

A systematic review on artificial intelligence techniques for predicting thyroid diseases (#78828)

1

First submission

Guidance from your Editor

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Literature Review article

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Structure and Criteria

Structure your review

The review form is divided into 5 sections. Please consider these when composing your review:

1. BASIC REPORTING
2. STUDY DESIGN
3. VALIDITY OF THE FINDINGS
4. General comments
5. Confidential notes to the editor

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BASIC REPORTING

- Clear, unambiguous, professional English language used throughout.
- Intro & background to show context. Literature well referenced & relevant.
- Structure conforms to [PeerJ standards](#), discipline norm, or improved for clarity.
- Is the review of broad and cross-disciplinary interest and within the scope of the journal?
- Has the field been reviewed recently? If so, is there a good reason for this review (different point of view, accessible to a different audience, etc.)?
- Does the Introduction adequately introduce the subject and make it clear who the audience is/what the motivation is?

VALIDITY OF THE FINDINGS

- Impact and novelty not assessed. Meaningful replication encouraged where rationale & benefit to literature is clearly stated.
- Conclusions are well stated, linked to original research question & limited to

STUDY DESIGN

- Article content is within the [Aims and Scope](#) of the journal.
- Rigorous investigation performed to a high technical & ethical standard.
- Methods described with sufficient detail & information to replicate.
- Is the Survey Methodology consistent with a comprehensive, unbiased coverage of the subject? If not, what is missing?
- Are sources adequately cited? Quoted or paraphrased as appropriate?
- Is the review organized logically into coherent paragraphs/subsections?

- Is there a well developed and supported argument that meets the goals set out in the Introduction?
- Does the Conclusion identify unresolved questions / gaps / future directions?

supporting results.

Standout reviewing tips

3



The best reviewers use these techniques

Tip

Example

Support criticisms with evidence from the text or from other sources

Smith et al (J of Methodology, 2005, V3, pp 123) have shown that the analysis you use in Lines 241-250 is not the most appropriate for this situation. Please explain why you used this method.

Give specific suggestions on how to improve the manuscript

Your introduction needs more detail. I suggest that you improve the description at lines 57- 86 to provide more justification for your study (specifically, you should expand upon the knowledge gap being filled).

Comment on language and grammar issues

The English language should be improved to ensure that an international audience can clearly understand your text. Some examples where the language could be improved include lines 23, 77, 121, 128 - the current phrasing makes comprehension difficult. I suggest you have a colleague who is proficient in English and familiar with the subject matter review your manuscript, or contact a professional editing service.

Organize by importance of the issues, and number your points

1. Your most important issue
2. The next most important item
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4. The least important points

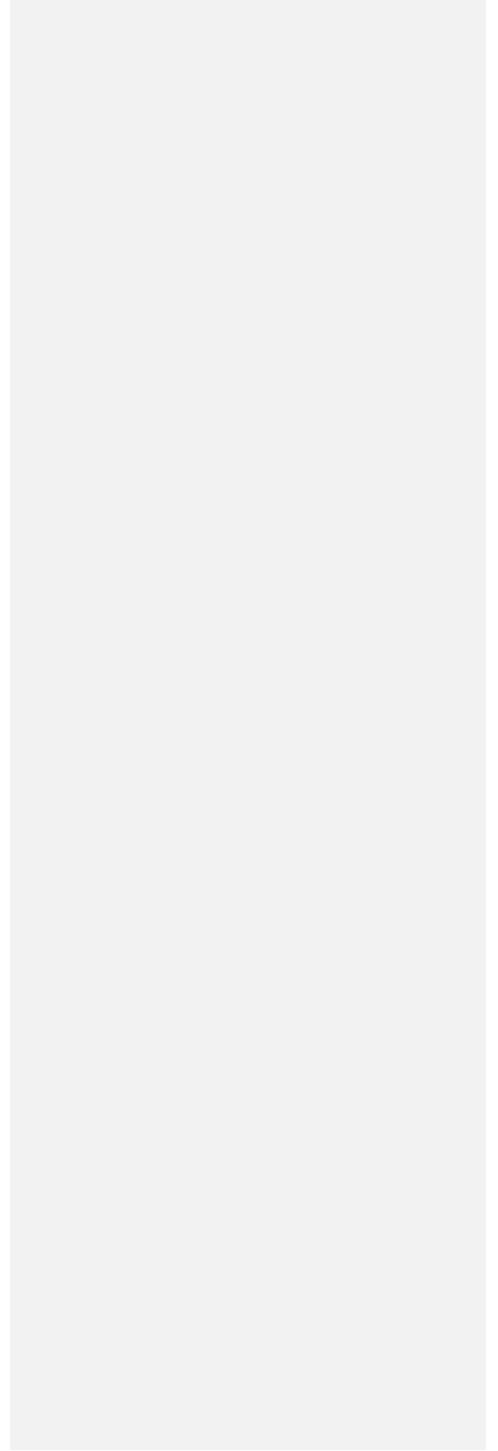
Please provide constructive criticism, and avoid personal opinions

I thank you for providing the raw data, however your supplemental files need more descriptive metadata identifiers to be useful to future readers. Although your results are compelling, the data analysis should be improved in the following ways: AA, BB, CC

Comment on strengths (as well as weaknesses) of the manuscript

I commend the authors for their extensive data set, compiled over many years of detailed fieldwork. In addition, the manuscript is clearly written in professional, unambiguous language. If there is a weakness, it is in the statistical analysis (as I have noted above) which should be

improved upon before Acceptance.



A systematic review on artificial intelligence techniques for predicting thyroid diseases

Lerina Aversano ¹, Mario Luca Bernardi ¹, Marta Cimitile ², Andrea Maiellaro ¹, Riccardo Pecori ^{Corresp.} ^{3,4}

¹ Department of Engineering, University of Sannio, Benevento, Italy

² UnitelmaSapienza University, Rome, Italy

³ Faculty of Engineering, eCampus University, Novedrate (CO), Italia

⁴ Institute of Materials for Electronics and Magnetism, National Research Council, Parma, Italy

Corresponding Author: Riccardo Pecori
Email address: riccardo.pecori@uniecampus.it

The use of artificial intelligence approaches in health-care systems [has grown rapidly over the last few years](#). [In this context, early detection of diseases is the most common area of application](#). [In this scenario, thyroid diseases are a vital example of illnesses that can be effectively faced if discovered quite early](#). This work aims at systematically reviewing and analyzing the [literature on various artificial intelligence techniques applied to detect and identify](#) of various diseases related to the thyroid gland. The contributions we reviewed are classified according to different viewpoints into [a coherent and structured taxonomy in order to highlight pros and cons of the most recent research in the field](#). After a careful selection process, we selected and reviewed 74 articles, analyzing them according to three main research questions, i.e., which diseases of the thyroid gland are detected by different artificial intelligence techniques, which datasets are used to perform the aforementioned detection, and what types of data are used to perform the detection. The review demonstrates that the majority of the considered papers deal with supervised methods to detect hypo- and hyperthyroidism. The average accuracy of detection is [high \(96.92%\)](#), but the usage of private and outdated datasets with a majority of clinical data is [preponderant](#). Finally, we discuss [the outcomes of the systematic review, pointing out advantages, disadvantages and future developments in the application of artificial intelligence for thyroid diseases detection](#).

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1 A Systematic Review on Artificial Intelligence

2 Techniques for Predicting Thyroid Diseases

3 Lerina Aversano¹, Mario Luca Bernardi¹, Marta Cimitile², Andrea Maiellaro¹, and
4 Riccardo Pecori^{3,4}

5 ¹Dept. of Engineering, University of Sannio, Via Traiano 9, Benevento, 82100, Italy

6 ²Unitelma Sapienza University, Piazza Sassari 4, Rome, 00161, Italy

7 ³eCampus University, Via Isimbardi 10, Novedrate (CO), 22060, Italy

8 ⁴IMEM-CNR, Parco Area delle Scienze 37/A, Parma, 43124, Italy

9 Corresponding author:

10 Riccardo Pecori

11 Email address: riccardo.pecori@uniecampus.it

12 ABSTRACT

13 The use of artificial intelligence approaches in health-care systems is rapidly increasing in the last years. Among the
14 others, their use is growing for the early detection of some diseases in order to promptly plan an adequate patient
15 care. In this scenario, thyroid diseases are a proper example of illnesses that can be effectively faced if discovered
16 quite early. This work aims at systematically reviewing and analyzing the research landscape about various artificial
17 intelligence-related techniques applied to the detection and identification of various diseases related to the thyroid
18 gland.

