
Application progress and clinical translation of artificial intelligence-assisted endoscopic diagnosis of early esophageal squamous cell carcinoma

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Abstract

1 Early and accurate diagnosis of esophageal squamous cell carcinoma (ESCC) is
2 key to improving patient outcomes. Endoscopy plays a central role in its early diag-
3 nosis and treatment. Despite advances in imaging technology, clinical challenges
4 remain, including missed diagnosis of flat lesions and subjective variability among
5 physicians. Artificial intelligence has demonstrated transformative potential in en-
6 doscopic diagnosis, offering an effective solution to overcome existing bottlenecks
7 and improve the accuracy of early ESCC identification. This article systematically
8 reviews the clinical value of artificial intelligence in ESCC detection, classifica-
9 tion, and invasion depth prediction, aiming to identify the technical advantages,
10 bottlenecks in clinical translation, and future research directions.

11 1 Introduction

12 Esophageal squamous cell carcinoma (ESCC) accounts for 85% of the global esophageal cancer
13 incidence. Early diagnosis offers a 95% five-year survival rate. However, traditional endoscopy relies
14 on physician experience, resulting in a 7.3%-9.4% miss rate for early lesions. Artificial intelligence
15 offers a new paradigm for improving early ESCC diagnosis by analyzing endoscopic image features
16 using deep learning convolutional neural networks. This article reviews the clinical value of artificial
17 intelligence in ESCC detection, classification, and invasion depth prediction, aiming to identify the
18 technical advantages, bottlenecks in clinical translation, and future research directions.

19 2 Deep learning-assisted lesion detection

20 2.1 Single modality

21 2.1.1 WLI mode

22 Timely detection of esophageal squamous cell carcinoma (ESCC) is crucial to improving patient
23 prognosis. White light endoscopy (WLI), as the main means of clinical screening, faces challenges
24 such as insufficient sensitivity and specificity (sensitivity as low as 62%) and dependence on physician
25 experience for diagnosis especially in resource-limited areas^[1-4]. To break through this bottleneck,
26 many studies have focused on developing artificial intelligence systems based on deep convolutional
27 neural networks (DCNNs) to improve the detection and localization efficiency of ESCC under WLI.
28 The multicenter DCNN model developed by Liu et al. achieved a sensitivity of 92.6% and an
29 accuracy of 85.7% in internal validation, and maintained a sensitivity of 89.5% and an accuracy of
30 84.5% in external validation. Its accuracy of lesion boundary delineation (93.4%) was significantly
31 better than that of senior physicians (78.6%), and the processing time of a single image was only
32 17 milliseconds, which was more than 5000 times higher than manual efficiency. This system filled

the technical gap of real-time boundary delineation for WLI for the first time^[1]. The progressive multi-granularity DCNN model constructed by Tang et al. achieved a sensitivity of 97.9% and a specificity of 88.6% (AUC 0.954) in the internal validation set, and maintained an AUC of more than 0.925 in the external validation set. Its outstanding advantage is that it can distinguish ESCC from reflux esophagitis/normal mucosa, and still maintains 100% sensitivity in low-quality images. After the model is assisted, the sensitivity of junior endoscopists increased by 21.1%^[2]. Cai et al. verified the clinical auxiliary value of their deep neural network computer-assisted detection system. The system sensitivity and accuracy reached 97.8% and 91.4% respectively, which were significantly higher than those of the junior physician group (77.2%). After assistance, the sensitivity of physicians at all levels increased by 15%, especially the accuracy of the junior group improved by 11.6%, highlighting the role of AI in shortening the experience gap^[3]. Feng et al. further broke through the limitation of equipment dependence and developed the first universal AI system compatible with Olympus and Fujifilm dual platforms. The model, based on the bilinear pooling attention network, achieved 96.64% sensitivity and 95.35% specificity in internal verification, and maintained 91.60% sensitivity in external verification. Its lesion heat map localization assistance increased the specificity of junior physicians by 39.34% in external verification^[4]. These studies have jointly verified the core advantages of AI models in detecting ESCC under WLI: the sensitivity (89.5%-97.8%) and accuracy (84.5%-91.4%) consistently surpass those of non-expert physicians, especially in terms of boundary delineation, which is about 15 percentage points higher than manual delineation^[1, 4]. At the same time, all models achieve millisecond-level image processing speed and have the potential for real-time application; however, the performance differences between different models are reflected in edge tasks. For example, the Liu model performs outstandingly in boundary intersection over union (mIoU 70.3%)^[1], while the Feng model demonstrates cross-platform generalization capabilities^[4]. The main reasons for the differences lie in the model architecture (such as whether the boundary segmentation module is integrated) and the diversity of training data (such as whether images of multiple brands of equipment are included). Comprehensive analysis shows that AI systems promote clinical practice in two ways: first, they directly provide high-precision diagnosis (with sensitivity comparable to that of expert physicians); second, they serve as auxiliary tools to significantly improve the diagnostic level of physicians at all levels (with an average sensitivity increase of 15%-21.1%)^[1-4]. However, the current researches are mainly concentrated on static image verification, lack of prospective research on dynamic video. In the future, it is necessary to integrate multimodal data and promote hardware integration to achieve large-scale implementation^[1, 2, 4].

