentric
cytoplasmic material or whorls within tumor cells.",
      "attributes": {
        "lung adenocarcinoma": "Typically absent; tumor cells rarely show keratin
production or keratin pearls.",
        "lung squamous cell carcinoma": "Frequently present; keratin pearls and dense
eosinophilic cytoplasmic material are prominent, often forming concentric whorled
structures."
      }
    }
  ],
  .....
}
```

Figure 6: Example of the constructed prompts at high resolution on the TCGA-NSCLC dataset.

B.2 Descriptions of Compared Methods

ABMIL [15]. ABMIL introduces an attention-based multiple instance learning framework that assigns importance weights to individual instances, enabling the model to aggregate instance features into a slide-level representation with improved interpretability.

TransMIL [32]. TransMIL employs a transformer architecture to capture both morphological features and spatial relationships among instances, enabling effective performance across binary and multi-class classification tasks.

GTMIL [42]. GTMIL proposes a graph-based vision transformer that integrates structural WSI representations with transformer-based feature modeling for whole slide image classification.

WiKG [19]. WiKG conceptualizes a WSI as a dynamic knowledge graph, where neighbor instances and edge embeddings are dynamically constructed based on semantic relationships, enabling context-aware graph reasoning.

TOP [29]. TOP introduces a two-level prompt learning strategy that incorporates linguistic prior knowledge to guide both instance- and slide-level feature aggregation within a vision-language modeling framework.

ViLa-MIL [34]. ViLa-MIL designs dual-scale visual prompts using a frozen LLM to enhance vision-language alignment, effectively boosting few-shot performance in pathology tasks.

MSCPT [11]. MSCPT presents a graph-based prompt tuning module to encode contextual dependencies across WSI patches, followed by a cross-guided non-parametric aggregation scheme for WSI-level representation learning.

FOCUS [10]. FOCUS integrates foundation models and language-guided patch selection to prioritize diagnostically relevant regions, enabling focused and efficient analysis in weakly supervised settings.

Table 4: Comparisons of model complexity and efficiency. We report the number of trainable parameters (MB), inference time per slide (ms), and training time per epoch (s) on the TCGA-NSCLC dataset under the 16-shot setting.

Methods	Trainable Params	Inference Time (ms / slide)	Training Time (s / epoch)
TOP [29]	1.71 M	40.50 ± 4.75	8.91 ± 0.31
ViLa-MIL [34]	2.32 M	19.03 ± 2.07	5.42 ± 0.20
MSCPT [11]	1.35 M	41.86 ± 1.00	6.47 ± 0.40
FOCUS [10]	1.32 M	132.41 ± 2.26	30.11 ± 1.93
MAPLE	1.86 M	45.88 ± 1.18	10.52 ± 0.19

B.3 Computational Complexity

We analyze the computational efficiency of MAPLE in comparison with existing few-shot methods. As shown in Table 4, we report the number of trainable parameters, inference time per slide, and training time per epoch on the TCGA-NSCLC dataset. Among all methods, ViLa-MIL requires the largest number of trainable parameters (2.32M) due to its dual-scale visual prompt tuning approach, though it achieves the fastest inference and training speeds. In contrast, FOCUS has a relatively small parameter count (1.32M) but incurs the highest computational cost during both inference (132.41 ms/slide) and training (30.11 s/epoch). MSCPT maintains low parameter count and reasonable efficiency but requires an additional preprocessing step to select low-resolution patches, which is not reflected in the runtime measurements. MAPLE strikes a balanced trade-off between model complexity and computational efficiency. While it requires moderately more parameters (1.86M) than TOP, MSCPT, and FOCUS, its inference and training times remain comparable to TOP and significantly lower than FOCUS. Overall, MAPLE achieves strong performance in few-shot scenarios without introducing significant additional trainable parameters or increasing much inference and training time.

C Additional Results

C.1 Comparisons with SOTAs using CLIP

In addition to the main experiments using PLIP [14] as the feature extractor, we conducted parallel experiments using CLIP [30] to extract visual and textual features. Tab. 5 presents the few-shot weakly-supervised learning results on the same three datasets (TCGA-BRCA, TCGA-RCC, and TCGA-NSCLC) across 4-shot, 8-shot, and 16-shot settings. With features extracted by the CLIP encoder, MAPLE achieves the best results in nearly all configurations across the three datasets. Particularly, in the 16-shot setting, MAPLE attains the highest AUC scores of 70.1%, 94.6%, and 76.0% on TCGA-BRCA, TCGA-RCC, and TCGA-NSCLC, respectively. The performance advantage of MAPLE is maintained even in the challenging 4-shot scenario, where it achieves competitive or superior results compared to other methods.

Table 5: Few-shot WSI classification results using CLIP encoder on TCGA-BRCA, TCGA-RCC, and TCGA-NSCLC datasets under 4-shot, 8-shot, and 16-shot settings. The best results are in **bold**, and the second-best results are underlined.