19 The contributions we reviewed are classified according to different viewpoints into a coherent and structured taxonomy
20 in order to highlight pros and cons of the most recent research in the field.

21 After a careful selection process, we selected and reviewed 74 articles, analyzing them according to three main
22 research questions, i.e., which diseases of the thyroid gland are detected by different artificial intelligence techniques,
23 which datasets are used to perform the aforementioned detection, and what types of data are used to perform the
24 detection.

25 The review demonstrates that the majority of the considered papers deal with supervised methods to detect hypo-
26 and hyperthyroidism. The average accuracy of detection is quite high (96.92%), but the usage of private and outdated
27 datasets with a majority of clinical data is preponderant.

28 Finally, we discuss about the outcomes of the systematic review, pointing out advantages, disadvantages and future
29 developments in the application of artificial intelligence to the detection of thyroid diseases.

30 1 INTRODUCTION

31 Thyroid is an important human endocrine organ, positioned in the anterior part of the neck and
32 secretes the hormone which regulates human metabolism. A thyroid disorder takes place whenever

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33 this organ produces either too many or too few hormones. Thyroid disorder is [the most common disease](#)
 34 in the endocrine field [Longbottom and Macnab, 2014], causing several ailments and in its more severe
 35 forms, also death. For this reason, it is very important to diagnose the disease at its early stages and
 36 [take](#) precautions to [avoid the most dangerous conditions](#).

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There are several approaches to

37 diagnose thyroid disorder, such as the [detection of the thyroid hormone](#), [clinical test evaluation](#), [imaging](#)
 38 [inspection](#), [blood analysis](#), and [tissue biopsy](#). These approaches require the [drudgery of doctors](#) [and is not](#)
 39 [foolproof because](#) the process of diagnosis of thyroid disorder from the laboratory analysis
 40 [is complex](#) and requires the doctors' extensive knowledge and experience. For this reason, in the
 41 last years, several research studies, [have used](#) Artificial Intelligence (AI) techniques to predict
 42 various thyroid diseases [Ma et al., 2019; Kwak and Hui, 2019]. Indeed, AI [extensively](#) used to solve problems
 43 in the health field [Kwak and Hui, 2019; Aversano et al., 2021] [and has provided](#)
 44 good accuracy. [This is further spurred by](#) the increasing computational power of computers, which allow
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45 the most complex and time-consuming AI algorithms. [Despite](#), the increasing number of studies about
 46 AI to predict thyroid diseases, [a broader discussion and comparison of the used AI](#)
 47 approaches [in the given context is lacking](#).

The rationale of this proposed systematic review is to [investigate the use of AI](#)
 49 approaches for the early detection of thyroid dysfunctions, [and provide](#) mapping of the used data
 50 types and the available datasets. The [audience for this review includes](#) computer scientists, bio-informatics
 51 specialists, data analysts as well as medical doctors and endocrinologists in particular.

The main objectives of this systematic review are the following:

- 53 • summarizing the most recent AI solutions [linked to](#) the early prediction of
 54 thyroid diseases (Research Question RQ1);
- 55 • identifying the used datasets to apply AI solutions for the early prediction of thyroid diseases
 56 (Research Question RQ2);
- 57 • summarizing the most used data types to detect thyroid diseases using AI techniques (Research
 58 Question RQ3).

59 The rest of the article has the following structure. In Section 2 [background concepts useful to](#)
 60 [understand the proposed](#) investigation are reported. In Section 3, we summarize, from a critical
 61 point of view, some recent reviews obtained in the analysis and filtering process. [In Section 4,](#) the research
 method adopted in this systematic review is described, together with the
 63 research questions, the [databases used](#), the keywords, and the filtering as well as the inclusion/exclusion
 64 criteria. In Section 5, we summarize and classify the considered articles, in a way suitable to answer the
 65 research questions. Finally, Section 6 reports a discussion of the obtained findings, also highlighting the
 66 current research gaps, while Section 7 concludes the article with an overview of the systematic review
 67 and of the obtained results.

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68 2 BACKGROUND

69 ~~The primary function of the thyroid gland is~~ the production of the
 70 triiodothyronine (T3) and thyroxine (T4) hormones. These hormones travel through the body and help
 71 ~~in~~ the regulation of the metabolism, ~~while also aiding~~ brain development, ~~digestive function,~~
 72 muscle control, and ~~mood balancing~~. Autoimmune diseases and nutrient deficiencies are the
 73 principal causes of thyroid complications [Monaco, 2003]. Thyroid dysfunction is rather common in the
 74 general population, and mild or sub-clinical forms can be present in more than 10% of individuals older
 75 than 80 years.

The diagnosis of abnormal thyroid hormone concentrations in people older than 60 years
 76 poses a challenge, as the clinical presentation of thyroid dysfunction is usually nonspecific, and aging
 77 is associated with a number of physiological changes that can affect thyroid function test results. There
 78 are different kinds of thyroid dysfunction, namely, they are goiter, hyperthyroidism, hypothyroidism,
 79 malignant thyroid nodules, thyroiditis, etc. They are briefly summarized in the following [Monaco, 2003]:

- 80 • Goiter is a noncancerous enlargement of the thyroid gland. The most common cause of goiter
 81 worldwide is iodine deficiency in the diet;
- 82 • Hyperthyroidism occurs when the thyroid gland is overactive. It produces too much of its hormone;
- 83 • Hypothyroidism is the opposite of hyperthyroidism. The thyroid gland is underactive, and it cannot
 84 produce enough of its hormones;
- 85 • Thyroid nodules are growths that form on or in the thyroid gland. The nodules can be solid or
 86 fluid-filled, most are benign, but they can also be cancerous in a small percentage of cases;
- 87 • Thyroiditis can be considered a swelling of the thyroid.

88 Another pathology is Euthyroid, a normal thyroid hormonal functional state, but involved in initial
 89 structural changes such as goiter, cold nodule, multiple nodule goiter (MNG) and cancer (Grave's Disease
 90 and so on).

91 In the rest of the paper, we will specifically focus on the following general and more frequent thyroid-
 92 related diseases: hypo and hyperthyroidism, thyroid cancer, and euthyroid sick state. Other thyroid-related
 93 diseases will be considered, but in a general thyroid disease category.

94 3 RELATED WORK

95 In this section, we summarize the existing reviews and surveys on the studied topic and we highlight the
 96 differences, compared with our proposed literature review.

97 Garg and Mago [2021] only focus on the role of machine learning in medical research in general,
 98 Hasanzad et al. [2022] focus on endocrinology in general, [Kumar et al., 2022b] is a generic review on
 99 the application of artificial intelligence to the identification of diseases, Kumar et al. [2022a] concentrate
 100 on artificial intelligence and general cancer prediction, [Liu et al., 2021a] is a review about the general

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101 application of artificial intelligence in medicine, while [Wilson et al., 2022] is a survey on the application
 102 of artificial intelligence in otolaryngology in general.

103 In [Parmar and Mehta, 2020], the authors discuss different kinds of dysfunctions
 104 which affect the thyroid and point out the main methods and processes used currently for detecting these
 105 dysfunctions, but only from a clinical perspective. Moreover, the authors illustrate the computed supported
 106 detection techniques distinguishing them on the basis of the used input modes. The paper also outlines
 107 the main strengths and open research problems to be addressed in this research area. A set of parameters, such
 108 as,

108 is used to compare the discussed techniques.

109 The study in [Chen et al., 2020] proposes a review and categorization of thyroid gland segmentation
 110 and thyroid nodule segmentation methods according to the theoretical bases of segmentation methods.

111 In particular, the review compared 28 representative papers
 112 selected in the literature. The most common methods for thyroid gland are based on machine and
 113 deep learning methods. Moreover, the study found out that big data for training provide segmentation
 114 performance and robustness. However, deep learning models
 115 usually require large training dataset and imply long training time. For thyroid nodule segmentation, the
 116 most common adopted methods are contour and shape based methods, that lead to satisfactory performance
 117 results. Nevertheless, they are often tested on small datasets.

