

# Role of Artificial Intelligence in Lung Cancer Screening: Reducing False Positive Results and Improving Diagnostic Efficiency

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## Abstract

The introduction of low-dose computed tomography (LDCT) for lung cancer screening has faced the problem of a high rate of false positives, leading to unnecessary invasive procedures and an increased burden on the healthcare system. Artificial intelligence systems have the potential to optimize this process, but their actual effectiveness in clinical practice needs to be studied. A retrospective study of 100 LDCT studies with a verified diagnosis was conducted. Four radiologists (an expert and three residents) independently analyzed the studies without using the Philips IntelliSpace Discovery 3.0 AI system. Sensitivity, specificity, frequency of false positive results, analysis time, and interoperative consistency were evaluated. The use of an AI assistant significantly improved the performance of residents: sensitivity increased by 11.4-14.3%, and the frequency of false positive results decreased by 6.1-10.7%. The analysis time was reduced by 26.6-35.1% for all specialists. Interoperation

consistency increased from 0.62 to 0.81. No significant changes have been identified for the expert. There was a significant reduction in false-positive conclusions of categories 4A and 4B on the Lung-RADS scale. The integration of artificial intelligence into lung LDCT analysis significantly improves the efficiency of novice specialists, reduces diagnostic time, and reduces the frequency of clinically significant false positive results, which is especially important for mass screening.

**Keywords:** Artificial intelligence, Lung cancer screening, Low-dose computed tomography, False positive results, Decision support system, Lung-RADS

## Introduction

Lung cancer remains one of the most pressing medical and social problems of modern oncology, occupying a leading position in terms of morbidity and mortality in the world (Balditsyna *et al.*, 2019; Thai *et al.*, 2021; Harðardóttir *et al.*, 2022). The high mortality rate in this type of malignant neoplasm is mainly due to the late diagnosis of the disease, when the tumor reaches widespread stages and radical treatment becomes impossible (Alnemer *et al.*, 2022; Deshpand *et al.*, 2022; Kumar *et al.*, 2022; Spirito *et al.*, 2022; Prada & Ciavoi, 2024; Smolarz *et al.*, 2025; Tbahriti *et al.*, 2025). In this regard, a key task aimed at improving prognosis and reducing mortality is to detect lung cancer at early, asymptomatic stages, when therapy options are most effective (Nooreldeen & Bach, 2021; Lee & Kazerooni, 2022; AlHussain *et al.*, 2023; Maneea *et al.*, 2024). **Figure 1** shows a diagram of the stages of lung screening.

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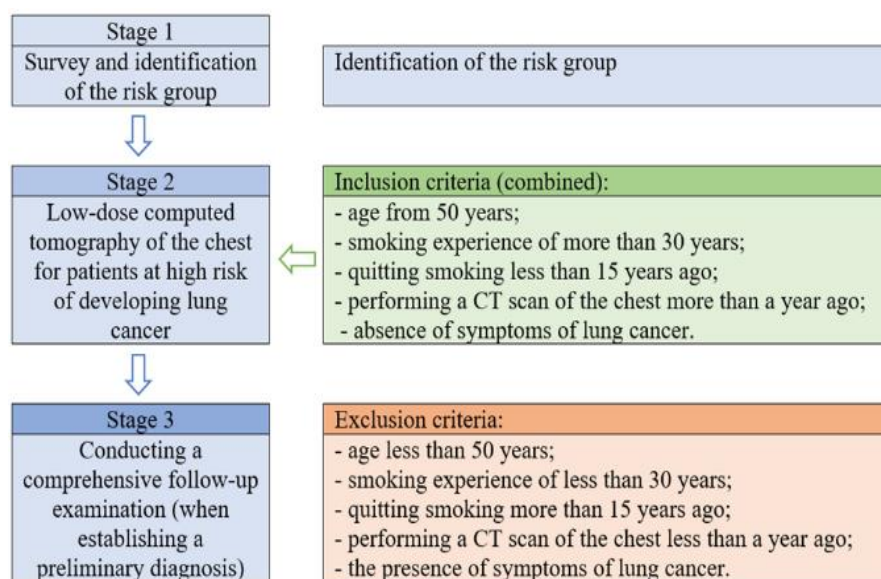
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**Figure 1.** Stages of lung cancer screening

