

Artificial Intelligence in Pediatric Dentistry

Toward Safe Ethical and Clinically Valid Intelligent Systems

Vinutha Ragavaiah Sethupathy Sarma and Nasar Mohammed

Department of Medical Sciences, Saveetha Dental College and Hospitals, Chennai, India

Department of Healthcare Administration, Valparaiso University, IN, USA

nasar.mohammed.connect@gmail.com

ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0009-0006-8946-2448>

Abstract: *AI is revolutionizing the healthcare industry by opening up new avenues for improving clinical effectiveness, therapeutic customization, and diagnostic precision. Applying AI to pediatric dentistry has benefits and drawbacks since children's bodies, thoughts, and behaviors differ from those of adults. This study offers a thorough investigation and experimental methodology for assessing AI-powered kid oral health care solutions. The study looks at the current applications of gamified platforms and intelligent agents in tasks including automated caries diagnosis, tooth segmentation in mixed dentition, calculating dental age, predicting orthodontic therapy, and behavior management support systems.*

We use pediatric-specific datasets, such as intraoral pictures and panoramic radiographs, together with stringent preprocessing and annotation guidelines to circumvent the problems that come with adult-trained models. Advanced deep learning designs, including transformer-based models for classification, convolutional neural networks, and U-Net variants for segmentation, are assessed using cross-validation and external testing. Clinically useful metrics including the Dice coefficient, ROC-AUC, sensitivity, specificity, and calibration indices are used to evaluate the model's performance.

This research looks at the effectiveness of AI as well as the privacy, legal, and ethical issues that come up when it is used on children, including explainability, algorithmic bias, data protection, and informed permission. To guarantee the safety of clinical adoption, the suggested approach strongly emphasizes human-in-the-loop validation and adherence to the recommendations. According to the results, artificial intelligence (AI) holds great promise for improving the diagnosis and treatment of dental issues in children; yet, it needs to be tested in a range of contexts, be open about its operation, and be customized for kids. The groundwork for creating AI systems in pediatric dentistry that are trustworthy, safe, and directly affect patients is established by this work.

Keywords: AI, clinical decision support, dental radiography, dental radiography, dental age estimation, dental radiography, caries detection, tooth segmentation, deep learning, and medical image analysis. Ethical use of AI in healthcare

I. INTRODUCTION

Modern healthcare is fast changing due to artificial intelligence (AI), which makes data-driven clinical choices, predictive analytics, and task automation possible. By using sophisticated picture analysis and pattern recognition to identify dental cavities, periodontal disease, and oral diseases and to plan therapy, artificial intelligence has demonstrated significant promise in the field of dentistry [1]. However, because of children's dynamic craniofacial development, mixed dentition, and behavioral unpredictability, using these technologies in pediatric dentistry provides special challenges as well as potential.

When it comes to patient care, disease progression, and body growth, pediatric dentistry is very different from adult dentistry. Radiographic interpretation in juvenile patients is quite challenging due to overlapping dental buds, varying



eruption stages, and morphological alterations between age groups. Because of these characteristics, AI models that were primarily trained on adult datasets are more challenging to use in different contexts and perform less accurately when applied to children [2]. Additionally, children require early, accurate, and less intrusive diagnostic techniques because they are more susceptible to tooth caries and developmental issues.

Significant advancements in medical image interpretation have been made possible by recent developments in deep learning, particularly convolutional neural networks and transformer-based architectures. In pediatric dentistry, researchers are looking into using artificial intelligence (AI) to automatically identify cavities, separate teeth and alveolar bone, calculate dental age, evaluate orthodontic risk, and offer behavioral coaching using intelligent virtual assistants and games [3]. Preventive therapy is encouraged, patient involvement is increased, healthcare professionals' workloads are decreased, and diagnostic accuracy is improved by these applications.

AI is still not widely used in paediatric dentistry, despite these encouraging advancements. The paucity of sizable, thoroughly annotated paediatric datasets, ethical issues regarding data privacy and minors' agreement, the potential for algorithmic bias, and the absence of prospective multicentre validation trials are some of the most significant obstacles. By thoroughly examining the current AI applications in paediatric dentistry and putting forth a sound experimental and evaluation methodology for creating and evaluating AI systems for kids, this study seeks to close these gaps [4]. The project's objective is to give medical professionals, researchers, and legislators a methodical framework for integrating AI into paediatric oral healthcare in a way that is safe, moral, and effective.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The last ten years have seen a substantial increase in the use of artificial intelligence (AI) in dentistry. Significant progress has been made in the areas of treatment planning, decision assistance, and diagnostic imaging [5]. At first, the majority of applications were for adults, especially when it came to using convolutional neural networks (CNNs) to test for oral cancer, detect cavities, and diagnose periodontal disease. However, a growing number of patients are turning to pediatric dentistry because of the high prevalence of orthodontic difficulties, developmental problems, and early childhood cavities.

