IAC: A Framework for Enabling Patient Agency in the Use of AI-Enabled Healthcare

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In healthcare, the role of AI is continually evolving, and understanding the challenges its introduction poses on relationships between healthcare providers and patients will require a regulatory and behavioral approach that can provide a guiding base for all users involved. In this paper, we present IAC (Informing, Assessment, and Consent), a framework for evaluating patient response to the introduction of AI-enabled digital technologies in healthcare settings. We justify the need for IAC with a general introduction of the challenges with and perceived relevance of AI in human-welfare-centered fields, with an emphasis on the provision of healthcare. The framework is composed of three core principles that guide how healthcare practitioners can inform patients about the use of AI in their healthcare, how practitioners can assess patients' acceptability and comfortability with the use of AI, and how patient consent can be gained after this process. We propose that the principles composing this framework can be translated into guidelines that improve patient agency regarding the use of AI in healthcare while broadening the discourse on this topic.

CCS Concepts: • Computing methodologies \rightarrow Machine learning; Artificial intelligence; • Human-centered computing \rightarrow Human computer interaction (HCI); • Applied computing \rightarrow Health care information systems.

Additional Key Words and Phrases: artificial intelligence, healthcare, explainability, technology acceptance, ethics, responsible AI, policy

ACM Reference Format:

1 INTRODUCTION

One of the defining characteristics of modern societies is the embeddedness of technology in many aspects of human life. Understanding how humans respond to technological innovations is essential for the successful introduction of digital tools in human-welfare-centered fields such as healthcare, education, and labor markets. In healthcare, the role of artificial intelligence (AI) is continually evolving, and understanding the paradigm shift of traditional medical relationships from physician-patient to physician-AI-patient will require a comprehensive awareness of existing humanhuman interactive structures in medicine and the challenges the introduction of AI poses to them. We find that a technological approach to healthcare comes with its own set of challenges. In particular, we focus on the complex social structure that emerges from physician-AI-patient interaction. Studies that look at users' responses to the introduction of AI-enabled tools in human-welfare-centered fields indicate the outcome of the interaction is contingent on the level of complexity and type of the task, the expertise of the user, and the mental models users have formed about the fairness of the tool [30, 59, 70, 114]. In healthcare, past experiences with technology and AI complexity mediate patient acceptance

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of AI [98, 99]. Begetting mental models that ignite a cooperative interaction between healthcare providers and patients will require a regulatory and behavioral approach that can provide a guiding base for all users involved [35, 118].

We expand work exploring the ethical concerns of AI in healthcare, patient perception of AI tools, and the impact of trust and privacy in technology acceptance for healthcare by developing IAC, a framework to guide the introduction of AI-enabled technologies in healthcare settings and shift how patients leverage their agency to consent to the use of these tools in their healthcare. Our framework aims to standardize the practice of evaluating patient reception to AI integration within healthcare and establish the foundation for regulatory policies that will enforce the fair use of AI systems in accordance with existing healthcare standards such as the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act of 1996 (HIPAA) in the United States and the UK's Data Protection Act 2018. This paper follows a human-welfare or patient-centered approach as prescribed by Chen et al. [27], Musbahi et al. [84], Richardson et al. [98, 99], Young et al. [132] for the implementation of AI usage guidelines and ethical protocols, and develops a unique framework with a strong behavioral base. An important contribution of IAC is its focus on the socialization of standardized ethical procedures, which, to our knowledge, has not yet been explored in the literature.

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2 RELATED WORK

2.1 Al in healthcare

In the provision of healthcare services, artificial intelligence (AI) is ubiquitous. With applications in medical imaging 75 [17, 64, 101, 133], personalized medicine [11, 105], drug discovery [6, 38, 54, 62, 129], epidemiology [8, 13, 125], and 76 77 operational efficiency [100], AI is undeniably changing the healthcare landscape for the better. Within this domain, 78 literature discussing the ethical concerns, perceptions of, and implications of AI in healthcare has become more 79 prominent. For example, McCradden et al. [76] analyze perspectives from adult patients with brain cancer regarding 80 issues of consent around their health data, the allocation of health resources through computational methods, and privacy 81 82 concerns associated with using their data for health research Livanage et al. [72] survey healthcare informaticians 83 and clinicians on the benefits, risks, potential of adoption, implications, and the future of AI in primary care. Laï et al. 84 [66] interview a range of French professionals with an interest in or experience with AI for healthcare (physicians, AI 85 researchers, AI consultants, ethicists, public health researchers, etc.) to gain insight into the needs, opportunities, and 86 87 challenges arising from the use of AI in healthcare. Further work done by Xiang et al. [130] examines the difference in 88 AI sentiment between healthcare and non-healthcare workers regarding the safety of AI, consistency between physician 89 and AI-based diagnosis, receptivity to AI being used in their care, the respective demand for AI in healthcare, and 90 opportunities for AI to improve operational aspects of patient care. This corpus shows that as AI becomes more persistent 91 92 throughout healthcare, it is equally as important to study the social and ethical impact AI has within healthcare along 93 with the technical specifications of AI-enabled technologies. 94

