Artificial intelligence in diagnosing breast cancer imaging profile than other predicting markers. Current and best future emerging technology

Yasir Nawaz^{1, *}, Mohsin Bilal^{2, *}, Iram Nizam Din¹, Samiya Rehman³, Hafiza Fizzah Riaz⁴, Shahzad Bashir¹, Asifa Allah Yar¹, Sidra Aslam⁵, Muhammad Luqman⁶, Aqeela Nawaz¹, Javaria Zafar¹

1 Department of Zoology, Faculty of Life sciences, University of Okara, Okara, Pakistan

2 School of life Sciences, Jiangsu University of Science and Technology Changshan campus, Zhenjiang, Jiangsu, China

3 Department of Biochemistry, University of Okara, Okara, Pakistan

4 Department of Zoology, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, Rahim Yar Khan campus, Pakistan

5 Department of Biotechnology, Faculty of Sciences, University of Sialkot, Sialkot, Pakistan

6 Jiangsu Key Laboratory for Microbes and Functional Genomics, School of Life Sciences, Nanjing Normal University, Nanjing, China

Corresponding author:

Email: royyasirnawaz@gmail.com

Postal address: Department of Zoology, Faculty of Life sciences, University of Okara, Pakistan

Abstract

Purpose: This research aims to underscore the significance of artificial intelligence in diagnosing breast cancer, contributing to precision medicine, and delves into current advancements and future requirements. **Procedure:** The data was collected from already published work on breast cancer imaging profile. Different websites including Google scholar etc were employed to fetch the relevant data for the current study. **Results:** The study reveals that diverse tools have been employed for precise image interpretation, assisting clinicians in prescribing accurate medications for more effective treatments. Artificial intelligence helps in medical science, such as computer-aided exposure and disease analysis, case-dependent

reasoning, reasonable artificial intelligence, osteodetect method, and rainbow boxes, have demonstrated efficacy in diagnosing breast cancer. Different tools including Support vector machine, Cascade forward back-propagation network, Feed forward back-propagation network , k-nearest neighbor, Genetic algorithm as optimizer, Naive Bayes classifier, Deep learning technology show best performance for image processing and helpful in better medication prescriptions. **Conclusion:** In conclusion, it is crucial to recognize that the importance of artificial intelligence in interpreting breast imaging is evolving, not as a replacement for radiologists, but as a valuable aid, introducing new, effective, and efficient AI methodologies. Ongoing efforts are essential to further enhance artificial intelligence applications for more impactful outcomes in near future.

Keywords: Breast cancer, Mammography, Artificial intelligence, Computer-aided technique, Deep learning.

Introduction

Breast cancer BC remains the predominant cancer affecting females around world, ranks second in BC mortality with a death rate of 12.9 per 100k people. The frequency of breast cancer has shown an upward trend over the years (1-4). In US and the UK collectively, more than 42 million examinations are conducted annually (5, 6). Additionally, the prevalence of this disease is pronounced in less developed countries (2, 7). Notably, about 15% of all BC manifest as triplenegative breast cancer TNBC (8).

A paramount area of research centers on the application of image scrutiny in diverse clinical domains, encompassing breast tomography, numerical pathology, surgical preparation, and results assessment. The substantial volume of annotated digital imaging data, featuring well-defined features in both transmission and analysis, has facilitated the emergence of machine-learning-based results poised to integrate seamlessly into our medical practices in the imminent future (9). The study reveals that diverse tools have been employed for precise image interpretation, assisting clinicians in prescribing accurate medications for more effective treatments.

Breast cancer classification and predictor markers

In the context of early-stage BC, management choices are influenced by distinct clinical subtypes: (ER+ HER2–), amplified (HER2+), and (TNBC). These subtypes are characterized by existence or absence of receptors, and HER2 overexpression. However, this overarching arrangement fails to consider the substantial tumor evolution that occurs during disease progressions, influenced by selective pressure (10-14). For an extended period, the assessment of (ER) and (PR) status has been a key factor in establishing a patient's eligibility for endocrine therapy. More recently, the routine patient evaluation has incorporated testing for (HER-2/neu). This inclusion is driven by the acknowledgment of its significance, not only as a prognostic marker but especially in forecasting the response to trastuzumab (15).