Dataset	Methods	TCGA-BRCA			TCGA-RCC			TCGA-NSCLC		
		AUC	F1	ACC	AUC	F1	ACC	AUC	F1	ACC
4-shot	ABMIL	0.549 ± 0.083	0.428 ± 0.104	0.526 ± 0.173	0.825 ± 0.033	0.586 ± 0.077	0.597 ± 0.086	0.589 ± 0.052	0.545 ± 0.042	0.557 ± 0.037
	TransMIL	0.560 ± 0.058	0.396 ± 0.107	0.466 ± 0.161	0.759 ± 0.052	0.482 ± 0.081	0.518 ± 0.080	0.547 ± 0.064	0.519 ± 0.048	0.531 ± 0.052
	GTMIL	0.570 ± 0.108	0.446 ± 0.126	0.456 ± 0.154	0.816 ± 0.046	0.598 ± 0.090	0.606 ± 0.115	0.579 ± 0.044	0.476 ± 0.044	0.531 ± 0.027
	WiKG	0.581 ± 0.089	0.495 ± 0.036	0.615 ± 0.070	0.820 ± 0.048	0.572 ± 0.099	0.592 ± 0.121	0.600 ± 0.063	0.567 ± 0.054	0.576 ± 0.055
	TOP	0.573 ± 0.053	0.480 ± 0.025	0.588 ± 0.110	0.816 ± 0.032	0.534 ± 0.117	0.576 ± 0.121	0.627 ± 0.029	0.490 ± 0.111	0.557 ± 0.047
	ViLa-MIL	0.614 ± 0.066	<u>0.499 ± 0.082</u>	0.560 ± 0.120	0.806 ± 0.033	0.525 ± 0.129	0.565 ± 0.115	<u>0.665 ± 0.080</u>	<u>0.585 ± 0.041</u>	<u>0.606 ± 0.046</u>
	MSCPT	0.610 ± 0.071	0.476 ± 0.090	0.544 ± 0.133	<u>0.828 ± 0.027</u>	0.608 ± 0.078	0.613 ± 0.079	0.581 ± 0.032	0.495 ± 0.062	0.531 ± 0.021
	FOCUS	0.602 ± 0.067	0.483 ± 0.046	<u>0.600 ± 0.133</u>	0.823 ± 0.064	<u>0.619 ± 0.105</u>	<u>0.618 ± 0.109</u>	0.574 ± 0.069	0.511 ± 0.111	0.548 ± 0.064
	MAPLE	<u>0.613 ± 0.100</u>	0.525 ± 0.043	0.637 ± 0.091	0.831 ± 0.038	0.635 ± 0.080	0.631 ± 0.086	0.678 ± 0.057	0.589 ± 0.086	0.616 ± 0.051
8-shot	ABMIL	0.577 ± 0.079	0.435 ± 0.111	0.534 ± 0.198	0.830 ± 0.023	0.618 ± 0.023	0.664 ± 0.048	0.590 ± 0.079	0.548 ± 0.059	0.561 ± 0.059
	TransMIL	0.553 ± 0.051	0.451 ± 0.071	0.504 ± 0.135	0.777 ± 0.064	0.571 ± 0.068	0.596 ± 0.071	0.559 ± 0.061	0.474 ± 0.078	0.526 ± 0.526
	GTMIL	0.594 ± 0.063	0.496 ± 0.024	0.565 ± 0.045	0.877 ± 0.013	0.668 ± 0.022	0.684 ± 0.020	0.629 ± 0.100	0.550 ± 0.050	0.563 ± 0.051
	WiKG	<u>0.652 ± 0.063</u>	0.504 ± 0.080	0.542 ± 0.119	0.874 ± 0.020	0.671 ± 0.043	0.690 ± 0.046	0.609 ± 0.096	0.545 ± 0.053	0.559 ± 0.056
	TOP	0.632 ± 0.067	0.536 ± 0.115	0.548 ± 0.113	0.786 ± 0.034	0.580 ± 0.065	0.625 ± 0.059	0.591 ± 0.020	0.401 ± 0.078	0.513 ± 0.026
	ViLa-MIL	0.645 ± 0.099	0.537 ± 0.134	0.558 ± 0.174	0.865 ± 0.022	0.685 ± 0.041	<u>0.714 ± 0.041</u>	<u>0.652 ± 0.036</u>	<u>0.606 ± 0.032</u>	<u>0.615 ± 0.024</u>
	MSCPT	0.629 ± 0.077	0.524 ± 0.100	0.562 ± 0.182	0.866 ± 0.035	0.673 ± 0.050	0.705 ± 0.048	0.548 ± 0.034	0.507 ± 0.072	0.531 ± 0.039
	FOCUS	0.641 ± 0.074	<u>0.541 ± 0.064</u>	<u>0.605 ± 0.102</u>	0.888 ± 0.029	0.695 ± 0.037	0.719 ± 0.044	0.599 ± 0.088	0.567 ± 0.072	0.575 ± 0.064
	MAPLE	0.658 ± 0.072	0.566 ± 0.045	0.631 ± 0.052	<u>0.886 ± 0.026</u>	<u>0.689 ± 0.038</u>	0.708 ± 0.048	0.668 ± 0.043	0.612 ± 0.055	0.620 ± 0.042
16-shot	ABMIL	0.629 ± 0.082	0.536 ± 0.059	0.590 ± 0.074	0.900 ± 0.018	0.714 ± 0.041	0.728 ± 0.042	0.687 ± 0.044	0.634 ± 0.052	0.638 ± 0.049
	TransMIL	0.590 ± 0.031	0.464 ± 0.114	0.537 ± 0.169	0.860 ± 0.029	0.587 ± 0.127	0.614 ± 0.115	0.684 ± 0.016	0.599 ± 0.033	0.618 ± 0.027
	GTMIL	0.652 ± 0.082	0.532 ± 0.053	0.593 ± 0.092	0.917 ± 0.026	0.757 ± 0.045	0.766 ± 0.054	0.693 ± 0.037	0.632 ± 0.036	0.635 ± 0.036