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2.2 Clinician-patient interaction with AI

The debate surrounding the effect of technological innovations on the clinician-patient relationship is not new [21, 22]. Studies show a mixed perspective, with most research agreeing on the management, coordination, and efficiency 100 benefits of technology in healthcare [22, 44, 75], while the strand of research interested in the interaction between 101 physicians and patients documents the challenges that emerge with digital means of healthcare communication[75] 102 103 and healthcare provision [83]. For instance, Botrugno [21] discusses that while Information Technologies (IT) may ease

communication between a clinician and her patient, it could also unintentionally *dehumanize* it and worsen it since the lack of physical presence decreases the number of cues a doctor has to evaluate her patient's health.

106 In the same vein, concerns arise about service providers' ability to engage in positive cooperation between clinicians, 107 AI, and patients [7, 100, 115, 117]. Terry and Cain [117] put forth the idea that the increasing use of digital means 108 109 of healthcare provision is eroding clinician-patient empathy and the associated positive health outcomes that come 110 from this interaction. Moreover, Morley et al. [81] warn that an over-reliance or mismanagement of AI can lead to 111 the impersonalization of healthcare provision, and consequently a decrease in trust and clinician-patient empathy 112 [55, 81]. This is compounded by the fact that the line that separates AI tools in healthcare as "decision support systems" 113 114 and "decision-making systems" can be blurry under certain circumstances. For example, is there flexibility on the final 115 diagnostic after an AI software has made a suggestion if the clinician receives more information after the fact? Or does 116 an AI prescription override doubt in the light of new information? Emanuel and Wachter [35] argue that the promise of 117 AI in healthcare is deliverable only if we are able to establish a positive behavioral approach in which patients trust 118 119 the way their clinicians address the use of AI in their care. For example, healthcare providers can develop strategies 120 that encourage empathy and trust in the digital realm [117], such as identifying and designing a set of fundamental 121 ethical guiding principles [115, 118] and utilizing AI in a way such that not only doctor-AI-patient interactions become 122 more efficient, but doctor-patient interactions improve as well [7, 110]. Recent work has examined the potential of 123 124 patient-centered approaches in AI-based healthcare [18, 39, 90], showing that clinicians have a significant role in 125 facilitating trust to normalize the use of AI systems and that the current lack of interpretability of the use of AI within 126 healthcare hampers patient-centered medicine. 127

2.3 Trust in Al

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Trust is generally understood as an essential element for the well-functioning of healthcare systems and clinicianpatient relationships. Low trust levels are associated with a host of negative health and healthcare outcomes such 133 as poorer health status, decreasing adherence to medications, and shorter relationships with doctors, among others 134 [42]. Conversely, higher levels of trust are associated with better healthcare utilization and health outcomes, such as 136 increased commitment to appointments and outpatient visits and decreased emergency visits [19, 128].

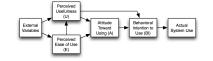
137 Canalizing trust in AI-enabled healthcare has great potential for clinicians and patients alike. In terms of operational 138 efficiency, it can decrease wait time for patients [60] and decrease health-related information asymmetries [37, 83, 111, 139 126]. The latter is a step in the right direction towards increasing patient adherence to the prescribed treatment, in 140 141 combination with a healthy relationship with the prescribing physician [35, 83, 126]. The use of AI in clinical support 142 systems has clear advantages in diagnosis, treatment selection, and monitoring [87, 109, 131]. There is also a positive 143 consequence of the usage of support systems that offer relative anonymity to users and, along with other means of 144 digital communication, reduce the reliance on face-to-face interaction between patients and carers. Anonymity has 145 146 been proven to increase users' self-disclosure on otherwise sensitive topics, including emotions and concerns [29]. This 147 secondary feature is especially relevant for settings where health-related topics might be taboo and, therefore, difficult 148 to discuss with carers for fear or shame. For instance, in India and Bangladesh, sexual and reproductive health is very 149 much a taboo, and shame and stigma around it contribute to young girls' negative health outcomes [116]. Preliminary 150 151 studies on the usage of health digital applications (e.g. mHealth [65]) show that these tools are widely accepted by 152 users in Bangladesh and India; however, digital literacy is still low, and in-person consultation still plays a crucial role 153 in the development of better health service provision that is in accordance with local norms and patients' ethics and 154

values [4, 79]. Clinician-technology cooperation and interaction are key in these settings and can potentially impact how patients accept these technologies.