TNBC is characterized by without (ER), (PR), and (HER2) overexpression. As per the guidelines established by the American Society of Clinical Oncology, ER/PR are deemed negative when less than 1% of tumor cells exhibit nuclear staining through immunohistochemistry (16, 17). TNBC manifests as a biologically and clinically diverse ailment, displaying a higher prevalence among young females and those with BRCA1 mutations. In recent years, various gene-expression-dependent classification for TNBC have surfaced (18-20). While many triple negative cases, identified through immunohistochemistry, align with the basal-like intrinsic subtype, a smaller subset falls into the non-basal-like category. This includes subtypes such as the luminal androgen receptor subtype and the HER2-enriched subtype

Mammography used for diagnosis

Mammographic screening initiatives have demonstrated a relative reduction of 20%-40% in breast cancer incidence (21, 22). However, the masking effect of dense breast tissue can result in the oversight of cancers during routine mammography screenings. Consequently, new guidelines are being formulated for females with dense breast undergoing screening, prompting the exploration of novel multimodality breast imaging techniques. These include full-field digital mammography (FFDM), dynamic contrast-enhanced (DCE), breast magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), digital breast tomosynthesis (DBT), and breast ultrasound, either as standalone methods or as adjuncts to mammographic screening (23-26). While mammography has gained extensive use, the interpretation of these images continues to pose challenges. Substantial variability exists in the accuracy of cancer detection among experts, and even the most skilled clinicians demonstrate room for improvement in their performance. The occurrence of false positive can contribute to patient depression, needless follow-up procedures, and invasive analytical interventions (27-29).

The successful treatment of breast cancer relies on early detection. Therefore, it is crucial to employ effective screening methods for identifying the initial signs of breast cancer. Several imaging techniques are available for breast cancer screening and diagnosis, with mammography, ultrasound, and thermography standing out as the most significant (30, 31). Mammography holds a key role as an early diagnostic method for breast cancer. However, for dense breasts where mammography may be less effective, ultrasound or diagnostic sonography techniques are recommended. Recognizing that small masses may go undetected by radiography, thermography emerges as a potentially more powerful tool for diagnosing smaller cancerous masses compared to ultrasound (32, 33).

Conventional methods benefits and their drawbacks

There are many advantages and drawbacks of conventional methods of diagnosis.

Advantage

Mammography offers benefits by utilizing low levels of X-rays for imaging, making it particularly effective in detecting ductal carcinoma in situ (DCIS) and calcification. It serves as the gold standard for identifying early-stage BC before lesions become clinically intense. On the other hand, ultrasounds are widely available, easily accessible, noninvasive, and provide quick results. They exhibit high sensitivity, making them suitable for women with dense breasts. Thermography is a noninvasive method, further adding to the array of options available for breast cancer detection (31).

Drawbacks

Mammography has its drawbacks, including the associated radiation risks and other potential threats like wrong alarms. The low contrast in mammograms makes it challenging for radiologists to interpret results accurately. Double reading of mammograms increases the overall price of recognition. Mammography, when used alone, may miss many cancer types in women

with dense breasts. Ultrasounds, while widely accessible, have limitations. The quality and clarification of ultrasound images are highly dependent on persons skill conducting scan. Thermography, as a method, faces challenges related to image quality and resolution. Physicians may encounter difficulty interpreting images due to the low quality images captured by old infrared imaging cameras (31).

Artificial intelligence AI

Over the past decades, the potency of AI in various systematic domains, especially in medication, has emerged as a valuable means for effective analysis and disease management (34). The integration of radiomics and AI holds the potential to furnish clinicians and patients with information that can guide treatments, personalize therapeutic strategies, minimize delays in diagnosis, and may even contribute to the field of preventative oncology (35).

Artificial intelligence (AI) holds unique potential to address challenges in the field. Recent studies have shown that AI can not only match but also surpass the performance of human professionals in various medical image scrutiny tasks. With less mammography experts posing a threat to the capability of breast screening facilities globally, the scalability of artificial intelligence presents an opportunity to enhance access to good-quality treatment for a broader population (36-44).

The additional papers featured the application of artificial intelligence in various aspects of breast imaging, including transmission, analysis, and prediction, along with predicting cancer response to treatment. These papers provide comprehensive reviews and discussions that consider the current status of previous roles (45-48). Artificial intelligence stands to enhance efficiency in screening plans loaded by screen-reading workloads and can complement radiologists' interpretation. They delve into various approaches to integrating AI into screening in this issue (47), while others emphasize the necessary paths for validating and diversifying algorithms to ensure their applicability in screening practices (45).

Computer-aided detection CAD technique

The introduction of (CAD) software for mammography occurred in the 1990s, and various assistive tools have received approval for medical use. Despite initial optimism, this initial wave

of software in the 1990s failed to demonstrate improvements in reader performance in practical, real-world settings (28, 49-53). However, there has been a resurgence in the field more recently, attributed to the success of deep learning techniques. Some studies have indicated that breast cancer prediction systems leveraging deep learning exhibit standalone performance that approaches that of human experts (54, 55).

CAD, a type of artificial intelligence assistance, has been in development and clinical use since 1996 (56-58). As computers have advanced in terms of both computing power and memory, there has been rapidly increasing in exploring the applications of artificial intelligence in different tasks within breast imaging. This extends beyond the early use in CAD to encompass analysis, prediction, response to therapies, risk valuation, and even in the discovery of cancer. Artificial intelligence approaches are evolving for computer-aided detection (CADe) and analysis (CADx), for triaging (CADt), and with aspirations for autonomous reading, sometimes without adequate attention for its impact on radiologists' observation, cognitive presentation, and workflow.