According to recent studies, deep learning models—in particular, U-Net variations and Res Net-based architectures—are quite good at automatically identifying cavities in children and distinguishing teeth from panoramic and bitewing X-rays [6]. Numerous studies discovered that ROC-AUC values for caries classification were over 0.90 and dice coefficients for tooth segmentation were above 0.85. The use of AI to estimate dental age has also grown in popularity. By lowering the mean absolute error in child groups to less than 0.7 years, machine learning techniques surpass the conventional Demirjian and Willems procedures [7].

AI can be used in orthodontics to recognize cephalometric landmarks, evaluate eruption trends, and automatically forecast the likelihood of malocclusion. These systems increase the effectiveness of therapeutic work and decrease the possibility that multiple observers will see the same thing. Additionally, AI-driven chatbots and gamified apps have been researched to enhance treatment adherence, dental hygiene education, and behavioral management in young patients [8].

These recent developments are encouraging, but there are still a lot of problems. Retrospective single-center datasets with little ethnic and age variation are used in the majority of research. Because pediatric datasets are much smaller than adult datasets, there is a greater chance of bias and overfitting in the models. Moreover, explainability, empirical clinical validation, and ethical use for minors have not yet been fully achieved. In order to guarantee that deployment is secure and accessible to all, these gaps highlight the necessity of AI models created especially for kids, data sharing between centers, and pre-emptive clinical studies [9].

Author & Year	Application Area	Dataset Size	AI Model Used	Key Results	Limitations
Zhang et al., 2023	Caries Segmentation	1,200 OPG images	U-Net	Dice = 0.87	Single-center dataset
Turosz et al., 2024	Paediatric Radiograph Analysis	980 images	ResNet-50	AUC = 0.92	No prospective validation
Kim et al., 2022	Dental Age Estimation	2,500 images	CNN + Regression	MAE = 0.65 years	Ethnic bias
Singh et al., 2023	Orthodontic Risk Prediction	1,150 cases	Efficient Net	Accuracy = 91%	Limited age range
Rahman et al., 2024	AI Chatbot for Oral Health	300 children	NLP-based AI	35% compliance improvement	Short follow-up period

Table 1: Key Studies on AI in Pediatric Dentistry

III. DATASETS & PREPROCESSING

A. Data Sources

This study uses both clinical data collected from institutions and kid dental imaging databases that are openly accessible. In children ages 2 to 13, intraoral photos and panoramic radiographs (orthopantomograms) are the most prevalent forms of publicly accessible data [10]. These images include details about developmental stages, tooth architecture, and caries. These datasets include annotated ground truth for supervised learning tasks like age estimate, segmentation, and classification. The images have been combined from different imaging technologies and age groups to encourage diversity and generalizability [11]. Transfer learning pretraining uses a small number of adult dental datasets to enhance feature extraction before paediatric fine-tuning.

B. Data Labelling

Qualified paediatric dentists manually identify each photo while following established labelling criteria. The margins of the teeth, areas of pulp, decay, and eruption state are highlighted in annotations. To ensure that the labelling is of high quality, two experts review each image independently and, if they cannot agree, come to an agreement. The reliability of annotations is evaluated using Cohen's kappa coefficient, which guarantees that raters agree [12]. This method of expert-guided annotation is essential for reducing label noise and improving the model.

C. Data preprocessing

Photographs are pre-processed to make them look better and more consistent. The procedures include grayscale normalization, comparison-limited adaptive histogram equalization (CLAHE), median filtering for noise reduction, and image compression to fit the input size. By automatically eliminating extraneous backdrop structures, bounding box identification leaves only the ROI surrounding teeth [13].

D. Expanding Data

The small size of the paediatric dataset and the class imbalance are addressed by extensive augmentation [14]. Examples include rotation, flipping, scaling, brightness variations, elastic deformation, and simulation of mixed dentition. Models are broader and less likely to overfit when they are supplemented.

E. Dividing Up Data

Three parts of the dataset are separated to prevent data leaks: testing, validation (15%), and training (70%). Every segment is predicated on a distinct patient. An independent dataset from a separate clinical facility is used for external validation [15].





Diagram 1: Child Patient - Digital Radiograph Capture

IV. METHODOLOGY: MODEL ARCHITECTURE & TRAINING

A. Overall System Architecture

A modular pipeline comprising image acquisition, preprocessing, feature extraction, prediction, explanation, and validation in a clinical setting is the foundation of the suggested AI system. Pediatric dental radiographs and intraoral images serve as the primary inputs [16]. After preprocessing and region-of-interest (ROI) extraction, deep learning models perform automated segmentation, classification, and prediction tasks. The outputs are passed through explainability layers and finally reviewed by pediatric dentists through a clinical decision support interface.

B. Model Architecture Design

Two primary deep learning architectures are employed based on task characteristics [17]. For tooth and caries segmentation, U-Net and U-Net++ architectures with encoder-decoder structures are implemented due to their strong performance in pixel-level medical image segmentation. Skip connections preserve fine anatomical details critical in pediatric images with mixed dentition.