	WiKG	0.686 ± 0.067	0.515 ± 0.098	0.558 ± 0.130	0.926 ± 0.010	0.757 ± 0.041	0.777 ± 0.034	0.730 ± 0.042	<u>0.680 ± 0.031</u>	<u>0.684 ± 0.032</u>
	TOP	0.630 ± 0.053	0.483 ± 0.102	0.505 ± 0.160	0.914 ± 0.020	0.745 ± 0.024	0.760 ± 0.042	0.672 ± 0.063	0.618 ± 0.046	0.624 ± 0.043
	ViLa-MIL	<u>0.690 ± 0.047</u>	0.533 ± 0.083	0.582 ± 0.106	0.937 ± 0.009	0.779 ± 0.026	0.774 ± 0.024	<u>0.744 ± 0.057</u>	0.674 ± 0.062	0.682 ± 0.056
	MSCPT	0.669 ± 0.073	<u>0.540 ± 0.050</u>	<u>0.601 ± 0.092</u>	0.925 ± 0.010	0.755 ± 0.048	0.773 ± 0.048	0.732 ± 0.056	0.658 ± 0.043	0.675 ± 0.044
	FOCUS	0.662 ± 0.073	0.528 ± 0.065	0.575 ± 0.076	0.939 ± 0.012	0.789 ± 0.020	0.788 ± 0.020	0.732 ± 0.050	0.666 ± 0.050	0.669 ± 0.048
	MAPLE	0.701 ± 0.062	0.583 ± 0.049	0.689 ± 0.097	0.946 ± 0.009	0.804 ± 0.025	0.807 ± 0.027	0.760 ± 0.072	0.687 ± 0.068	0.693 ± 0.065

C.2 Comparisons between PLIP and CLIP

Comparing the results obtained with CLIP (Tab. 5) and PLIP (Tab. 1 in the main paper), we observe that PLIP generally provides better feature representations for pathology images, resulting in higher overall performance across all metrics and settings. This observation is consistent with previous studies [14, 11] suggesting that PLIP, which is pre-trained specifically on pathology images, captures more relevant pathological features than the general-purpose CLIP model.

C.3 Comparisons with SOTAs using CONCH

We provide further results with stronger pathology VLMs such as CONCH on the three datasets (TCGA-BRCA, TCGA-RCC and TCGA-NSCLC) in Tab. 6. MAPLE consistently outperforms baseline methods across different datasets and few-shot settings. Specifically, in the 16-shot setting, MAPLE achieves the highest AUC scores of 91.6%, 98.4%, and 98.1% on TCGA-BRCA, TCGA-RCC, and TCGA-NSCLC, respectively. In the challenging 4-shot setting, MAPLE maintains its superior performance with AUC scores of 84.4%, 94.7% and 88.9%. In summary, MAPLE can achieve consistently superior prediction results under different vision-language foundation models (e.g., CLIP, PLIP, CONCH), highlighting the advantages of our MAPLE to jointly integrate multi-scale visual semantics and perform prediction at both the entity and slide levels.

C.4 Comparisons with multi-scale MIL methods

We further compare MAPLE with representative multi-scale MIL baselines, including DTFD-MIL [40], Dual-Stream-MIL [18] and Cross-Scale MIL [8]. As shown in Table 7, MAPLE consistently surpasses these approaches under all the settings across different datasets, highlighting the advantage of our multi-scale prompt-guided VLM-based method. These results further confirm that the performance gain of MAPLE arises not merely from multi-scale integration, but from the combination of multi-scale modeling and language-guide prompt supervision via vision-language models.

Table 6: Few-shot WSI classification results using CONCH encoder on TCGA-BRCA, TCGA-RCC, and TCGA-NSCLC datasets under 4-shot, 8-shot, and 16-shot settings. The best results are in **bold**, and the second-best results are underlined.