Applications of conventional methods and AI

Mammography indeed plays a crucial role as the gold standard in imaging and diagnosing early stages of breast cancer. Ultrasounds are particularly suitable for imaging dense and soft tissues, providing valuable information in various medical contexts. Thermography, on the other hand, is often deemed suitable for visualizing temperature variations and blood flow, making it applicable for examining muscle tissues. Each imaging modality has its unique strengths and applications, contributing to a comprehensive approach in the diagnosis and evaluation of breast health (31).

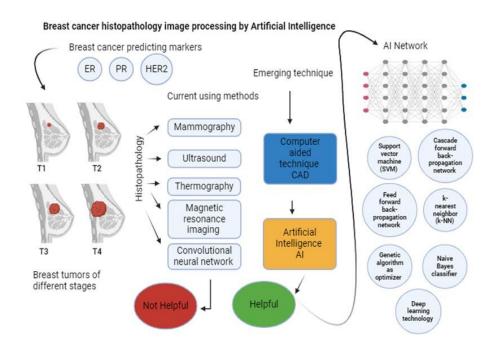
AI role in medical science encompass a range of functionalities, including CAD and disease analysis, case-dependent reasoning, reasonable AI, osteodetect machine learning, and rainboxes (34). When applied to digital pathology for BC, machine learning offers analytical and predictive application that not only complements the daily work of breast pathologists but also enhance diagnostic precision. As outlined in a comprehensive review (59), AI in breast cancer pathology has the potential to provide information beyond what can be gleaned through visual assessment alone, and may even offer a cost-effective alternative to certain expensive multigene assays. Unlike imaging and pathology, where AI tools are already present and important applied search exists, the subspecialties in local handlings of BC are comparatively lagging behind in the adoption of artificial intelligence applications. The utilization of artificial intelligence in the context of local treatments for BC has not progressed as extensively, highlighting a gap in the integration of AI technologies within this specific domain of medical practice (9).

The continuous development of deep learning (DL) and artificial intelligence techniques for different computer-aided detection applications is a continuing process. However, as of now, there have been no clinical research conducted to comprehensively assess the influence of new generation of artificial intelligence -based CAD on clinicians. In the realm of breast imaging, a particularly intriguing application is the use of AI to alleviate radiologists' workload in broadcast mammography, which represents the highest volume in breast imaging but with a relatively low cancer frequency of less than 1%. While several studies explored the probability of employing artificial intelligence-based CAD for screening mammograms as either low risk or high risk for BC, enabling radiologists to arrange their reading and enhance workflow, substantial clinical validation is still required in this evolving field (60). The figure 1 shows the previous methods and current AI impact in breast cancer image processing.

AI role in diagnosis

In early 1980s, a notable rise in application of neural network in fields of image and signal processing. Given the inherent difficulty in diagnosing breast cancer, statistical methods and (AI) methods have become crucial in this context. Artificial intelligence is defined as an intelligent machine capable of responding to diverse situations similar to an intelligent human. This encompasses understanding complex scenarios, feigning intellectual procedures and human reasoning approaches, as well as indicating accurate responses, learning capabilities, knowledge acquisition, and reasoning skills for problem-solving (61, 62). For instance, they utilized a particle swarm-optimized wavelet neural network (PSOWNN) to identify BC in mammograms. This technique, useful with real data, demonstrated a sensitivity and accuracy of 94% and 92%, respectively. The results indicated an outstanding presentation with an area under receiver operating characteristic (ROC) arch of 0.96. Additionally, new tools, including image processing tools, have been established to enable the analysis of BC masses. Image processing approaches contribute to the identification of abnormal features in medical images. Through the integration of image processing, pattern recognition, and artificial intelligence, scholars have successfully devised techniques that accurately detect breast cancer masses (31).

The evaluation of a breast lesions for analysis takes place during the examination following its detection through screening mammography or alternative methods, like physical breast exam. This process involves classifying the lesions rather than localizing it, as is the case in screening. In screening scenarios, radiologists assign a BI-RADS rating to a detected suspicious lesion, demonstrating either it is normal (BI-RADS 5 1), probably benign (BI-RADS 5 2), and uncertain, needing further investigation (BI-RADS 5 0) (63). In the diagnostic phase, the objective is to evaluate the probability of the lesion being cancerous and determine whether a biopsy is necessary for pathological confirmation. Multiple imaging modes, like mammography, ultrasound (64), or MRI (26), are often used to enhance the characterization of the suspicious lesion. Upon confirming a cancer diagnosis, additional imaging of tumor is performed to assess the extent of disease, aiding in determining patient management. Therefore, artificial intelligence plays a role in integrated diagnostics. This is indicated in figure 1.





Different AI techniques to process images

Different AI techniques play role in good processing of breast cancer imaging. This is indicated in figure 1.