118 In [Abdolali et al., 2020], the authors provide a systematic review of artificial intelligence application
 119 focused on thyroid cancer diagnosis. The review considered and classify more than 50 papers discussing
 120 approaches for thyroid cancer detection exploiting AI algorithms. The paper also proposes future trends
 121 and challenges in the field and perspectives of computer-aided analysis to improve the efficiency of future
 122 methods for thyroid cancer diagnosis.

123 Finally, [Razia et al., 2020] is not a systematic review, but only a general survey of various machine
 124 learning techniques in medicine, Mendoza and Hernandez [2021] provide a review in the limited room of
 125 a conference paper made of six pages and they do not provide any keywords or research questions, thus
 126 they do not adhere to Barbara Kitchenham's guidelines [Kitchenham, 2004] for a systematic review either.
 127 Other recent reviews considering AI in the context of improving thyroid health, focus only on images,
 128 such as [Bini et al., 2021] and [Sharifi et al., 2021], and do not consider clinical data at all.

129 Differently from all the aforementioned papers, the proposed systematic literature review aims
 130 to perform a comprehensive investigation on the use of artificial intelligence approaches
 131 for the diagnosis and classification of the main thyroid dysfunctions, providing the mapping of
 132 the considered approaches with the used data types and the available datasets. We do not concentrate
 133 only on images or only on clinical data, we do not focus only on specific thyroid dysfunctions, we
 134 do not regard works tackling thyroid diseases only as an example of application of machine learning
 135 techniques; moreover, we carefully adhere to Barbara Kitchenham's guidelines for a systematic review,
 136 clearly pointing out the investigated research questions, the formal analysis and filtering process we have
 137 followed, as well as the final results.

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138 4 RESEARCH METHOD

139 In order to properly conduct the literature review, we adopted the guidelines proposed by Kitchenham
140 [2004]. The phases we sequentially performed are listed in the following:

- 141 • definition of the research questions;
- 142 • extraction of the relevant keywords, from the research questions, that will be used for formulating
143 the queries;
- 144 • database selection, in order to identify the scientific databases as sources for performing the initial
145 search;
- 146 • definition of some initial filtering criteria, such as the time interval of the search, the venue, and
147 quality of the searched results, etc.
- 148 • skimming of abstracts and papers to exclude irrelevant articles and possible duplicates;
- 149 • definition of eligibility criteria and their application during the full reading of the surveyed papers;
- 150 • full reading and analysis of the remaining articles considering the defined research questions.

151 4.1 Research Questions and relevant keywords

152 The research questions we used to investigate the application of AI techniques to the classification of
153 thyroid diseases are the following:

- 154 • RQ1: What are the main AI techniques used for the classification and identification of the most
155 relevant thyroid diseases?
- 156 • RQ2: What datasets about thyroid diseases are used in the considered AI solutions?
- 157 • RQ3: What data types are used to detect and classify thyroid diseases using the considered AI
158 techniques?

159 The first research question [aims](#) to discriminate the various thyroid diseases tackled by different
160 AI-based classification approaches as well as their performance metrics. In analyzing the papers, we
161 considered the following macro categories for the AI-based identification and classification approaches
162 [Witten, 2011]:

- 163 1. [Probabilistic Approaches](#), which classify or group samples according to a certain probability distri-
164 bution function;
- 165 2. [Kernel-based approaches](#), which perform pattern analysis by transforming linearly inseparable data
166 to linearly separable ones;
- 167 3. [Techniques using Decision Trees](#), a model often used in operational research exploiting a tree-like
168 structure of decisions on features, each representing a node of the tree itself;

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- 169 4. Rule-based approaches, which determines interpretable classification strategies by means of rela-
170 tional rules made of certain antecedents and a certain consequent;
- 171 5. Neural Networks, which are models inspired by human brain made of layers of artificial perceptrons,
172 connected in different ways, and useful for both classification and description tasks;
- 173 6. cluster-based approaches, based on the division of the group of samples according to a certain
174 similarity metric;
- 175 7. ensemble approaches, which combine different ML approaches and usually provides an output
176 according to a certain strategy (e.g., majority voting);
- 177 8. other techniques.

178 Conversely, for the thyroid disease we focused on the following classification:

- 179 1. hypothyroidism, a situation of underactive thyroid gland when it does not produce enough of its
180 crucial hormones;
- 181 2. hyperthyroidism, which is the opposite of hypothyroidism, is the situation when the thyroid gland
182 produces too many of its hormones;
- 183 3. euthyroid disease, which can cause abnormal findings on thyroid function tests occurring in absence
184 of any thyroidal illness;
- 185 4. cancer and malignant nodules;
- 186 5. other thyroid-related issues or general dysfunctions.

187 With reference to RQ2, we have analyzed the characteristics of the datasets used in the research
188 studies, as well as their nature (private or public); whereas as regards RQ3 we have investigated whether
189 the datasets were composed of images or clinical data, as well as the detailed list of considered features.

190 We have converted the research questions into proper queries, used to search certain databases
191 described in the following. The used queries (Q) are the following, wherein query 2 is used for answering
192 both research question 2 and 3:

- 193 1. Q1: (“artificial intelligence” OR “machine learning” OR “deep learning” OR “neural network” OR
194 “neural networks”) AND (“thyroid disease” OR “thyroid diseases”);
- 195 2. Q2: (“artificial intelligence” OR “machine learning” OR “deep learning” OR “neural network” OR
196 “neural networks”) AND (“thyroid disease” OR “thyroid diseases”) AND “dataset”;

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197 4.2 Searched databases

198 The selected papers were found in the following four main databases:

- 199 1. the database of the Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE)¹, also called IEEEXplore,
200 which contains technical articles in electrical engineering, electronics, computer science, and other
201 related fields;
- 202 2. the Elsevier database², also called ScienceDirect, which permits to access to journals and technical
203 and science articles in several scientific areas and fields;
- 204 3. the Springer database³, also called SpringerLink, which permits one to access publications by the
205 Springer Nature editorial group;
- 206 4. the database maintained by the Association for Computing Machinery⁴, also called ACM Digital
207 Library.

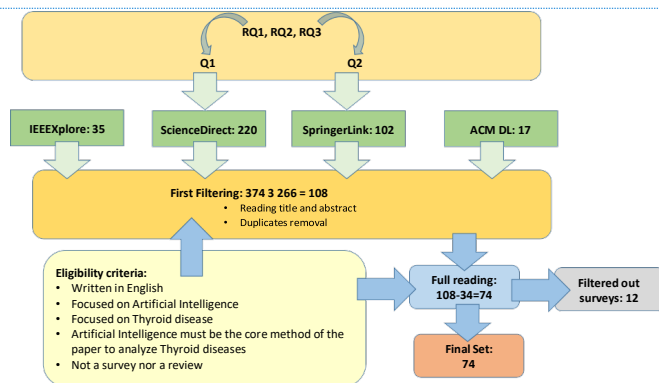


Figure 1. Details of the selection procedure for the analyzed papers.

208 4.3 Search process and filtering criteria

209 We have performed the search and filtering process represented in Figure 1, wherein the inclusion (*IC*)
210 and exclusion criteria (*EC*) presented in Table 1 were applied.

¹<https://ieeexplore.ieee.org/Xplore/home.jsp>

²<https://www.sciencedirect.com/>

³<https://link.springer.com/>

⁴<https://dl.acm.org/>

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Table 1. Criteria for including or excluding paper in the performed research process.

Acronym	Description of the criterium
<i>Inclusion Criteria</i>	
<i>IC₁</i>	Studies published in the range 2016-2022
<i>IC₂</i>	Studies written in English
<i>IC₃</i>	Studies should use AI techniques for analyzing any thyroid disease
<i>Exclusion Criteria</i>	
<i>EC₁</i>	The article is a survey or review
<i>EC₂</i>	The research does not consider artificial intelligence
<i>EC₃</i>	The paper is not specifically focused on the thyroid

211 The selected papers fall into January 2016 - July 2022 (*IC₁*). We have chosen this
 212 range in order to analyze only the most recent studies, dating back to at most 6 years ago. After applying
 213 the queries to the aforementioned databases we got a total of 374 papers, 35 from IEEEXplore,
 214 220 from ScienceDirect, 102 from SpringerLink and 17 from the ACM Digital Library.