Dataset	Methods	TCGA-BRCA			TCGA-RCC			TCGA-NSCLC		
		AUC	F1	ACC	AUC	F1	ACC	AUC	F1	ACC
4-shot	ABMIL	0.770 ± 0.069	0.591 ± 0.070	0.648 ± 0.105	0.924 ± 0.026	0.755 ± 0.063	0.773 ± 0.062	0.832 ± 0.041	0.714 ± 0.049	0.721 ± 0.044
	TransMIL	0.757 ± 0.127	0.602 ± 0.111	<u>0.672 ± 0.126</u>	<u>0.938 ± 0.019</u>	0.761 ± 0.098	0.778 ± 0.099	0.848 ± 0.059	0.756 ± 0.125	0.762 ± 0.109
	GTML	0.728 ± 0.102	0.552 ± 0.094	0.630 ± 0.141	0.923 ± 0.031	0.743 ± 0.070	0.765 ± 0.054	0.836 ± 0.093	0.750 ± 0.080	0.754 ± 0.081
	WiKG	0.768 ± 0.109	0.605 ± 0.105	0.651 ± 0.123	0.925 ± 0.010	0.761 ± 0.038	0.777 ± 0.036	0.820 ± 0.087	0.730 ± 0.084	0.733 ± 0.083
	TOP	0.728 ± 0.170	0.583 ± 0.117	0.638 ± 0.105	0.916 ± 0.033	0.743 ± 0.057	0.758 ± 0.053	0.816 ± 0.066	0.683 ± 0.130	0.707 ± 0.092
	ViLa-MIL	0.783 ± 0.108	0.590 ± 0.110	0.635 ± 0.130	0.919 ± 0.030	0.768 ± 0.058	<u>0.793 ± 0.051</u>	0.853 ± 0.073	0.759 ± 0.081	0.756 ± 0.082
	MSCPT	0.782 ± 0.087	0.605 ± 0.072	0.632 ± 0.088	0.931 ± 0.019	<u>0.770 ± 0.057</u>	0.785 ± 0.050	0.842 ± 0.059	0.730 ± 0.068	0.748 ± 0.066
	FOCUS	<u>0.810 ± 0.115</u>	<u>0.632 ± 0.135</u>	0.667 ± 0.160	0.930 ± 0.032	0.767 ± 0.075	0.780 ± 0.065	<u>0.875 ± 0.077</u>	<u>0.762 ± 0.060</u>	<u>0.769 ± 0.061</u>
8-shot	MAPLE	0.844 ± 0.109	0.653 ± 0.126	0.695 ± 0.166	0.947 ± 0.017	0.791 ± 0.086	0.805 ± 0.069	0.889 ± 0.055	0.774 ± 0.032	0.786 ± 0.033
	ABMIL	0.857 ± 0.049	0.705 ± 0.057	0.763 ± 0.058	0.941 ± 0.013	0.835 ± 0.055	0.844 ± 0.047	0.925 ± 0.013	0.835 ± 0.021	0.835 ± 0.021
	TransMIL	0.853 ± 0.044	0.710 ± 0.044	0.771 ± 0.046	0.940 ± 0.012	0.840 ± 0.030	0.851 ± 0.024	0.916 ± 0.010	0.821 ± 0.027	0.821 ± 0.027
	GTML	0.861 ± 0.052	0.711 ± 0.068	<u>0.780 ± 0.065</u>	0.945 ± 0.006	0.845 ± 0.020	0.857 ± 0.016	0.928 ± 0.016	0.844 ± 0.020	0.844 ± 0.020
	WiKG	0.851 ± 0.045	0.685 ± 0.050	0.741 ± 0.060	0.947 ± 0.012	0.834 ± 0.025	0.855 ± 0.020	0.919 ± 0.007	0.834 ± 0.021	0.834 ± 0.020
	TOP	0.859 ± 0.028	0.701 ± 0.050	0.758 ± 0.054	0.929 ± 0.020	0.814 ± 0.039	0.828 ± 0.035	0.908 ± 0.043	0.817 ± 0.068	0.818 ± 0.067
	ViLa-MIL	0.880 ± 0.081	<u>0.726 ± 0.117</u>	0.776 ± 0.090	0.945 ± 0.008	0.835 ± 0.037	0.858 ± 0.032	0.934 ± 0.037	0.856 ± 0.051	0.857 ± 0.051
	MSCPT	<u>0.882 ± 0.091</u>	0.720 ± 0.132	0.774 ± 0.136	0.950 ± 0.011	0.849 ± 0.043	0.851 ± 0.041	0.924 ± 0.043	0.849 ± 0.055	0.849 ± 0.055
16-shot	FOCUS	0.875 ± 0.060	0.719 ± 0.114	0.747 ± 0.145	0.959 ± 0.008	0.871 ± 0.033	0.875 ± 0.031	0.949 ± 0.030	0.873 ± 0.043	0.873 ± 0.042
	MAPLE	0.900 ± 0.082	0.748 ± 0.110	0.797 ± 0.120	0.971 ± 0.011	0.888 ± 0.025	0.899 ± 0.023	0.964 ± 0.032	0.894 ± 0.033	0.894 ± 0.034
	ABMIL	0.876 ± 0.017	0.759 ± 0.020	0.789 ± 0.018	0.954 ± 0.004	0.857 ± 0.009	0.859 ± 0.007	0.935 ± 0.013	0.865 ± 0.021	0.865 ± 0.021
	TransMIL	0.884 ± 0.030	0.761 ± 0.057	0.795 ± 0.057	0.955 ± 0.003	0.854 ± 0.010	0.860 ± 0.013	0.926 ± 0.014	0.851 ± 0.027	0.851 ± 0.027
	GTML	0.891 ± 0.025	0.770 ± 0.073	0.803 ± 0.083	0.962 ± 0.004	0.865 ± 0.008	0.878 ± 0.013	0.938 ± 0.016	0.874 ± 0.020	0.874 ± 0.020
	WiKG	0.882 ± 0.013	0.762 ± 0.019	0.796 ± 0.018	0.957 ± 0.010	0.839 ± 0.031	0.856 ± 0.031	0.939 ± 0.007	0.864 ± 0.021	0.864 ± 0.020
