

1 **Abstract**

2 Objectives

3 To evaluate the efficacy of combining predictive artificial intelligence and image similarity model to risk
4 stratify thyroid nodules, using a retrospective study.

5 Methods

6 Two datasets were used to determine the efficacy of the algorithm. One was the publicly available
7 Stanford dataset consisting of ultrasound images of 192 nodules between April 2017 to May 2018 and
8 the second one was from a private practice setting consisting of 118 thyroid nodule images from 2018-
9 2023. All the nodules had definitive diagnosis either by biopsy or by surgery. The software was used to
10 predict the diagnosis and TI-RADS score.

11 Results

12 In the Stanford dataset, the AI algorithm predicted malignancies with a sensitivity of 1.0 and a specificity
13 of 0.55. The PPV was 0.18 and the NPV was 1.0. The AUCROC was 0.78. The AI algorithm did not miss
14 any cases of cancer. TI-RADS based clinical recommendation had a polychoric correlation of 0.67. In the
15 private dataset, the AI algorithm predicted malignancies with a sensitivity of 0.91 and a specificity of
16 0.95. The PPV was 0.8 and NPV was 0.98. AUCROC was 0.93 and accuracy was 0.94. TI-RADS based
17 clinical recommendation had a polychoric correlation of 0.94 for this dataset.

18 Conclusion

19 The AI model demonstrated high negative predictive value with a potential for 60% reduction in the
20 need for biopsy. This could reduce the burden on patients and healthcare costs.

21 Introduction

22

23 Thyroid nodules are commonplace findings in clinical settings, with an estimated prevalence in the
24 general population ranging from 4% to 6.5%.¹ Though the vast majority of these nodules are benign,
25 roughly 10%-15% of them are malignant.² Currently, the best method to evaluate thyroid nodules
26 involve ultrasound-guided fine-needle aspiration biopsy, which is invasive and can be emotionally
27 distressing for patients.³ Moreover, up to 30% of biopsies lead to indeterminate results, requiring a
28 repeat biopsy or surgery.⁴ To effectively distinguish whether a thyroid nodule is benign or malignant is
29 crucial in determining accurate clinical management and reducing the number of unnecessary biopsies.

30

31 AI has been increasingly utilized in various fields of medicine, including radiology and pathology,
32 demonstrating its potential to augment the accuracy of diagnosis.⁵ In thyroid nodule evaluation
33 particularly, AI-driven predictive models offer non-invasive strategies to detect malignancies.⁶

34

35 Additionally, image similarity assessment, which involves the comparison of visual characteristics of
36 images, can also be used in medical diagnostics. It offers an efficient analysis of medical images that may
37 exceed the capabilities of the human eye.⁷ The potential of combining AI-driven predictive models with
38 image similarity assessment in thyroid nodule evaluation has not been explored for diagnosis and ACR
39 TI-RADS assessment.⁸ Therefore, in this paper we are evaluating the benefits of combining these
40 methods. We elucidate the methods of our software, evaluate its performance, and discuss the

41 potential implications of combining image similarity and AI to provide better screening for thyroid
42 nodules.

43 Materials and methods

44 In this study, we used software that integrates AI-driven predictive models with image similarity
45 assessment for thyroid nodule evaluation. Version 2 of this software also predicts ACR TI-RADS. PEARL
46 IRB determined the study to be exempt. Two diverse datasets were used to evaluate the AI model. The
47 first dataset is an open-source dataset from Stanford University from 2021, which consists of 192 images
48 of thyroid nodules.⁹ These images were collected between April 2017 and May 2018. The second data
49 set is from a private practice setting consisting of 118 thyroid nodule images from 2018 to 2023. This
50 data set consists of images from an in-house thyroid ultrasound machine as well as an external radiology
51 ultrasound machine. Both data sets had confirmed cytopathology and a TIRADS score. For the second
52 data set with in-house images, the TIRADS score was assigned by the performing endocrinologist (RV)
53 which was then reviewed and confirmed by a second endocrinologist (RP). Any discrepancies were
54 resolved by a third endocrinologist(JC).

55

56 The inclusion criteria for the study were males and females, aged 18 years with thyroid surgery or biopsy
57 at participating sites with a definitive diagnosis by cytology or pathology. Indeterminate nodules
58 (Bethesda III, IV, and V) upon initial evaluation should have undergone surgery with a definitive
59 diagnosis to be included in the study. Thyroid nodules measuring between 5 mm and 40 mm (4.0cm) in
60 the maximum dimension by ultrasound imaging in transverse dimension. The longest diameter of the
61 thyroid nodule should be less than the length of the ultrasound transducer.