215 Then, we skimmed titles and abstracts in order to remove possible duplicate titles and articles
 216 that i) do not deal mainly with AI-based methods (*EC₂*), ii) do not consider the thyroid gland and its
 217 diseases as the main focus (*EC₃*).

218 After this phase, a total of 108 papers remained. Finally, these remaining articles were read fully
 219 for both extracting useful statistical information presented in the following and for filtering them further
 220 on the base of the following selection criteria:

- 221 • written in English (*IC₂*);
- 222 • specifically focused on thyroid (*EC₃*);
- 223 • an AI-based technique must be the core method of the paper to identify or classify thyroid diseases
 224 (*IC₃*);
- 225 • not a survey nor a review (*EC₁*).

226 This final filtering step resulted in a total of 74 papers to analyze after removal of 12
 227 recent surveys, already discussed in Section 3.

228 Figure 2 presents the distribution over the years of the 74 papers selected for the systematic review.
 229 As one can see, there is a constant growth of the research on the topic over the recent years with the obvious
 230 exception of 2022, given that it can only consider half of the year. The trend of the graph demonstrates an
 231 increasing interest in the usage of AI-based methods to classify and identify thyroid-related dysfunctions,
 232 thus corroborating our initial idea to research on this hot topic.

233 5 RESULTS

234 In this section, we discuss the main results and outcomes of the systematic literature review, by following
 235 the research questions described in Section 4.

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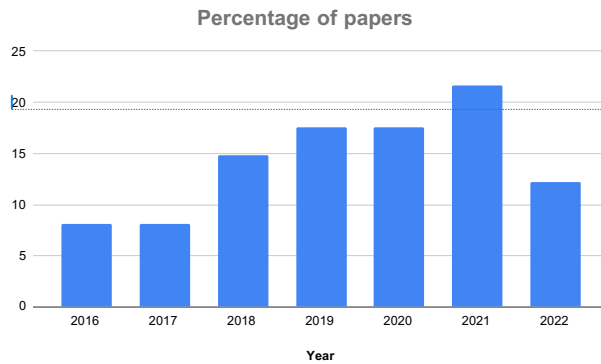


Figure 2. Percentage of the considered papers over the years.

236 **5.1 RQ1: What are the main AI techniques used for the classification and identification of the most**
 237 **relevant thyroid diseases?**

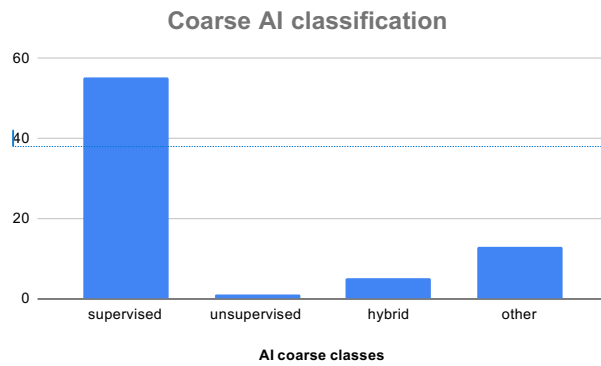


Figure 3. Percentage of the survived papers according to a coarse classification of the AI techniques.

238 This research question regarded the identification of the various AI techniques, as well as the main
 239 tackled thyroid diseases, used in the 74 papers identified after the filtering process.
 241 Figure 3 summarizes the percentage of the identified papers as regards a classification of the
 242 AI techniques. This classification entails four main classes, namely, supervised, unsupervised, hybrid,

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243 and other methods. The first ones regard techniques wherein the classification is performed by exploiting
 244 labels that are already known, the second ones try to find out a classification with no prior knowledge of
 245 any label, the third ones exploit a mix of both of the aforementioned, while the last ones use approaches
 246 which cannot be framed in the previous categories.

247 From the figure, it can be noted that the most of the papers (74.32%) entails supervised techniques,
 248 while unsupervised approaches are a very small fraction (1.35%). Hybrid methods represent 6.76%, while
 249 other methods are quite relevant, reaching a percentage equal to 17.57%.

250 In Figure 4, there is a percentage classification of the considered AI techniques on the basis of the four
 251 main thyroid disease categories we have considered. In this case, a study may face more than one disease,
 252 thus the percentage is not computed over 74 papers but over 123 tackled diseases. As one can see, the
 253 most studied diseases using AI techniques are hypothyroidism and hyperthyroidism (30.08% and 27.64%
 254 respectively), while euthyroid disease and the various types of thyroid cancer (or malignant nodules)
 255 reach a similar percentage of 8.13% and 17.89%, respectively. Finally, the generic thyroid dysfunctions
 256 and other thyroid-related issues encompass 16.26%.

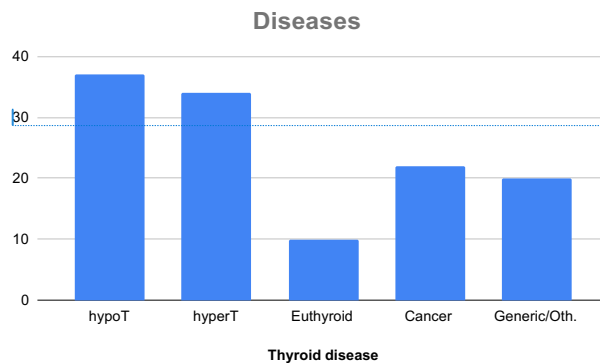


Figure 4. Classification of the considered papers on the basis of the tackled thyroid disease.

257 In Table 3, we distribute the surveyed papers according to both the AI techniques and the just
 258 mentioned tackled thyroid diseases. The table also groups the various AI techniques according to the raw
 259 taxonomy described in Subsection 4.1.

260 In Figure 5, we show a percentage classification of the considered AI taxonomy. Also in this case, a
 261 study may exploit more than one technique, thus the percentage is not computed over 74 papers, but over
 262 126 used techniques, without considering repetitions in each AI group. As one can see, the most used
 263 techniques to face thyroid diseases are neural networks, building up more than one third of the overall
 264 AI-based methods (34.13%), followed by Decision Trees (15.87%), kernel-based methods (15.08%),

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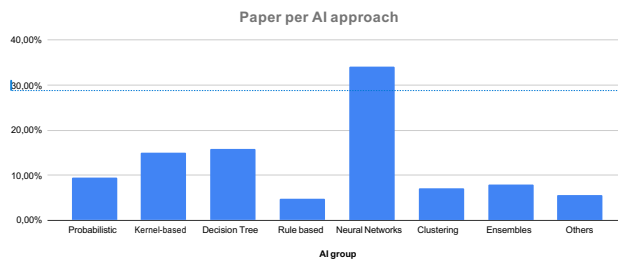
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Table 2. Statistics of the metrics of the surveyed AI techniques for thyroid disease classification.

	Accuracy	Precision	Recall	F1-score
Average	96.92%	94.83%	89.50%	89.50%
Maximum	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	99.00%
Minimum	93.00%	85.00%	69.00%	74.00%

265 probabilistic techniques (9.52%), ensemble techniques (7.94%), and cluster-based methods (7.14%). The
 266 other methods represent a fraction smaller than 7%.

**Figure 5.** Percentage of the various AI groups.

267 Finally, Table 2 presents the average, maximum, and minimum values of the main metrics for
 268 classification (accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score) obtained by the considered AI techniques in the
 269 surveyed papers.

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Table 3. Cross classification of the considered papers: according to the tackled thyroid disease and according to the various AI techniques, grouped also per macro-category.