2.1.2 NBI mode

Magnifying endoscopy with narrow band imaging (ME-NBI) is the gold standard for the diagnosis of early-stage ESCC. It visualizes the morphological changes of intrapapillary capillary loops (IPCLs) in the mucosal surface, enabling microvascular classification (Japan Endoscopic Society classification, types A/B1/B2/B3). However, IPCL classification is highly dependent on endoscopist experience, with significant interobserver variability (interobserver diagnostic agreement kappa values are only 0.40-0.60). AI is urgently needed to improve diagnostic standardization. The double-labeling fully convolutional network developed by Zhao et al. first achieved pixel-level segmentation and classification of IPCLs, achieving a lesion-level accuracy of 89.2% in 1383 esophageal lesions, close to the level of experts with more than 15 years of experience (92.0%), and significantly improved the misdiagnosis problem of B1/B2 (sensitivity 87.6%/93.9%)^[5]. Uema et al. further optimized microvascular classification by pre-training the ResNeXt-101 model. Their computer-aided diagnosis (CAD) system achieved an overall accuracy of 84.2% on 747 ME-NBI images covering B3 vessels, especially improving the diagnostic accuracy of B2 (67% vs. 63.6% for physicians), and used Grad-CAM++ visualization to verify the decision-making focus on the vascular area^[6].

Multicenter studies have enhanced the generalization ability of AI models: the system developed by Yuan et al. based on the HRNet+OCR architecture achieved an accuracy of 89.8%-91.3% in the IPCL subtype classification in a cross-institutional validation set (7094 ME-NBI images), assisted junior physicians to improve the diagnostic accuracy by 6.5% (84.7% vs. 78.2%), and improved the observer consistency (Kappa value increased to 0.545)^[7]. Everson et al. constructed the first clinically interpretable convolutional neural network (CNN), which visualized the abnormal area of IPCL in real time through class activation maps (CAMs), and achieved an accuracy of 91.7% (AUC 95.8%) on 67,742 ME-NBI images, which was comparable to the performance of the European, American and Asian expert group (F1 score of Asian experts was 98%)^[8].

89 The difference in model performance stems from the architecture design and training strategy: early
90 studies used basic segmentation networks (such as fully convolutional network) to improve pixel-level
91 accuracy, while recent work introduced pre-trained models (ResNeXt, HRNet) and interpretable
92 modules to optimize classification robustness^[5-8]. Data scale and quality also affect generalization.
93 Cross-center validation (three hospitals) and B3 type sample enhancement (such as Uema and other
94 integrated learning strategies) effectively alleviate model bias^[6, 7]. Performance comparison shows
95 that B2 type blood vessels become a diagnostic bottleneck due to their large morphological variation
96 (physician accuracy rate of 63.6-67%), while the AI system significantly improves its recognition
97 ability through quantitative feature extraction (accuracy rate of 67-85.7%)^[5-7].

98 Overall, the AI diagnostic system for single-modality ME-NBI has achieved near-expert-level IPCL
99 classification performance. Real-time visualization aids (CAMs and ROI annotation) improve
100 diagnostic consistency among junior physicians and address the core difficulty of subjective variability
101 in the interpretation of type B2 vessels. Future efforts require lightweight design to adapt to primary
102 care devices and integrate video stream analysis for dynamic lesion assessment.

103 2.2 Bimodal or multimodal mode

104 Endoscopic diagnosis of early ESCC is highly dependent on physician experience. Conventional
105 WLI has a missed diagnosis rate of up to 6.4%. Single imaging modality has significant limitations,
106 so AI systems integrating multiple endoscopic modalities have become a research hotspot. Yuan
107 et al. developed an AI system based on a DCNN that simultaneously integrates four endoscopic
108 modes: WLI, non-ME NBI, iodine staining, and ME NBI. The system was trained and validated on
109 53,933 images and 142 videos from five centers. The system demonstrated excellent performance
110 in both internal and external validation sets (sensitivity 92.5–99.7%, specificity 78.5–89.0%, and
111 AUC 0.906–0.989), comparable to that of 11 experienced endoscopists overall. Furthermore, the
112 system demonstrated significantly higher sensitivity for epithelial-confined ESCC in the WLI mode
113 (90.8% vs 82.5%) than the endoscopists^[9]. The system achieved real-time video processing (60
114 frames per second) and could handle common clinical interferences such as mucus and bubbles^[9].
115 In subsequent studies, the team further optimized the algorithm and developed a new system based
116 on YOLACT++. Under real-time multimodal endoscopic imaging, it not only detected tiny (about 3
117 mm) flat ESCC, but also achieved accurate delineation of the lesion boundary. The system can also
118 be directly integrated into the endoscopic device^[10].

119 In addition to integrating more modes, different teams have explored the effectiveness of dual-
120 modality systems. The system developed by Guo et al. is specifically for the non-magnified and
121 magnified modes of NBI. It uses the SegNet architecture to generate real-time probability heat maps
122 (high-risk lesions are marked in yellow). The sensitivity of each lesion in video verification reached
123 100%, although the sensitivity of each frame of non-magnified video (60.8%) was lower than that
124 of magnified video (96.1%), mainly because motion blur affects feature extraction^[11]. Meng et al.
125 compared the performance differences between WLI and NBI dual modes. The CAD system based
126 on the improved YOLO v5 algorithm achieved an AUC of 0.982 on an independent test set. The
127 accuracy of the NBI mode (94.6%) was significantly higher than that of the WLI mode (89.5%).
128 In particular, flat lesions (Paris type 0-IIb) were more likely to be misjudged under WLI^[12]. The
129 system improved the diagnostic capabilities of non-expert physicians, and the accuracy of non-experts
130 increased from 78.3% to 88.2% after reference to CAD^[12].