161 2.4 Technology Acceptance Models

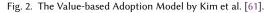
The theory behind the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) was introduced by Davis et al. [31] and outlines how users perceive and eventually come to accept technology. This model proposes that users rely on two factors when evaluating new technologies: the perceived usefulness (PU) of the technology and the perceived ease-of-use (PEOU) of the technology. Additionally, the authors find that external variables such as social influence have an impact on users' attitudes concerning a respective technology.

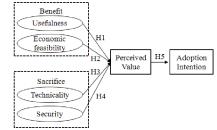
Fig. 1. The original Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) as outlined by Davis et al. [31].



While TAM has been expanded to account for various social and cultural factors that influence technology acceptance, it continues to serve as a guide for technology integration into fields ranging from agriculture to education [103]. Work by Hu et al. [51], perhaps some of the earliest literature on technology acceptance for healthcare, expands on the TAM framework to examine physician reasoning behind their intentions to use telemedicine technologies. This work finds that, as a whole, TAM reasonably captures physicians' acceptance of new technologies, but some factors, such as perceived ease-of-use did not determine attitudes. This finding, along with work done by Emad et al. [34], shows the need for a technology acceptance model able to capture the unique subtleties associated with technology acceptance within healthcare. Emad et al. [34] propose a modified technology acceptance model tailored towards healthcare informatics. They run quantitative experiments in the UK and Iraq using a model that includes traditional indicators, such as perception of the quality of the product, but also social variables, such as local norms. Again, perceived usefulness is found to be a significant factor in indicating the likelihood of technology acceptance. However, this work also highlights the need to examine cultural influences impacting the acceptance of novel technologies [34]. Nadri et al. [85] use the extended Technology Acceptance Model (TAM2) by Venkatesh and Davis [121] in studies in Iran, further highlighting the need for TAMs to be tailored towards the respective environment and target populations of a healthcare setting where new technologies will be introduced. Continuing with the trend of TAM in healthcare, Alhashmi et al. [5] further extend TAM for a study in the United Arab Emirates and find that factors such as the managerial, operational, and organizational makeup of healthcare facilities, along with their IT infrastructure impacts the integration of technology in this domain. Dhaggara et al. [32] shift from approaches taken by similar work and focus on the acceptance of technology in healthcare by patients rather than physicians. Their work augments TAM and shows that privacy and trust are also significant factors that impact technology acceptance, providing a solid base for the IAC framework introduced in this paper. As TAM continues to expand to different domains, more recent work has focused on the acceptance of AI as a technology. In their work, Sohn and Kwon [112] test a variety of technology acceptance theories, finding that the acceptance of AI-based technologies are more easily modeled by VAM, a values-based technology acceptance model incorporating factors such as enjoyment, usefulness, and economic feasibility [61], rather than the

popular TAM framework [112]. Our work contributes to prior literature on technology acceptance and expands on its applications to both healthcare and AI, which have not been explored as often.





2.5 Explainable AI

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225 Within the field of AI, explainability has become a major topic of interest. With the increasing complexity of the models 226 used to train AI, it has become a struggle to comprehend decisions made by AI from the side of practitioners and 227 end users [24, 50]. Within the field of explainable AI, a growing body of work is focused on examining the decisions 228 229 made by AI and improving methods of making AI explainable to both technical experts and novice users. Work by 230 Hoffman et al. [47] addresses the question of the effectiveness in explaining AI systems to users and proposes measures 231 that gauge the quality of explanations, user satisfaction with the explanations, user comprehension, and other factors 232 such as the suitability of user trust and reliance on AI systems. Voosen [123] highlights the challenge of embedding 233 234 explainability into AI systems, demonstrating the tradeoffs that often occur between accuracy and ensuring that AI 235 systems are transparent. XAI, a system developed by DARPA¹ consists of three approaches to assist in the development 236 of explainable AI models that maintain accuracy as the level of explainability increases [43]. Additionally, this system 237 will ensure that human users both understand and trust AI. As the need for explainable AI heightens, a growing 238 239 body of work has begun to focus on explainable AI for healthcare. Lamy et al. [67] extend methods for analogical 240 reasoning to propose visual techniques for classifying similar breast cancer cases that include both quantitative and 241 qualitative similarities. Other work in the healthcare domain has explored the development of explainable AI tools for 242 simulation training in surgery [80], predicting acute critical illnesses from electronic health records [69], predicting 243 244 low blood oxygen levels during surgery [73], digital pathology [52, 119, 120], and much more. Motivated by the legal 245 and privacy aspects of deploying AI within healthcare, Holzinger et al. [48] propose methods for explainable AI, 246 including expanding the capability of machine learning techniques to learn models that contain interpretable and causal 247 features, introducing participatory methods where AI decisions would not overrule human-based medical decisions, 248 249 and developing constructive user interfaces.