	TOP	0.887 ± 0.011	0.768 ± 0.016	0.790 ± 0.015	0.944 ± 0.003	0.829 ± 0.027	0.835 ± 0.027	0.924 ± 0.013	0.859 ± 0.025	0.859 ± 0.025
	ViLa-MIL	<u>0.902 ± 0.033</u>	<u>0.775 ± 0.038</u>	<u>0.812 ± 0.042</u>	0.966 ± 0.006	0.862 ± 0.024	0.872 ± 0.016	0.941 ± 0.023	0.877 ± 0.028	0.877 ± 0.017
16-shot	MSCPT	0.894 ± 0.018	0.767 ± 0.027	0.808 ± 0.024	0.958 ± 0.004	0.859 ± 0.021	0.871 ± 0.025	0.934 ± 0.017	0.866 ± 0.031	0.867 ± 0.031
	FOCUS	0.893 ± 0.017	0.764 ± 0.041	0.805 ± 0.042	0.974 ± 0.006	0.884 ± 0.045	0.891 ± 0.051	0.964 ± 0.007	0.894 ± 0.052	0.895 ± 0.050
	MAPLE	0.916 ± 0.024	0.790 ± 0.029	0.825 ± 0.030	0.984 ± 0.006	0.910 ± 0.016	0.919 ± 0.015	0.981 ± 0.005	0.914 ± 0.050	0.914 ± 0.047

Table 7: Comparisons of few-shot WSI classification results using multi-scale MIL methods on TCGA-BRCA, TCGA-RCC, and TCGA-NSCLC datasets under 4-shot, 8-shot, and 16-shot settings.

Dataset	Methods	TCGA-BRCA			TCGA-RCC			TCGA-NSCLC		
		AUC	F1	ACC	AUC	F1	ACC	AUC	F1	ACC
4-shot	DTFD-MIL	0.648 ± 0.050	0.520 ± 0.065	0.593 ± 0.068	0.869 ± 0.031	0.626 ± 0.057	0.660 ± 0.070	0.624 ± 0.049	0.555 ± 0.051	0.581 ± 0.046
	Dual-Stream MIL	0.669 ± 0.052	0.562 ± 0.132	0.623 ± 0.162	0.877 ± 0.039	0.664 ± 0.037	0.693 ± 0.036	0.649 ± 0.122	0.564 ± 0.094	0.590 ± 0.080
	Cross-Scale MIL	0.673 ± 0.097	0.552 ± 0.061	0.615 ± 0.068	0.876 ± 0.019	0.667 ± 0.037	0.690 ± 0.039	0.651 ± 0.103	0.560 ± 0.093	0.586 ± 0.084
	MAPLE	0.722 ± 0.063	0.594 ± 0.076	0.664 ± 0.134	0.909 ± 0.020	0.705 ± 0.055	0.728 ± 0.057	0.740 ± 0.056	0.663 ± 0.052	0.675 ± 0.053
8-shot	DTFD-MIL	0.733 ± 0.048	0.546 ± 0.061	0.603 ± 0.086	0.907 ± 0.024	0.722 ± 0.036	0.748 ± 0.046	0.729 ± 0.040	0.632 ± 0.042	0.652 ± 0.030
	Dual-Stream MIL	0.758 ± 0.073	0.548 ± 0.071	0.576 ± 0.088	0.926 ± 0.025	0.761 ± 0.041	0.789 ± 0.037	0.752 ± 0.074	0.651 ± 0.032	0.667 ± 0.034
	Cross-Scale MIL	0.756 ± 0.062	0.554 ± 0.063	0.588 ± 0.075	0.924 ± 0.023	0.757 ± 0.028	0.782 ± 0.031	0.748 ± 0.037	0.645 ± 0.075	0.657 ± 0.071
	MAPLE	0.786 ± 0.070	0.618 ± 0.024	0.673 ± 0.018	0.957 ± 0.015	0.791 ± 0.024	0.806 ± 0.024	0.855 ± 0.041	0.762 ± 0.031	0.766 ± 0.030
16-shot	DTFD-MIL	0.738 ± 0.044	0.623 ± 0.064	0.679 ± 0.088	0.919 ± 0.019	0.762 ± 0.051	0.799 ± 0.040	0.812 ± 0.047	0.742 ± 0.044	0.747 ± 0.042
	Dual-Stream MIL	0.752 ± 0.038	0.636 ± 0.059	0.696 ± 0.062	0.946 ± 0.014	0.813 ± 0.030	0.827 ± 0.032	0.824 ± 0.029	0.760 ± 0.037	0.762 ± 0.032
	Cross-Scale MIL	0.759 ± 0.052	0.632 ± 0.055	0.698 ± 0.060	0.948 ± 0.019	0.815 ± 0.034	0.830 ± 0.035	0.830 ± 0.042	0.764 ± 0.029	0.768 ± 0.028
	MAPLE	0.801 ± 0.031	0.672 ± 0.076	0.735 ± 0.039	0.969 ± 0.014	0.838 ± 0.034	0.867 ± 0.031	0.903 ± 0.033	0.806 ± 0.060	0.810 ± 0.055

D More Ablation Studies

D.1 Number of Neighbors

To analyze the effect of the number of neighbors k used in the cross-scale entity graph, we set $n_k \in \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13\}$. As shown in Fig. 7, the performance improves as n_k increases, and achieves the best result at n_k of 7. It demonstrates the importance of contextual information propagation between semantically related entities. However, further increasing n_k leads to slight degradation, likely due to over-smoothing caused by excessive message propagation across weakly related entities.