Support vector machine (SVM)

The extensively employed method for diagnosing BC is Support Vector Machine. SVM is a prominent algorithm inspired by statistical learning model and has become an integral part of machine learning. This technique addresses the overfitting issue in training data, allowing the identification of a large training set with smaller subsets of training points. Additionally, SVM has the capability to operate on optional features without the requirement to generate independent hypotheses. Its versatility and effectiveness make SVM a valuable tool in the realm of breast cancer diagnosis within the machine learning framework (65-67)

Cascade forward back-propagation network

In this network, the postpropagation algorithm could be a method for updating weights during or after the backpropagation process. The statement about every layer of neuron being linked to all early neuron layers suggests a fully connected architecture, where every neuron is connected to other neurons in previous layers (68).

Feed forward back-propagation network

The described model is a standard feedforward neural network architecture, comprising inputs, outputs, and unseen layers. It employs the widely used backpropagation learning algorithm for training. During the training process, data is input into the network, and computations are conducted sequentially from the input layer to hidden and then to output layers, producing predictions. Subsequently, the error or the disparity between the predicted output and the actual target is computed. The backpropagation algorithm is then employed to propagate this error backward through the layers. As a result, the weights of the connections between neurons are iteratively adjusted to minimize the error, enhancing the network's capability to make precise predictions. The connectivity of each layer to the previous layers enables the network to capture intricate relationships within the data, facilitating the learning process (68).

k-nearest neighbor (k-NN)

This algorithm operates by selecting a group of K records from training dataset that are close to test record in terms of similarity or distance metrics. The algorithm then makes a decision about the class of test record depends on the majority class within this selected neighborhood. In other words, it looks at the labels or classes of the K nearest records and assigns the class that occurs

most frequently among them to the test record. This straightforward approach makes k-NN a simple and intuitive algorithm for classification tasks, where the class of a data point is determined by the classes of its nearest neighbors in the feature space (69).

Genetic algorithm as optimizer

The genetic algorithm is known for its ability to efficiently explore a wide range of potential solutions and eliminate suboptimal choices without compromising the final outcome. It operates based on its own set of rules, making it particularly suitable for solving problems that are defined in irregular or unconventional ways. The algorithm mimics the process of natural selection, involving the evolution of a population of potential solutions over successive generations. By applying principles such as selection, crossover, and mutation, the genetic algorithm iteratively refines the candidate solutions, converging towards an optimal or near-optimal solution for complex problems with irregular structures or unconventional definitions (67, 70).

Naive Bayes classifier

In a Naive Bayes classifier, the possibility of a particular class given a set of structures is calculated using Bayes' theorem. The model makes the simplifying assumption that the features are independent given in the class. The key advantage of this process is simplicity and efficiency. It performs well in scenarios with high-dimensional data and can handle categorical and continuous features. It is particularly effective in situations with a limited amount of training data, making it suitable for cases where collecting large labeled datasets is challenging (71).

Deep learning technology

In this system, a convolutional neural network (CNN), the architecture is characterized by a series of image processing layers that far surpass conservative image feature-based machine learning identifiers. Every layer within the network, including convolutional, pooling, and fully connected layers, constitutes a neural network. A notable departure from traditional approaches is that, instead of relying on manually or automatically selected image features calculated from data, deep learning networks directly take the raw input—in this case, images. Lower layers of

the network autonomously learn and extract fundamental image features, such as edges or textures, while higher layers build upon these lower-level representations to discern more intricate and abstract patterns. This endows deep learning networks with the capability to automatically derive effective image features from the data, eliminating the need for explicit feature engineering. The approach has proven highly successful in a range of computer vision works, enabling the model to learn hierarchical representations for tasks like image cataloging, objects recognition, and image division (72, 73).

The investigation revealed that the Support Vector Machine (SVM) classification method outperformed other methods, showcasing higher accuracy across various types of medical images. Specifically, the SVM method demonstrated exceptional accuracy rates of 98.58% for ultrasound, 93.063% for mammography, and a perfect 100% for thermography. Notably, the SVM method's superior performance was attributed to the use of an appropriate segmentation method, allowing for precise extraction of the desired areas in the images. The study found that the intensity of extracted features played a pivotal role in cataloguing process. The mixture of gray-level co-occurrence matrix (GLCM) and Pratio feature, with morphological characteristics, yielded the most accurate results, highlighting the significance of feature selection and extraction methods in enhancing the performance of SVM-based classification in medical image analysis.

Previous work and current prospect

The previous work on image processing is shown in table 1. This includes the already work conducted and the new techniques to process images for better authentication and medication planning.