The explainability of AI should also consider the incentives and targets the particular algorithm is trying to optimize. In the context of image recognition, it is clear that the tools' outcome is (or, at the most, should be) to precisely identify a particular pattern of pixels linked to a medical condition. In the case of developing a diagnostic, however, it is possible for an AI application to include cost-cutting mechanisms in its target function. This means that a possible diagnosis or recommendation might push a patient in a specific direction without further consideration by a human, limiting the ability of the patient to make a fully informed decision.

 $^{^{1}}$ The Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA) is a research and development organization within the United States Department of Defense. 5

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Becker [15], expanded by Bohr and Memarzadeh [20], suggests the four following goals for any healthcare-related artificial intelligence tool:

- (1) Assessment of disease onset and treatment success.
- (2) Management or alleviation of complications.
- (3) Patient-care assistance during a treatment or procedure.
- (4) Research aimed at the discovery or treatment of disease.

Indicating that AI tools for healthcare aim to improve a patient's life, Kakarmath et al. [57] propose a list of best practices for research using AI. Our proposed framework aligns with these authors, incorporating techniques to make AI deployed within healthcare contexts "explainable" and expands work on explainable AI in healthcare, with a focus on improving both healthcare provider and patient understanding of AI.

3 AI TYPOLOGY

Table	1.	AI	Typo	logv
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	Administrative	Diagnostic	
		Computer-aided diagnosis (CADx, image processing)	
Patient-facing	Virtual Assistants for waiting rooms	Digital consultations (clinical decision support systems, CDS	
	Health monitoring	Brain-Computer interfaces (BCI)	
	Medication management	Group-level disease prevention	
	AI-driven robots assisting with care	Individualized precision medicine (with AI)	
		Robot-assisted surgery	
	Bed allocations		
Non patient-facing	Scanning of Electronic Patient Records		
	Staffing optimization: level and hiring		
	Simulations for Medical Education	Medical research and drug discovery (e.g. electrophysiology Analyzing clinical laboratory results	
	Forecasting demand for medical resources		
	Fraud detection		
	Cybersecurity for health data		

Note: authors' elaboration based on Arora [9], Jiang et al. [53], Kalis et al. [58].

In order to achieve increased transparency in our approach to an explainable ethical framework, we introduce a patient-centered classification of Artificial Intelligence use in healthcare. Research on patients' attitudes towards AI in healthcare has highlighted three common elements across surveys:

- (1) Pre-existing beliefs about a (healthcare) technology exist and affect its reception [98].
- (2) Patients seem concerned about their ability to choose or communicate with their physician if AI is involved [84, 99].
- (3) Concerns about AI arise when there is little knowledge of its usage but are mitigated with improved knowledge communication [84, 98, 99, 106].

These items call attention to the crucial role communication and social interaction have in AI technology acceptance. To improve communication, we must first understand how and where AI is used in healthcare, i.e. refer to a healthcare AI typology.

The more common AI typology in healthcare follows a classification based on input data type (structured and unstructured) and subsequent analytical method or departmental use of AI (e.g. workflow, care). However, when it

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comes to implementing an explainable ethical framework and behavioral protocol around AI social structures, we need to understand when AI comes in direct contact with patients or when it affects them indirectly through its role as an enabling technology. Table 1 presents a typology for AI in healthcare based on the amount of direct contact with patients. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first attempt at developing an AI typology that is patient-centered. Without a first attempt at recognizing the different ways and orders in which patients come in contact with AI in healthcare, we cannot begin to respond to the attitudinal issues raised above.

Moreover, the introduction of such a typology system will allow researchers to focus on separate AI-enabled tools based on their functions in the healthcare context and how it changes physician-AI-patient interaction. It is a stepping stone towards the implementation of a transparent (or explainable) behavioral and ethical protocol, namely IAC. Following an interaction-based typology lets us categorize AI systems in use across hospitals, regions, and countries and, importantly, draw parallels between successful and non-successful deployments within the context of AI-human-patient interaction. This type of identification is especially relevant when patients believe their ability to interact with their caregivers is harmed [84, 106], and there is still a general preference for human interaction [132].

4 IAC FRAMEWORK

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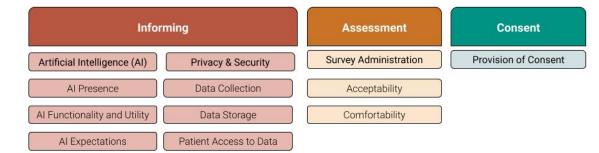
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363 364 LaRosa and Danks [68] acknowledge the need for the establishment of standards that assist in maintaining trust between patients and healthcare providers. An extensive search of prior literature reveals a lack of standardization regarding the introduction of AI in healthcare [96]. For AI-enabled technologies to have a significant impact on healthcare, we believe it is necessary for these technologies to be communicated to, reasonably understood by, and accepted by patients. In this paper, we propose a framework to guide how patients are informed about the presence of AI in their healthcare, measure patient acceptance and comfortability surrounding AI-enabled technologies, and assist in setting guidelines for how AI should be formally introduced to patients in healthcare settings. The core principles of this framework are broken down into 3 parts: *Informing, Assessment*, and *Consent*. For brevity, the framework will be referred to as IAC. The steps to implement the principles within IAC are detailed below and are also summarized within Figure 3.