D.2 Number of Entities

We further investigate how the number of selected entities per scale affects the results. As illustrated in Fig. 8, increasing the number of entities from 4 to 8 improves the performance, indicating the importance of providing enough entities to capture different fine-grained subtype-specific patterns. Beyond 8 entities, performance plateaus and even slightly decreases, suggesting that additional entities may lack discriminative phenotypic attributes relevant to cancer subtype classification. These

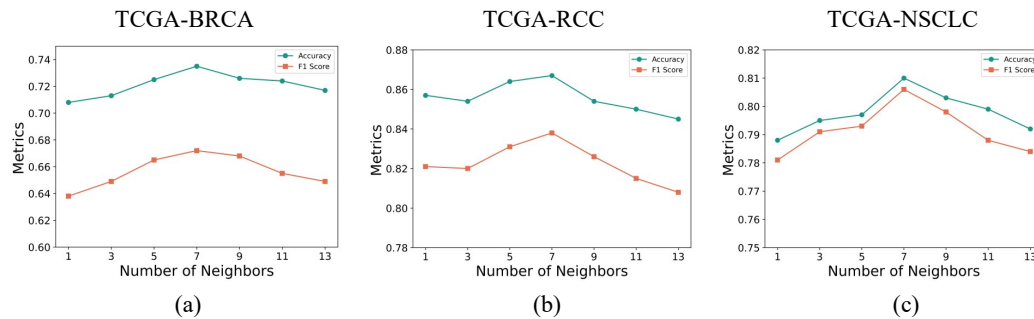


Figure 7: Impact of the number of neighbor nodes across three datasets under the 16-shot setting.

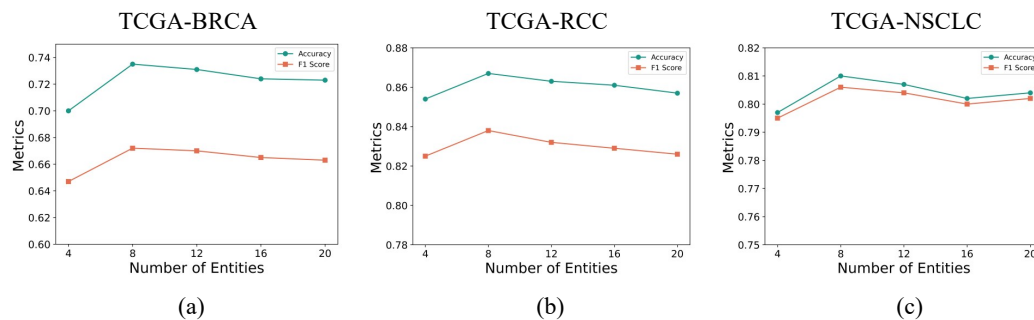


Figure 8: Impact of the number of entities across three datasets under the 16-shot setting.

redundant entities do not contribute to improving the model's performance but increase computational complexity and potentially introduce noise that interferes with the model's decision-making process.

D.3 Number of Tumor-related Patches

To assess the effects of the number of tumor-related patches, we vary r from 0.1 to 0.9. As shown in Fig. 9, performance improves steadily as r increases from 0.1 to 0.7, demonstrating the importance of incorporating sufficient tumor-related patches for accurate diagnosis. Further increasing r yields the slight performance degradation. This decline can be attributed to the inclusion of less informative or non-tumor regions that compromise the quality of the selected patch set, introducing noise that interferes with entity-level feature extraction.

D.4 Impact of Lambda

To balance contributions from entity-level and slide-level classification, we vary the fusion weight λ from 0 to 1 in increments of 0.1 (Fig. 10). Results indicate that $\lambda = 0.3$ offers the best trade-off, confirming the importance of leveraging both entity-level and slide-level information for few-shot WSI classification.

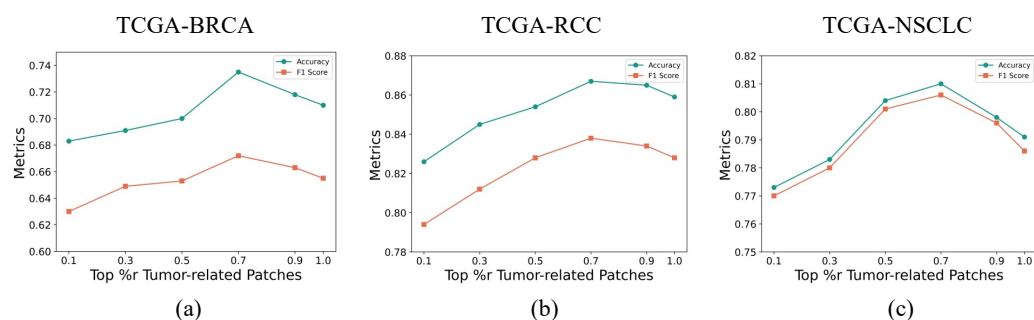


Figure 9: Impact of the number of tumor-related patches across three datasets under the 16-shot setting.