62

63 Exclusion criteria for the study were patients below the age of 18 years; indeterminate thyroid nodules
64 without a definitive diagnosis; ultrasound images of thyroid nodules containing annotations, markings,
65 writings, or crosshair within the nodule and whole thyroid nodule not visible in the ultrasound section;
66 metastasis to the thyroid from other malignancies as well as lymphoma of the thyroid were also
67 excluded; multinodular goiters without a clearly separable nodule on ultrasound images and nodules
68 that underwent radioactive iodine treatment, ethanol ablation, radiofrequency ablation or laser
69 ablation.

70

71 The software uses static images in the AP dimension. It automatically identifies regions of interest. By
72 comparing these regions to images in the training dataset, the software predicts whether the nodule is
73 benign or malignant and also provides an ACR Thyroid Imaging Reporting and Data System (TI-RADS)
74 score (Figure 1).

75 We used Python language with Sckit-learn library to do the statistical analysis.¹⁰

76

77 Results

78

79 In the Stanford public dataset, there were 17 malignant nodules and 175 benign nodules. The
80 prevalence of malignancy in this dataset was 8 percent. Compared to ground truth, the AI algorithm
81 predicted malignancies with a sensitivity of 1.0 and a specificity of 0.55. The positive predictive value
82 (PPV) was 0.18 and the negative predictive value (NPV) was 1.0. The AUCROC was 0.78. The AI algorithm
83 did not miss any cases of cancer. ACR TI-RADS based clinical recommendation had a polychoric
84 correlation of 0.67.

85 In the private dataset there were 96 benign nodules and 22 malignant nodules. The prevalence of
86 malignancy was 18.85%. In this dataset, the AI algorithm predicted malignancies with a sensitivity of
87 0.91 and a specificity of 0.95. The PPV was 0.8 and NPV was 0.98. AUCROC was 0.93 and accuracy was
88 0.94. In this dataset, 5 out of the 99 benign nodules were read as malignant by the AIBx algorithm.
89 These nodules had high risk features with TI-RADS scores 4-5 for 4 out of the 5 nodules and TI-RADS
90 score of 3 for 1 out of the 5 nodules. The AIBx algorithm also predicted 2 out of the 22 malignant
91 nodules as benign. These nodules had a TI-RADS score of 3. TI-RADS-based clinical recommendation had
92 a polychoric correlation of 0.94 for this dataset. Table 1, shows comparison of AI predictions on both
93 datasets.

94 The Pearson correlation coefficient between ground truth cytopathology diagnosis and AI diagnosis was
95 0.824 with a p-value of 2.29×10^{-31} , indicating a strong positive correlation that is statistically
96 significant. The AI program and ground truth diagnoses exhibit high agreeability with a concordance rate
97 of 94.26 percent and an F1 score of 85.21 percent.

98 Regarding the TI-RADS score by a physician vs that was predicted by AI algorithm, the Pearson
99 Correlation Coefficient was 0.877 with $p < 0.001$ indicating a strong linear relationship between the two
100 readings. Cohen's Kappa for physician readings vs AI reading was 0.753. This indicates substantial
101 agreement between the physician and the AI system.

102 Discussion

103 In recent years, artificial intelligence tools have become increasingly prevalent across multiple
104 disciplines.

105 AI can be particularly useful in evaluating thyroid nodules, typically for risk stratification.^{6,11}

106 Recent studies suggested that the performance of artificial intelligence models was better or at par
107 with radiologists.^{12,13} These studies postulated that artificial intelligence software can be especially
108 beneficial for physicians with less experience. Currently, the United States Food and Drug Administration
109 has approved four AI platforms for thyroid disease. Despite the reported efficacy of artificial intelligence,
110 common concerns exist with its usability, such as the proper integration of AI and radiologist
111 interpretations and assessment of productivity. Furthermore, the authors concluded that the successful
112 adoption of AI platforms requires that the software be incorporated into the physician's workflow
113 seamlessly and should have external validation studies.⁶ Our software addresses some of these
114 concerns. By generating human-understandable descriptors and explanations for its decisions, our
115 software's interpretations can be verified by physicians. Having a high negative predictive value and
116 decreasing biopsy need by 60%, this software demonstrated its ability to reduce healthcare spending.
117 Coupled with its easy-to-use nature, this software ensures practicality, workflow efficiency, and
118 demonstrable performance, all of which are critical for acceptance in clinical settings.