Fig. 3. An outline of the three principles that construct the IAC framework and their respective implementation steps.



4.1 Informing

4.1.1 Artificial Intelligence. The lack of interpretability in AI systems is an issue that plagues both end users and developers alike [24, 50]. In the case of healthcare, these issues become amplified due to the presence of patients and the unique position they hold, being both non-AI and non-medical experts. With the advent of approaches focused

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on improving AI explainability within healthcare [1, 2, 113], there is much promise for physicians and other medical 366 practitioners to help close this gap by refining how they inform patients about the presence of AI and the accompanying 367 security and privacy implications of using such technologies in patient care. We consider this process to be a form 368 369 of "explanation" where the physician explains the important functions of AI and what privacy and security measures 370 will be enacted. With this in mind, we introduce the principle of Informing to reshape existing approaches to medical 371 transparency and impact patient trust. 372

373 AI Procedure The Informing principle is the first within the IAC framework and consists of informing the patient about AI and its respective privacy and security implications. In the implementation of this principle, the healthcare practitioner will begin by ensuring that the patient has been informed about the presence of AI in the equipment 376 and/or software being directly used in their care. Following this, the patient will then be briefed on the purpose of the AI technology, what roles AI it aims to serve in patient care, and the exact functions it will perform throughout this 378 379 process. From there, the healthcare practitioner will proceed to inform the patient about privacy and security. 380

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384 4.1.2 Privacy and Security. Issues of privacy and security in healthcare are of extreme concern [10, 78, 94]. Over the 385 past few years, data breaches such as hacking, malware attacks, and phishing have affected healthcare systems around 386 the world almost incessantly [45, 77, 107]. As the need for machine learning systems to be trained on extraordinarily 387 large amounts of data increases and the opportunities for contributing personal health data to these systems grow, it is 388 389 imperative that patients are aware of the implications associated with engaging in AI-enabled technologies. When 390 designing the Privacy & Security aspects of Informing in the IAC framework, it was important to establish that patients 391 would know what and how personal data is collected from AI-enabled technologies, how this data is securely and 392 privately kept, and the autonomy that can be exercised in the management of their personal data. What is most 393 394 important is that patients understand how they maintain agency over their own data. To maintain trust, especially when 395 interacting with emerging technologies like artificial intelligence that are relatively complex, it may also be important 396 for patients to have ownership of their personal healthcare data, where they are allowed to control privileges associated 397 with access, use, storage, and possible deletion. While we posit this specific type of ownership as being important to 398 399 patients, there is work needed to understand the limitations of such an approach in certain healthcare settings.

400 Privacy and Security Procedure To implement the aspects of Privacy & Security, there are a few steps that 401 healthcare practitioners can complete to ensure their actions are in alignment with the IAC framework. In this stage, 402 the healthcare practitioner should begin by informing patients of what data is being collected from them while the 403 AI system is being used in their care. During this step, the patient should be encouraged to ask questions pertaining 404 405 to the data collection and storage process. Following this, the healthcare practitioner should explain how this data is 406 collected and will describe where this respective data will be stored (locally in hospital data storage centers, in the 407 cloud, etc.). Finally, the healthcare practitioner should ensure that the patient understands what access they have to 408 409 their own data, along with explaining how this data can and will be used outside of their direct care. With respect to the 410 Consent principle of the IAC framework, patients should have the option to consent to the use of their data by second 411 or third parties. This option aims to be exclusive of the consent given for the use of AI, meaning that patients should 412 have the right to object to their data being used outside of their direct care (e.g. to train updates to AI systems) while 413 414 still receiving treatment from the AI-enabled technology.

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4.2 Assessment

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To assess how patients perceive the use of AI in their healthcare after being informed about AI and its privacy and security implications, healthcare practitioners should assess how patients accept AI and how comfortable they feel about its use in their care. Based on the needs of the patient and the capabilities of the facility, the patient can be surveyed in verbal or written form using scales such as Likert, to which we propose examples below.