AI group	AI technique	Thyroid diseases				
		Hypothyroidism	Hyperthyroidism	Euthyroid disease	Cancer	Genetic/others
Probabilistic approaches	Naive Bayes	Rao and Renika (2020)Pasha and Mohamed (2020)Housari et al. (2016) Chandel et al. (2019)Duggal and Shukla (2020)Peysa et al. (2021) Rajajilindam et al. (2021)Junco (2022)	Rao and Renika (2020)Pasha and Mohamed (2020)Housari et al. (2016) Chandel et al. (2019)Duggal and Shukla (2020)Peysa et al. (2021) Junco (2022)	Duggal and Shukla (2020)	Qin et al. (2021)	Junco (2022) Kishor and Chakraborty (2021)
	Log regression	Pasha and Mohamed (2020) Rajajilindam et al. (2021)	Pasha and Mohamed (2020)		Qin et al. (2021)	Rainingshani et al. (2019)Chaubeey et al. (2021)
	TSR	Chaudhri et al. (2016)	Chaudhri et al. (2016)	Chaudhri et al. (2016)		
Kernel-based approaches	SVM	Duggal and Shukla (2020)Shahid et al. (2019)Ahmed and Soomani (2016) Tyagi et al. (2018)Shen et al. (2016) Li et al. (2019)	Duggal and Shukla (2020)Shahid et al. (2019)Ahmed and Soomani (2016) Tyagi et al. (2018)Shen et al. (2016) Li et al. (2019)	Ahmed and Soomani (2016)Shen et al. (2016) Li et al. (2019)	Raghavendra et al. (2019)Prochaska et al. (2019) Raghavendra et al. (2017)Qin et al. (2021)Jhan et al. (2021)	Tyagi et al. (2018)Kaur et al. (2019) Khoshfar Abbas (2021)Kishor and Chakraborty (2021)
	multi-kernel SVM	Shankar et al. (2019)Komar (2020)	Shankar et al. (2019)Komar (2020)	Komar (2020)		Shankar et al. (2019)
	Decision Tree	Rao and Renika (2020)Sidqi and Manhar Aagbh (2019)Tyagi et al. (2018) Hayashi (2017)Peysa et al. (2021) Rajajilindam et al. (2021)	Rao and Renika (2020)Sidqi and Manhar Aagbh (2019)Tyagi et al. (2018) Hayashi (2017)Peysa et al. (2021) Rajajilindam et al. (2021)		Hao et al. (2018)	Tyagi et al. (2018)Rainingshani et al. (2019)Kaur et al. (2019) Chaubeey et al. (2021)Junco (2022)Kishor and Chakraborty (2021)
Decision Tree approaches	DS		Jha et al. (2018)			
	Random Forest	Sidqi and Manhar Aagbh (2019)Shahid et al. (2019)Duggal and Shukla (2020) Rajajilindam et al. (2021)Junco (2022)	Sidqi and Manhar Aagbh (2019)Shahid et al. (2019)Junco et al. (2017) Duggal and Shukla (2020)Junco (2022)	Duggal and Shukla (2020)	Prochaska et al. (2019) Qin et al. (2021)	Pan et al. (2019)Prochaska et al. (2019)Rainingshani et al. (2019) Kaur et al. (2019)Junco (2022)
	ID3	Zarin Mossavi et al. (2020)				
	CHAID	Zarin Mossavi et al. (2020)				
	Rule-based approaches	Rule-based reasoning	Hayashi (2017)	Hayashi (2017)		
Rule-based approaches	RBS	Bontaba-Lagrad et al. (2020)	Bontaba-Lagrad et al. (2020)			
	Fuzzy RBS	Imbou et al. (2017)				
	Fuzzy RBS	Amad Sajadi et al. (2019)Kamari and Sharma (2019)	Kamari and Sharma (2019)			
Neural Network	ANN	Sidqi and Manhar Aagbh (2019)Malikar and Gulkwad (2017)Tyagi et al. (2018) Housari et al. (2016)Yivar et al. (2020) Zarin Mossavi et al. (2020)	Sidqi and Manhar Aagbh (2019)Malikar and Gulkwad (2017) Tyagi et al. (2018)Housari et al. (2016)Yivar et al. (2020) Yasar et al. (2020)Ar et al. (2020)		Ahmed et al. (2022)Corbes et al. (2021)Jin et al. (2021)	Tyagi et al. (2018)Rainingshani et al. (2019)Khoshfar Abbas (2021) Kaur et al. (2019)Santos et al. (2019)Kishor and Chakraborty (2021) Chau (2020)
	BLSTM-LSTM	Yasar et al. (2020)	Yasar et al. (2020)Ar et al. (2020)			
	CNN	Yar et al. (2020) Ananthi et al. (2022) Khan (2021)	Yar et al. (2020) Ananthi et al. (2022)		Yin et al. (2019)Yi et al. (2017)Yu and Hogue (2018) Li et al. (2019)Moran et al. (2018)Ananthi et al. (2022) Chou et al. (2021) Lin et al. (2021)Sanjillan et al. (2021) Song et al. (2022)	Poudel et al. (2019)Kao and Du (2019) Ananthi et al. (2022) Pi et al. (2022)Yang et al. (2021)
	GAN	Zhang et al. (2020)	Zhang et al. (2020)		Shi et al. (2020)Zhao et al. (2022)	
	Capsule Network				Ar et al. (2022)	
	RBF NN	Junco (2022)	Junco (2022)			Junco (2022)
	Autoencoder	Sakthecvart and Balasubramanian (2021)	Sakthecvart and Balasubramanian (2021)		Sakthecvart and Balasubramanian (2021)	
	RNN				Sanjillan et al. (2021)	
	MPL	Yar et al. (2020)Zarin Mossavi et al. (2020)Peysa and Srivivasan (2017) Housari et al. (2016)Junco (2022)	Yar et al. (2020)Peysa and Srivivasan (2017)Housari et al. (2016)Junco (2022)		Qin et al. (2021)	Junco (2022)
	Cluster-based approaches	BackPropagation	Shahid et al. (2019)Tyagi et al. (2018)Pasha and Mohamed (2020) Housari et al. (2016)Chandel et al. (2016)Pasha and Mohamed (2020) Peysa et al. (2021)	Shahid et al. (2019)Tyagi et al. (2018)Pasha and Mohamed (2020) Housari et al. (2016)Chandel et al. (2016)Peysa et al. (2021)		Qin et al. (2021)
Ensembles	AdaBoost	Zarin Mossavi et al. (2020)Yadav and Pal (2022)Priyadarshini and Saikala (2022)	Priyadarshini and Saikala (2022)			Kishor and Chakraborty (2021)
	Stacking	Yadav and Pal (2022) Sidqi and Manhar Aagbh (2019)	Sidqi and Manhar Aagbh (2019)Jha et al. (2018)			
	Bagging	Zarin Mossavi et al. (2020)Yadav and Pal (2022) Priyadarshini and Saikala (2022)	Priyadarshini and Saikala (2022)		Qin et al. (2021)	
	Vote ensemble	Sidqi and Manhar Aagbh (2019)Yadav and Pal (2022)	Sidqi and Manhar Aagbh (2019)Jha et al. (2018)		Yasar et al. (2019)	Pan et al. (2016)
Other Learning approaches	Dynamic ensemble	Alan et al. (2020)	Alan et al. (2020)	Alan et al. (2020)		
	Semi supervised Learning					Devi and Anni (2018)
	WELM	Peysa and Srivivasan (2017)Ma et al. (2018) Junco (2022)	Peysa and Srivivasan (2017)Ma et al. (2018) Junco (2022)			Priya and Manavalan (2018)
ELM					Junco (2022)	
ATDVC	Baccor (2018)	Baccor (2018)				

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For column on Cancer, do you mean Thyroid Cancer.

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270 In the following subsections, we briefly summarize each surveyed paper according to the AI group
271 presented in Table 3.

272 5.1.1 Probabilistic approaches

273 In [Rao and Renuka, 2020] Naive Bayes and a Decision Tree, built using the ID3 algorithm, are used to
274 perform a binary prediction about whether the patient is affected by hypo- or hyperthyroidism.