The notion of systematic screening of high-risk populations provided a solution to this dilemma (Saab *et al.*, 2022). Large-scale randomized controlled trials, such as the National Lung Screening Trial (NLST) in the United States and the Dutch-Belgian NELSON study, have yielded convincing results: annual screening with low-dose computed tomography (LDCT) reduces lung cancer mortality by 20-24% when compared to chest X-ray (Oudkerk *et al.*, 2021; Adams *et al.*, 2023; Pan *et al.*, 2023; Zhong *et al.*, 2024). These findings served as the foundation for the integration of LDCT screening programs into clinical recommendations and real-world healthcare practice in a number of countries (Mazzone *et al.*, 2021; Abdelmuhsin *et al.*, 2022; Fiodorova *et al.*, 2022; Lam *et al.*, 2023; Zakinyan *et al.*, 2023; Lam *et al.*, 2024; Negreiros *et al.*, 2024; Wolf *et al.*, 2024).

However, significant practical and economic obstacles have arisen in the way of widespread implementation of screening. The central problem was the high detection rate of indeterminate pulmonary nodules, the vast majority of which subsequently turn out to be benign (Dickson *et al.*, 2022; Lancaster *et al.*, 2022; Masquelin *et al.*, 2025). According to NLST data, the proportion of false positive results in the first round of screening reached 96.4% (Mao *et al.*, 2025). A false positive result is defined as the detection of a CT scan of a tumor that is interpreted as suspicious of malignancy and requires additional examination but is not confirmed as cancer during a certain follow-up period (most often 1 year) (Kuś *et al.*, 2014; Hammer *et al.*, 2022; Lancaster *et al.*, 2022).

The occurrence of false positive results entails a cascade of negative consequences:

1. Medical risks: Appointment of invasive diagnostic procedures such as contrast-enhanced multidirectional CT, positron emission tomography (PET-CT), and in extreme cases, transthoracic or bronchoscopic biopsy. Each of these procedures carries potential iatrogenic risks (radiation exposure, biopsy complications, including pneumothorax and

bleeding) (Bradley *et al.*, 2021; Bonney *et al.*, 2022; Michael & Engels, 2025).

2. Psychological stress: Obtaining an "alarming" result causes long-term psychoemotional stress, anxiety, and the so-called "diagnostic odyssey" in patients—a difficult period of uncertainty until the final verification of the diagnosis (Damhus *et al.*, 2021; Siwik *et al.*, 2022; Tian *et al.*, 2022).
3. Economic burden: Additional diagnostic tests significantly increase the total cost of the screening program, putting a strain on the healthcare system and calling into question its cost-effectiveness (Vergnenegre & Chouaid, 2021; İlhan *et al.*, 2022; Mobeen & Dawood, 2022; Attenborough *et al.*, 2023; Cirik *et al.*, 2023; Morris *et al.*, 2024).

Thus, one of the main tasks of a modern screening program is to find a balance between maximum sensitivity (the ability to identify all truly positive cases of cancer) and high specificity (the ability to avoid false alarms). Traditionally, this balance depends on the qualifications and experience of a radiologist, who must visually analyze huge amounts of data (hundreds and thousands of slices per study), which is a laborious process prone to fatigue, subjectivity, and variability of interpretation (Kates *et al.*, 2021; Van De Luecht & Reed, 2021; Li *et al.*, 2025).

The development of artificial intelligence (AI) technologies, in particular deep learning methods for image analysis, has opened a new era in medical imaging (Li *et al.*, 2022; Huang *et al.*, 2023). Computer vision systems trained on extensive datasets with annotations have demonstrated outstanding abilities in solving problems of object detection, segmentation, and classification (Li *et al.*, 2022; Chen *et al.*, 2023). In radiology, AI algorithms have been used to create decision support systems (DSS) designed to assist the doctor (Hosni *et al.*, 2020).