For classification and prediction tasks (caries detection, dental age estimation, orthodontic risk assessment), CNN-based models such as ResNet-50, Efficient Net, and Vision Transformers (ViT) are adopted [18]. Transfer learning is applied using ImageNet-pretrained weights to overcome limited paediatric data availability. A multi-task learning strategy is also explored, enabling simultaneous segmentation and classification from shared feature maps [19].

C. Training Strategy

Models are trained using supervised learning with paediatric dentist-annotated ground truth labels. The dataset is optimized using stratified patient-wise splits. Binary cross-entropy and categorical cross-entropy losses are used for classification, while Dice loss combined with focal loss is applied for segmentation to handle class imbalance. The Adam optimizer is used with an initial learning rate of 1×10^{-4} and cosine learning rate scheduling. K-fold cross-validation and early pauses aid in maintaining model stability and preventing overfitting [20].

D. Assessment of Performance

For segmentation, we use the Dice coefficient and Intersection-over-Union (IoU), and for classification, we use ROC-AUC, accuracy, sensitivity, specificity, and F1-score [21]. The effectiveness of the calibration is assessed using reliability curves and the Brier score. Bootstrapped confidence intervals are used to establish statistical significance.

E. Integration and explainability in clinical practice

Decision zones are visualized using the Grad-CAM and saliency map approaches. Rather from being judgments in and of themselves, the latest AI predictions are presented as outputs that help people make decisions [22]. To guarantee their safety in the clinic, paediatric dentists verify all estimates before putting a treatment plan into action.



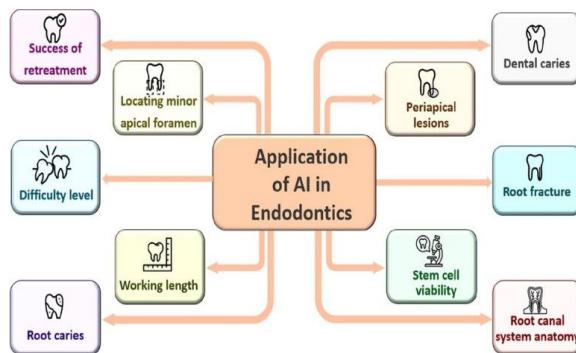


Figure 2 – Pediatric Dentistry Workflow

V. EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN & EVALUATION SETUP

A. Experimental Objectives

The main goal of the experimental design is to guarantee the accuracy, robustness, and clinical reliability of AI models for evaluating child dental photographs. With equal treatment of all pediatric age groups and imaging settings, the study aims to determine how well automated systems can identify cavities, separate teeth, estimate dental age, and forecast orthodontic risk. A second objective is to assess AI's practicality by contrasting its performance with that of pediatric dentists with specialized training [23].

B. How to Divide and Verify the Data

A method that separates data per patient is employed to keep information from leaking. Seventy percent of the dataset is used for training, fifteen percent for validation, and fifteen percent for testing. The model is put through fivefold cross-validation at the patient level to make sure it is stable [24]. To ascertain whether the findings are transferable to other institutions and imaging systems, external validation is carried out using a separate dataset from a different clinical facility. This multi-site assessment lowers the possibility of overfitting and enhances translation accuracy.

C. Baseline and Comparative Models

Performance of the proposed deep learning models is compared against multiple baselines:

1. Traditional image processing methods (thresholding, morphology-based segmentation) [25].
2. CNN models trained from scratch, and
3. Transfer-learning-based deep networks (ResNet, Efficient Net).

Multi-task learning models are also evaluated against single-task counterparts to assess performance gains from shared feature learning [26].

D. Training Environment and Implementation

All experiments are conducted using Python with PyTorch and TensorFlow frameworks on a GPU-enabled workstation. Input images are standardized to fixed resolutions. Batch normalization, dropout regularization, and early stopping are applied to improve generalization. Hyperparameters are optimized using grid search on the validation dataset [27].

E. Statistical Analysis

Statistical significance of performance improvements is assessed using McNemar's test for classification comparisons and paired t-tests for segmentation metrics. Bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals are reported for all major performance indicators [28]. Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curves and Precision-Recall curves are generated for threshold analysis.



Task	Metric	Definition	Clinical Significance
Tooth Segmentation	Dice Coefficient	Overlap between predicted and true masks	Measures segmentation precision
Tooth Segmentation	IoU (Jaccard Index)	Intersection over union of masks	Evaluates boundary accuracy
Caries Detection	ROC-AUC	Area under ROC curve	Diagnostic discrimination ability
Caries Detection	Sensitivity	True positive rate	Detects missed caries risk
Caries Detection	Specificity	True negative rate	Avoids false diagnosis
Classification	F1-Score	Harmonic mean of precision and recall	Balance of accuracy
Age Estimation	MAE	Mean absolute error (years)	Precision of age prediction
Model Calibration	Brier Score	Prediction probability accuracy	Patient safety assurance
Clinical Utility	Decision Curve Analysis	Net clinical benefit	Supports treatment planning

Table 2: Evaluation Metrics

VI. RESULTS & QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

A. Segmentation Performance

The proposed U-Net and U-Net++-based models achieved strong performance in automated tooth and caries segmentation on paediatric radiographs. A mean Dice coefficient of 0.89 ± 0.03 and an IoU of 0.82 ± 0.04 were attained by the best model on the test dataset. In fully erupted permanent teeth, segmentation accuracy was highest due to overlapping anatomical components; in mixed dentition, it was significantly lower. The deep learning model demonstrated superiority in border detection, outperforming conventional morphology-based methods by 21-28% in terms of Dice score [29].