275 The authors of the study in [Pasha and Mohamed, 2020] perform feature selection on the UCI dataset
276 for thyroid disease by exploiting both a Random Forest-based method and a Gain Ratio technique.
277 Finally, the prediction is performed by comparing different machine learning techniques, namely K-
278 Nearest-Neighbor, Logistic Regression, and Naive Bayes. Similarly, in [Houari et al., 2016] the authors
279 try to reduce redundant dimensions by exploiting Copulas and LU-decomposition techniques and test
280 their methods also on the UCI thyroid dataset for detecting both hypo- and hyperthyroidism. For the
281 evaluation of the data reduction techniques, the authors employed Naive Bayes, besides Artificial Neural
282 Networks (ANN) and k-nearest neighbors (k-NN) as learning algorithms. Finally, the contribution
283 in [Chandel et al., 2016] compares different ML techniques in detecting thyroid-related diseases (i.e.,
284 hypo- and hyperthyroidism), with a particular focus on Naive Bayes, K-Nearest Neighbor, and Support
285 Vector Machine. Juneja [2022] presents a fuzzy adaptive feature filtration and expansion-based model
286 to generate a novel feature set related to thyroid. The obtained feature set is then analyzed through
287 Extreme Learning Machine classifier whose performance is compared with Naïve Bayes, Decision Tree,
288 Multilayer Perceptron, and Radial Basis Function networks. Kishor and Chakraborty [2021] compare
289 seven machine learning classifiers such as decision tree, support vector machine, Naïve Bayes, adaptive
290 boosting, Random Forest, artificial neural networks, and K-nearest neighbor in order to predict fatal
291 diseases about thyroid, finding out that random forest is the best performing algorithm. Qin et al. [2021]
292 try to study papillary thyroid cancer through the analysis of magnetic resonance imaging radiomics
293 using eight classifiers including logistic regression, bagging, random forests, extremely randomized trees,
294 support vector machines, Naïve Bayes, multilayer perception, and K-nearest neighbors. Some of the
295 models succeeded into reaching a performance of correct classification higher than 95%.

296 In [Peya et al., 2021] a thyroid diseases prediction model is proposed through three machine learning
297 classification algorithms, i.e., K-Nearest Neighbor, Naive Bayes, and Decision Trees. Using the thyroid
298 data of the UCI machine learning repository and a 10-fold cross-validation, the performance of the three
299 algorithms is tested and the decision tree resulted the most accurate, with a 99.7% of accuracy.

300 Riajuliislam et al. [2021] try to predict early stage hypothyroidism by applying three different feature
301 selection procedures, namely RFE, UFS, and PCA, together with different classification algorithms, i.e.,
302 support vector machine, decision tree, random forest, logistic regression, and Naive Bayes. RFE applied
303 to the UCI thyroid dataset allowed the authors to achieve a constant 99% accuracy value over the various
304 classification algorithms.

305 In Raisinghani et al. [2019], the authors compare different machine learning approaches, namely,
306 Logistic regression, Decision trees, Random forest, Support vector machine, to develop predictive models

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307 to detect a generic thyroid disease.

308 The contribution in Chandio et al. [2016] exploits Time Series Regression to create an intelligent
309 system for thyroid disease visualization for a careful surveillance of the thyroid disease, with a particular
310 focus on hypothyroidism, hyperthyroidism, and euthyroid disease.

311 Chaubey et al. [2021] compare logistic regression, decision tree, and kNN on the UC Irvin knowledge
312 discovery database for thyroid diseases detection, obtaining the best result of accuracy from the kNN
313 classifier (96.87%).

314 5.1.2 Kernel-based approaches

315 Duggal and Shukla [2020] perform feature selection and extraction before applying Naive Bayes, Support
316 Vector Machine, and Random Forest to [identify](#) of hypothyroidism, hyperthyroidism, and
317 euthyroidism.

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318 The authors of Shahid et al. [2019] compare Random Forest, Support Vector Machine, and K-Nearest
319 Neighbours, on the UCI thyroid dataset, to discover the best performing algorithm, resulted to be Random
320 Forest, in detecting hypo- and hyperthyroidism.

321 The contribution in [Ahmed and Soomrani, 2016] provides a framework, named Thyroid Disease
322 Types Diagnostics (TDTD), aiming at making a diagnosis of various thyroid diseases in a very structured
323 and transparent manner and exploiting binary and multi-SVM algorithms, as well as Bayesian isotonic
324 regression for missing values.

325 In [Tyagi et al., 2018], the authors present again the results in detecting hypo- and hyperthyroidism
326 (by using the UCI dataset) by means of different machine learning techniques, such as decision trees,
327 artificial neural networks, support vector machines, and k-nearest neighbors.

328 Kumar, in [Kumar, 2020], introduces a novel multiclass SVM approach to detect four types of subjects.
329 i.e., people affected by hypothyroidism, hyperthyroidism, euthyroidism sick and euthyroidism healthy, on
330 the usual UCI dataset.

331 Shen et al. [2016] propose a novel scheme to optimize the parameters of SVM by means of the
332 fly optimization algorithm. The novel scheme is compared with other optimization algorithms and its
333 efficiency is tested on four datasets, including the UCI one about thyroid.

334 Finally, in [Li et al., 2019b] a novel optimization technique for SVM applied to the UCI thyroid dataset
335 is proposed. It is based on the teaching-learning algorithm and differential evolution and it permitted to
336 SVM to reach better performance in comparison with other solutions.

337 Malignant nodules detection is the focus of the work in [Raghavendra et al., 2018]. The paper
338 presents a computer-aided diagnosis system to detect thyroid malignant nodules by means of higher order
339 spectral entropy features and using particle swarm optimization (PSO) and support vector machine (SVM)
340 frameworks.

341 In [Prochazka et al., 2019], the authors propose a computer aided diagnosis system using direction
342 independent features of ultrasound images of the thyroid gland to detect malignant nodules by means of
343 Random Forest and SVM. Similarly, the authors of the study in [Raghavendra et al., 2017] try to propose

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344 an SVM-based computer aided diagnosis system, by exploiting fusion of Spatial Gray Level Dependence
 345 Features (SGLDF) and fractal textures to detect benign and malignant thyroid lesions in ultrasound
 346 images.

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347 In [Kaur et al., 2019], the authors proposed an IoT-based framework using SVM, Random Forest,
 348 Decision Trees, k-nearest neighbour, and artificial neural networks to be tested on different healthcare
 349 datasets, including on general thyroid disease.

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350 Finally, in [Shankar et al., 2018] the authors propose again an optimal feature selection method,
 351 namely Improved Gray Wolf Optimization, to reduce the number of features for a multi-kernel SVM
 352 classifier applied to thyroid disease.

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353 Shen et al. [2021] apply SVM to platelet RNA-seq data in order to differentiate different types of
 354 thyroid cancer and achieve an accuracy of 97%.

355 Khudhair Abbas [2021] tries to segment and classify ultrasound images of the thyroid gland using
 356 artificial neural networks and SVM classifiers. SVM demonstrated to achieve better performance than
 357 artificial neural network in detecting benign and malignant nodes with a 96.66% of sensitivity.

358 5.1.3 Decision Tree approaches

359 In Hayashi [2017], the author tries to create a white-box model to make prediction on the UCI thyroid
 360 datasets by exploiting the synergical effects of Recursive-Rule eXtraction (Re-RX) with J48graft in terms
 361 of rule definition in the form IF-THEN for predicting both hypo- and hyperthyroidism.

362 In Sidiq and Mutahar Aaqib [2019], the authors employ decision trees, random forest, vote ensemble,
 363 and stack ensemble in order to detect both hypo- and hyperthyroidism.

364 Hao et al. [2018] introduce a decision tree improved by MS-Apriori
 365 for the prognosis of lymph node metastasis (LNM) in patients with thyroid cancer. MS-Apriori is used
 366 to generate association rules considering rare items by multiple supports and fuzzy logic is introduced
 367 to map attribute values to different subintervals. The used dataset is made of Clinical-pathological data,
 368 obtained from the First Hospital of Jilin University.

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369 Jha et al. [2018] present a hybrid algorithm for healthcare data mining by using
 370 the Decision stump (DS), StackingC (SC), and voting methods to tackle the hyperthyroidism issue.

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371 In Imbus et al. [2017], a Random Tree and a rule-based classifier (JRip) are used to detect primary
 372 hyperparathyroidism; while in Pan et al. [2016], random forest, together with principal component analysis
 373 and rotation transformation is used to detect a general thyroid disease by exploiting the UCI thyroid
 374 dataset.

375 Finally, in Zarin Mousavi et al. [2020] the authors apply computational methods based on decision
 376 trees, like ID3 and CHAID, SVM and multi-layer perceptrons, enriched with bagging and boosting
 377 techniques, to the identification of congenital hypothyroidism.

