

# Unified Documentation and Information Retrieval for Electronic Health Records

by

Luke Murray

B.S., Brown University (2018)

Submitted to the Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer  
Science

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Science in Computer Science and Engineering

at the

MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

February 2022

© Massachusetts Institute of Technology 2022. All rights reserved.

Author .....  
Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science  
January 26, 2022

Certified by .....  
David R. Karger  
Professor of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science  
Thesis Supervisor

Accepted by .....  
Leslie A. Kolodziejski  
Professor of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science  
Chair, Department Committee on Graduate Students



# Unified Documentation and Information Retrieval for Electronic Health Records

by

Luke Murray

Submitted to the Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science  
on January 26, 2022, in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree of  
Master of Science in Computer Science and Engineering

## Abstract

Clinicians in the Emergency Department want to efficiently provide and document high-quality care but cannot, mainly due to challenges exacerbated by Electronic Health Records. For each patient, clinicians have to review the patient history, perform a physical exam, synthesize findings into a differential diagnosis and care plan; coordinate care with other specialists; order and document tests, labs, procedures, and medications; and finally discharge the patient. Existing EHRs have poor usability, time-consuming data entry, and fragmented information exploration and documentation interfaces. As a result, clinicians struggle to synthesize the patient's history and care plan into a concise and clear data-driven narrative. Additionally, in an Emergency Department Environment, Clinicians often see 35 patients in a single shift and generally have no prior knowledge of any patient's medical record. With limited time, clinicians often have to satisfy their information needs and synthesis, potentially leading to errors, harm, or non-optimal care.

Clinical tools must enable rapid contextual access to the patient's medical record with techniques that do not disrupt existing workflows to better support information exploration and documentation. This thesis outlines the development of such a tool, MedKnowts. MedKnowts is an integrated note-taking editor and information retrieval system which unifies the documentation and search process and provides concise synthesized concept-oriented slices of the patient's medical record. MedKnowts automatically captures structured data while still allowing users the flexibility of natural language. MedKnowts leverages this structure to enable easier parsing of long notes, auto-populated text, and proactive information retrieval, easing the documentation burden.

Thesis Supervisor: David R. Karger

Title: Professor of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science



## Acknowledgments

I would like to first and foremost thank my parents, who encouraged my curiosity and fostered my love of learning. I would also like to thank my brothers who showed me the value of play and imagination. This project would not be possible without the dedication and patience of Divya Gopinath and Monica Agarwal. I would also like to thank David Sontag, Steven Horng, and David Karger who guided the direction of the project. Lastly I would like to thank the tremendous number of people, nurses, doctors, and scribes at BIDMC who were willing to accept many bugs in alpha software and provided valuable feedback as we designed and made this project a reality.



# Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>Related Work</b>	<b>19</b>
2.1	The Evolving Nature of Medical Records . . . . .	19
2.2	The Impact of Electronic Health Records . . . . .	23
2.3	Narrative In EHRs . . . . .	25
2.4	How to Visualize Clinical Data . . . . .	27
2.4.1	How to Organize and Select Clinical Data to Display . . . . .	28
2.5	Information Capture . . . . .	30
2.6	Automatic Term Recognition . . . . .	30
2.7	Structured Data Capture . . . . .	31
2.8	Information Fragmentation in EHRs . . . . .	32
2.9	Information Foraging Theory . . . . .	33
<b>3</b>	<b>Design and Implementation</b>	<b>35</b>
3.1	Environment . . . . .	35
3.1.1	Clinical Workflow . . . . .	35
3.1.2	A Variety of Documentation Processes . . . . .	36
3.1.3	Study Environment . . . . .	37
3.2	Design and Implementation . . . . .	38
3.2.1	Autocomplete . . . . .	39
3.2.2	Post Recognitions . . . . .	41
3.2.3	Semantic Highlighting and Concept Disambiguation . . . . .	41

3.2.4	Context-specific information retrieval . . . . .	43
3.2.5	Default Text . . . . .	44
3.2.6	Concept-Oriented Views . . . . .	46
3.2.7	Surfacing Cards . . . . .	47
3.2.8	Hand Designed vs Automatically Generated Cards . . . . .	48
3.2.9	Card Design . . . . .	49
3.2.10	Inline Display of Cards . . . . .	51
<b>4</b>	<b>Evaluation</b>	<b>53</b>
4.1	Evaluation . . . . .	53
<b>5</b>	<b>Discussion</b>	<b>59</b>
5.1	Discussion . . . . .	59
<b>6</b>	<b>Conclusion</b>	<b>63</b>
6.1	Conclusion . . . . .	63



# List of Figures

- 1-1 The MedKnowts interface containing sections of the clinical note on the left, and an integrated sidebar on the right. The user is typing WBC and triggering autocomplete (A). Detail text in the autocomplete is used to differentiate clinical terms and provide additional context such as result counts. The card for the most recent identified term, CK, is displayed in the preview pane (C) with values displayed as a line chart, and abnormal values highlighted in red. The preview pane history can be navigated using the backwards and forwards buttons at the top of (C). Below the preview pane the doctor has pinned a card for oxycodone (D), which displays note snippets relevant to oxycodone. A search bar at the top of the sidebar can be used as an alternative method to add cards to the preview pane. A transcluded card for cardiac conditions (B) shows labs, cardiology reports, and note snippets relevant to congestive heart failure in a single interface. . . . . 15

2-1	An example of a standard review of systems document that meets CMS billing level 5 documentation standards by documenting ten organ systems [3]. The fifth line (starting with CV) has been modified to include the text "severe chest pain starting this morning", all other text comes from a standard Review of Systems template [9]. In a normal interface, the changed text would not be highlighted and the single piece of meaningful information becomes impossible to spot due to the boilerplate text surrounding it. The clinicians rely on templates to document this type of boiler plate, and receive higher reimbursement for meeting documentation guidelines, but the resulting note is noisy, difficult to parse, and does not clearly or effectively communicate the patient's condition. . . . .	21
3-1	Autocomplete in the same context without filters and with filters. The "/m" command is used to limit the clinical terms displayed to medications. . . . .	39
3-2	Autocomplete inserts terms as highlighted immutable chips. They can be deleted, moved around and copied like other text, but they cannot be modified. . . . .	42
3-3	Post recognitions are automatically recognized clinical terms. They are rendered with a dotted border and can be disambiguated through a popup menu on click. Negated post recognitions are rendered with an underline. . . . .	43
3-4	An example of context-specific information retrieval. Autocomplete insertion of lab results using a tree based menu with support for aggregation at multiple time frames and specific values . . . . .	44
3-5	An example of the review of systems section . . . . .	45
3-6	An example card surfaced for <i>Congestive Heart Failure</i> , which contains pertinent lab values, links to recent echocardiography reports, and recent notes that mention the condition. . . . .	50