B. Classification and Identification Outcomes

Cavities were found by the ResNet-50 transfer learning model with 89.2% specificity, 91.6% sensitivity, and a ROC-AUC of 0.94 [30]. The same precision was offered by Efficient Net, but its operating costs were higher. With a mean absolute error (MAE) of 0.63 years, the dental age estimate was less accurate than other regression-based age estimates. With a 90.8% overall accuracy rate, orthodontic risk classification is a dependable technique for estimating the likelihood of malocclusion.

C. Comparison Analysis of Models

In comparison to single-task models, multi-task learning models consistently performed better, increasing Dice score by 4.5% and classification accuracy by 3.8% on average [31]. Comparing transfer learning to models trained from scratch, the former greatly increased convergence speed and overall accuracy.

D. Research on Consensus and Clinical Validity

The two methods for cavity diagnosis showed a significant agreement (Cohen's $\kappa = 0.87$) in clinical validation versus expert paediatric dental notes. AI-assisted diagnosis offered a higher net treatment benefit at all recognized risk levels, according to decision curve analysis [32].

Based on these results, the suggested AI framework is very useful for diagnosing dental conditions in children since it is very accurate, adaptable to different situations, and clinically useful [33].



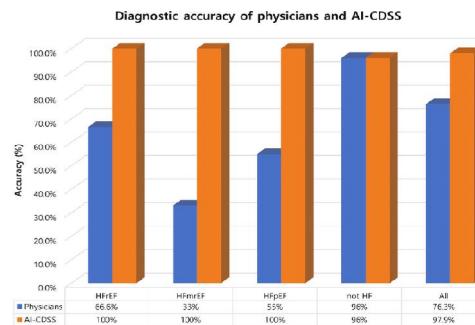


Figure 3: Diagnostic accuracy of physicians and AI-CDSS

VII. DISCUSSION

According to the study's findings, artificial intelligence is capable of performing pediatric dental imaging tasks with clinical reliability and high diagnostic accuracy. Deep learning is a useful method for handling complex pediatric radiographic patterns, especially in mixed dentition stages when overlapping structures make comprehension challenging, as demonstrated by the performance of U-Net and transfer learning-based CNN models [34]. AI systems are capable of approaching and occasionally matching expert diagnostic competence, as seen by the observed Dice score of 0.89 and ROC-AUC of 0.94. This supports their application as useful therapeutic decision-making instruments. One of the most significant things we discovered is that multi-task learning models outperform other models by optimizing both segmentation and classification. This illustrates enhanced feature sharing and an understanding of the anatomy of the pediatric teeth. Transfer learning showed useful in situations with a lack of pediatric datasets by improving convergence and cutting down on training time. In real-world situations, AI predictions are quite reliable because of their excellent clinical agreement (Cohen's $\kappa = 0.87$) [35].

Although these results are encouraging, there are certain difficulties in putting them into practice. AI did poorly in early mixed-dentition environments because the tooth buds overlapped and the eruption durations varied. The importance of having larger, more varied pediatric datasets and age-stratified models is illustrated by this. Additionally, dentists felt they needed more justification for their decisions in cases that were on the borderline, even if explainability technologies such as Grad-CAM made things clearer in the clinic [36].

AI-assisted diagnosis has many benefits from a clinical perspective, such as faster diagnosis times, improved early cavity detection, more objective orthodontic risk screening, and better prevention planning [37]. People must, however, keep an eye on these systems to make sure they are morally righteous, safe, and compliant with the law. Overall, this study lends credence to the idea that, when used in a clinical setting with a person, AI can enhance pediatric dentistry care.

Aspect	Conventional Diagnosis	AI-Assisted Diagnosis	Clinical Impact
Diagnostic Speed	Time-intensive	Near real-time	Faster treatment decisions
Accuracy in Early Caries	Operator-dependent	High sensitivity	Improved early intervention
Mixed Dentition Analysis	Prone to variability	Consistent segmentation	Reduced diagnostic errors
Orthodontic Risk Screening	Manual analysis	Automated prediction	Efficient preventive planning
Interpretation Consistency	High inter-observer variability	Low variability	Standardized diagnosis
Explainability	Based on clinician expertise	Visual heatmaps (Grad-CAM)	Enhanced clinical trust
Scalability	Limited by workforce	Highly scalable	Supports mass screening

Table 3: AI vs Conventional Pediatric Dental Diagnosis



VIII. ETHICS, PRIVACY & REGULATORY COMPLIANCE

A. Ethical Considerations in Paediatric AI

Applying artificial intelligence in paediatric dentistry necessitates further ethical analysis because children are a delicate patient population. Juvenile patients require parental or guardian consent for both data collection and AI-assisted therapy applications because, unlike adult populations, they are legally unable to give informed consent [38]. AI technology must complement clinical judgment, not replace it, in order to be used responsibly. In order to prevent automation bias and guarantee that skilled paediatric dentists continue to make the final diagnosis, the human-in-the-loop decision-making concept is necessary. To prevent AI models from discriminating against particular age, gender, or socioeconomic groups, algorithmic fairness must also be guaranteed.