131 The performance differences between different studies are closely related to the number of integrated
132 modalities, task complexity and algorithm selection. Multimodal systems (such as the Yuan study
133 that integrated four modalities^[9, 10]) optimized the overall performance through complementary
134 imaging features, especially in the detection of early cancer under WLI^[9]. In contrast, dual-modal
135 systems performed well in specific scenarios: NBI-specific systems achieved the highest sensitivity
136 per lesion (100%) for typical lesions but depended on image quality^[11], while WLI/NBI dual-modal
137 systems improved the recognition stability of flat lesions through algorithm improvements (such as
138 optimizing loss functions)^[12]. It is worth noting that all systems confirmed the auxiliary value of AI
139 for non-expert physicians and can narrow the gap in diagnostic experience^[9, 12]. Future directions
140 need to focus on real-time multimodal interaction (such as simultaneous display of AI results of
141 multiple imaging), algorithm generalization improvement (covering rare lesions) and prospective
142 clinical verification to promote the evolution of AI-assisted endoscopy from static image analysis to
143 dynamic multimodal integrated decision-making^[9-12].

144 **2.3 Real-time detection**

145 Currently, the development of real-time video diagnostic systems based on AI has become a research
146 hotspot. Representative studies have used CNNs to achieve dynamic analysis of endoscopic videos.
147 For example, the AI system developed by a Japanese team used 23,977 endoscopic images (WLI
148 and NBI/blue laser imaging (BLI)) to train the model, which can distinguish superficial cancer
149 (EP-SM1) from deep invasive cancer (SM2-3) in real time. In 102 independent video verifications,
150 the AI had a specificity of 98.7% under non-ME and a sensitivity of 71% under ME (better than
151 the expert group's 42%)^[13]. Similarly, the system developed by the Chinese team combined the
152 SegNet architecture and achieved dual-mode real-time diagnosis after training on 6473 NBI images.
153 In the video verification, the sensitivity of each frame in the magnification mode was 96.1% and the
154 sensitivity of each lesion was 100%, and a probability heat map was generated in real time to assist
155 in lesion localization^[11]. Performance comparison studies further verified the advantages of AI: a
156 multi-center team compared the diagnostic performance of the AI system with 16-layer VGGNet and
157 13 endoscopic experts on 144 videos. The results showed that AI had significantly higher sensitivity
158 in the lesion detection stage (91% vs 79%) and accuracy in the lesion characterization stage (88% vs
159 75%), especially for large lesions (>30mm), with a detection rate of 100%^[14]. In terms of real-time
160 auxiliary value verification, the system designed by the team had a sensitivity of 85% in detecting
161 early ESCC in high-speed endoscopic videos (simulating the speed of conventional screening), and
162 when assisting 18 physicians, its sensitivity increased from 45% to 52.5% ($p < 0.05$)^[15]. It is worth
163 noting that interpretability studies use CAMs to visualize the basis for AI decision-making. For
164 example, the improved ResNet-18 model developed by the European and Asian teams showed an
165 F1 score of 94% in 67,742 ME-NBI images. Its CAMs can accurately locate abnormal IPCLs with
166 performance close to that of experts (F1 97%-98%)^[8]. The comprehensive findings show that the AI
167 system performs better under ME (such as a 19-29 percentage point increase in sensitivity), mainly
168 benefiting from the objective analysis of microvascular structure. However, esophageal motility
169 disturbances, mucosal inflammation, and anterior wall lesions under non-ME can still lead to false
170 positives (such as misjudgment of the anatomical structure of the esophagogastric junction) or false
171 negatives (missed diagnosis of irregular keratinized lesions). Studies have consistently confirmed that
172 AI-assisted diagnosis can significantly shorten the diagnosis time (AI: 0.033-0.5 seconds/frame vs.
173 expert group: 165 minutes), reduce the impact of endoscopist experience differences, and have great
174 potential in primary care settings. Current limitations are concentrated in the bias of training data
175 (mainly single-center) and the fact that video verification does not cover low-quality images (such
176 as bleeding). In the future, prospective trials are needed to verify the clinical translation value and
177 optimize the recognition accuracy of mixed IPCL patterns^[11, 13, 15, 16].

178 **3 Deep learning-assisted delineation of lesion margin**

179 Small and flat lesions often exhibit subtle features. Traditional endoscopic techniques such as white
180 light imaging and iodine staining rely on physician experience and are prone to misdiagnosis or
181 unnecessary surgical risks. AI-assisted systems can provide real-time, objective lesion detection and
182 precise boundary delineation, becoming a key direction for improving the efficiency and accuracy of
183 endoscopic diagnosis^[10, 17]. In a representative study, Yuan et al. developed a deep learning system
184 based on the YOLACT model, focusing on superficial ESCC and precancerous lesions under NBI;
185 the system adopted a multicenter retrospective and prospective three-stage design (training data
186 752 cases/7530 images), and verified its high performance under static images through internal and
187 external tests (detection sensitivity 96.5%, depiction accuracy 88.9%, average intersection-over-union
188 ratio 75.9%). In particular, through prospective clinical real-time verification (62 cancer cases),
189 it showed a real-time diagnostic accuracy of 91.4% and a depiction accuracy of 85.9%, which
190 was much faster than that of human physicians (12ms/image vs 21.4-33.6 seconds/image), and
191 reached or exceeded the senior level in comparison with 11 endoscopists (including senior and
192 junior)^[17]. Another work by Yuan et al. expanded the technology to multimodal imaging integration,
193 combining the YOLACT++ algorithm to process multiple modes such as white light imaging, NBI,
194 magnifying endoscopy and iodine staining, aiming to detect and depict the boundaries of small
195 (about 3 mm) flat early ESCC in real time; the system was directly integrated into the endoscopic
196 device, and through video demonstration, it accurately captured the edge of the lesion and displayed
197 the probability of canceration in real-time endoscopic examination, and pathological confirmation
198 (such as invasion of the lamina propria) achieved the convenience of clinical operation without the
199 need for additional equipment, filling the gap in AI in the multimodal real-time depiction of small