4-1 Scribes' System Usability Scale scores with medians displayed as black bars for each question . . . . . 55



# Chapter 1

## Introduction

Electronic Health Records (EHRs) have been adopted in the hope that they would improve patient care, save time, support collaboration and data sharing, and prevent clinical errors [32, 94, 52, 3]. However, current EHR platforms have largely failed to achieve these goals. EHR adoption can enable easy access to accurate documentation of patient records, reduce medical errors, standardize practice, improve quality of patient care, and provide better support for billing [74, 106]. However, in practice, EHRs increase documentation time, impede existing workflows and the delivery of informal care, reduce collaboration, increase interruptions in medical workflow, introduce errors, and decrease face-to-face time with patients [74, 34, 71, 15, 10, 51, 89]. As a result, EHR usage is a leading cause of physician burnout, stress, and clinician professional dissatisfaction [67, 98, 69, 38].

Despite being laborious to create, well-written clinical documentation is invaluable. At their best, clinical narratives can help clinicians understand a patient's case [76, 63], function as a powerful communication method between clinicians [31], and serve as learning tools to improve future care practice [20]. But EHRs rarely achieve this and arguably interfere with it. The issue lies in the fragmentation among views in the EHR for the two processes underlying the clinical workflow: (i) information retrieval and data exploration over a patient's history and (ii) information entry. Because structured and unstructured data can be hard to reconcile, EHRs often store and display information in separate pages or windows, and physicians have

to synthesize the patient narrative by navigating across a variety of sources [92, 11]. This creates an increased cognitive burden to discover unstructured information, and studies have shown that clinicians spend more time reading past notes than doing any other activity in the EHR [27]. Further, the fragmented interfaces hinder comprehensibility and necessitate frequent task-switching [124, 63, 31]. To avoid this context switching, clinicians have developed coping mechanisms such as copying from previous notes or using autofill techniques for naive pre-population of text [45, 61, 91]. Unfortunately, indiscriminate use of these auxiliary functions causes documentation to become bloated, making it difficult for clinicians to parse important clinical information, and potentially even propagating errors [108, 91, 47, 114].

## Contribution

This thesis documents the design, implementation, deployment, and evaluation of a system for EHRs, MedKnowts, which passively assists clinicians by seamlessly integrating an editor for clinical documentation with a *concept-oriented view* [121] of the patient’s medical history. MedKnowts provides contextual autocomplete (Fig. 1-1A) for clinical terms (e.g. conditions, symptoms), saving precious documentation time. The autocomplete works without a trigger character—so it does not disrupt the prior documentation workflow—and displays options for structured data entry (e.g. lab values) as the user types, removing the need to memorize content importing phrases. When autocomplete is not used, we employ keyword matching, which we call *post recognitions*, to automatically identify clinical terms as the clinician types. Both auto-completed and post-recognized terms are transformed into structured interactive elements which we call *chips*. We leverage this structure for live semantic highlighting that enables easier parsing of long notes and for automatic population of repetitive text fields, easing documentation burden. Therefore, MedKnowts retains some of the benefits of structured data entry, while still allowing users the flexibility of natural language to describe the subtleties of complex patient narratives.

Further, we use the structured data to automatically surface *information cards*

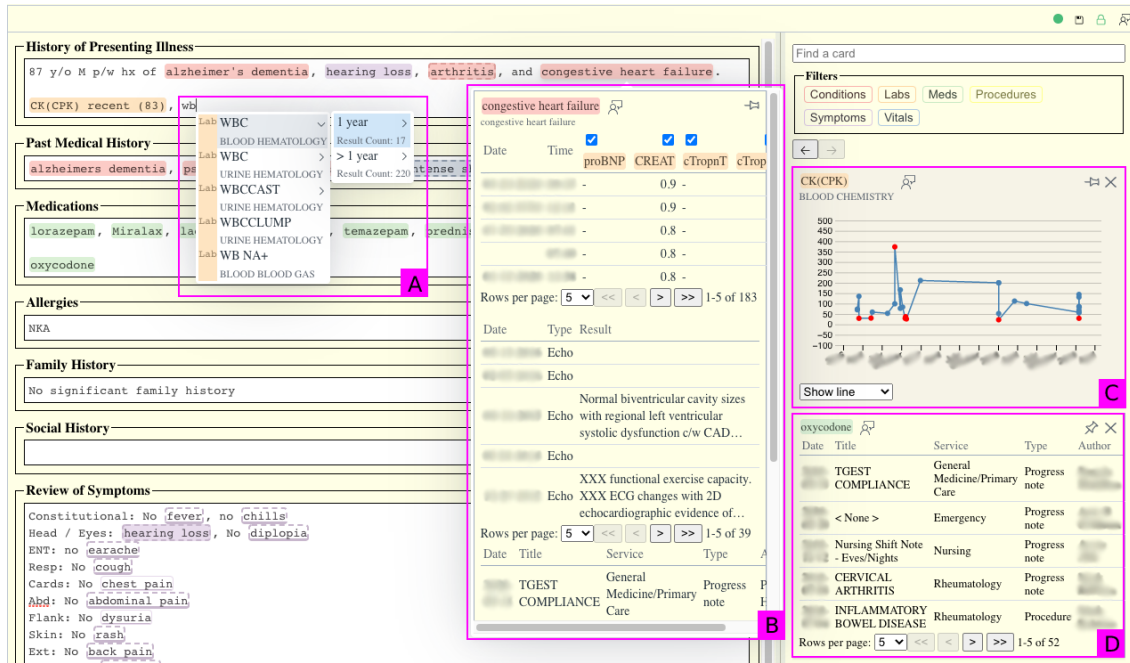


Figure 1-1: The MedKnowts interface containing sections of the clinical note on the left, and an integrated sidebar on the right. The user is typing WBC and triggering autocomplete (A). Detail text in the autocomplete is used to differentiate clinical terms and provide additional context such as result counts. The card for the most recent identified term, CK, is displayed in the preview pane (C) with values displayed as a line chart, and abnormal values highlighted in red. The preview pane history can be navigated using the backwards and forwards buttons at the top of (C). Below the preview pane the doctor has pinned a card for oxycodone (D), which displays note snippets relevant to oxycodone. A search bar at the top of the sidebar can be used as an alternative method to add cards to the preview pane. A transcluded card for cardiac conditions (B) shows labs, cardiology reports, and note snippets relevant to congestive heart failure in a single interface.