119

120 Need for explainability in medical AI models.

121 Explainable AI or interpretable AI, is a set of tools and methods that help people understand and
122 interpret predictions made by their machine learning algorithms.¹⁴ This consists of an explainable model
123 and an explanation interface so human users can understand what caused the model to make a certain
124 conclusion or prediction, which helps characterize model accuracy, fairness, transparency, and
125 outcomes in decision-making powered by AI.¹⁵ However, there is a reluctance to use medical AI due to a
126 combination of lack of focus on the end-user by developers of the AI leading to a subjective difficulty of
127 understanding the algorithm and more comfort with human decision making.^{16,17} Therefore, focusing on
128 the end user by developers of medical AI as well as interventions to increase the understanding of a

129 medical algorithmic decision process would be important to increase utilization. This is especially crucial
130 in medicine because medical professionals need to understand the basis for an algorithm's diagnosis. A
131 false negative could mean that a patient doesn't receive life-saving treatment, and a false positive could
132 result in a patient receiving expensive and invasive treatments when it isn't necessary to do so.¹⁸ A level
133 of explainability is essential for medical professionals to have comfort in integrating medical AI into
134 practice. Our AI algorithm took these factors into consideration with its easy to use interface and
135 transparency in decision making that makes it very user-friendly and easy to integrate into daily practice
136 with confidence.

137

138 Due to a lack of validation, many AI technologies are not applied in clinical decision-making 15. External
139 validation is used to evaluate predictive capabilities for target clinical implementations in different
140 populations and settings.¹⁹ Predictive models often perform well under training datasets. However,
141 there is a discrepancy between training and validation performance. This discrepancy even appears
142 when training and validation datasets are from the same populations and settings. Poorly developed
143 models lead to exacerbated disparities in healthcare provisions and outcomes. Thus, external validation
144 is necessary to avoid the consequences of a model with low adaptability. External validation is critical to
145 understanding the clinical utility of prediction models.²⁰ Hence we undertook external validation on
146 two widely different datasets and demonstrated good performance.

147

148 One of the unique aspects of our research is its integration of image similarity assessment and TI-RADS
149 scoring to produce diagnostic outcomes, a combination that has not been explored before in thyroid
150 nodules. Image similarity assessment uses visual pattern recognition to compare and contrast features

151 of a nodule against a repository of images already classified as malignant or benign. This results in a
152 more accurate evaluation while simultaneously allowing medical professionals to verify the algorithm's
153 conclusions. A TI-RADS score aids in this endeavor by providing human-understandable descriptors to fill
154 the gap between the novelty of AI algorithms and the traditional use of clinical assessment. Our
155 software identifies similar images from its database when compared to the test image. The diagnosis of
156 the most similar image is displayed as the output of the AIBx algorithm. A TI-RADS score description and
157 recommendation is then produced by the model to enable verification by medical professionals.

158

159 Some limitations of our study were the small sample size, use of static images, and the low number of
160 malignant cases. These could have contributed to the low positive predictive value. In the future, we
161 could test it on databases with a higher prevalence of malignancy. But the average prevalence of
162 malignancy in the combined dataset was very similar to the general population. Furthermore, this
163 software was not prospectively evaluated in a clinical setting.

164

165 The results from the study showed a high negative predictive value, meaning if our algorithm predicted
166 that a nodule is benign, it had a very low probability of being malignant. This would translate into
167 observation as opposed to undergoing a biopsy. The AI algorithm missed only 2 malignant nodules. Both
168 of these nodules were follicular carcinomas of the thyroid and had benign characteristics isoechoic, clear
169 borders, and small central cystic spaces. However, feedback to the AI with these types of nodules as
170 malignant could lead to better predictions in the future. Our AI model performed well with ultrasound
171 images across multiple institutions using different ultrasound machines and showed no bias across
172 nodules of various types and sizes and age groups.

173 Conclusion

174 The combined image similarity and AI model demonstrated high negative predictive value with a
175 potential for a 60% reduction in the need for biopsy. This holds significant clinical implications, as the
176 integration of image similarity and AI-driven predictive models could revolutionize the approach to
177 thyroid nodule evaluation. Not only does this pave the way for non-invasive screening, but it also has
178 the potential to greatly reduce the burden on patients and healthcare costs alike.