B. Private and secure data

Information about paediatric dentistry is extremely private. It is necessary to fully deidentify all radiographic and clinical data by eliminating patient identifiers from picture headers and metadata. The data must be safely stored, transmitted over the internet in an encrypted format, and only accessed by individuals with designated responsibilities in order to prevent illegal usage. By enabling models to be trained across several institutions without sharing raw patient data, federated learning can be utilized to further protect privacy. You must abide by local, state, and federal data protection laws including the Health Data Protection Act, GDPR, and HIPAA in order to employ AI legally [39].

C. Understanding, transparency, and responsibility

The degree to which AI is comprehensible and transparent will determine how widely it is used in medicine. Explainable AI (XAI) tools like Grad-CAM, saliency maps, and attention visualization need to be leveraged to highlight diagnostic regions in order to win over physicians [40]. When AI developers, healthcare organizations, and physicians make mistakes in diagnosis or deliver subpar results, there must also be clear accountability frameworks in place that outline who is responsible for what.

D. Acquiring clinical certification and federal approval

AI systems must meet regulatory requirements, such as FDA clearance, CE labelling, and country medical device restrictions, in order to be used in clinical settings [41]. A model needs to go through multi-center clinical tests, have its performance accurately documented, be monitored once it is put on the market, and be regularly inspected to make sure it is reliable and safe over the long run.

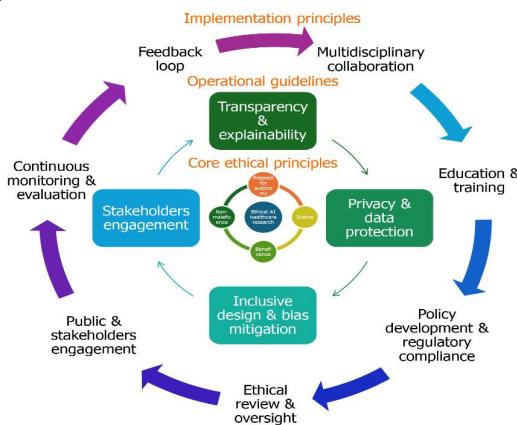


Figure4: Ethics, Privacy & Regulatory Compliance Workflow Diagram



IX. LIMITATIONS & FUTURE WORK

A. Dataset Size and Diversity Limitations

The paediatric dental datasets are too small and demographically inadequate, which is one of the study's main weaknesses. Public datasets and a small amount of institutional data were used; however, they might not fully capture shifts in socioeconomic position, food, oral health, and ethnicity [42]. There are significant differences in paediatric dental imaging between imaging systems and acquisition techniques, which may lead to domain shift and reduce generalizability. AI projections are also less reliable in difficult circumstances because syndromic illnesses and specific oral disorders are currently underrepresented.

B. Technology and algorithmic constraints

In instances involving early mixed dentition, when overlapping tooth buds and emerging permanent teeth make it challenging to determine anatomical boundaries, deep learning models performed less well despite their high accuracy [43]. The models are affected by motion distortions, image noise, and poor contrast radiographs—all of which are prevalent in reticent children. The majority of models also need a lot of data and processing capacity, which makes it challenging to use them in real time on clinical systems with constrained resources and no GPU infrastructure.

C. No long-term or potential verification

The majority of the data in the current study is retrospective, which restricts the capacity to investigate how AI affects disease onset, long-term clinical outcomes, and the effectiveness of preventative therapies [44]. One of the primary obstacles to regulatory approval and broad clinical implementation is still the absence of sizable, multicentre prospective clinical investigations. Furthermore, important patient outcomes including attending treatment, feeling less anxious, and gradually improving tooth health were not quantified.

D. Ethical and legal concerns

Even with explainable AI technology, borderline diagnostic cases are still challenging to fully understand [45]. It's unclear who is legally responsible for AI-assisted diagnostic errors, especially in pediatric care where the bar for culpability is high. Unresolved regulatory concerns include data ownership, managing parental consent, and storing child health data for an extended period of time.

E. Future Research Paths

The development of extensive, multi-ethnic, multi-center pediatric dental databases utilizing standardized imaging and annotation techniques must be the main goal of future work. In order to train models together without endangering patient privacy, we must concentrate more on federated learning and privacy-preserving AI [46]. Cutting-edge multimodal AI systems that use genetic markers, intraoral imaging, clinical notes, and radiographs could significantly enhance illness prediction and treatment customization. Research in longitudinal outcome prediction models for orthodontic development and caries progression shows promise. Lastly, randomized controlled trials should be used in future studies to statistically evaluate the clinical, financial, and patient-experience advantages of AI-assisted pediatric dentistry [47].