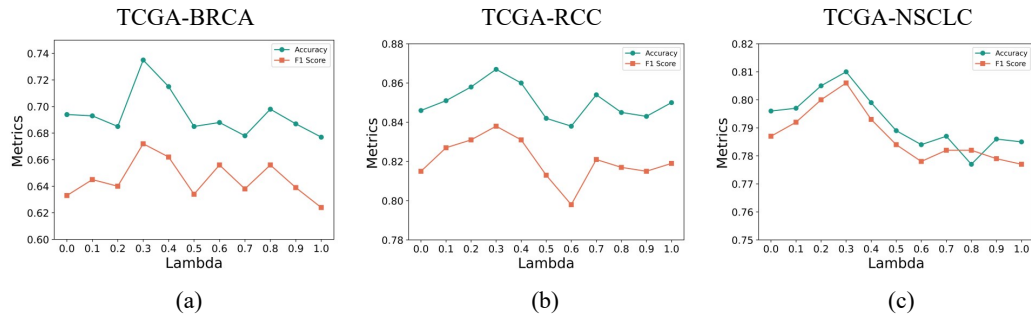


Figure 10: Impact of λ across three datasets under the 16-shot setting.

Table 8: Results of different large language models on the three datasets under the 16-shot setting.

LLMs	TCGA-BRCA			TCGA-RCC			TCGA-NSCLC		
	AUC	F1	ACC	AUC	F1	ACC	AUC	F1	ACC
Claude 3.5 Sonnet	0.786 $\pm$ 0.031	0.647 $\pm$ 0.083	0.719 $\pm$ 0.107	0.966 $\pm$ 0.018	0.822 $\pm$ 0.072	0.854 $\pm$ 0.073	0.886 $\pm$ 0.039	0.791 $\pm$ 0.013	0.795 $\pm$ 0.013
Qwen2.5 [38]	0.795 $\pm$ 0.041	0.664 $\pm$ 0.031	0.730 $\pm$ 0.054	0.961 $\pm$ 0.017	0.811 $\pm$ 0.055	0.845 $\pm$ 0.055	0.885 $\pm$ 0.018	0.790 $\pm$ 0.021	0.794 $\pm$ 0.021
Deepseek-V3 [22]	0.799 $\pm$ 0.027	0.665 $\pm$ 0.019	0.732 $\pm$ 0.045	0.968 $\pm$ 0.013	0.833 $\pm$ 0.038	0.863 $\pm$ 0.037	0.903 $\pm$ 0.027	0.813 $\pm$ 0.012	0.817 $\pm$ 0.012
GPT-4 [2]	0.801 $\pm$ 0.031	0.672 $\pm$ 0.076	0.735 $\pm$ 0.039	0.969 $\pm$ 0.014	0.838 $\pm$ 0.034	0.867 $\pm$ 0.031	0.903 $\pm$ 0.033	0.806 $\pm$ 0.060	0.810 $\pm$ 0.055

D.5 Impact of Large Language Models

To investigate how the choice of large language model affects performance of MAPLE, we evaluate four LLMs for prompt construction: Claude 3.5 Sonnet, Qwen2.5 [38], Deepseek-V3 [22], and GPT-4 [2]. For each LLM, we use it to generate both entity-level and slide-level prompts following the same query templates. We present the results on the three datasets under 16-shot setting in Tab. 8. As shown in Tab. 8, all four LLMs deliver strong performance across the three datasets, indicating the robustness of our method to LLMs. GPT-4 achieves the best overall results, particularly on TCGA-BRCA and TCGA-RCC datasets, while Deepseek-V3 performs comparably and even slightly outperforms GPT-4 on TCGA-NSCLC in terms of F1 score and accuracy. Qwen2.5 and Claude 3.5 Sonnet also demonstrate competitive performance, with marginally lower metrics compared to GPT-4 and Deepseek-V3. The findings also indicate that LLMs with stronger language modeling capabilities can further enhance performance of MAPLE.

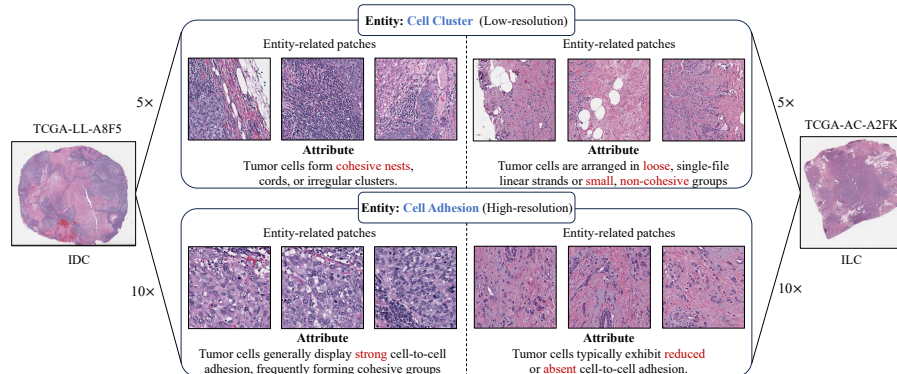


Figure 11: Visualization of entity-relevant patches selected by the entity-guided cross-attention module for invasive ductal carcinoma (IDC) and invasive lobular carcinoma (ILC) on the TCGA-BRCA dataset. Top rows show patches and their corresponding entity attributes (e.g., cell cluster) at low resolution, while bottom rows show patches and their corresponding entity attributes (e.g., cell adhesion) at high resolution.