378 **5.1.4 Rule-based approaches**

379 In Bentaiba-Lagrid et al. [2020], a new amplification technique based on randomization for a system
380 incorporating a structured case-base that speeds up case retrieval while supporting case retention is
381 presented. The case base is segmented in a novel manner with new similarity functions based on features'
382 weights in order to accelerate the retrieval of the case base reasoning. The system was applied to the
383 detection of both hypo- and hyperthyroidism and compared with different machine learning methods.

384 In Asaad Sajadi et al. [2019], hypothyroidism is detected by means of a fuzzy rule-based expert
385 system, which is proved to perform better than a logistic regression model on a real-world? dataset.

386 Finally, the authors of Kumari and Sharma [2019] draft a fuzzy logic-based expert system to tackle
387 both hypo- and hyperthyroidism.

388 **5.1.5 Neural Networks**

389 Mahurkar and Gaikwad [2017] exploit artificial neural networks in conjunction with K-Means to normalize
390 raw data for hypo- and hyperthyroidism.

391 In [Vivar et al., 2020], a guiding computer-aided diagnosis system, using a neural network with a
392 dropout at the input layer, and integrated gradients of the trained network at test-time to attribute feature
393 importance dynamically, is proposed. The technique is applied also to the UCI thyroid dataset to detect
394 both hypo- and hyperthyroidism.

395 Similarly, in [Santos et al., 2019], the authors introduce a decision support system, to make general
396 thyroid dysfunction assessment, based on an Artificial Neural Network and complemented by a novel
397 approach to Knowledge Representation and Argumentation.

398 In [Yue et al., 2020], Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy was combined with three neural network
399 models, namely multilayer perceptron, long-short-term memory network, and a convolutional neural
400 network in order to detect hypo- and hyperthyroidism.

401 Chai [2020] tackles thyroid disease in general by means of knowledge graphs extracting the relation-
402 ships between bio-medical entities for feeding a bidirectional long short-term memory network. This
403 combination proved to have better diagnostic effects than other techniques on a image dataset from the
404 university of Shanghai.

405 In [Zhang et al., 2020], the authors propose a synthetic data augmentation method based on progressive
406 generative adversarial network in order to improve the performance in deep learning detection of hypo-
407 and hyperthyroidism.

408 Yin et al. [2019] proposed a hybrid cutting network featuring a regional attribute cutting method for
409 feature extraction and classification applied to a dataset of thyroid ultrasound images. The objective was
410 to detect malignant thyroid nodules that could cause cancer.

411 In [Yi et al., 2017], the authors propose a novel diagnostic system to detect thyroid cancer, with a
412 particular focus on thyroid nodule risk assessment. The method employs convolutional neural networks to
413 analyze ultrasound images.

414 The contribution in [Lyu and Haque, 2018] embeds high dimensional RNA-Sequence data into bi-
 415 dimensional images and uses a convolutional neural network to detect various types of cancer,
 including thyroid cancer.

417 In [Li et al., 2019a], the authors employ deep convolutional neural networks to enhance the diagnostic
 418 accuracy of thyroid cancer through the analysis of sonographic images coming from clinical ultrasounds.
 419 Ultrasound images are also used in [Poudel et al., 2019] to feed convolutional neural networks for
 420 texture classification of anatomical structures of the thyroid for detecting general changes of its shape.
 421 Conversely, in [Moran et al., 2018] thermograms are exploited by convolutional neural networks for the
 422 early identification of thyroid nodules that can possibly cause cancers.

423 [Guo and Du, 2019] also use ultrasound images of the standard plane of the
 424 thyroid to evaluate its general status by means of deep convolutional neural networks. In particular, a
 425 18-layer ResNet achieves the best results according to the authors.

426 In [Shi et al., 2020], the authors integrate domain knowledge, extracted from standardized terminology,
 427 and deep learning (Auxiliary Classifier Generative Adversarial Network) into synthetic medical image
 428 augmentation to classify ultrasonography thyroid nodules.

429 In [Lu et al., 2020], hyperthyroidism is tackled, with a particular focus on its progression, by means
 430 of enhanced LSTMs with an adaptive loss function. The analyzed data regard blood test information in
 431 the early stage from a Shanghai hospital.

432 Cordes et al. [2021] detect thyroid malignant nodules using artificial neural networks on
 433 ultrasonographic characteristics obtaining an accuracy of 84.4%. Similarly, Jin et al. [2021] analyze
 434 clinical ultrasound imaging data in five hospitals in China through artificial neural networks obtaining
 435 performance between 80% and 90%. Ahmed et al. [2022] use artificial deep neural networks on
 436 the concatenation of 6 databases containing data collected from Garvan Institute in Sydney, Australia to
 437 discover thyroid cancer. The main and only shown result is the accuracy of 98%; and, the results and
 438 the optimization process are not described in detail.

439 Ananthi et al. [2022] and Khan [2021] exploit convolutional neural networks to try to detect the onset
 440 of thyroid dysfunctions. The former employs x-ray images to prevent hypo- and hyperthyroidism as well
 441 as malignant nodules and other dysfunctions reaching a 99% of accurate prediction, while the latter only
 442 focus on hypothyroidism and achieve 98% accuracy.

443 Liu et al. [2021b] tackle the issue of malignant nodes identification using convolutional neural
 444 networks as well. In this case, they apply information fusion techniques on ultrasound images and radio
 445 frequency signals, achieving better results than using only ultrasound images in detecting malignant
 446 thyroid nodules.

447 In [Santillan et al., 2021] and [Song et al., 2022] the focus is on the detection of malignant
 448 thyroid nodules which could possibly generate cancer. The former apply convolutional and recurrent
 449 neural networks to Fourier Transform infrared spectroscopy data, achieving accuracy of 98.06%, while
 the latter employ a feature-enhanced dual branch convolutional neural network on

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451 ultrasound images of the thyroid gland obtaining the best mean average precision of identification equal
452 to 92.5%.

453 Chu et al. [2021] face the issue of malignant thyroid nodule detection too, employing a mark-guided
454 ultrasound deep network segmentation model which, in turn, is based on different types of convolutional
455 neural networks. They achieve a segmentation accuracy equal to 97.85%, improving the outcomes of
456 other standard convolutional neural networks.

457 Yang et al. [2021] use convolutional neural networks on thyroid scintigrams to detect general
458 dysfunctions of the gland and report an accuracy of 92.73%. Similarly, Pi et al. [2022] exploit
459 convolutional neural networks and the fusion of deep and handcrafted features from thyroid scintigraphy to
460 early detect thyroid dysfunctions. They were able to reach an accuracy equal to 91.18% and an f-measure
461 equal to 88.11%.

462 In [Zhao et al., 2022], semantic consistency generative adversarial network are employed to detect
463 malignant thyroid nodules using ultrasound data. The proposed method is claimed to reach an accuracy
464 equal to 94.30% and an Area Under the Curve equal to 97.02%.

465 Hosseinzadeh et al. [2021] use a multiple multilayer perceptron neural network to identify hypo- and
466 hyperthyroidism in the context of Internet of Medical Things, reaching an accuracy of 99%. Saktheeswari
467 and Balasubramanian [2021] exploit an autoencoder-based neural network using also a Multi-layer Tree-
468 based State Machine to detect malignant thyroid nodules as well as hypo- and hyperthyroidism with a
469 final mean accuracy equal to 98.90%.

470 Finally, Ai et al. [2022] apply a recent type of neural networks, i.e., capsule networks, on ultrasonic
471 thyroid images to detect possible thyroid cancer traces achieving a top accuracy equal to 81.06%.

472 5.1.6 Ensembles

473 In [Yadav and Pal, 2022], an ensemble of different machine learning techniques is employed to detect
474 thyroid hormone disease. The ensemble uses Boosting, Bagging, Stacking, and Voting and it is aimed at
475 identifying hypothyroidism patients.

476 In [Alam et al., 2020], the authors present a novel dynamic ensemble learning of neural networks.
477 It provides an automatic design of the ensemble, a maintaining of accuracy and diversity of the composing
478 neural networks, and very few parameters to be designed by the user. The technique is successfully
479 employed to detect hypothyroidism, hyperthyroidism, and euthyroidism disease.