In relation to lung cancer screening for LDCT, AI-DSS solves several key tasks:

- Automatic nodule detection: Algorithms with high sensitivity find all potential formations, including small and low-contrast ones that may be missed by the human eye (Aresta *et al.*, 2020).
- Automatic quantification: AI accurately measures the volume, density, and diameter of the nodule, eliminating the subjectivity of manual measurements. This is especially critical for assessing growth dynamics in subsequent examinations (Wong *et al.*, 2025).
- Risk stratification: Modern algorithms not only find nodules but also assign them the probability of malignancy (for example, on the Lung-RADS scale), helping the doctor to rank the findings by priority (Ten Haaf *et al.*, 2021).

Theoretically, the introduction of AI should not only increase the sensitivity of screening by reducing the number of missed cancers but also increase its specificity, making it possible to more confidently characterize nodules as benign and thereby reduce the number of false positive results (Chassagnon *et al.*, 2023; Quanyang *et al.*, 2024).

Despite the rapid development of commercial and academic AI solutions, their integration into the real clinical workflow requires careful validation (Ansari *et al.*, 2022; Ansari *et al.*, 2024; Samyuktha & Syam, 2024; Suchy & Jurkowski, 2024). The question of how exactly an AI assistant affects the work of a radiologist in the context of the sensitivity/specificity balance remains open. Will automatic detection lead to an increase in the number of LPR due to overdiagnosis of minor findings? Or, on the contrary, will accurate quantification and standardization of the approach reduce subjective variability and reduce the cascade of unnecessary follow-up studies?

Validating the algorithms themselves against expert judgment or histology is the main focus of the majority of current research (Zhang & Chen, 2022; de Margerie-Mellon & Chassagnon, 2023). In actuality, though, AI collaborates with doctors rather than replacing them. Because of this, it is crucial to compare the efficacy of the "doctor + AI" combination to the solo work of a physician.

The goal of this study is to compare the diagnostic efficacy and frequency of false positive outcomes in a radiologist's independent interpretation of lung LDCT with his work utilizing an AI-based decision support system.

The findings of this study will be extremely useful in justifying the incorporation of AI technologies into routine screening programs, allowing us to predict their true impact on early lung cancer detection, as well as the healthcare economy and patients' psychological comfort (Rani *et al.*, 2023; Ludovichetti *et al.*, 2024).

## Materials and Methods

A retrospective cross-sectional investigation was carried out using an examination of the LDCT research database. The local Ethics Committee of the Medical Faculty of Ingush State University accepted the study (Protocol No. EC-45/2023). Due to the

retroactive nature of the work and the complete depersonalization of data, informed permission was not required.

The study included LDCT studies of 100 patients who met the criteria for lung cancer screening (age 50-80 years, smoking index  $\geq 30$  packs/year), performed between January 2022 and June 2025 at the Republican Oncological Dispensary named after G.M. Vedzizhev (Republic of Ingushetia, Russia).

Inclusion criteria: the presence of an LDCT study performed on a Siemens Somatom go.Now CT scanner, the presence of at least one lung nodule measuring 4-30 mm, and the presence of a verified final diagnosis. Exclusion criteria: pronounced examination artifacts, tumors larger than 30 mm, absence of histological verification or 24-month X-ray follow-up.

The final sample included 35 studies with malignant nodules (histologically verified by adenocarcinoma or squamous cell carcinoma), 45 studies with benign nodules (stable for  $\geq 24$  months), and 20 studies without significant nodules.

All the studies were performed on a Siemens Somatom go CT scanner. Now, according to the standard low-dose CT protocol: voltage 100 kV, current with automatic modulation (Care Dose 4D, range 30-50 Wt), slice thickness 1.0 mm with reconstruction by the Br40f algorithm, and estimated effective radiation dose  $1.2 \pm 0.3$  mSv.

The Philips IntelliSpace Discovery 3.0 artificial intelligence decision support system with the Lung Texture Analysis module was used. The deep learning-based algorithm provides automatic detection, segmentation, and quantitative characterization of pulmonary nodules, including calculation of volume parameters and automatic categorization according to the Lung-RADS scale version 2022.