lesions^[10]. Comparing these two studies, both rely on advanced instance segmentation algorithms (such as the YOLACT series) to achieve high-precision automated boundary segmentation. The results consistently highlight the potential of AI in terms of delineation accuracy (both approximately 85-90%) and real-time performance, but the focus and scope are significantly different - the NBI single-mode system is optimized for common screening needs, emphasizing the reduction of iodine staining dependence and prioritizing the verification of multi-center generalization capabilities^[17], while the multi-modality system expands coverage to complex imaging combinations, focusing on the full range of feature capture of small lesions to improve clinical practicality^[10]; these differences may be due to differences in research objectives (such as the former specifically evaluates the performance of ESCC and precancerous lesions in standard mode, while the latter focuses on the response of very small lesions in dynamic scenarios) and dataset composition (such as the NBI system samples contain more non-cancerous lesions to verify specificity). Comprehensive analysis shows that the automated segmentation technology of lesion boundaries can effectively reduce the endoscopist's dependence on experience through AI assistance, and has made breakthroughs in real-time detection, boundary delineation accuracy and reduction of misdiagnosis. In particular, it can significantly improve the diagnostic efficiency and the accuracy of endoscopic minimally invasive treatment planning for early ESCC, laying the foundation for its potential as a routine clinical tool^[10, 17].

4 Deep learning-assisted assessment of tumor invasion depth and classification of lesion microvascular patterns

4.1 Estimation of lesion invasion depth

The prediction of the depth of invasion of esophageal squamous cell carcinoma is the core basis for the indication of endoscopic resection. The risk of lymph node metastasis of deep-layer invasion of SM2/SM3 is >25%, requiring surgical intervention^[18]. The AI model based on the Japanese Endoscopic Society classification achieves accurate stratification prediction by analyzing key indicators such as the degree of destruction of microvascular configuration and tumor infiltration of submucosal glandular ducts (ductal involvement, DI). Multicenter studies have confirmed that the HRNet model has an overall accuracy rate of 80.7% in predicting deep submucosal invasion (SM2/SM3), among which the positive predictive value of B3 type blood vessels for SM2/SM3 is 100%^[7, 19]. Pathological studies have revealed that DI is a characteristic sign of SM2/SM3 lesions, but DI itself does not increase the risk of metastasis (the lymph node metastasis rate in patients with mucosal carcinoma and DI is 0%). Its significance lies in reflecting the scale of tumor horizontal spread and needs to be combined with the depth of invasion assessment^[20]. After training on 8660 endoscopic images, the deep neural network developed by Nakagawa achieved an accuracy of 91% in distinguishing EP-SM1 from SM2/SM3, which is equivalent to that of senior endoscopists (91%). However, the diagnostic accuracy of SM1 lesions was only 67.8%, and the main misdiagnosis was due to extramural compression artifacts^[18, 21]. Shimamoto's convolutional neural network model was verified in 102 independent videos, and the prediction accuracy of SM2/SM3 infiltration in the magnifying endoscopy mode was 89% and the specificity was 95%, which was significantly better than the average level of the expert group (accuracy of 84%)^[13]. The interpretable AI system increased the physician's diagnostic sensitivity for SM2/SM3 from 37.5% to 55.4% by quantifying nine features, including avascular area size and IPCL morphology^[22]. A study on the metastasis risk gradient of the submucosal layer (SM1-SM3) further validated the predictive value of AI: the metastasis rate of SM1 is approximately 22-33%, while that of SM3 is as high as 78%, supporting AI's high-risk warning for deep invasion^[23].

4.2 Classification of lesion microvascular patterns

IPCL classification is crucial for the diagnosis and treatment of early ESCC, but its manual interpretation suffers from inter-observer variability. The AI system developed by the multi-center study is based on HRNet combined with a semantic segmentation model, which can visualize and output IPCL subtypes in real time (type A normal / low-grade intraepithelial neoplasia, type B1 high-grade intraepithelial neoplasia / lamina propria invasion, type B2 muscularis mucosa / superficial submucosal invasion, type B3 deep submucosal invasion). In 7094 ME -NBI images of 685 patients, the comprehensive accuracy of IPCL classification in the internal validation set and the external validation set reached 91.3% and 89.8%, respectively, which was significantly better than that of the

253 endoscopist group (78.2% in the junior group and 87.1% in the senior group)^[7]. Further verification
254 showed that the HRNet model's positioning accuracy for B1/B2/B3 vessels (intersection-over-union
255 ratio > 0.4) supported the Japanese Endoscopic Society classification visualization and assisted junior
256 physicians to improve the accuracy of IPCL classification by 6.5% (84.7% vs 78.2%)^[7, 24]. Another
257 study improved the Faster R-CNN architecture and integrated the polarized self-attention mechanism
258 (PSA-HRNetV2p), achieving a detection recall rate of 79.25% for B1/B2 IPCL, including 83.94%
259 for B1 and 74.57% for B2. The original annotation segmentation miniaturization algorithm was
260 used to optimize small target recognition^[24]. The CNN developed by Martin et al., after training on
261 67,742 ME-NBI images, achieved an accuracy of 91.7% in distinguishing normal from abnormal
262 IPCL patterns, and generated CAMs in real time, revealing that the model's decision-making basis
263 was consistent with clinical characteristics^[8]. The interpretable AI system integrated multiple feature
264 extraction models and achieved a real-time classification accuracy of 84.9% for infiltration depth
265 in video streams. 87.5% of physicians preferred it to the traditional deep learning " black box "
266 model^[22].