423 4.2.1 Acceptability. The condition of acceptability within healthcare contexts can provide significant insight into the 424 effectiveness of a specific intervention but has been defined ambiguously throughout healthcare literature [108]. In their 425 work, Sekhon et al. develop a comprehensive theoretical framework for acceptability that encompasses the subjective 426 427 evaluations made by patients who experience and healthcare practitioners who deliver a respective intervention. With 428 respect to the healthcare domain, Dyer et al. [33] synthesizes the term acceptability into a definition that embraces the 429 aspects of experiential healthcare treatment and social validity. With this prior work in mind, we craft the principle of 430 Acceptability in the IAC framework to elucidate how AI-enabled technologies conform to a patient's ethical values and 431 432 expectations. It has been shown that patients are more receptive to treatment recommendations, leading to improved 433 clinical outcomes [49]. If patients are given the right to explicitly accept that a healthcare intervention enabled with AI 434 will be used in their care, this will lead to greater trust in these respective systems and possibly enhanced quality of 435 care. 436

Acceptability Procedure To continue using the IAC framework, the *Acceptability* principle will be evaluated to
 measure how accepting a patient is of a proposed AI-enabled intervention being introduced for use in their healthcare.
 Our proposed evaluation methodology includes questions where the possible range of answers is based on a modified
 Likert scale with five options: Acceptable, Slightly acceptable, Neutral, Slightly unacceptable, and Unacceptable. While a
 Likert scale is proposed in this context, healthcare practitioners may find other measurement scales [46] more relevant
 to them. A sample list of questions is depicted below:

- (1) How acceptable is having your healthcare practitioner use AI on you?
- (2) How acceptable is this technology being used in your treatment?
- (3) How acceptable is this technology being used in place of the practitioner?
- (4) How acceptable is this technology being used to support the work of the practitioner?
- (5) How acceptable is this technology taking data from you?
- (6) How acceptable is this technology to have access to your personal health data?

The above questions are a combination of affect and cognition measures [108] that may prompt informal questions about the technology from the patient to the healthcare provider. These conversations serve to ease the patients' worries and increase trust and transparency.

457 4.2.2 Comfortability. Another important aspect of the IAC framework is to consider how comfortable patients are with 458 AI-enabled technologies being incorporated and used within their healthcare. While comfortability is often overlooked 459 in the informed consent process, it is a key part of the patient experience [127]. Pelvic examinations are particularly 460 known to be challenging experiences for both physicians and female patients and can be eased by using a plastic 461 462 speculum (an instrument used to widen an orifice for inspection) over a metal one [63]. Unfortunately, when receiving 463 gynecological exams, there are cases where the selection of a speculum is left to the preference of the provider with 464 little regard to patient choice [14]. With the current state of AI integration in healthcare, we find stark similarities in 465 the lack of patient choice. We believe that if patients are given the opportunity to express their level of comfort in 466 467

how AI-enabled technologies are used in their treatment, this could lead to a stronger understanding of how patients
 perceive the use of AI in their care and may positively impact patient healthcare outcomes.

Comfortability Procedure The *Comfortability* stage of the IAC framework provides a place where a patient 472 473 can express their respective feelings of comfort regarding the AI-enabled healthcare intervention to the healthcare 474 practitioner. In this process, the healthcare practitioner can administer a qualitative survey consisting of a modified 475 Likert scale to gauge how comfortable the patient is with the AI intervention and its associated implications. Similar to 476 the principle of Acceptability, in this survey, the healthcare practitioner will ask the patient a set of questions with the 477 478 possible range of answers being Comfortable, Slightly comfortable, Neutral, Slightly uncomfortable, and Uncomfortable. 479 As with Acceptability, this proposed scale can be adapted to fit the domain context and patient needs. A list of sample 480 questions is below: 481

- (1) How comfortable are you with this healthcare practitioner using AI on you?
- (2) How comfortable are you with this technology being used in your treatment?
- (3) How comfortable are you with this technology being used in place of the practitioner?
- (4) How comfortable are you with this technology being used to support the work of the practitioner?
- (5) How comfortable are you with this technology taking data from you?
- (6) How comfortable are you with this technology having access to your personal health data?

4.3 Consent

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492 The informed consent process in healthcare has traditionally been opaque due to the lack of medical knowledge the 493 average patient has, but recent advancements to improve this process have included multimedia interventions such as 494 videos and interactive computer software or written information like informational leaflets or pamphlets [92]. More 495 496 novel approaches, such as eConsenting (the practice of using digital devices such as mobile phones or computers in 497 the informed consent process), have come into prominence across multiple areas of healthcare, but standards of this 498 practice have yet to be implemented [74]. However, the process of informed consent is further convoluted by the lack 499 of transparency provided when attempting to understand how or why certain equipment is being used in patient 500 501 care. When consenting to receive medical treatment, patients generally consent to the overall process of receiving a 502 respective treatment and have little to no liberty in the selection of the type of medical equipment or brands of medical 503 supplies involved in their care. While considerable effort is taken upon physicians and other medical personnel to 504 apprise patients of the possible benefits and/or detriments of a respective procedure, there is little transparency about 505 506 the tools used in these procedures. When introducing the principle of *Consent* in the IAC framework, ensuring that 507 patients are informed about the presence and utility of AI within software or equipment being used in their care and 508 that they consent to these technologies was of high importance. 509