480 Priyadharsini and Sasikala [2022] exploit Adaboost and Bagging as ensemble machine learning
481 methods to correctly detect hypo- and hyperthyroidism. Bagging resulted in better performance as regards
482 all the main metrics: accuracy 99.20%, precision 99.9%, f-measure 99.8%.

483 Finally, Yadav and Pal [2022] exploit Boosting, Bagging, Stacking, and Voting ensembles to detect
484 hypothyroidism achieving a top accuracy equal to 99.86% and a top recall equal to 99.88%.

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485 5.1.7 Other Learning Approaches

486 In Devi and Anita [2018], a semi-supervised approach is used to identify a general thyroid disease by
487 analyzing tongue images.

488 In Priya and Manavalan [2018], a Weighted Extreme Learning Machine technique hybridized with
489 Invasive Weed optimization is used to detect general thyroid disease.

490 Conversely, in Pavya and Srinivasan [2017], filter-based and wrapper-based feature selection methods
491 are applied to four classifiers, namely, MultiLayer Perceptron Back Propagation Neural Network, Support
492 Vector Machine, and Extreme Learning Machine, in order to detect both hypo- and hyperthyroidism.

493 In Ma et al. [2018], the authors introduce a novel hybrid diagnosis system, integrating local fisher
494 discriminant analysis and kernelized extreme learning machine method for thyroid disease diagnosis
495 (hypo- and hyper thyroidism).

496 Finally, in Baccour [2018], a new classification system for both hypo- and hyperthyroidism and based
497 on fused VIKOR and TOPSIS is proposed.

498 5.2 RQ2: What datasets about thyroid diseases are used in the considered AI solutions?

499 In this section, we describe the main characteristics of the datasets used in the surveyed papers.

500 In Figure 6, we show the availability of the datasets used in the papers we considered in this systematic
501 review. As one can see, the number of private or non-available datasets is [high](#) (56.98%) compared
502 with the number of publicly available ones.

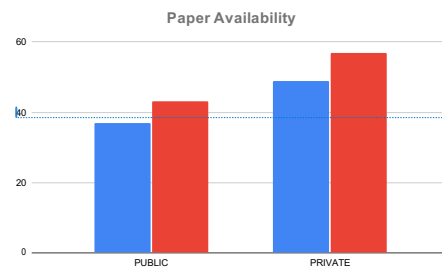


Figure 6. Availability of the datasets in the surveyed papers (blue: number of papers, red: percentage).

503 Moreover, the most used dataset is the UCI one⁵ (25 times), followed by far by private datasets of
504 Shanghai hospitals (5 times) and then by the public KEEL dataset⁶ (4 times).

505 Finally, in Table 4, we present some statistics about the main characteristics of the datasets used in
506 the surveyed papers. They show that the average number of instances per dataset is about 5705 samples,
507 while the average number of features is about 26,000, but in this case we have to consider that for image

⁵<https://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/Thyroid+Disease>

⁶<https://sci2s.ugr.es/keel/dataset.php?cod=66>

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Table 4. Statistics of the number of instances and of features in the considered datasets.

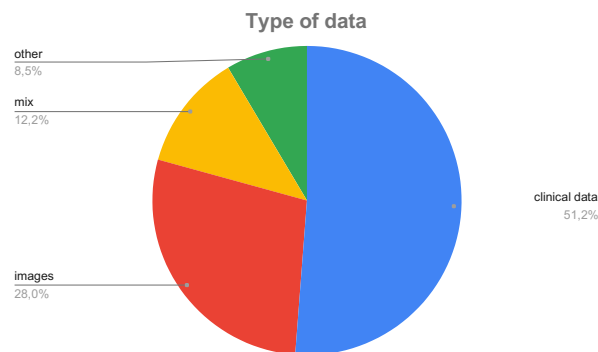
	Instances	Features
Average	5705	25674
Maximum	92062	711680
Minimum	92	4

508 datasets the number of features was considered equal to the number of pixels, thus making the statistics
509 increase very much.

510 5.3 RQ3: What data types are used to detect and classify thyroid diseases using the considered 511 AI techniques?

512 In this section, we analyze the datasets types considered in the surveyed papers.

513 In Figure 7, we show a pie chart to highlight the different percentages of data used in the surveyed
514 papers. As it can be easily inferred, the majority of the considered features (51.22%) is made of clinical
515 data, e.g., data from the blood analysis, while 28.05% of the surveyed papers use images of the thyroid,
516 and only a small percentage (12.2%) exploit both types of data.

**Figure 7.** Type of data used in the considered datasets.

517 Table 5 shows the occurrences of the ten most used features in the surveyed articles. As it is evident,
518 the most used feature is the thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH) with 39 occurrences, followed by
519 triiodothyronine (T3) hormone, the age, and the gender of the subject. Other very used features regard the
520 pixel value (20), the only feature used whenever image datasets are employed, as well as the thyroxine,
521 also called T4, like FTI (Free T4 Index) and T4U (T4 Uptake). Pregnancy status is the least important
522 feature in the study context.

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522 list are occupied by the p

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Table 5. Occurrences of the top ten features used in the surveyed papers.

Feature	Occurrences
TSH	39
T3	28
Age	28
Gender	27
Pixel value	20
TT4	19
FTI	18
T4U	18
Pregnancy	14
T4	13

Commented [A28]: Please provide abbreviations in table footnotes.

523 6 DISCUSSION

524 In this section, we perform a brief discussion about the main outcomes of the systematic review, ~~and~~
some important open research directions.

526 One of the first results is ~~that~~ a great majority of works focus on supervised methods. Therefore,
the development of novel

528 and effective techniques employing also ~~unsupervised or semi-supervised approaches~~ is surely a need in
529 the application of artificial intelligence techniques to the automated classification of thyroid dysfunctions
530 and diseases.

531 As regards the tackled diseases, there is a clear prevalence of hypo- and hyperthyroidism. Therefore,
532 more focused ~~scientific work~~, especially regarding euthyroid pathology and cancers, should be carried out
in

533 order to foster ~~use~~ of AI techniques in the ~~detection of thyroid dysfunction~~.

535 The average accuracy in detecting thyroid-related diseases is ~~far from optimal~~; thus, given also
536 ~~higher use~~ of neural networks among the surveyed techniques, a greater focus on deep neural
537 networks and the careful optimization of their parameters should be the topics of future research papers.

538 As regards the datasets, too few thereof are publicly available, and among these, the usage of the UCI
539 dataset, by now rather obsolete (1987), is dominant. The need of novel, public, and updated datasets
540 is, thus, compelling, together with the application of proper feature selection and feature reduction
541 techniques.

542 Finally, in the surveyed datasets, the usage of clinical data is prevalent, thus, also in the view of a
543 greater usage of various deep learning techniques, a greater development of public image datasets to be
544 used with proper deep convolutional neural networks should be encouraged.

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527 techniques requiring the labeling in advance of the whole dataset...

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534 of the thyroid gland.

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545 7 CONCLUSIONS

546 In this paper, we have performed a detailed systematic review about the application of artificial intelligence
547 techniques to the study, analysis, and classification of various thyroid-related diseases and dysfunctions.

548 First of all, we have summarized some similar reviews and pointed out the necessity of the systematic
549 review we have carried out.

550 Subsequently, we have detailed the research process we employed, describing the research questions,
551 the used databases and the employed queries. We have also described in detail the different filtering
552 phases that led us to find out the 74 analyzed papers.

553 In the end, we have presented and discussed in depth the results of the systematic review, in order to
554 answer to the proposed research questions: the tackled thyroid diseases, the used artificial intelligence
555 techniques, the used datasets, the types of the thyroid-related features.

556 A final discussion has pointed out the main open research directions, as well as the issues still to be
557 solved in order to make artificial intelligence a viable solution for the quick diagnosis and classification of
558 any thyroid-related disease or dysfunction.

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564 data, in the writing of the report, and in the decision to submit the article for publication.

565 AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

566 Lerina Aversano: Conceptualization, Methodology, Supervision. Mario Luca Bernardi: Validation,
567 Writing - Review & Editing. Marta Cimitile and Riccardo Pecori: Conceptualization, Methodology,
568 Supervision, Writing - Review & Editing. Riccardo Pecori and Andrea Maiellaro: Formal analysis,
569 Investigation, Resources, Data curation, Writing - Original Draft.

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