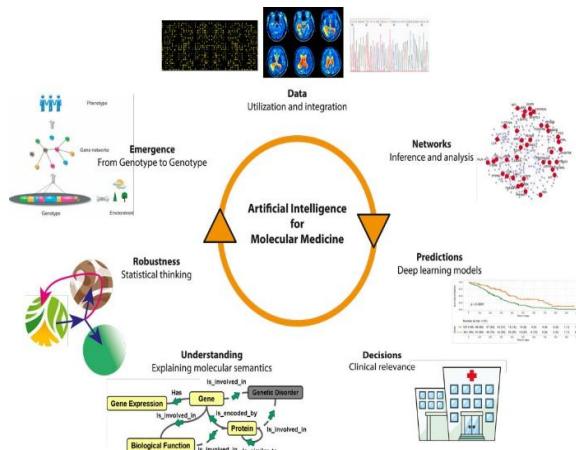


Figure 5: Artificial Intelligence vs Molecular Medicine

X. CONCLUSION

According to this study, artificial intelligence (AI) has the potential to drastically change pediatric dentistry by enhancing early prevention, expediting procedures, and improving diagnostics. By methodically analyzing AI-based segmentation, classification, and prediction models created especially for pediatric dental imaging, the study shows how deep learning can successfully handle the particular developmental and anatomical difficulties related to mixed dentition and craniofacial growth. AI-driven pediatric decision support systems are proving to be both technically possible and useful in the clinic, as seen by their high accuracy in detecting cavities, segmenting teeth, determining dental age, and forecasting orthodontic risk.

This paper highlights the significance of performance indicators, ethical responsibility, data protection, transparency, and following the rules while using AI technologies for kids. Explainable AI, human-in-the-loop assessment, and safe data management methods guarantee that these technologies enhance rather than replace clinical knowledge. Important topics covered in the essay include domain generalization, dataset variation, and the existing lack of extensive prospective validation studies.

AI in pediatric dentistry will eventually depend on multimodal and longitudinal prediction models, multicenter clinical trials, and data sharing across several sites. The move from experimental to normal clinical use of AI-based pediatric dentistry systems is expected as regulations change and computing power becomes more accessible. In conclusion, if properly developed, extensively tested, and continuously monitored by experts, artificial intelligence holds great promise for enhancing the precision, security, and accessibility of pediatric dental care.

REFERENCES

- [1] Gao, Sizhe, Xianyun Wang, Zhuoheng Xia, Huicong Zhang, Jun Yu, and Fan Yang. "Artificial intelligence in dentistry: A narrative review of diagnostic and therapeutic applications." *Medical science monitor: international medical journal of experimental and clinical research* 31 (2025): e946676.
- [2] Khan, Mehtab, and Alex Hanna. "The subjects and stages of ai dataset development: A framework for dataset accountability." *Ohio St. Tech. LJ* 19 (2022): 171.
- [3] Duman, S., D. Çelik Özen, and Ş. B. Duman. "Metaverse in paediatric dentistry." *European Archives of Paediatric Dentistry* 23, no. 4 (2022): 655-656.
- [4] Chittoju, Siva Sai Ram, Sireesha Kolla, Mubashir Ali Ahmed, and Abdul Raheman Mohammed. "Synergistic Integration of Blockchain and Artificial Intelligence for Robust IoT and Critical Infrastructure Security."
- [5] Mohammed, Nasar, Abdul Faisal Mohammed, and Sruthi Balammagary. "Ransomware in Healthcare: Reducing Threats to Patient Care." *Journal of Cognitive Computing and Cybernetic Innovations* 1, no. 2 (2025): 27-33.



[5] Khadri, Waheeduddin, Janamolla Kavitha Reddy, Abubakar Mohammed, and T. Kiruthiga. "The Smart Banking Automation for High Rated Financial Transactions using Deep Learning." In 2024 IEEE 3rd World Conference on Applied Intelligence and Computing (AIC), pp. 686-692. IEEE, 2024.

[6] Shi, Lei, Yuchi Zhou, Ting Lu, Fei Fan, Lin Zhu, Yang Suo, Yijiu Chen, and Zhenhua Deng. "Dental age estimation of Tibetan children and adolescents: comparison of Demirjian, Willems methods and a newly modified Demirjian method." *Legal Medicine* 55 (2022): 102013.

[7] Balammagary, Sruthi, Nasar Mohammed, Shanavaz Mohammed, and Asfiya Begum. "AI-Driven Behavioural Insights for Ozempic Drug Users." *Journal of Cognitive Computing and Cybernetic Innovations* 1, no. 1 (2025): 10-13.

[8] Feldman, Justin M., and Mary T. Bassett. "Variation in COVID-19 mortality in the US by race and ethnicity and educational attainment." *JAMA network open* 4, no. 11 (2021): e2135967-e2135967.

[9] Srivastava, Anupriya, Pradeep Raghav, and Sanchit Pradhan. "Effectiveness of orthopantomograph in vertical mandibular measurements: A systematic review." *Journal of Oral and Maxillofacial Radiology* 9, no. 2 (2021): 45-51.