4.3.1 Consent Procedure. After first briefing patients on AI and its respective implications and administering surveys 511 to measure acceptability and comfortability, the healthcare practitioner can begin the process of seeking consent from 512 513 the patient to proceed with using the AI-enabled technology in their care. It is important for the healthcare practitioner 514 to acknowledge that consent is a dynamic process and can be revoked at any time. If the patient chooses not to go 515 forward with this respective AI-enabled intervention, their choice should be respected, and a non-AI equivalent should 516 be made available for use. With respect to privacy and security, patients should also have the option to consent to the 517 518 use of their data by second or third parties. This option aims to be exclusive of the consent given for the use of AI, 519 meaning that patients should have the right to object to their data being used outside of their direct care (e.g. to train 520

Table 2. A breakdown of the principles within the IAC framework and questions guiding their implementation.

522 523	Principle	Related Question(s)
525	Informing	Does the patient understand how AI will be used in their care? Does the patient
525		understand the associated privacy and security implications of AI being used
526		in their healthcare?
527	Assessment	Does the patient accept that these technologies will be used on
528		them/incorporated into their treatment? Is the patient comfortable with these
529		technologies being used in their treatment?
530	Consent	Does the patient consent to having these AI-enabled technologies used on
531		them/incorporated into their treatment?

updates to AI systems) while still receiving treatment from the AI-enabled technology. Throughout this process, we stress that the healthcare practitioner is transparent with the patient at all times in regard to how they illustrate the respective capabilities and risks of the AI intervention. Based on the available resources of the medical facility and operating procedures for obtaining authorization for medical care, consent from the patient can be confirmed through either a digital/handwritten signature or through verbal confirmation.

5 CASE STUDY

To conceptualize how the IAC framework would be deployed and to prepare for the various contexts in which IAC could be implemented, we will present three hypothetical scenarios below:

5.1 Scenario I

Client A is a large research hospital in the United States that recently bought a \$1.5 million AI system to install into their CT scanners to automatically scan for brain tumors. The radiologists and technicians employed in this hospital are well-versed in AI techniques and welcome the use of AI within their respective diagnostic workflows. The patients who visit this hospital are from middle to high-income backgrounds and are generally college-educated. The patients themselves are not experts in AI, but have heard or read about it in the news. Some patients work in technical fields as software engineers, data architects, etc., and may have firsthand experience with artificial intelligence through their professions. Client A has decided to adopt the IAC framework in alignment with recently mandated government regulations outlining the use of AI in medical equipment.

5.2 Scenario II

Client B is a clinic in the Philippines that has been collaborating with researchers from an industry research lab in their country. The researchers have developed an AI system to automatically scan for eye diseases and want to pilot it in the clinic. The nurses, the healthcare workers in charge of administering the eye scans, are unfamiliar with AI and have never used it before asides from apps with recommendation systems like Facebook or YouTube. The patients who visit this clinic work low to medium-wage jobs and have experience using technological devices such as mobile phones or computers. On average, the patients have no prior knowledge of AI and have similar experiences with using AI in apps to the nurses. In this pilot, the researchers from the industry lab want to test the IAC framework to gauge the potential of their system as a viable diagnostic tool for the clinic.

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5.3 Scenario III

575 Client C is a community health program in rural Kenya that has received funding from a non-governmental organiza-576 tion to deploy AI-enabled smartphone applications that can screen for tuberculosis in their mHealth program. The 577 smartphones are operated by community health workers (CHWs) who have the equivalent of a high school education 578 and have received training from the NGO to conduct simple medical procedures such as measuring patient vital signs 579 580 (breathing rate, blood pressure, body temperature, etc.) and screening for infectious diseases. The CHWs are familiar 581 with using mobile phones through working with them on a daily basis. However, their knowledge of AI is extremely 582 low or non-existent. On average, the patients involved in this community health program have the equivalent of a 583 grade school-level education, and many of them work as day laborers in the agricultural sector or stay at home to take 584 585 care of their children. The patients in this community have little experience with technology and have, at most, been 586 exposed to basic (feature) mobile phones. The patients have had no exposure to AI and are unaware of it as a potential 587 tool for disease diagnosis. The community health program has received guidance from the NGO to integrate IAC into 588 the care routines of the CHWs and has received training from facilitators at the organization to do so. 589