Sr.	Year	Image source	Tool used for	Effective to	AI used	Disease	Beneficial	Reference
no.			image	date or not	DL,		in future or	
			processing		CAD,		not	
					(role) in			
					future			

Table 1: Shows the previous work with emerging technique

1	2018	Histopathology	Mammography,	Not	Helpful	Breast	Yes	(74)
			ultrasound, and			cancer		
			thermography					
2	2019	Histopathology	Not used	Not	Helpful	Invasive	Yes	(35)
				confirmed		ductal		
						carcinoma		
						IDC		
3	2019	Histopathology	Computer-	Yes	Helpful	Breast	Yes	(60)
			aided diagnosis			cancer		
			(CAD)					
4	2020	Not described	Not used	Not	Helpful	Breast	Yes	(75)
				confirmed		cancer		
5	2020	Histopathology	Mammography	Not	Helpful	Breast	Yes	(76)
						cancer		
6	2021	Histopathology	Magnetic	Not	Helpful	Breast	Yes	(77)
			resonance			cancer		
			imaging (MRI)					
7	2021	Not described	Not used	Not	Helpful	Breast	Yes	(78)
				confirmed		cancer		
8	2021	Histopathology	Convolutional	Yes	Helpful	Invasive	Yes	(79)
			neural network			ductal		
			(CNN)			carcinoma		
						IDC		
9	2022	Not described	Not used	Not	Helpful	Triple	Yes	(80)
				confirmed		negative		
						Breast		
						cancer		
10	2024	Histopathology	Magnetic	Not	AI	Breast	Yes	(81)
			resonance		enhanced	cancer		
			imaging (MRI)		MRI			
					Helpful			

Conclusion

In conclusion, artificial intelligence plays a crucial role in image prediction, particularly in the diagnosis of breast cancer. While the accuracy of breast cancer diagnosis through AI can be high, it may not necessarily generalize uniformly across diverse sets of images. Hence, there is room for future research aimed at enhancing system performance and validating results through extensive testing on a broader array of images. Moreover, it is essential to recognize that the role of AI in interpreting breast imaging is an evolving one. Rather than replacing radiologists, AI serves as a valuable tool to assist them using innovative and efficient methods. Despite the longstanding presence of AI in the interpretation of breast cancer images, ongoing advancements persist as larger, well-curated datasets are amassed, and more sophisticated algorithms are devised. The imperative remains to continually refine AI for even more effective outcomes in the future.

Author's contribution

All authors contributed equally in the work.

Acknowledgment

Authors are thankful to Mr. Asad Nawaz and Basit Nawaz who helped during the work.

Conflict of interest

None

References

1. Ferlay J, Soerjomataram I, Dikshit R, Eser S, Mathers C, Rebelo M, et al. Cancer incidence and mortality worldwide: sources, methods and major patterns in GLOBOCAN 2012. International journal of cancer. 2015;136(5):E359-E86.

2. Ghoncheh M, Pournamdar Z, Salehiniya H. Incidence and mortality and epidemiology of breast cancer in the world. Asian Pacific journal of cancer prevention. 2016;17(S3):43-6.

3. Andriani Y, Mohamad H, Kassim MNI, Rosnan ND, Syamsumir DF, Saidin J, et al. Evaluation on Hydnophytum formicarum tuber from Setiu wetland (Malaysia) and Muara Rupit (Indonesia) for antibacterial and antioxidant activities, and anti-cancer potency against MCF-7 and HeLa cells. Journal of Applied Pharmaceutical Science. 2017;7(9):030-7.

4. Oliver A, Freixenet J, Marti R, Pont J, Pérez E, Denton ER, et al. A novel breast tissue density classification methodology. Leee transactions on information technology in biomedicine. 2008;12(1):55-65.

5. Schünemann HJ, Lerda D, Quinn C, Follmann M, Alonso-Coello P, Rossi PG, et al. Breast cancer screening and diagnosis: a synopsis of the European Breast Guidelines. Annals of internal medicine. 2020;172(1):46-56.

6. Lee CI, Zhu W, Onega T, Henderson LM, Kerlikowske K, Sprague BL, et al. Comparative access to and use of digital breast tomosynthesis screening by women's race/ethnicity and socioeconomic status. JAMA Network Open. 2021;4(2):e2037546-e.

7. Suleman M, Tahir ul Qamar M, Saleem S, Ahmad S, Ali SS, Khan H, et al. Mutational landscape of pirin and elucidation of the impact of most detrimental missense variants that accelerate the breast cancer pathways: A computational modelling study. Frontiers in Molecular Biosciences. 2021;8:692835.

8. Rakha EA, El-Sayed ME, Green AR, Lee AH, Robertson JF, Ellis IO. Prognostic markers in triplenegative breast cancer. Cancer. 2007;109(1):25-32.

9. Cardoso MJ, Houssami N, Pozzi G, Séroussi B. Artificial intelligence (AI) in breast cancer care-Leveraging multidisciplinary skills to improve care. The Breast. 2021;56:110-3.

10. Arnedos M, Vicier C, Loi S, Lefebvre C, Michiels S, Bonnefoi H, et al. Precision medicine for metastatic breast cancer—limitations and solutions. Nature reviews Clinical oncology. 2015;12(12):693-704.

11. Wang J, Wu S-G. Breast Cancer: An Overview of Current Therapeutic Strategies, Challenge, and Perspectives. Breast Cancer: Targets Therapy. 2023:721-30.