Four radiologists participated in the study: one expert with more than 15 years of experience (MD, Professor of the Department of Radiation Diagnostics) and three second- and third-year residents. The assessment was conducted in two rounds with a cooling period of 8 weeks. In the first round, all radiologists independently analyzed the studies in the Sectra PACS software version 22.1 without access to the results of AI analysis. For each case, the presence and characteristics of suspicious nodules, the Lung-RADS category, recommendations for further tactics, and the time of analysis were recorded. In the second round, after a cooling-off period, the same radiologists reanalyzed the studies in random order with access to the AI analysis results displayed as overlay markings in the PACS interface. The same parameters were recorded as in the first round.

The final diagnosis was established on the basis of histological verification for malignant nodules (biopsy under CT navigation or material after surgery) (Patatou *et al.*, 2022; Chen *et al.*, 2024; Seoane-Viaño *et al.*, 2024). For benign nodules, the criterion of absence of growth for 24 months was used according to dynamic LDCT observation data. The conclusions for the group without significant nodules were verified by a consensus decision of two independent experts who did not participate in the main study.

The primary endpoints were sensitivity, specificity, and frequency of false positive results. McNemar's test for paired proportions was used to compare diagnostic parameters between rounds. Interoperational consistency was assessed using the Kappa-Fleiss coefficient (Gwet, 2021). The time cost comparison was performed using the Student's paired t-test. The statistical analysis was performed in the IBM SPSS Statistics 29.0 and R 4.2.1 software environments. The statistical significance level was set to  $p < 0.05$ .

## Results and Discussion

The analysis of diagnostic effectiveness was carried out on the basis of 100 studies, which included 80 nodules (35 malignant and 45 benign) and 20 cases without significant changes. The indicators of four radiologists were compared: an expert and three residents with an independent assessment and with the use of an AI assistant. **Table 1** shows a comparison of diagnostic parameters of radiologists without AI and with an AI assistant. **Table 2** shows the time required to analyze a single study. **Tables 3 and 4** contain data on the distribution of Lung-RADS categories for false positive results and interoperable consistency.

**Table 1.** Comparison of diagnostic parameters of radiologists without AI and with an AI assistant

| Indicator                           | Group      | Without AI (%) | With AI (%) | p-value |
|-------------------------------------|------------|----------------|-------------|---------|
| Sensitivity                         | Expert     | 94.3           | 97.1        | 0.317   |
|                                     | Resident 1 | 80.0           | 91.4        | 0.021   |
|                                     | Resident 2 | 77.1           | 88.6        | 0.039   |
|                                     | Resident 3 | 74.3           | 85.7        | 0.046   |
| Specificity                         | Expert     | 92.3           | 93.8        | 0.564   |
|                                     | Resident 1 | 83.1           | 89.2        | 0.033   |
|                                     | Resident 2 | 80.0           | 86.2        | 0.041   |
|                                     | Resident 3 | 78.5           | 84.6        | 0.048   |
| Frequency of false positive results | Expert     | 7.7            | 6.2         | 0.564   |
|                                     | Resident 1 | 16.9           | 10.8        | 0.033   |
|                                     | Resident 2 | 20.0           | 13.8        | 0.041   |
|                                     | Resident 3 | 21.5           | 15.4        | 0.048   |

**Table 2.** Time spent on the analysis of one study (seconds)

| Group      | Without AI (M ± SD) | With AI (M ± SD) | p-value |
|------------|---------------------|------------------|---------|
| Expert     | 128 ± 23            | 94 ± 18          | <0.001  |
| Resident 1 | 215 ± 34            | 142 ± 27         | <0.001  |
| Resident 2 | 238 ± 41            | 156 ± 32         | <0.001  |
| Resident 3 | 251 ± 39            | 163 ± 29         | <0.001  |

**Table 3.** Distribution of Lung-RADS categories for false positive results

| Category | Without AI (n=52) | With AI (n=36) | Δ, %  |
|----------|-------------------|----------------|-------|
| 2        | 8 (15.4%)         | 12 (33.3%)     | +17.9 |
| 3        | 21 (40.4%)        | 16 (44.4%)     | +4.0  |
| 4A       | 15 (28.8%)        | 6 (16.7%)      | -12.1 |

|    |           |          |      |
|----|-----------|----------|------|
| 4B | 8 (15.4%) | 2 (5.6%) | -9.8 |
|----|-----------|----------|------|

**Table 4.** Inter-operator consistency (Fleiss' kappa)

| Condition  | All doctors | Residents | Expert vs Residents |
|------------|-------------|-----------|---------------------|
| Without AI | 0.62        | 0.58      | 0.71                |
| With AI    | 0.81        | 0.79      | 0.85                |

The study demonstrates the significant impact of the AI assistant system on the diagnostic parameters of radiologists in the analysis of lung LDCT. The most pronounced effect was observed among residents, which indicates the potential role of AI as a tool for standardization and training.