in an attached preview pane (Fig. 1-1C) as the doctor types. Proactively displayed cards provide concise summaries of relevant medical history, reducing the context-switching required to synthesize a note. Each card is a concept-oriented view [121] such that information is grouped by underlying concept (e.g. the labs, medications, and notes related to a condition) rather than by data modality (all medications at once). Concept-oriented views have been shown to help physicians work faster and make fewer errors [95]. In addition to the automatically surfaced cards, chips embedded in the note and in cards serve as links to related cards, providing direct access to the relevant medical history from the note context and other cards. Cards can be surfaced in-line by hovering on a chip (Fig. 1-1B) or in the preview pane by clicking on a chip. This provides an additional avenue for contextual information retrieval without dividing attention between views. Finally, cards can be pinned to an attached sidebar (Fig. 1-1D), which persists the card to a view shared by the clinical care team, allowing for easier bookmarking, collaboration, and data sharing without directly copying to contribute to note bloat.

We present the following contributions to enhance the EHR note taking experience:

- We provide passive and automatic methods to insert and disambiguate clinical terms as the note is written and transform them into chips—interactive, structured elements which provide information scent about recognized vocabulary, semantic highlighting, access to inline documentation, and contextual information retrieval. We therefore retain benefits of structured data entry without sacrificing the flexibility or ease of natural language.
- We augment the EHR note-taking interface with a shared sidebar to which clinicians can pin cards. Each card presents a concept-oriented view for a particular clinical term. The sidebar provides clinicians with a shared and persistent space, integrated with the documentation interface, where they can add and remove cards. It thereby situates, beside the semi-structured note, a collaborative, customizable, and context-specific view of structured data in a patient’s medical



record.

- We proactively display a preview card of the most recently identified concept which updates as the user types. The preview card provides a consistent passive display of detailed information immediately relevant to the clinician's current decision making context, reducing the need for the physician to manually forage for information.
- We present findings from a year long iterative prototyping and design process and a one month evaluation with four medical notetakers.

We implemented these designs in a prototype system which we deployed live among scribes in an Emergency Department (ED) at a Level I trauma center and tertiary, academic, adults-only, teaching hospital. Our system was designed over the course of a year, in collaboration with an emergency physician with over a decade of experience designing and deploying EHRs, and with ongoing feedback from stakeholders including scribes, medical students, and physicians. In practice, scribes found MedKnowts easy to use with a quick learning curve and indicated that they would use it frequently. Further, they found the features of MedKnowts well-integrated, saving them time over their previous workflows both for documentation and information retrieval.



# Chapter 2

## Related Work

### 2.1 The Evolving Nature of Medical Records

Medical records were initially introduced as educational tools but have evolved over time to become highly formalized and structured documents [68]. The first examples of Medical Records appear in 1600 B.C. in Egypt where they were used to document interesting cases for teaching purposes [13]. They were adopted in the west in the 17th century, where they existed as largely free-form and post-hoc summaries of cases until the 19th century [42, 68]. In the 19th century, fears of insurance and malpractice lawsuits, and the growing importance of evidence based medicine, caused health records to become more verbose, structured, and standardized [42]. However, up until the 20th century medical records remained standalone documents, maintained and used by individual doctors or departments in hospitals. In 1907 hospitals realized the benefits of aggregating all patient records from each department in one place [86]. Medical records evolved from standalone documents, into large heterogeneous collections of all the written, typed, or electronically served information about a patient [23]. At the same time, health care became increasingly specialized and fragmented. As a result, modern medical records can no longer be characterized as centralized or static. Rather they are distributed and continuously updated living records and maintained by a distributed group of care providers and specialists [68].

Despite their evolving nature, each note in a medical record, should at the very

least clearly document the clinician’s understanding of a patient and communicate that understanding effectively [97]. However, many medical records fail to accomplish this basic task due to misaligned billing incentives and fear of legal repercussions [32]. Reimbursement guidelines [3] encourage such verbose notes, that physicians rely on templates, macros, or copy and paste to quickly add the necessary information [97, 91]. The resulting notes are often described as “data-rich and information-poor” [97, 36]. So much boilerplate and standard detail is added that important clinical information is obscured, potentially leading to errors [38, 15]. Figure 2-1 exemplifies this issue, showing how a standard template for the Review of System section, used to meet reimbursement guidelines, obscures key clinical information. Additionally, billing guidelines require that each note stand on its own [119]. As a result, notes contain large amounts of duplicated and redundant information. One study found that 78% and 54% of information contained in average sign out and progress notes is duplicated [119]. The large amount of required duplication creates an intense documentation burden for authors writing the note, and magnifies information overload challenges for downstream clinicians reading the note. A tool used to highlight changes between notes was found to reduce incorrect clinical assumptions by a factor of two, and increased the amount of references clinicians made to information available in past notes [35]. However, these technical solutions, while helpful, alleviate symptoms rather than the root cause of data redundancy, duplication, and information overload in clinical notes.

In light of these issues, it is worth looking back at some of the advantageous qualities of paper records. Paper records have many inherent issues. They suffer from illegibility, fragmentation, are often unavailable, and are difficult to transfer between hospitals and offices [42, 30]. However, because paper records often exist as a *single collection of documents* shared by all care providers, clinicians using the record are incentivized to minimize documentation time and reduce multitasking and context switching between patients, so that the record can be returned to its central location for use by other care providers [74, 68]. The centralized location of records provides a physical space for spontaneous communication and collaboration between distributed

CONST: Negative for fever, body aches and chills.

HENT: Negative for neck pain/stiffness, headache, congestion, sore throat, swelling.

EYES: Negative for discharge/pain or vision changes.

RESP: Negative for cough/hemoptysis and shortness of breath.

CV: Negative difficulty breathing, palpitations. **Severe chest pain since this morning.**

ABD: Negative pain, nausea, vomiting.

GU: Negative increase frequency, dysuria, blood in urine or stool.