12. Minami CA, Jin G, Freedman RA, Schonberg MA, King TA, Mittendorf EA. Trends in Locoregional Therapy in Older Women with Early-Stage Hormone Receptor-Positive Breast Cancer by Frailty and Life Expectancy. Annals of Surgical Oncology. 2024;31(2):920-30.

13. El Sayed R, El Jamal L, El Iskandarani S, Kort J, Abdel Salam M, Assi H. Endocrine and targeted therapy for hormone-receptor-positive, HER2-negative advanced breast cancer: insights to sequencing treatment and overcoming resistance based on clinical trials. Frontiers in oncology. 2019;9:510.

14. Rivenbark AG, O'Connor SM, Coleman WB. Molecular and cellular heterogeneity in breast cancer: challenges for personalized medicine. The American journal of pathology. 2013;183(4):1113-24.

15. Payne S, Bowen R, Jones J, Wells C. Predictive markers in breast cancer–the present. Histopathology. 2008;52(1):82-90.

16. Wolff AC, Hammond MEH, Allison KH, Harvey BE, Mangu PB, Bartlett JM, et al. Human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 testing in breast cancer: American Society of Clinical Oncology/College of American Pathologists clinical practice guideline focused update. Archives of pathology

laboratory medicine. 2018;142(11):1364-82.

17. Allison KH, Hammond MEH, Dowsett M, McKernin SE, Carey LA, Fitzgibbons PL, et al. Estrogen and progesterone receptor testing in breast cancer: ASCO/CAP guideline update. 2020.

18. Lehmann BD, Bauer JA, Chen X, Sanders ME, Chakravarthy AB, Shyr Y, et al. Identification of human triple-negative breast cancer subtypes and preclinical models for selection of targeted therapies. The Journal of clinical investigation. 2011;121(7):2750-67.

19. Parker JS, Mullins M, Cheang MC, Leung S, Voduc D, Vickery T, et al. Supervised risk predictor of breast cancer based on intrinsic subtypes. Journal of clinical oncology. 2009;27(8):1160.

20. Prat A, Pineda E, Adamo B, Galván P, Fernández A, Gaba L, et al. Clinical implications of the intrinsic molecular subtypes of breast cancer. The Breast. 2015;24:S26-S35.

21. Tabar L, Yen M-F, Vitak B, Chen H-HT, Smith RA, Duffy SW. Mammography service screening and mortality in breast cancer patients: 20-year follow-up before and after introduction of screening. The Lancet. 2003;361(9367):1405-10.

22. Feig S. Cost-effectiveness of mammography, MRI, and ultrasonography for breast cancer screening. Radiologic Clinics. 2010;48(5):879-91.

23. Niell BL, Freer PE, Weinfurtner RJ, Arleo EK, Drukteinis JS. Screening for breast cancer. Radiologic clinics. 2017;55(6):1145-62.

24. Nelson HD, O'meara ES, Kerlikowske K, Balch S, Miglioretti D. Factors associated with rates of false-positive and false-negative results from digital mammography screening: an analysis of registry data. Annals of internal medicine. 2016;164(4):226-35.

25. Marinovich ML, Hunter KE, Macaskill P, Houssami N. Breast cancer screening using tomosynthesis or mammography: a meta-analysis of cancer detection and recall. JNCI: Journal of the National Cancer Institute. 2018;110(9):942-9.

26. Mann RM, Cho N, Moy L. Breast MRI: state of the art. Radiology. 2019;292(3):520-36.

27. Tosteson AN, Fryback DG, Hammond CS, Hanna LG, Grove MR, Brown M, et al. Consequences of false-positive screening mammograms. JAMA internal medicine. 2014;174(6):954-61.

28. Lehman CD, Wellman RD, Buist DS, Kerlikowske K, Tosteson AN, Miglioretti DL, et al. Diagnostic accuracy of digital screening mammography with and without computer-aided detection. JAMA internal medicine. 2015;175(11):1828-37.

29. Elmore JG, Jackson SL, Abraham L, Miglioretti DL, Carney PA, Geller BM, et al. Variability in interpretive performance at screening mammography and radiologists' characteristics associated with accuracy. Radiology. 2009;253(3):641-51.

30. Tarique M, ElZahra F, Hateem A, Mohammad M. Fourier transform based early detection of breast cancer by mammogram image processing. Journal of Biomedical Engineering Medical Imaging. 2015;2(4):17.

31. Sadoughi F, Kazemy Z, Hamedan F, Owji L, Rahmanikatigari M, Azadboni TTJBCT, et al. Artificial intelligence methods for the diagnosis of breast cancer by image processing: a review. 2018:219-30.

32. Hou M-F, Chuang H-Y, Ou-Yang F, Wang C-Y, Huang C-L, Fan H-M, et al. Comparison of breast mammography, sonography and physical examination for screening women at high risk of breast cancer in Taiwan. Ultrasound in medicine

biology. 2002;28(4):415-20.