⁵⁹¹ 6 LIMITATIONS

While the goal of IAC is to facilitate the transition of AI into healthcare, we understand that not all healthcare institutions 593 have the capacity or ability to integrate these systems. We recognize the potential for those institutions with larger 594 595 operating budgets and higher skilled physicians to have higher levels of access to these technologies, thus widening the 596 already large healthcare gap seen between countries in the Global North and South and even within urban and rural 597 areas within "developed" countries. However, we hope that as AI becomes more commonly integrated into healthcare 598 systems around the world, IAC can serve as a guiding framework and be adapted to fit the distinct needs of healthcare 599 600 institutions. Additionally, while IAC is meant to be used for all kinds of AI systems, we find that the framework may 601 have to be expanded for contexts where smaller devices such as mobile phones and IoT devices such as monitoring 602 bands, smart speakers, and sensors are commonly used in healthcare. 603

6.0.1 Bias in AI Technologies for Healthcare. Over the past few years, as the field of AI ethics has developed, concerns 605 about bias within AI systems used for healthcare have become more prominent [25, 36, 88, 124]. Algorithmic bias is an 606 607 issue that is more likely to affect marginalized populations and compound on existing inequities within fields such 608 as healthcare, education, housing, and policing [16, 41, 71]. As AI systems continue to evolve, we believe that it is 609 imperative to address these issues to ensure that the decisions and solutions provided by these systems are, in fact, fair 610 and transparent. We believe auditing systems for AI-powered technologies [95] or frameworks for assessing ethical 611 612 considerations in healthcare technologies [12, 26, 40, 91] could be a better solution for directly addressing concerns of 613 algorithmic bias within these systems. While the IAC framework does not directly address the issue of bias within AI 614 software that is used directly for healthcare, we believe integrating the principles and methods from existing approaches 615 will provide much more robustness within our respective framework. This is an area of future interest but not within 616 617 the scope of our work at the moment.

619 6.1 Socio-cultural Values

While IAC provides a novel interaction-based approach to the concepts of acceptability, explainability, and privacy in AI for healthcare contexts, these concepts may not translate well to non-Western contexts. In regions where healthcare services are scarce due to the low number of medical professionals and facilities, the prospect of receiving urgent

care through an AI intervention may trump the need for doctors to inform patients about the implications of these 625 technologies. Research has also shown that concepts such as algorithmic fairness and privacy differ amongst users in 626 Global South and Western contexts [3, 28, 86, 97, 102]. With this in mind, attempting to inform patients about why 627 concepts such as data privacy or security are relevant to them may also be another task within itself to realize the 628 629 full potential of IAC. Additionally, with both of the authors living in Western countries (the United States and the 630 Netherlands, respectively), our values around privacy have been shaped by ideals that differ from those held by people 631 living within the Global South. Working to understand how cultural perceptions of privacy, especially within healthcare 632 contexts, impact the implementation of certain principles within IAC is an imperative task and will help shape future 633 634 iterations of this framework. 635

6.2 Regulatory Limitations

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While AI and data protection regulation have advanced rapidly over the past decade [23, 56, 89, 93, 104], few countries 639 have formally enacted regulations that guide the use of AI in healthcare settings [82, 122]. With this in mind, an 640 additional hurdle that may impact the integration of IAC is the lack of regulatory structures in many countries outlining 642 the use of AI in healthcare and other contexts. With no prior guide that governs the use of AI, it is unclear how IAC 643 would complement existing incentive structures for hospitals and clinics to leverage the principles of our framework. 644 However, this lack of regulation may benefit the IAC framework by impacting future medical school curricula and 645 facility-specific healthcare AI guidelines. We also find that IAC has the potential to bridge these policy gaps and could 646 inform policy-making in this context. 648

7 CONCLUSION

This paper introduces the IAC framework, which aims to improve how patients are informed about and consent to 652 653 the use of AI-enabled medical technologies within their care. Our work leverages prior research in three areas: the 654 social-behavioral foundations of technology in healthcare, technology acceptance models, and work in explainable AI 655 to inform our approach. The IAC framework is motivated by the crucial role carer-patient trust plays in patients' health 656 outcomes, and aims to guide how healthcare practitioners can inform patients about the use of AI in their healthcare, 657 how practitioners can assess patients' acceptability and comfortability with the use of AI, and how patient consent 658 659 can be gained after this process. While the field of human-AI interaction in the domain of artificial intelligence for 660 healthcare is advancing, there is little work focused on examining how patients play an active role in these technologies. 661 In particular, exploring the need for AI to be used in a complementary manner, where both patients and healthcare 662 practitioners play an active role in the development and use of these technologies, could be beneficial to limiting 663 664 instances of bias and improving how these technologies serve the best interests of patients. Ensuring that AI does 665 not exacerbate existing disparities within healthcare begins with instituting guidelines and standards to monitor and 666 guide its use. Our approach aims to diminish concerns that may arise from the introduction of AI in healthcare, but 667 future work that leverages human-centered methodologies will be needed to fully understand patient perception and 668 669 acceptance of AI. 670

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