MUSC: Negative for muscle aches, edema.

SKIN: Negative rash, lesions/sores.

NEURO: Negative headache, dizziness, weakness.

Figure 2-1: An example of a standard review of systems document that meets CMS billing level 5 documentation standards by documenting ten organ systems [3]. The fifth line (starting with CV) has been modified to include the text "severe chest pain starting this morning", all other text comes from a standard Review of Systems template [9]. In a normal interface, the changed text would not be highlighted and the single piece of meaningful information becomes impossible to spot due to the boilerplate text surrounding it. The clinicians rely on templates to document this type of boiler plate, and receive higher reimbursement for meeting documentation guidelines, but the resulting note is noisy, difficult to parse, and does not clearly or effectively communicate the patient's condition.

care teams [74]. Although paper records lack affordances for easily importing large quantities of data [91, 97] the resulting notes are limited to relevant clinical information and may be more valuable to downstream physicians. In studies of hospitals that use paper records, doctors cite previous notes, specifically progress notes, as the most important part of the record [68, 53]. Doctors find these notes particularly valuable because they summarize findings and decisions made at each event in the patient's clinical story [68]. In an electronic health record, the same notes are considerably less valuable. One study found that 54% of the information documented in progress notes was copied from previous notes [119]. Clinicians using electronic health records find notes so verbose and repetitive, that some authors have called for a new note format, which places sections that tend to be unique at the top of the note where they can easily be found by downstream care providers [97]. Other authors have proposed interfaces which change the format of the note display to better highlight useful sections or pieces of clinical information [36]. Although Electronic Health Records present more information to clinicians than paper records, extracting information out of EHRs and utilizing it to make clinical decision may be more challenging due to information overload, potentially leading to clinical errors [30, 36, 79].

In comparison to the slow adoption and formalization of paper medical records, the shift from paper medical records to digital records has been remarkably fast [42, 30]. In 2009 only 1.5% of U.S hospitals had electronic records adopted in all units, and 7.6% had electronic records adopted in at least one unit [55]. As of 2017, 85% of U.S. office base physicians [8] and 96% of U.S. non federal acute care hospitals use EHRs [7]. Driven by legislation such as the Health Information Technology for Economic and Clinical Health (HITECH) Act [87], and financial incentives, such as Meaningful Use Criteria [2], EHRs have over the course of less than 10 years, been adopted by nearly every clinical care environment in the United States. Despite the challenges posed so far by misaligned legislation, there is reason to be optimistic. 2021 documentation guidelines, for office based visits, try to reduce documentation burden, and realign reimbursement criteria with the realities of clinical work [4]. Verbose documentation requirements such as those exemplified in Figure 2-1 have largely been removed. It

remains to be seen if these guidelines will be adopted in hospital environments, and how much they will reduce clinician's documentation burden in practice.

## 2.2 The Impact of Electronic Health Records

Outside of regulatory challenges, questions remain about the impact Electronic Health Records have on clinical practice. While clinicians approve of the idea of EHRs, due to their ability to ease workflows and improve quality of care, the current state of EHRs has greatly worsened their professional satisfaction [38, 65, 119]. Clinicians find that EHRs have poor usability, time consuming data entry, lead to inefficient and less fulfilling work content, reduce communication between clinicians, reduce the quality of documentation, and introduce errors [15, 30, 38, 74, 110]. Clinician dissatisfaction with EHRs may have significant financial impacts. One paper estimates that clinician burnout in the United States costs \$4.6 Billion every year [46] and the massive increase in clinician burn out in the United States is suspected to be attributed to the corresponding widespread adoption of EHRs [101]. Studies have shown that spending more than 90 minutes per day on an EHR outside work, or more than 60 minutes per day on clerical work (non-physician work, such as calling for appointments, requesting records) are found to be major factor contributing to burnout [77].

One commonly cited failure for EHRs is that their design fails to match clinical work practices [62, 15, 20, 62, 74, 89, 94, 115]. EHRs often assume that clinical work is an isolated and linear process where clinicians sit by themselves, fully concentrated on screens, completing tasks one-at-a-time [78, 15, 73]. In reality clinical work is often highly interruptive and collaborative [15, 74, 110]. One study showed that residents spent 40.6% of their shift time speaking with others in person and 7.5% of their shift time speaking with others on the phone [62]. EHRs often replace communication with data entry, but fail to provide feedback mechanisms to ensure that communication has been received or an action has been taken [15]. Furthermore, communication provides an opportunity for people to check their collective assumptions and understanding of a situation, learn from each other's collective knowledge, and establish cross-specialty

or cross-department relationships [15, 74]. EHRs overemphasize structure and complete information entry, forcing professionals to devote significant cognitive effort to retrieving and documenting arcane details, that may be irrelevant to the patient context [15, 78, 74, 32, 110]. EHRs tend to persist source-oriented patterns, where data is stored in separate screens based on its source or type (radiology, labs, medications) rather than its relevance to current context [110, 105, 91]. Clinicians have to spend significant time gathering data from multiple interfaces, and complain that this fragmentation leads to a loss of overview [15, 89, 62, 96, 89]. EHRs assume that one person, a doctor, is performing all of the clinical decision making, ignoring the built in fault tolerance, distributed processing, and cooperative problem solving, encoded in informal care practices in most health care environments [15]. In one study, after switching to an EHR, a physician had to spend significant time typing out notes, rather than dictating them to an assistant, because the system did not allow anyone other than the physician to access documentation [71]. In another example, nurses, who often had more experience than junior physicians, were unable to administer common medications to treatments at the bedside after the adoption of an EHR because medication orders had to come directly from doctors in the new system [15].

The overall impact of EHRs remains unclear. EHRs enable easier information access and eliminate issues due to poor penmanship [67] however in practice there are limited open standards for key clinical data so exchanging and maintaining information sharing between systems has to be performed per system [20]. EHRs enable clinical decision support systems which can help close the gap between evidence based medicine and the realities of clinical [52, 94]. In practice it takes approximately 5 years for evidence based guidelines to be adopted in routine practice and even when guidelines are accepted they are often not followed [21]. The hope is that clinical decision support can drastically improve these issues but results have been mixed [103]. For example up to 65% of patients are exposed to potentially harmful drug-drug interactions [111]. However, in a study performed in a pharmacy, pharmacists were overwhelmed by so many alerts from a clinical decision support system that they overrode one third of warnings that prescriptions may have life threatening interac-



tions [10]. In another more positive example, guidelines were implemented to reduce the number of unnecessary rheumatologic tests being given at a hospital. Although the system resulted in an 11-fold increase in canceled orders, not a single physician saw the decision support screen. The increase was completely due to the barrier of entering information needed to support the clinical decision support system [100].