267 5 Limitations and future prospects

268 First, most current AI-assisted diagnosis studies suffer from insufficient sample sizes. Most studies
269 are trained on single-center, retrospective datasets. Furthermore, endoscopic images collected across
270 different medical institutions vary in equipment and are operator-dependent, leading to biased training
271 data^[25]. While some studies have demonstrated high diagnostic accuracy, performance may decline
272 in real-world applications across different medical institutions^[25, 26]. This limitation raises questions
273 about the generalizability of these models in real-world clinical settings^[25]. Furthermore, existing
274 studies have primarily focused on specific types of esophageal lesions, and the ability to identify early,
275 subtle lesions and precancerous lesions requires more high-quality data^[26]. Future efforts will require
276 integrating resources from major medical institutions, establishing standardized, large-scale datasets
277 and evaluation systems, and strengthening multicenter, prospective studies to evaluate the real-world
278 performance of AI models^[27]. Second, current AI systems are mostly single-function designs, relying
279 heavily on single-modality data such as white-light imaging and narrow-band imaging, and lack the
280 ability to integrate multimodal data^[26, 28]. Future development should prioritize the development
281 of multifunctional, integrated AI models that integrate functions such as lesion detection, margin
282 delineation, and invasion depth assessment into a unified platform^[29, 30]. Third, the potential negative
283 impacts of AI on medical development must be recognized. Over-reliance on AI could lead to a
284 decline in endoscopists' diagnostic capabilities, hinder their clinical decision-making, and affect
285 doctor-patient communication^[31-33]. Future ethical guidelines and laws and regulations will be needed
286 to address ethical issues such as medical resource allocation, data privacy protection, algorithmic
287 transparency, and accountability^[33].

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412 **Agents4Science AI Involvement Checklist**

- 413 1. **Hypothesis development:** Hypothesis development includes the process by which you
414 came to explore this research topic and research question. This can involve the background
415 research performed by either researchers or by AI. This can also involve whether the idea
416 was proposed by researchers or by AI.

417 Answer: [A]

418 Explanation: This article was proposed by researchers. Their research team has exten-
419 sive experience in AI-assisted endoscopic diagnosis of early-stage esophageal squamous
420 cell carcinoma, having previously published numerous related articles in internationally
421 renowned medical journals. Therefore, the researchers used their developed "Lunjie" (a tool
422 for reviewing the topic) to conduct a review, allowing for comparison with existing articles.

- 423 2. **Experimental design and implementation:** This category includes design of experiments
424 that are used to test the hypotheses, coding and implementation of computational methods,
425 and the execution of these experiments.

426 Answer: [A]

427 Explanation: Figure 1 shows the general process of AI review. It is divided into two stages:
428 first, determining relevance, and then generating a review.

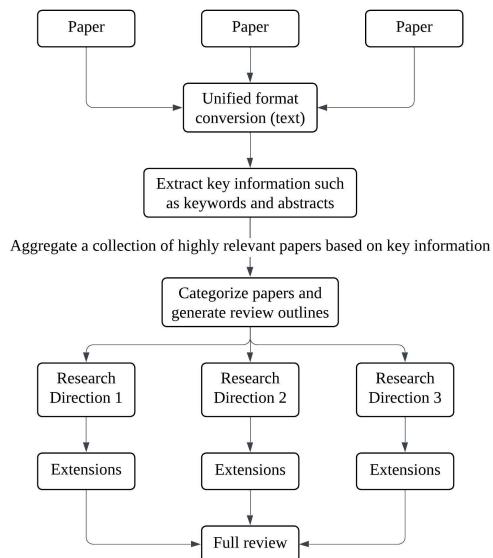


Figure 1: The general process of AI review

- 429 3. **Analysis of data and interpretation of results:** This category encompasses any process to
430 organize and process data for the experiments in the paper. It also includes interpretations of
431 the results of the study.

432 Answer: [D]

433 Explanation: This AI-generated article is a review and does not contain any experimental re-
434 search. However, during the data processing process, the researchers continuously improved
435 the model's generation quality (such as structural hierarchy and language logic) by changing
436 the model prompt words and repeating the generation process multiple times, thus obtaining
437 the final result.

- 438 4. **Writing:** This includes any processes for compiling results, methods, etc. into the final
439 paper form. This can involve not only writing of the main text but also figure-making,
440 improving layout of the manuscript, and formulation of narrative.

441 Answer: [C]

442 Explanation: As mentioned in Question 3, the main body of the paper was generated by
443 AI. Since the abstract generated was unsatisfactory, the researchers instructed the AI to

444 regenerate it based on the main body. Furthermore, the researchers modified the language
445 of some titles to make them more concise and understandable. Since the output was in
446 Simplified Chinese, the researchers used Google Translate to translate it into English.

447 5. **Observed AI Limitations:** What limitations have you found when using AI as a partner or
448 lead author?

449 Description: First, there are limitations on the selection of references. The AI developed
450 by the research team has built-in prompt words, and automatically generates articles after
451 selecting references, rather than the traditional method of inputting prompt words. In order to
452 make the generated article topic focus on the target topic, it is necessary to select references
453 with highly similar topics in advance. The researchers found that if references on other
454 irrelevant topics are mixed in, the topic of the generated article will deviate and the ideal
455 result will not be obtained. Secondly, to ensure that the model can operate normally, the
456 maximum number of references cannot exceed 50; in addition, incomplete citations may
457 occur, which may be caused by the model losing information or the model detecting that
458 there is no writing relevance between certain references. Third, the stability of the model
459 operation is not good, and the results generated by repeated attempts vary greatly.

460 **Agents4Science Paper Checklist**

461 **1. Claims**

462 Question: Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the
463 paper's contributions and scope?

464 Answer: [Yes]

465 Justification: This article was proposed by researchers. Their research team has extensive
466 experience in AI-assisted endoscopic diagnosis of early-stage esophageal squamous cell car-
467 cinoma, having previously published numerous related articles in internationally renowned
468 medical journals. Therefore, the researchers used their developed "Lunjie" (a tool for
469 reviewing the topic) to conduct a review, allowing for comparison with existing articles.