33. Ghayoumi Zadeh H, Haddadnia J, Hashemian M, Hassanpour K. Diagnosis of breast cancer using a combination of genetic algorithm and artificial neural network in medical infrared thermal imaging. Iranian Journal of Medical Physics. 2012;9(4):265-74.

34. Wang L, Guo J, Chang J-W, Tahir ul Qamar M, Chen L-L. Inference of Transcriptional Regulation from Expression Data Using Model Integration. Current Bioinformatics. 2018;13(4):426-34.

35. Tran WT, Jerzak K, Lu F-I, Klein J, Tabbarah S, Lagree A, et al. Personalized breast cancer treatments using artificial intelligence in radiomics and pathomics. Journal of medical imaging

radiation sciences. 2019;50(4):S32-S41.

36. Gulshan V, Peng L, Coram M, Stumpe MC, Wu D, Narayanaswamy A, et al. Development and validation of a deep learning algorithm for detection of diabetic retinopathy in retinal fundus photographs. Jama. 2016;316(22):2402-10.

37. Esteva A, Kuprel B, Novoa RA, Ko J, Swetter SM, Blau HM, et al. Dermatologist-level classification of skin cancer with deep neural networks. Nature. 2017;542(7639):115-8.

38. De Fauw J, Ledsam JR, Romera-Paredes B, Nikolov S, Tomasev N, Blackwell S, et al. Clinically applicable deep learning for diagnosis and referral in retinal disease. Nature medicine. 2018;24(9):1342-50.

39. Ardila D, Kiraly AP, Bharadwaj S, Choi B, Reicher JJ, Peng L, et al. End-to-end lung cancer screening with three-dimensional deep learning on low-dose chest computed tomography. Nature medicine. 2019;25(6):954-61.

40. Topol EJ. High-performance medicine: the convergence of human and artificial intelligence. Nature medicine. 2019;25(1):44-56.

41. Moran S, Warren-Forward H. The Australian BreastScreen workforce: a snapshot. Radiographer. 2012;59(1):26-30.

42. Wing P, Langelier MH. Workforce shortages in breast imaging: impact on mammography utilization. American Journal of Roentgenology. 2009;192(2):370-8.

43. Rimmer A. Radiologist shortage leaves patient care at risk, warns royal college. BMJ: British Medical Journal. 2017;359.

44. Nakajima Y, Yamada K, Imamura K, Kobayashi K. Radiologist supply and workload: international comparison: Working Group of Japanese College of Radiology. Radiation medicine. 2008;26:455-65.

45. Lee CI, Houssami N, Elmore JG, Buist DS. Pathways to breast cancer screening artificial intelligence algorithm validation. The Breast. 2020;52:146-9.

46. Gullo RL, Eskreis-Winkler S, Morris EA, Pinker K. Machine learning with multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging of the breast for early prediction of response to neoadjuvant chemotherapy. The Breast. 2020;49:115-22.

47. Sechopoulos I, Mann RM. Stand-alone artificial intelligence-The future of breast cancer screening? The Breast. 2020;49:254-60.

48. Tagliafico AS, Piana M, Schenone D, Lai R, Massone AM, Houssami N. Overview of radiomics in breast cancer diagnosis and prognostication. The Breast. 2020;49:74-80.

49. Kohli A, Jha S. Why CAD failed in mammography. Journal of the American College of Radiology. 2018;15(3):535-7.

50. Fenton JJ, Taplin SH, Carney PA, Abraham L, Sickles EA, D'Orsi C, et al. Influence of computeraided detection on performance of screening mammography. New England Journal of Medicine. 2007;356(14):1399-409.

51. Giger ML, Chan HP, Boone J. Anniversary paper: history and status of CAD and quantitative image analysis: the role of medical physics and AAPM. Medical physics. 2008;35(12):5799-820.

52. Gilbert FJ, Astley SM, Gillan MG, Agbaje OF, Wallis MG, James J, et al. Single reading with computer-aided detection for screening mammography. New England Journal of Medicine. 2008;359(16):1675-84.

53. Rao VM, Levin DC, Parker L, Cavanaugh B, Frangos AJ, Sunshine JH. How widely is computeraided detection used in screening and diagnostic mammography? Journal of the American College of Radiology. 2010;7(10):802-5.

54. Rodriguez-Ruiz A, Lång K, Gubern-Merida A, Broeders M, Gennaro G, Clauser P, et al. Standalone artificial intelligence for breast cancer detection in mammography: comparison with 101 radiologists. JNCI: Journal of the National Cancer Institute. 2019;111(9):916-22.

55. Wu N, Phang J, Park J, Shen Y, Huang Z, Zorin M, et al. Deep neural networks improve radiologists' performance in breast cancer screening. IEEE transactions on medical imaging. 2019;39(4):1184-94.

56. Mavioso C, Araújo RJ, Oliveira HP, Anacleto JC, Vasconcelos MA, Pinto D, et al. Automatic detection of perforators for microsurgical reconstruction. The Breast. 2020;50:19-24.