Medical records should be evaluated based on how well they improve patient care, patient outcomes, and clinician satisfaction. However in practice EHRs focus on improving financial outcomes [20, 59] because financial outcomes are easier to measure [32] and the purchasers of EHRs, hospital administrators, have different incentives than the users, clinicians [59, 110].

## 2.3 Narrative In EHRs

One of the major challenges in improving the impact of EHRs is utilizing information currently hidden in unstructured form in clinical notes [54]. Unstructured clinical notes contain rich details about the patient conditions, symptoms, treatments, and care plans, but have to be read manually to access these details [54, 90, 110]. As a result, clinicians providing care, researchers analyzing clinical data sets, and software creators building decision support systems, are often unable to extract and utilize information stored in clinical notes [54, 90]. One study showed that only 38% of health provider notes and 20% of nurse notes are ever read by anyone [50]. Because unstructured free text is difficult to reuse and reason about, many EHRs have spent significant effort in building structured data documentation systems [90]. However clinicians find structured data capture systems idiosyncratic, inflexible, and inefficient [90]. These systems place a large burden on authors, who are often operating in a highly time constrained environment [90].

Even if structured data capture systems improve, the value of narrative to medical reasoning and sense-making cannot be understated [110, 90, 72]. Narrative text is able to capture nuances, tone, and gray areas that help convey what is really understood what is going on with a patient [110, 90]. Clinical notes containing prose have

been found to be more accurate, more reliable for identifying conditions in patients, and more understandable to healthcare providers reviewing records [90]. Clinicians use narrative to gather small pieces of information from across the medical record and mold them together into the patient’s story [110, 68, 53]. Each clinician approaches the patient story from their own perspective [23]. Narrative can contextualize information, helping downstream providers understand why certain information was relevant [85]. A well constructed patient’s story serves as a mental model for understanding a patients and can be thought of as the cognitive structure through which clinicians interpret and act on new data [110]. Novice clinicians rely on reading well written narrative to share occupational knowledge and develop inter-professional understanding [110]. The use of narrative to synthesize information about a patient into a coherent plot could be thought of as the key sense-making activity clinicians engage in [110, 53, 68].

One study found that clinicians spent 50.6% of their shift time reading or writing information on computers, and 17.9% of their shift time documenting information [62]. Other studies find that medical documentation takes a quarter [14, 40], to half of doctors’ time [49]. Clearly a significant amount of clinician time and effort goes into constructing patient narratives, however EHRs have struggled to provide interfaces that let downstream users take advantage of prior clinical reasoning efforts. Hypothetically, as more data is gathered on a patient, the additional data should lead to better insight about the patient’s problem [30]. However, in practice, EHRs make it difficult to search for information in narrative text, EHR documents are formatted in a way that is hard to read [36]. As a result, clinicians often only read the most recent note closely, and skim any subsequent notes, if they skim those at all [36]. Attempts to extract structured information from narrative have had limited use, and some authors have proposed that narrative may simply more efficient at expressing the complexities have medicine than structured interfaces [53]. However, semi-structured narrative interfaces, such as transforming long-form narrative into bullet points organized by date, remain potentially promising [65].

## 2.4 How to Visualize Clinical Data

The amount of data gathered during the course of patient care continues to increase, with one study estimating that ICU patients generate more than 1,348 data points per day [64]. As a result, it is increasingly important for clinicians to not just have access to data, but also have the right data presented to them in a presentation format that suits their information needs [37, 54, 22]. When information is poorly displayed it can cause information overload [15, 30, 58, 89] or loss of overview [15, 89]. However there is no one size fits all solution for displaying clinical data. Display needs vary based on setting (e.g. emergency vs. internal medicine), context (e.g. time constraints), and clinician needs (e.g. monitoring vs. diagnosis) [82]. Understanding all these needs, and the actual impact of display choices, requires understanding of real clinical conditions, which may be hard to replicate in a laboratory [107, 22]. As an example, lab studies have shown that clinicians prefer graphical views (e.g. line charts) to tabular views of lab results, and are able to perform tasks faster with graphical views [22]. However, in interviews with practicing clinicians, clinicians expressed a preference for tabular views, noting that the graphical view in their EHR required manual selection of labs to display from a large and hard to parse list [107]. Thus it is important for the entire context of use to be considered when evaluating the efficacy of data displays [22].

The way data is presented can strongly effect how information is perceived and the ease or difficulty of a task, a phenomenon known as the representational effect [29, 22]. Displays are most effective when they represent all the information necessary for a task, rather than placing a burden on the user to build an internal representation [123, 22]. Well designed graphical displays of clinical information can significantly lower the cognitive workload for clinicians [83], however designing and deploying such displays remains challenging.

Consider the hypothetically simple challenge of displaying laboratory data. Laboratory data typically consists of numbers [22] and is often displayed in a list, table, or line chart [107]. Although modern labs can often record highly precise measure-

ments, in some cases precise numbers may be more distracting than valuable [22]. As a result, clinicians may want to round numbers to clinically relevant significant digits, or even replace the numbers entirely with semantic values such as abnormal/normal, significant/insignificant change, and improving/worsening [82]. Abnormal labels are often supplied using reference ranges from a healthy population, but patients often have chronically abnormal values, and clinicians would rather understand what is abnormal *for this patient* [107]. Another challenge with laboratory results is semantically grouping relevant information [82, 107]. Some results or trends are only clinically relevant when displayed in conjunction with other results [82, 107]. An even larger challenge is contextualizing lab results with external values [107]. For example, doctors often want to understand lab values in the context of patient medications, symptoms, and illnesses [107]. For example, clinicians often want to understand lab values in the context of the treatments the patient was on at any given time [107]. Several systems have explored summarizing the entire patient medical record into a single display [81, 48], but these views may contain much more information than necessary. More targeted small bundles of highly relevant information may be enough to provide relevant context, but determining what data goes into those bundles remains challenging [107, 44, 16].