179

180 References

- 181 1. Popoveniuc G, Jonklaas J. Thyroid Nodules. *Med Clin North Am.* 2012;96(2):329-349.
182 doi:10.1016/j.mcna.2012.02.002
- 183 2. Kamran SC, Marqusee E, Kim MI, et al. Thyroid nodule size and prediction of cancer. *J Clin Endocrinol*
184 *Metab.* 2013;98(2):564-570. doi:10.1210/jc.2012-2968
- 185 3. Jasim S, Dean DS, Gharib H. Fine-Needle Aspiration of the Thyroid Gland. In: Feingold KR, Anawalt B,
186 Blackman MR, et al., eds. *Endotext*. MDText.com, Inc.; 2000. Accessed February 19, 2024.
187 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK285544/>
- 188 4. Yip L, Farris C, Kabaker AS, et al. Cost Impact of Molecular Testing for Indeterminate Thyroid Nodule
189 Fine-Needle Aspiration Biopsies. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2012;97(6):1905-1912.
190 doi:10.1210/jc.2011-3048
- 191 5. Topol EJ. High-performance medicine: the convergence of human and artificial intelligence. *Nat*
192 *Med.* 2019;25(1):44-56. doi:10.1038/s41591-018-0300-7
- 193 6. Tessler FN, Thomas J. Artificial Intelligence for Evaluation of Thyroid Nodules: A Primer. *Thyroid Off J*
194 *Am Thyroid Assoc.* 2023;33(2):150-158. doi:10.1089/thy.2022.0560
- 195 7. Krupinski EA. Current perspectives in medical image perception. *Atten Percept Psychophys.*
196 2010;72(5):10.3758/APP.72.5.1205. doi:10.3758/APP.72.5.1205
- 197 8. Tessler FN, Middleton WD, Grant EG, et al. ACR Thyroid Imaging, Reporting and Data System (TI-
198 RADS): White Paper of the ACR TI-RADS Committee. *J Am Coll Radiol JACR.* 2017;14(5):587-595.
199 doi:10.1016/j.jacr.2017.01.046
- 200 9. Yamashita R, Kapoor T, Alam MN, et al. Toward Reduction in False-Positive Thyroid Nodule Biopsies
201 with a Deep Learning-based Risk Stratification System Using US Cine-Clip Images. *Radiol Artif Intell.*
202 2022;4(3):e210174. doi:10.1148/ryai.210174
- 203 10. Pedregosa F, Varoquaux G, Gramfort A, et al. Scikit-learn: Machine Learning in Python. *J Mach Learn*
204 *Res.* 2011;12(85):2825-2830.
- 205 11. Wildman-Tobriner B, Taghi-Zadeh E, Mazurowski MA. Artificial Intelligence (AI) Tools for Thyroid
206 Nodules on Ultrasound, From the AJR Special Series on AI Applications. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.*
207 2022;219(4):1-8. doi:10.2214/AJR.22.27430

208 12. Park VY, Han K, Seong YK, et al. Diagnosis of Thyroid Nodules: Performance of a Deep Learning
209 Convolutional Neural Network Model vs. Radiologists. *Sci Rep.* 2019;9(1):17843.
210 doi:10.1038/s41598-019-54434-1

211 13. He LT, Chen FJ, Zhou DZ, et al. A Comparison of the Performances of Artificial Intelligence System
212 and Radiologists in the Ultrasound Diagnosis of Thyroid Nodules. *Curr Med Imaging.*
213 2022;18(13):1369-1377. doi:10.2174/1573405618666220422132251

214 14. Barredo Arrieta A, Díaz-Rodríguez N, Del Ser J, et al. Explainable Artificial Intelligence (XAI):
215 Concepts, taxonomies, opportunities and challenges toward responsible AI. *Inf Fusion.* 2020;58:82-
216 115. doi:10.1016/j.inffus.2019.12.012

217 15. What is Explainable AI? - Unite.AI. Accessed February 19, 2024. [https://www.unite.ai/what-is-
218 explainable-ai/](https://www.unite.ai/what-is-explainable-ai/)

219 16. Cadario R, Longoni C, Morewedge CK. Understanding, explaining, and utilizing medical artificial
220 intelligence. *Nat Hum Behav.* 2021;5(12):1636-1642. doi:10.1038/s41562-021-01146-0