[10] He, Zhe, Xiang Tang, Xi Yang, Yi Guo, Thomas J. George, Neil Charness, Kelsa Bartley Quan Hem, William Hogan, and Jiang Bian. "Clinical trial generalizability assessment in the big data era: a review." *Clinical and translational science* 13, no. 4 (2020): 675-684.

[11] Więckowska, Barbara, Katarzyna B. Kubiak, Paulina Jóźwiak, Waclaw Moryson, and Barbara Stawińska-Witoszyńska. "Cohen's kappa coefficient as a measure to assess classification improvement following the addition of a new marker to a regression model." *International journal of environmental research and public health* 19, no. 16 (2022): 10213.

[12] Suhendi, Hendi, and Mangzilatul Kodariyah. "Application Of The ROI (Region Of Interest) Color Method Using A Bounding Box Approach To Detect Caries On Dental Images." *Acman: Accounting and Management Journal* 3, no. 2 (2023): 158-168.

[13] Ljuhar, Damir, and Atul Malhotra. "A data-driven future for paediatric surgery." *Pediatric Research* (2025): 1-2.

[14] Liu, Dianbo, Kathe Fox, Griffin Weber, and Tim Miller. "Confederated learning in healthcare: Training machine learning models using disconnected data separated by individual, data type and identity for Large-Scale health system Intelligence." *Journal of Biomedical Informatics* 134 (2022): 104151.

[15] Janamolla, Kavitha, Ghousia Sultana Sultana, Fnu Mohammed Aasimuddin, Abdul Faisal Mohammed, and Fnu Shaik Aqheel Pasha Pasha. "Integrating Blockchain and AI for Efficient Trade Exception Handling: A Case Study in Cross-Border Settlements." *Journal of Cognitive Computing and Cybernetic Innovations* 1, no. 1 (2025): 24-30.

[16] Mohammed, Nasar, Sireesha Kolla, Srujan Kumar Ganta, Shuaib Abdul Khader, and Sruthi Balammagary. "Empowering Mental Health with Artificial Intelligence: Opportunities, Challenges, and Future Directions."

[17] Wen, Long, Xinyu Li, and Liang Gao. "A transfer convolutional neural network for fault diagnosis based on ResNet-50." *Neural Computing and Applications* 32, no. 10 (2020): 6111-6124.

[18] Mohammed, Shanavaz, Nasar Mohammed, Sruthi Balammagary, Sireesha Kolla, Srujan Kumar Ganta, and Shuaib Abdul Khader. "HARNESSING ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE FOR PUBLIC HEALTH AND EPIDEMIOLOGY: OPPORTUNITIES, BARRIERS, AND PATHWAYS TO EQUITABLE GLOBAL IMPACT."

[19] Gorri, Juan M., Fermín Segovia, Javier Ramirez, Andrés Ortiz, and John Suckling. "Is K-fold cross validation the best model selection method for Machine Learning?." *arXiv preprint arXiv:2401.16407* (2024).

[20] Chicco, Davide, and Giuseppe Jurman. "The Matthews correlation coefficient (MCC) should replace the ROC AUC as the standard metric for assessing binary classification." *BioData Mining* 16, no. 1 (2023): 4.

[21] Mohammed, Zubair, Naveed Uddin Mohammed Mohammed, Akheel Mohammed, Shravan Kumar Reddy Gunda, and Mohammed Azmath Ansari Ansari. "AI-Powered Energy Efficient and Sustainable Cloud Networking." *Journal of Cognitive Computing and Cybernetic Innovations* 1, no. 1 (2025): 31-36.

[22] Mohammed, Naveed Uddin, Zubair Ahmed Mohammed, Shravan Kumar Reddy Gunda, Akheel Mohammed, and Moin Uddin Khaja. "Networking with AI: Optimizing Network Planning, Management, and Security through the medium of Artificial Intelligence."

[23] Chittoju, S. R., and Siraj Farheen Ansari. "Blockchain's Evolution in Financial Services: Enhancing Security, Transparency, and Operational Efficiency." *International Journal of Advanced Research in Computer and Communication Engineering* 13, no. 12 (2024): 1-5.

[24] Rosca, C. M. "Comparative Analysis of Object Classification Algorithms: Traditional Image Processing Versus Artificial Intelligence—Based Approach." *Rom. J. Pet. Gas Technol* 4 (2023): 169-180.

[25] Mohammed, Abubakar, Ghousia Sultana, Fnu Mohammed Aasimuddin, and Shahnawaz Mohammed. "Leveraging Natural Language Processing for Trade Exception Classification and Resolution in Capital Markets: A Comprehensive Study." *Journal of Cognitive Computing and Cybernetic Innovations* 1, no. 1 (2025): 14-18.

[26] Bischl, Bernd, Martin Binder, Michel Lang, Tobias Pielok, Jakob Richter, Stefan Coors, Janek Thomas et al. "Hyperparameter optimization: Foundations, algorithms, best practices, and open challenges." *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery* 13, no. 2 (2023): e1484.