### 2.4.1 How to Organize and Select Clinical Data to Display

The challenges inherent in displaying lab data showcase the level of detail that must be considered when designing visualization for an EHR. However even if a *best possible display* exists for any individual data type, the question remains, how should these displays be composed together, how should clinical information be organized and presented to users, and when and what information should be shown in the EHR at any given time? The organization and presentation of data in health records is critical for information seeking and for the creation of overview [53].

Medical records are often organized in one of three ways, source oriented (which organize data based on where it was collected), time oriented (which organize data based on when it was collected), and concept oriented (which organize data based

on its relevance to clinical concepts) [105, 122]. Source oriented records evolved from paper records, which were stored in folders, with separate sections for each department in a hospital [105]. In electronic form, source records could be thought of as "database centered" where the data type (e.g. labs, vital signs, medications) determines where and how it is presented [78]. One benefit of source records is that the location of data is predictable, if the clinician knows what something is then the clinician knows where to find it [105]. On the other hand, this fragmentation of data into hierarchies may inhibit clinician's abilities to draw connections between various pieces of data [30, 110]. Time oriented records were developed in 1971 to facilitate the care of chronic patients [39]. Many EHRs struggle with providing overviews of chronic patients because they fail to highlight how data has changed over time [53]. However, while the location of data in time oriented records is predictable, the presentation of data is hard, due to the challenges in presenting large amounts of heterogeneous and often unstructured clinical data in a succinct and cohesive timeline [81, 48, 88]. In the early 1970s Weed proposed the notion of problem-oriented medical records [113]. In the problem-oriented medical record, all information is organized around patient problems. Problem-oriented medical records were designed to reflect the way the physician thinks [105], but did not survive. A major reason for their failure is that they require physicians to enter and maintain data organized around problems—often requiring multiple steps to input a single piece of data, while competing chronologically-oriented medical records offered unstructured text entry which was lightweight and fast in comparison [104].

Problem-oriented medical records (POMR), problem-oriented views, and concept-oriented views are very similar but have slight distinctions. Problem-oriented medical records refers to original idea proposed by Weed [113] to organize medical records around a problem list. Problem-oriented views (POV), introduced by Buchanan [26], dynamically generate problem-oriented displays of information from a traditionally organized medical record. POVs do not require the user to input information organized around problems. POVs place the the burden of organizing information around problems on the computer not the user. Concept-oriented views (COV) introduced

by Doré [33], are an extension of POVs to all concepts not just problems.

## 2.5 Information Capture

Early EHRs were expected to transform clinical care by transitioning medical records from manually-organized and paper-based to automatic and digitized [17]. Many early EHRs were built around forms and structured data entry in order to capture structured records, but few modern EHR systems retain these designs [90]. Structured data entry is far more cumbersome and time consuming to input than unstructured text [104, 90, 66]. Clinicians prefer recording information with unstructured narrative [109, 84] because of the increased expressivity of free-text [117, 56]. However even clinicians who want the flexibility and efficiency of free-text when documenting information prefer structure and standards when revisiting old notes to parse the patient’s medical history [90, 56]. MedKnowts lets clinicians seamlessly access and capture structured patient information and clinical terms while writing free text narrative. MedKnowts additionally synthesizes the existing patient medical record into concept-oriented cards which provide the clinician with a standardized and structured view of data extracted from a pre-existing EHR system.

## 2.6 Automatic Term Recognition

Most clinical recognition systems are designed for post-processing rather than real-time analysis [93, 5]. They extract structured information from unstructured narrative and free text after it has been authored [56, 90]. Systems such as *Doccurate* [102] have been designed to validate, augment, and visualize post-processed labels but few systems close the loop and enable clinicians to take advantage of identified structure in the medical note during the process of documentation [90].

Of the few proposed EHR paradigms that do implement real-time entity recognition during notewriting, they either fail to map to standard clinical ontologies [24], neglect to use this structured data capture to support clinical decision-making [56], or

do not provide concept disambiguation (Fig. 3-3) which is crucial given the overloading of medical terminology and limited accuracy of post-hoc clinical concept recognition [93, 24, 56, 5]. *Active Notes* [116] inspires the design of several features in MedKnowts such as tagging clinical concepts and displaying related information in an attached sidebar. However *Active Notes* requires users to manually initiate data queries and tag concepts with a hot key, and does not visually distinguish clinical vocabulary until it is tagged, making it hard for clinicians to learn the recognized vocabulary. In contrast MedKnowts is designed to passively and automatically assist users without active participation. MedKnowts provides live semantic syntax highlighting for clinical terms indicating concept type, negations, and potential ambiguities; and automatically transforms autocompleted and post-recognized clinical terms into interactive chips which can be used to resolve ambiguities, and view relevant patient information inline as a tooltip or persisted in an integrated sidebar.

## 2.7 Structured Data Capture

Many modern EHRs support multiple modalities for inserting structured data into the note [61]. Some tools support carry-forward techniques where data is copied or paraphrased from previous notes [45]; others let clinicians insert structured values into the note by clicking in the patient’s history or typing special characters to trigger macros [118, 91]. Still others require the user to specify the template structure using a complex interface of forms [18].

MedKnowts differs from previous carry-forward techniques [91] by autofilling using information captured earlier in the note, rather than limiting autofill to information that appears in the patient’s prior medical record. This is particularly pertinent to documentation in an ED environment, since clinicians often have to repeat information within the same note in order to meet regulatory and billing requirements, and previous notes may not be applicable to the current visit, let alone exist.

MedKnowts supports structured data capture for clinical terms (conditions, symptoms, medications), lab results, and vital signs with a machine learning-driven auto-

complete interface based on Gopinath et al. [43]. The autocomplete interface displays completions of clinical terms as the user types, which provides information scent for the available clinical vocabulary. Structured data capture is a common feature in EHRs often referred to as *dotphrases* because the data is conventionally inserted with a phrase that starts with a period (e.g. `.meds`) [91]. MedKnowts differs from previous systems because the structured data insertions do not require a trigger character or memory of content-importing phrases. Trigger characters were unpopular in our deployments, since they require foresight to enter and knowledge of valid phrases.

Additionally, structured data templates, documented in Rule et al. [91], work well in medical specialties such as ophthalmology, where many standard structured measurements are taken before the patient sees the doctor. However, in clinical settings such as the ED, the vast majority of structured data entry opportunities are contextually dependent on information needs arising after the clinician begins documentation. Thus, our more fluid workflow for structured data insertion within narrative text is an important extension to Rule et al.’s structured templates.