E More Visualization Results

In this section, we provide more visualization results of entities and their relevant patches on the TCGA-BRCA and TCGA-RCC in Fig. 11 and 12, respectively.

As shown in Fig. 11, at low resolution, cell cluster-related patches from invasive ductal carcinoma (IDC) consistently form cohesive nests, while those from invasive lobular carcinoma (ILC) are arranged in small, non-cohesive groups. Similarly, at high resolution, cell adhesion-related patches

from IDC display strong cell-to-cell adhesion, whereas ILC patches exhibit reduced or absent intercellular adhesion. These visualizations align with the subtype-specific attributes of these entities described in our LLM-generated prompts.

We observe similarly patterns in the multi-class TCGA-RCC dataset. As illustrated in Fig. 12, at low resolution, stroma-related patches exhibit clear subtype-specific characteristics: clear cell renal cell carcinoma (CCRCC) shows delicate and inconspicuous stroma with highly vascular background; chromophobe renal cell carcinoma (CHRC) displays dense, hyalinized fibrous stroma with less prominent blood vessels; and papillary renal cell carcinoma (PRCC) features prominent fibrovascular cores supporting papillary fronds with abundant stroma. At high resolution, vacuole-related patches from CCRCC displays prominent, large vacuoles; patches from CHRC exhibits multiple small, well-defined cytoplasmic vacuoles; while patches from PRCC shows small, inconspicuous vacuoles that are typically less pronounced. These visualizations confirm that MAPLE effectively captures the histological entities and their attributes for subtype classification.

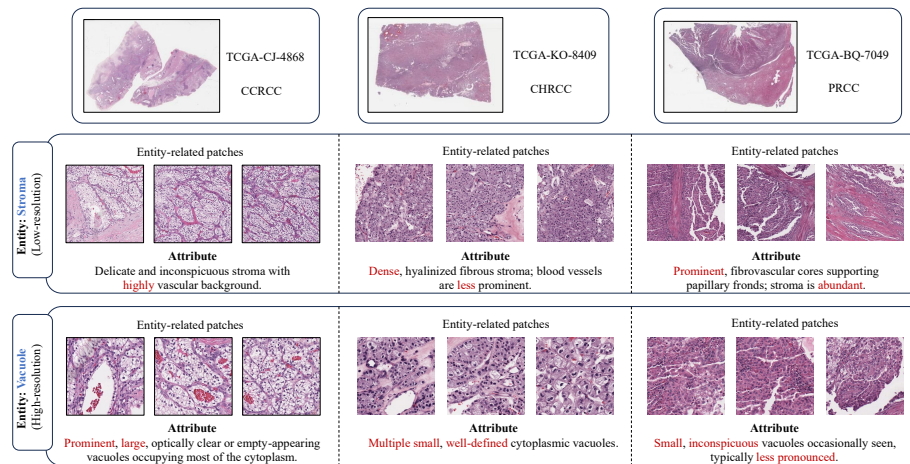


Figure 12: Visualization of entity-relevant patches selected by the entity-guided cross-attention module for clear cell renal cell carcinoma (CCRCC), chromophobe renal cell carcinoma (CHRC) and papillary renal cell carcinoma (PRCC) on the TCGA-RCC dataset. Top rows show patches and their corresponding entity attributes (e.g., stroma) at low resolution, while bottom rows show patches and their corresponding entity attributes (e.g., vacuole) at high resolution.

F Discussion

F.1 Limitations

The construction of entity and attribute prompts currently relies solely on LLMs such as GPT-4. Although LLMs provide rich semantic priors, they may introduce hallucinations or generate clinically irrelevant descriptions. This may limit the reliability of the derived prompts in real-world settings. In future work, we aim to incorporate domain expertise from pathologists into the prompt design process. This could involve human-in-the-loop strategies for verifying or refining entity-attribute relationships, or integrating expert-annotated diagnostic criteria to guide prompt construction.

F.2 Broader Impacts

MAPLE has the potential to significantly impact clinical pathology practice and cancer diagnosis workflows. By providing accurate few-shot WSI classification with interpretable entity-level predictions, our method could help address critical challenges in computational pathology: First, MAPLE could reduce the annotation burden for pathologists by enabling accurate diagnosis with limited labeled examples, particularly valuable for rare cancer subtypes where collecting large labeled datasets is challenging. Additionally, the hierarchical framework may also enhance collaboration between AI systems and pathologists by providing entity-level interpretations that align with human diagnostic reasoning.