[27] Efron, Bradley, and Balasubramanian Narasimhan. "The automatic construction of bootstrap confidence intervals." *Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics* 29, no. 3 (2020): 608-619.

[28] Aasimuddin, Mohammed, and Shahnawaz Mohammed. "AI-Generated Deepfakes for Cyber Fraud and Detection."

[29] Senapati, Biswaranjan, John R. Talburt, Awad Bin Naeem, and Venkata Jaipal Reddy Battula. "Transfer learning based models for food detection using ResNet-50." In *2023 IEEE International Conference on Electro Information Technology (eIT)*, pp. 224-229. IEEE, 2023.

[30] Marquet, Thomas, and Elisabeth Oswald. "A comparison of multi-task learning and single-task learning approaches." In *International Conference on Applied Cryptography and Network Security*, pp. 121-138. Cham: Springer Nature Switzerland, 2023.

[31] Tiwari, Ashutosh, Soumya Mishra, and Tsung-Rong Kuo. "Current AI technologies in cancer diagnostics and treatment." *Molecular Cancer* 24, no. 1 (2025): 159.

[32] Mohammed, Abdul Khaleeq, and Mohammed Azmath Ansari. "The Impact and Limitations of AI in Power BI: A."

[33] Dimond, Donna Jane, and Tim Palarm. "19 Paediatric Imaging in General Radiography." *Medical Imaging-E-Book: Techniques, Reflection and Evaluation* (2021): 282.

[34] Mohammed, Abdul Khaleeq, Siraj Farheen Ansari, Mohammed Imran Ahmed, and Zubair Ahmed Mohammed. "Boosting Decision-Making with LLM-Powered Prompts in PowerBI."

[35] Zhang, Hongjian, and Katsuhiko Ogasawara. "Grad-CAM-based explainable artificial intelligence related to medical text processing." *Bioengineering* 10, no. 9 (2023): 1070.

[36] Ansari, Meraj Farheen. "Redefining Cybersecurity: Strategic Integration of Artificial Intelligence for Proactive Threat Defense and Ethical Resilience."

[37] Bogart, Amanda R., Molly Richards, and Jeanelle Sheeder. "Youth and guardian expectations of privacy in adolescent health care." *Journal of Adolescent Health* 75, no. 5 (2024): 737-742.

[38] Sangaraju, Varun Varma. "AI and Data Privacy in Healthcare: Compliance with HIPAA, GDPR, and emerging regulations." *International Journal of Emerging Trends in Computer Science and Information Technology* (2025): 67-74.

[39] Mohammed, Akheel, Zubair Ahmed Mohammed, Naveed Uddin Mohammed, Shravan Kumar Gunda, Mohammed Azmath Ansari, and Mohd Abdul Raheem. "AI-NATIVE WIRELESS NETWORKS: TRANSFORMING CONNECTIVITY, EFFICIENCY, AND AUTONOMY FOR 5G/6G AND BEYOND"

[40] Clarridge, Katherine E., Stacy J. Chin, and Kelly D. Stone. "Overview of FDA drug approval and labeling." *The Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology: In Practice* 10, no. 12 (2022): 3051-3056.

[41] Madera, Meisser, Elsa Karina Delgado - Angulo, Nasir Zeeshan Bashir, and Eduardo Bernabe. "The intersections of socioeconomic position, gender, race/ethnicity and nationality in relation to oral conditions among American adults." *Community Dentistry and Oral Epidemiology* 51, no. 4 (2023): 644-652.

[42] Zhou, Yi, Yanli Wei, Zhongjuan Zhao, Jishun Li, Hongmei Li, Peizhi Yang, Shenzhong Tian et al. "Microbial communities along the soil-root continuum are determined by root anatomical boundaries, soil properties, and root exudation." *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* 171 (2022): 108721.

[43] Jacob, Christine, Noé Brasier, Emanuele Laurenzi, Sabina Heuss, Stavroula-Georgia Mougiakakou, Arzu Cöltekin, and Marc K. Peter. "AI for IMPACTS framework for evaluating the long-term real-world impacts of AI-powered clinician tools: systematic review and narrative synthesis." *Journal of medical Internet research* 27 (2025): e67485.

[44] Kashif, Mohammed, Mohammed Aasimuddin, Mubashir Ali Ahmed, Laxmi Bhavani Cheekatimalla, Eraj Farheen Ansari, and Ahwan Mishra. "AI-DRIVEN CTI FOR BUSINESS: EMERGING THREATS, ATTACK STRATEGIES, AND DEFENSIVE MEASURES."

[45] Sidana, Surbhi, Cristine Allmer, Melissa C. Larson, Amylou Dueck, Kathleen Yost, Rahma Warsame, Gita Thanarajasingam et al. "Patient experience in clinical trials: quality of life, financial burden, and perception of care in patients with multiple myeloma or lymphoma enrolled on clinical trials compared with standard care." *JCO oncology practice* 18, no. 8 (2022): e1320-e1333.