## 2.8 Information Fragmentation in EHRs

Studies of EHR usage have shown that separation of documentation interfaces from patient data cause clinicians to frequently task switch, creating cognitive overload and increasing the likelihood of clinical errors [63, 75, 11]. Some previous EHR systems attempt to resolve this by presenting the entire medical record next to the documentation interface in complex interface of tabs, lists, and tables [56, 35]. These interfaces are hard to parse, require manual navigation, and leave the complex work of synthesizing data from across the medical record to the clinician [63]. Other EHR systems, such as the one in use at the hospital in which we deployed, provide dashboards summarizing high value information next to documentation [11, 78]. In an ED these summary displays rarely include all the information clinicians need to access throughout the course of a visit. Still other research systems allow users to interactively filter a view of the patient’s medical record to display data relevant to a



particular concept[118, 94, 48]. These systems allow users to filter by one concept at a time and do not persist the data for later reference.

MedKnowts lets clinicians access a curated subset of the medical record, displayed as a collection of concept-oriented cards. Each card provides a succinct display of high value information curated for a single clinical concept. The card relevant to the most recently recognized term is automatically displayed next to the note in a preview pane, providing a passive stream of relevant information to the clinician. Previous work has shown that clinicians are much less likely to perform manual actions to see information [120]. Cards can also be manually pinned to the sidebar where they can be seen by all users working on the note. Pinned cards act as a persistent and shared collection of data which is particularly pertinent to a given patient’s context.

## 2.9 Information Foraging Theory

Information foraging theory draws parallels between how humans hunt for information and how animals hunt for food—in particular, it identifies that users rarely find information in a completely linear process. Instead, useful information often appears in patches for which the user must forage, using clues in the user interface referred to as information scent [80].

Previous research into information foraging theory in EHRs highlights that the value of clinical information is not intrinsic but rather dynamic and task-specific [41]. Information that is relevant and important for one patient during one visit may not be relevant or important for another patient or in another clinical context. MedKnowts presents a consistent stream of context-specific cards in a preview pane. Each card is analogous to an information patch, and the user can quickly determine if the card is worth foraging in and exploiting by reading the card title or scanning the card content which is consistent across cards. If a card is useful, the user can exploit the information patch by persistently pinning the card to their sidebar.

MedKnowts encodes information scent within the documentation interface by providing semantic syntax highlighting for clinical terms in the form of chips. Terms are

colored based on their concept type, whether or not they are negated, and whether or not they collide with other terms—these clue the user into how we have inserted structure into the note and what downstream information benefits to expect. Small visual indicators next to clinical terms, and detail text in the UI provide additional information scent and inform clinicians about whether a card is likely to contain information from the patient’s medical record. Users can easily navigate between information patches. Users can navigate to cards by clicking or hovering on clinical terms embedded within both cards and the note taking interface, or by searching for a clinical term in the sidebar.

# Chapter 3

## Design and Implementation

### 3.1 Environment

#### 3.1.1 Clinical Workflow

While MedKnowts was designed for use in a particular hospital’s ED, here we describe a high-level clinical workflow that is generally common across EDs. During a typical day in a hospital ED, clinicians may evaluate, treat, and document up to 35 patients. The note is used for various purposes: as a tool for communication and collaboration between present and future clinicians; as a document of the evidence-based decision making process the clinician utilizes to construct a care plan; and as a record for legal and reimbursement purposes [32, 3]. Before the clinician evaluates a patient, a triage nurse first prioritizes a patient, taking vital signs, assigning a chief complaint, and writing a brief triage note. The clinician then evaluates the patient and reviews the patient’s prior medical record. As in almost all healthcare settings, time is limited and must be balanced between bedside care and reviewing the patient medical record. The main sections expected in the final documentation then closely mirror the underlying clinical workflow after triage [3]:

*History of Present Illness (HPI).* The HPI serves as a chronological narrative of the patient’s reason for the visit, including the presence, onset, severity, and duration of symptoms. Additionally, it involves surfacing medical history that may be relevant

for contextualizing the patient’s condition. Unlike in specialties that provide longitudinal care, emergency visits are episodic and unscheduled; emergency physicians are often meeting a patient for the first time, forcing them to quickly synthesize a patient’s medical background from various sources, including past medical records.

*Review of Symptoms (ROS).* The ROS contains an inventory of symptoms, documented per body system (e.g. cardiovascular, gastrointestinal). Information from the HPI is often repeated here.

*Medical Decision Making (MDM).* MDM is the complex process by which the clinician reaches a diagnosis and treatment plan. Within the MDM section, physicians need to enumerate the differential diagnosis, consider risks associated with various diagnostic and treatment options, and settle on the labs, tests, medications, and scans that must be conducted as part of the workflow.

The sections above provide a comprehensive view of the patient’s visit by corresponding to the systematic and thorough process behind patient evaluation and management. However, there is often overlapping information in the sections above due to billing requirements [1], e.g. the ROS may include symptoms that were already mentioned in the HPI, the MDM often contains elements of the past medical history, leading to complaints of excessive, often repetitive data entry [60].

### **3.1.2 A Variety of Documentation Processes**

The documentation process described here is based on observations at the ED in which MedKnowts was deployed. Some aspects of this process, such as the use of scribes, may not generalize to other EDs. There is marked inter- and intra-provider variation in the processes to reach the final documentation based on individual clinician preferences, resources, and schedules. Some clinicians write the majority of notes after their shift, jotting details during to jog memory later. In addition to the final note, there exists an additional *Clinician Comment* box which can be used for such intermediate thoughts, and is often additionally used as scratch space between members of the care team (e.g. an attending physician, a resident, a medical student) that are not part of the medical record. Others choose to write the majority during

the shift, only revisiting the notes to make small edits and submit their notes to the official record.