470 Guidelines:

- 471 • The answer NA means that the abstract and introduction do not include the claims
472 made in the paper.
- 473 • The abstract and/or introduction should clearly state the claims made, including the
474 contributions made in the paper and important assumptions and limitations. A No or
475 NA answer to this question will not be perceived well by the reviewers.
- 476 • The claims made should match theoretical and experimental results, and reflect how
477 much the results can be expected to generalize to other settings.
- 478 • It is fine to include aspirational goals as motivation as long as it is clear that these goals
479 are not attained by the paper.

480 **2. Limitations**

481 Question: Does the paper discuss the limitations of the work performed by the authors?

482 Answer: [Yes]

483 Justification: Specific limitations of the work are described in detail in the "Supplementary
484 Materials" section.

485 Guidelines:

- 486 • The answer NA means that the paper has no limitation while the answer No means that
487 the paper has limitations, but those are not discussed in the paper.
- 488 • The authors are encouraged to create a separate "Limitations" section in their paper.
- 489 • The paper should point out any strong assumptions and how robust the results are to
490 violations of these assumptions (e.g., independence assumptions, noiseless settings,
491 model well-specification, asymptotic approximations only holding locally). The authors
492 should reflect on how these assumptions might be violated in practice and what the
493 implications would be.
- 494 • The authors should reflect on the scope of the claims made, e.g., if the approach was
495 only tested on a few datasets or with a few runs. In general, empirical results often
496 depend on implicit assumptions, which should be articulated.
- 497 • The authors should reflect on the factors that influence the performance of the approach.
498 For example, a facial recognition algorithm may perform poorly when image resolution
499 is low or images are taken in low lighting.
- 500 • The authors should discuss the computational efficiency of the proposed algorithms
501 and how they scale with dataset size.
- 502 • If applicable, the authors should discuss possible limitations of their approach to
503 address problems of privacy and fairness.
- 504 • While the authors might fear that complete honesty about limitations might be used by
505 reviewers as grounds for rejection, a worse outcome might be that reviewers discover
506 limitations that aren't acknowledged in the paper. Reviewers will be specifically
507 instructed to not penalize honesty concerning limitations.

508 **3. Theory assumptions and proofs**

509 Question: For each theoretical result, does the paper provide the full set of assumptions and
510 a complete (and correct) proof?

511 Answer: [NA]

512 Justification: The paper does not include experiments

513 Guidelines:

- 514 • The answer NA means that the paper does not include theoretical results.
- 515 • All the theorems, formulas, and proofs in the paper should be numbered and cross-referenced.
- 516 • All assumptions should be clearly stated or referenced in the statement of any theorems.
- 517 • The proofs can either appear in the main paper or the supplemental material, but if they appear in the supplemental material, the authors are encouraged to provide a short proof sketch to provide intuition.

521 4. Experimental result reproducibility

522 Question: Does the paper fully disclose all the information needed to reproduce the main ex-
523 perimental results of the paper to the extent that it affects the main claims and/or conclusions
524 of the paper (regardless of whether the code and data are provided or not)?

525 Answer: [NA]

526 Justification: This article generated by AI is a review and therefore does not include any
527 experiments. The overall effectiveness of the review is primarily related to the model's
528 medical logic training and prompt word engineering.

529 Guidelines:

- 530 • The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.
- 531 • If the paper includes experiments, a No answer to this question will not be perceived
532 well by the reviewers: Making the paper reproducible is important.
- 533 • If the contribution is a dataset and/or model, the authors should describe the steps taken
534 to make their results reproducible or verifiable.
- 535 • We recognize that reproducibility may be tricky in some cases, in which case authors
536 are welcome to describe the particular way they provide for reproducibility. In the case
537 of closed-source models, it may be that access to the model is limited in some way
538 (e.g., to registered users), but it should be possible for other researchers to have some
539 path to reproducing or verifying the results.

540 5. Open access to data and code

541 Question: Does the paper provide open access to the data and code, with sufficient instruc-
542 tions to faithfully reproduce the main experimental results, as described in supplemental
543 material?

544 Answer: [NA]

545 Justification: The paper does not include experiments requiring code.

546 Guidelines:

- 547 • The answer NA means that paper does not include experiments requiring code.
- 548 • Please see the Agents4Science code and data submission guidelines on the conference
549 website for more details.
- 550 • While we encourage the release of code and data, we understand that this might not be
551 possible, so "No" is an acceptable answer. Papers cannot be rejected simply for not
552 including code, unless this is central to the contribution (e.g., for a new open-source
553 benchmark).
- 554 • The instructions should contain the exact command and environment needed to run to
555 reproduce the results.
- 556 • At submission time, to preserve anonymity, the authors should release anonymized
557 versions (if applicable).

558 6. Experimental setting/details

559 Question: Does the paper specify all the training and test details (e.g., data splits, hyper-
560 parameters, how they were chosen, type of optimizer, etc.) necessary to understand the
561 results?

562 Answer: [NA]

563 Justification: The paper does not include experiments.

564 Guidelines:

- 565 • The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.
- 566 • The experimental setting should be presented in the core of the paper to a level of detail
- 567 that is necessary to appreciate the results and make sense of them.
- 568 • The full details can be provided either with the code, in appendix, or as supplemental
- 569 material.

570 7. Experiment statistical significance

571 Question: Does the paper report error bars suitably and correctly defined or other appropriate

572 information about the statistical significance of the experiments?

573 Answer: [NA]

574 Justification: The paper does not include experiments.

575 Guidelines:

- 576 • The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.
- 577 • The authors should answer "Yes" if the results are accompanied by error bars, confi-
- 578 dence intervals, or statistical significance tests, at least for the experiments that support
- 579 the main claims of the paper.
- 580 • The factors of variability that the error bars are capturing should be clearly stated
- 581 (for example, train/test split, initialization, or overall run with given experimental
- 582 conditions).