The increase in sensitivity by 11.4-14.3% in the group of residents ( $p < 0.05$ ) is consistent with the data from other studies and is explained by the AI's ability to detect small and low-contrast nodules, which are often overlooked by inexperienced specialists (Zhu *et al.*, 2022; Mir *et al.*, 2023; Weaver *et al.*, 2025). It is important to note that AI did not show a significant improvement in the expert's performance ( $\Delta + 2.8\%$ ,  $p = 0.317$ ), which confirms the thesis about the ceiling effect for highly qualified specialists (Hunter *et al.*, 2022; Esmailzadeh, 2024).

The decrease in the frequency of false positive results by 6.1-10.7% in the group of residents is of particular clinical interest. The analysis of the structure of false positive results revealed a significant reduction in categories 4A and 4B (**Table 3**), which directly affects the reduction in the number of unnecessary invasive procedures. This effect can be explained by an accurate quantitative assessment of the volume and density of nodules by the AI system, which reduces subjective overdiagnosis (Callister *et al.*, 2021; Yankelevitz & Henschke, 2021; Xie *et al.*, 2025).

Reducing the analysis time by 26.6-35.1% across all groups is of great practical importance for the implementation of screening programs. Saving 60-90 seconds on the study during mass screening can significantly increase the capacity of radiology departments (Hendrix *et al.*, 2022).

The increase in the Kappa Fleiss coefficient from 0.62 to 0.81 indicates the important role of AI in standardizing the interpretation of research. The improvement in consistency between residents is particularly significant (from 0.58 to 0.79), which indicates the potential of AI as a tool to reduce interoperative variability (Sadoughi *et al.*, 2022; Vanacore & Pellegrino, 2022; Robey *et al.*, 2023).

Limitations of the study include a retrospective design and a relatively small sample size. Further prospective studies are required to assess the long-term impact of AI on clinical outcomes and the cost-effectiveness of screening programs.

The introduction of an AI assistant into the practice of lung LDCT analysis significantly improves the diagnostic performance of novice specialists, reduces the study time, and increases the standardization of diagnostics. The greatest benefit from the introduction of AI is expected in institutions with a high proportion of young professionals and a large volume of screening studies.

## Conclusion

The study demonstrates the significant potential of integrating artificial intelligence systems into the clinical practice of analyzing low-dose computed tomography of the lungs. The results obtained indicate a comprehensive positive effect of the AI assistant on the diagnostic process. The most pronounced effect was observed in the group of residents, where the use of a decision support system increased sensitivity by 11.4-14.3% and reduced the frequency of false positive results by 6.1-10.7%. Of particular clinical importance is the reduction in the number of false positive conclusions of categories 4A and 4B on the Lung-RADS scale, which directly leads to a decrease in the number of unjustified invasive procedures.

An important practical result was a reduction in the analysis time of one study by 26.6-35.1% across all groups, which can significantly increase the capacity of radiology departments during mass screening examinations. The increase in the coefficient of interoperative consistency from 0.62 to 0.81 confirms the role of AI systems as a tool for standardizing diagnostic approaches and reducing subjective variability in the interpretation of results.

The information gathered allows for the recommendation that artificial intelligence technologies be incorporated into the standard clinical procedures of organizations carrying out screening initiatives for the early diagnosis of lung cancer. In medical organizations with a large number of young professionals and a substantial quantity of screening research, the employment of an AI assistant can be most useful. The evaluation of the cost-effectiveness of screening programs and the long-term effects of AI deployment on patient clinical outcomes, as well as the creation of adaptive learning systems with AI technology, are promising areas for more study.

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