57. Poortmans PM, Takanen S, Marta GN, Meattini I, Kaidar-Person O. Winter is over: the use of artificial intelligence to individualise radiation therapy for breast cancer. The Breast. 2020;49:194-200.

58. Cardoso JS, Silva W, Cardoso MJ. Evolution, current challenges, and future possibilities in the objective assessment of aesthetic outcome of breast cancer locoregional treatment. The Breast. 2020;49:123-30.

59. Ibrahim A, Gamble P, Jaroensri R, Abdelsamea MM, Mermel CH, Chen P-HC, et al. Artificial intelligence in digital breast pathology: techniques and applications. The Breast. 2020;49:267-73.

60. Chan H-P, Samala RK, Hadjiiski LM. CAD and AI for breast cancer—Recent development and challenges. The British journal of radiology. 2019;93(1108):20190580.

61. Pendharkar P, Rodger J, Yaverbaum G, Herman N, Benner M. Association, statistical, mathematical and neural approaches for mining breast cancer patterns. Expert Systems with Applications. 1999;17(3):223-32.

62. Poole DL, Mackworth AK. Artificial Intelligence: foundations of computational agents: Cambridge University Press; 2010.

63. D'Orsi C, Sickles E, Mendelson E, Morris E, Creech W, Butler P. Acr BI-rAdS[®] Atlas. Breast Imaging Reporting Data System. 2013;5.

64. Hooley RJ, Scoutt LM, Philpotts LE. Breast ultrasonography: state of the art. Radiology. 2013;268(3):642-59.

65. Zafiropoulos E, Maglogiannis I, Anagnostopoulos I, editors. A support vector machine approach to breast cancer diagnosis and prognosis. IFIP international conference on artificial intelligence applications and innovations; 2006: Springer.

66. Kourou K, Exarchos TP, Exarchos KP, Karamouzis MV, Fotiadis DI. Machine learning applications in cancer prognosis and prediction. Computational structural biotechnology journal. 2015;13:8-17.

67. Russell SJ, Norvig P. Artificial intelligence a modern approach: London; 2010.

68. Saini S, Vijay R, editors. Mammogram analysis using feed-forward back propagation and cascadeforward back propagation artificial neural network. 2015 fifth international conference on communication systems and network technologies; 2015: IEEE.

69. Medjahed SA, Saadi TA, Benyettou A. Breast cancer diagnosis by using k-nearest neighbor with different distances and classification rules. International Journal of Computer Applications. 2013;62(1).

70. Dheeba J, Selvi ST, editors. A CAD system for breast cancer diagnosis using modified genetic algorithm optimized artificial neural network. Swarm, Evolutionary, and Memetic Computing: Second International Conference, SEMCCO 2011, Visakhapatnam, Andhra Pradesh, India, December 19-21, 2011, Proceedings, Part I 2; 2011: Springer.

71. Karabatak M. A new classifier for breast cancer detection based on Naïve Bayesian. Measurement. 2015;72:32-6.

72. Szegedy C, Liu W, Jia Y, Sermanet P, Reed S, Anguelov D, et al., editors. Going deeper with convolutions. Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition; 2015.
73. Abdel-Zaher AM, Eldeib AM. Breast cancer classification using deep belief networks. Expert

Systems with Applications. 2016;46:139-44.

74. Sadoughi F, Kazemy Z, Hamedan F, Owji L, Rahmanikatigari M, Azadboni TT, et al. Artificial intelligence methods for the diagnosis of breast cancer by image processing: a review. Breast Cancer: Targets. 2018:219-30.

75. Sheth D, Giger ML. Artificial intelligence in the interpretation of breast cancer on MRI. Journal of Magnetic Resonance Imaging. 2020;51(5):1310-24.

76. McKinney SM, Sieniek M, Godbole V, Godwin J, Antropova N, Ashrafian H, et al. International evaluation of an AI system for breast cancer screening. Nature. 2020;577(7788):89-94.

77. Li H, Giger ML. Artificial intelligence and interpretations in breast cancer imaging. Artificial intelligence in medicine: Elsevier; 2021. p. 291-308.

78. Hendrix N, Hauber B, Lee CI, Bansal A, Veenstra DL. Artificial intelligence in breast cancer screening: primary care provider preferences. Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association. 2021;28(6):1117-24.

79. Choudhury A, Perumalla S. Detecting breast cancer using artificial intelligence: Convolutional neural network. Technology

Health Care. 2021;29(1):33-43.

80. Almansour NM. Triple-negative breast cancer: a brief review about epidemiology, risk factors, signaling pathways, treatment and role of artificial intelligence. Frontiers in Molecular Biosciences. 2022;9:836417.

81. Gullo RL, Marcus E, Huayanay J, Eskreis-Winkler S, Thakur S, Teuwen J, et al. Artificial intelligence-enhanced breast MRI: applications in breast cancer primary treatment response assessment and prediction. Investigative Radiology. 2024;59(3):230-42.