583 8. Experiments compute resources

584 Question: For each experiment, does the paper provide sufficient information on the com-

585 puter resources (type of compute workers, memory, time of execution) needed to reproduce

586 the experiments?

587 Answer: [NA]

588 Justification: The paper does not include experiments.

589 Guidelines:

- 590 • The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.
- 591 • The paper should indicate the type of compute workers CPU or GPU, internal cluster,
- 592 or cloud provider, including relevant memory and storage.
- 593 • The paper should provide the amount of compute required for each of the individual
- 594 experimental runs as well as estimate the total compute.

595 9. Code of ethics

596 Question: Does the research conducted in the paper conform, in every respect, with the

597 Agents4Science Code of Ethics (see conference website)?

598 Answer: [Yes]

599 Justification: The authors carefully reviewed the Agents4Science Code of Ethics and the

600 research conducted in this paper complies with the Agents4Science Code of Ethics in all

601 respects.

602 Guidelines:

- 603 • The answer NA means that the authors have not reviewed the Agents4Science Code of
- 604 Ethics.
- 605 • If the authors answer No, they should explain the special circumstances that require a
- 606 deviation from the Code of Ethics.

607 10. Broader impacts

608 Question: Does the paper discuss both potential positive societal impacts and negative

609 societal impacts of the work performed?

610 Answer: [Yes]

611 Justification: The specific social impacts are described in detail in the "Supplementary

612 Materials" section.

613

Guidelines:

614

- The answer NA means that there is no societal impact of the work performed.
- If the authors answer NA or No, they should explain why their work has no societal impact or why the paper does not address societal impact.
- Examples of negative societal impacts include potential malicious or unintended uses (e.g., disinformation, generating fake profiles, surveillance), fairness considerations, privacy considerations, and security considerations.
- If there are negative societal impacts, the authors could also discuss possible mitigation strategies.

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Technical Appendices and Supplementary Material

I. Limitations (corresponding to Question 2 in Checklist 2)

1. Core assumptions of this study (including prerequisites)

This study used AI to write the first draft based on the following three assumptions:

1.1 Assumptions on validity of literature screening:

It is assumed that AI can accurately screen out highly relevant documents based on research topics or keywords from a manually pre-processed document library. However, it should be noted that this assumption only applies to a “manually screened document library” and does not involve its ability to independently screen from massive amounts of documents and identify low-relevance documents.

1.2 Assumption of the number of literature adaptability

It is assumed that AI can normally complete review writing within a scale of 40 references. Due to the lack of large-sample testing, this hypothesis cannot be directly transferred to scenarios with a larger number of references. The stability of AI writing performance (such as topic relevance and content completeness) after the number of references increases remains to be verified.

1.3 Content authenticity assumption

It is assumed that the reference data cited by AI and the innovative content extracted from the article are authentic and reliable, without any “illusion” or fabrication. This assumption requires “manual verification after AI writing” as a supplementary verification step, through manual intervention to ensure that the cited content is consistent with the original text and the data is unbiased.

2. Potential risks and chain consequences of above hypotheses

The above assumptions may be broken due to the inherent limitations of AI technology. The specific academic risks are as follows (the risks will increase as the scale of literature expands).

2.1 The scenario where the hypothesis of the effectiveness of literature screening is broken

Without the premise of manually screening the literature library, AI-powered independent literature screening faces two major limitations: ①there is a clear upper limit to the number of articles that can be screened; ②as the total number of references increases, its adherence to the core theme decreases significantly. If the literature library is mixed with low-relevance articles, AI will have difficulty effectively screening them, which will directly cause the generated content to deviate from the intended theme and weaken the thematic focus of the review.

2.2 The scenario where the assumption of literature quantity adaptability is broken

When the number of references increases to more than 50, AI may be unable to complete the generation task due to the dual limitations of computing power and algorithms. Even if AI can complete the task, the increased data processing load will lead to a significant decline in the quality of the review writing (such as logical coherence and completeness of supporting evidence).

2.3 The scenario where the assumption of content authenticity is broken

When AI extracts key information from references, it may generate information errors. In extreme cases, it may generate “hallucination content” that is inconsistent with the original text, directly causing data errors and biased opinions in the review.

The consequences of the above scenario are progressive: first, the literature foundation of the paper is undermined (such as insufficient literature relevance and unreliable data), which in turn reduces the validity and reliability of the research conclusions, ultimately weakening the scientific nature and credibility of the entire research. Therefore, human intervention is irreplaceable in the AI-assisted writing process. Manual verification can not only verify the authenticity of the references themselves (such as their sources and core ideas), but also correct biases in AI-referenced content, thus mitigating academic risks at the source.

3. Implications based on the limitations of AI

To overcome the AI technology bottleneck exposed by the above scenarios, future models and related research can be optimized along five dimensions to enhance the applicability and reliability of AI-assisted scientific research.

3.1 Breaking through the bottleneck of literature screening capabilities

By improving the AI generation framework, adjusting core model parameters, or building a multi-agent collaborative screening mechanism, we can address the issues of “limited number of articles to be screened” and “decreasing subject adherence as the volume of literature increases”, thereby enhancing its ability to handle large sample sizes and highly complex literature libraries.

3.2 Standard content generation forms

In order to reduce formatting errors in AI-generated content and improve the standardization of reviews, we can design a standardized prompt word system, clarify the unified rules for the use of professional vocabulary abbreviations and reference citation formats.