221 17. Chen H, Gomez C, Huang CM, Unberath M. Explainable medical imaging AI needs human-centered
222 design: guidelines and evidence from a systematic review. *Npj Digit Med.* 2022;5(1):1-15.
223 doi:10.1038/s41746-022-00699-2

224 18. McNamara M. Explainable AI: What is it? How does it work? And what role does data play?
225 Published February 22, 2022. Accessed February 19, 2024.
226 <https://www.netapp.com/blog/explainable-ai/>

227 19. Tsopra R, Fernandez X, Luchinat C, et al. A framework for validating AI in precision medicine:
228 considerations from the European ITFoC consortium. *BMC Med Inform Decis Mak.* 2021;21(1):274.
229 doi:10.1186/s12911-021-01634-3

230 20. Riley RD, Archer L, Snell KIE, et al. Evaluation of clinical prediction models (part 2): how to undertake
231 an external validation study. *BMJ.* 2024;384:e074820. doi:10.1136/bmj-2023-074820
232
233
234
235
236
237
238
239
240
241
242
243
244
245
246
247
248
249
250
251
252

253 *Table 1: Comparison of AI predictions on both datasets*

	Stanford Data	Private Data
Sensitivity	1	0.91
Specificity	0.55	0.95
PPV	0.18	0.8
NPV	1	0.98
AUC ROC	0.78	0.93

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

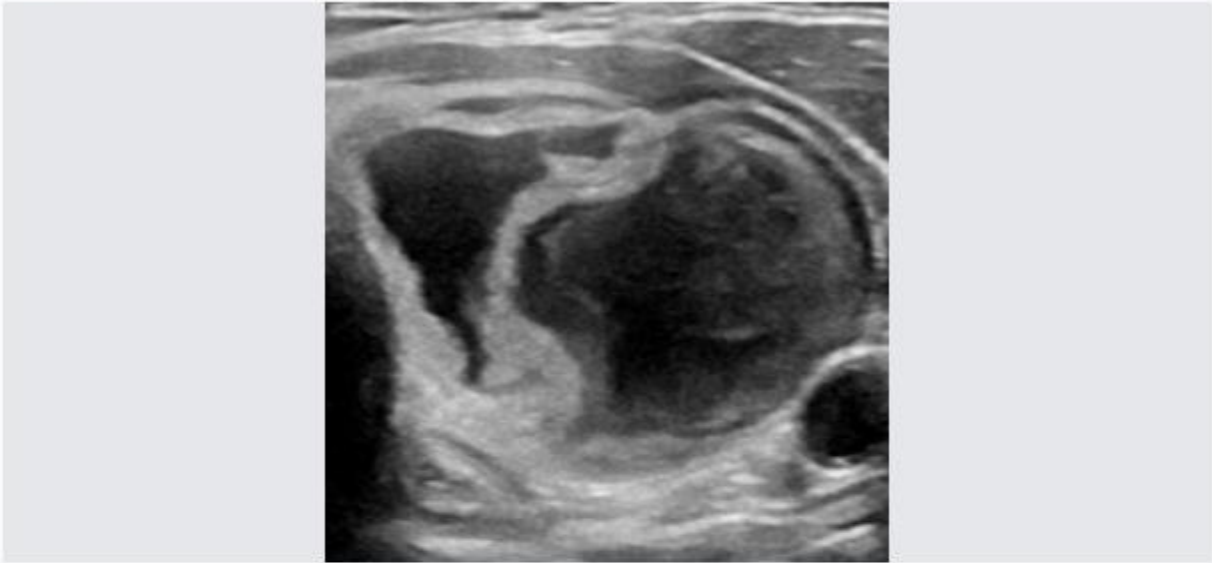
264

265

266 Figure 1: AI software result interface.

SIMILAR IMAGES 0.24s

Region of interest



◀ 1 / 4 ▶

THE MOST SIMILAR IMAGE TO THE UPLOADED IMAGE IN OUR DATABASE HAS A DIAGNOSIS OF

Benign

TI-RADS DESCRIPTION

TI-RADS	Prediction
Composition	Mixed cystic
Echogenicity	Isoechoic
Shape	Wider than tall
Margin	Ill defined
Echogenic Foci	No calcification

TI-RADS SCORE AND RECOMMENDATION

TR 2. Not suspicious, No biopsy indicated.

267

268