3.3 Optimize the human-machine collaboration process

The AI writing logic has been restructured, adopting a step-by-step generation model of “outline first, full text later”: AI first generates a review outline that can be manually revised. After manual verification of the topic fit and structural rationality, the full text is generated based on the outline, strengthening the user’s control over the content.

3.4 Close to the logic of scientific research writing

We will continue to optimize the semantic organization and argumentation logic of the model to make its expression style more consistent with the rigorous requirements of manual scientific research writing (such as the relevance of arguments and conclusions, and the sense of logical progression), reducing the sense of “machine-based expression”

3.5 Expanding multi-language application scenarios

In view of the limitation that the current model does not support English output, a multilingual generation module is introduced to cover mainstream academic languages, broaden the application scope of AI-assisted scientific research and adapt to the submission requirements of different journals.

4. Computational efficiency of the algorithm

The time required to generate a review with AI increases with the number of references.

When the number is greater than 50, the model may not function properly.

5. Scope of application of research conclusions

This study used AI to generate a review, which did not include any experimental theoretical results or research conclusions. During the generation process, researchers continuously improved the model's quality (such as structural hierarchy and linguistic logic) by changing model prompts and repeating the generation process, ultimately achieving the final result. This method was only applied to approximately 35 references.

6. Privacy

The references used in the model operation process are all open access and will not cause any infringement to any individual or organization.

II. The positive and negative impacts of AI-assisted writing (corresponding to Question 10 in Checklist 2)

1. Positive impacts

By comparing manually written reviews, the research team has developed AI that confirms the ability of generative AI to generate relatively high-quality review articles and improve writing efficiency. Simultaneously generated content can help researchers in related fields quickly understand the dynamics of the field. In addition, the application of AI in medicine has broken the boundaries of traditional disciplines, promoted interdisciplinary research cooperation, and promoted the cross-integration of medicine and AI. Most importantly, AI can help grassroots medical workers conduct scientific research.

2. Negative impacts

It cannot be denied that the use of AI may lead to the generation of false information and affect research quality, as the problem of AI-generated hallucinations has not yet been fundamentally avoided, and the generated results need to be manually verified. Additionally, researchers may overly rely on AI, reducing independent and critical thinking, affecting the originality and depth of research. The use of AI may involve academic misconduct and academic fraud. AI is open to all medical researchers, and

the possibility that some researchers will directly use the generated results as their own research results cannot be ruled out. Relevant regulations are needed to limit the improper use of AI. Because hallucinations are common in generative AI, if the generated results are directly applied to real-world practice without sufficient verification, serious consequences may result. In the future, it is necessary to establish AI-assisted checklists for authors to complete, disclose information related to AI use, or formulate standardized ethical guidelines and laws and regulations to address these issues.

Responsible AI Statement

The AI review writing process adheres to the principles outlined in the NeurIPS Code of Ethics. We recognize the significant potential of AI for review writing and are committed to its responsible development and deployment. This statement outlines the broader impact of our work on society and the precautions we take to ensure its safe and ethical application.

1. Broader Impact

1.1 Positive impacts

By comparing manually written reviews, the research team has developed AI that confirms the ability of generative AI to generate relatively high-quality review articles and improve writing efficiency. Simultaneously generated content can help researchers in related fields quickly understand the dynamics of the field. In addition, the application of AI in medicine has broken the boundaries of traditional disciplines, promoted interdisciplinary research cooperation, and promoted the cross-integration of medicine and AI. Most importantly, AI can help grassroots medical workers conduct scientific research.

1.2 Negative impacts

It cannot be denied that the use of AI may lead to the generation of false information and affect research quality, as the problem of AI-generated hallucinations has not yet been fundamentally avoided, and the generated results need to be manually verified. Additionally, researchers may overly rely on AI, reducing independent and critical thinking, affecting the originality and depth of research. The use of AI may involve academic misconduct and academic fraud. AI is open to all medical researchers, and the possibility that some researchers will directly use the generated results as their own research results cannot be ruled out. Relevant regulations are needed to limit the improper use of AI. Because hallucinations are common in generative AI, if the generated results are directly applied to real-world practice without sufficient

verification, serious consequences may result. In the future, it is necessary to establish AI-assisted checklists for authors to complete, disclose information related to AI use, or formulate standardized ethical guidelines and laws and regulations to address these issues.

2. Precautions taken to ensure the safe deployment of the AI scientist

To mitigate the potential risks associated with the use of AI in academic writing and ensure its safe, ethical, and effective deployment, we have implemented precautions throughout our research process.

First, we clarify the scope of AI's work and its role in scholarly writing. AI's role in scholarly writing is limited to screening and synthesizing information from the literature and generating a first draft. Key tasks such as developing core ideas, critical analysis of generated results, and final conclusions remain the sole responsibility of human researchers. This clarifies the leadership of humans in scholarly writing while also preventing over-reliance on AI.

Second, AI will undergo continuous human oversight throughout the scholarly writing process. All AI-generated content, including the presentation of research facts, interpretation of experimental data, and references to literature, must undergo rigorous human verification by domain experts and original sources. This human review not only verifies the authenticity of the references themselves (such as sources and core ideas), but also corrects biases in AI-cited content, mitigating academic risks at the source.

Our deployment of AI scientists adheres to established principles of academic integrity and research ethics. We explicitly prohibit their use for any form of academic misconduct, such as plagiarism or data fabrication. The research team is committed to maintaining and adhering to evolving institutional, national, and international guidelines governing the use of AI in scholarly work.

All researchers signed security and privacy agreements; all operations involving the AI system were conducted on a secure, controlled computing platform. The literature used for training and generation consisted only of publicly available, open-access research publications to ensure no infringement of personal or institutional copyright or privacy,

and no confidential, proprietary, or personal patient data was fed into or processed by the AI.