On another dimension, alternatives to keyboard text entry include (i) the use of voice dictation software and (ii) the employment of a scribe. Scribes shadow the clinician, recording what they observe during patient encounters as well as discussions with other clinicians, and drafts notes for each of the patients that the clinician is seeing. These notes are then handed over to the clinician, who will edit and augment to prepare the note for official recording in the patient’s medical record. Since a lot of information communicated during the visit is irrelevant to the patient’s care, the scribe acts as a filter that determines, documents, and relays clinically-relevant information. Experienced scribes may even search and synthesize the patient’s past medical records themselves. Because scribes were already writing notes at the ED MedKnowts was deployed in, they were the target subjects for our study. However in other hospitals where clinicians act as their own scribes, the clinicians would be the target users. Voice dictation software can be used as an alternative text entry method when scribes are not available. But voice dictation does not fulfill other roles the scribe performs in the clinical workflow. In this study, due to incompatibilities in the deployed commercial dictation software, we specifically focused on scribe-physician workflow. However, we note that interaction with dictation software is an infrastructural challenge and not a fundamental obstacle to using our system.

### **3.1.3 Study Environment**

The study described in this work was performed within a single Level I trauma center and tertiary, academic, adults-only, teaching hospital which provides care for 55,000 patients per year. The existing deployed web-based EHR was custom developed at the institution, but uses a commercially available documentation module. The study was approved by our institutional review board with a waiver of informed consent.

MedKnowts was developed through prototypal deployments over the course of a year, during which a clinician and the clinician’s scribes used the tool as their predominant note system. We report on lessons learned from the iterative prototyping

process, as well as usage data collected from a one month long deployment at the end of the year.

## 3.2 Design and Implementation

The overall goal of our system is to reduce the effort clinicians must invest in retrieving information from the EHR, synthesizing that information into knowledge, and recording it into patient notes. We do so via a combination of interacting features:

1. We use *autocomplete* as well as *post recognition* to recognize meaningful concepts from a large, standard medical ontology. Autocomplete can save users keystrokes. More importantly, these standard concepts provide an indication of the problem the clinician is addressing for the current patient and are inserted as structured *chips*.
2. We use the recognized concepts to pre-populate other portions of the note that require duplication of that information, relieving clinicians and scribes of that burden.
3. We introduce a *preview pane* and persistent *sidebar* for delivery of standardized *cards* of contextual information relevant to recognized concepts. When a concept is recognized, the relevant card is automatically introduced in the preview pane, proactively providing clinicians with information they are likely to need to address the problem whose description they are currently typing in their note. Cards also group and organize this information to help clinicians gain insight about long-term trends and associations. Clinicians can additionally pin cards to the sidebar to create a persistent shared collection of information pertinent to the patient context.
4. We provide all these affordances with a passive and automatic design, which does not require active participation from the user.

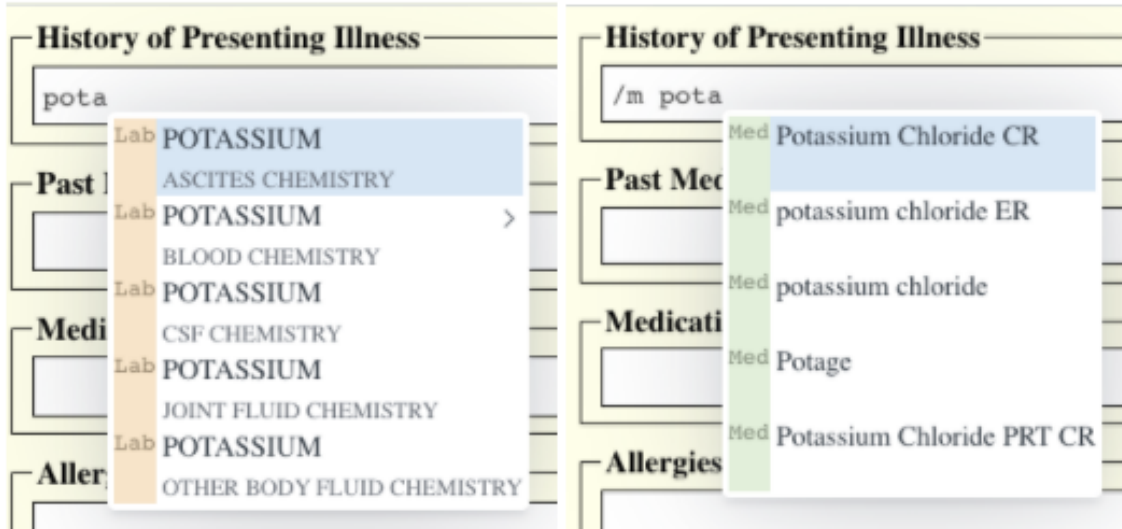


Figure 3-1: Autocomplete in the same context without filters and with filters. The "/m" command is used to limit the clinical terms displayed to medications.

In this way, we can simultaneously decrease documentation burden on physicians and use the captured clinical terms to aid physicians in information retrieval while typing a note. We elaborate on these features below.

### 3.2.1 Autocomplete

The backbone of the structured data capture within MedKnowts is a contextual autocomplete mechanism. We hypothesized autocomplete would enable structured clinical data capture without disrupting the existing documentation workflow and potentially even decrease keystroke burden on clinicians. Autocompleted terms could then be used to facilitate information retrieval and clinical decision support, offering longer term benefits.

We bootstrapped our autocomplete with a subset of clinical terms pulled from the SNOMED and UMLS medical ontologies [25, 6]. The ontologies contain abbreviations and synonyms for each term, allowing users to employ the language they are most comfortable with.

In our initial prototypes we use a single character trigger / to start the autocomplete, similar to *dotphrases* commonly found in EHRs [91]. When triggered,

the autocomplete displayed a dropdown filtered to terms whose prefix matched the characters following the initial trigger. The clinician and scribes disliked the trigger because it required foresight that they were entering structured data or typing a recognizable concept and a priori knowledge of the set of recognized concepts. When no suitable term existed, users had to manually delete the trigger character.

Therefore, our next iteration, outlined in Gopinath et al. [43], replaced the character trigger with a collection of rule-based triggers based on particular phrases, word boundaries, and punctuation. As an example within this paradigm, the phrase “presents with” is likely followed by a symptom, so the algorithm will show the autocomplete dropdown with symptoms listed first. User feedback indicated that rule based ranking is insufficient—the autocomplete often failed to display desired terms; and the boundary and punctuation triggers cause autocomplete to appear, unnecessarily, distracting the user.

To improve on the rule-based approach, we replaced the rules with a one-dimensional convolutional neural network model that predict when to trigger, and what type of clinical concept to prioritize, since a learned model can encode nuanced syntactical relationships. It significantly outperforms the rule-based triggering approach described in [43], achieving a precision of 43% versus 7%. Precision is defined as the fraction of times the user wanted to type a clinical concept when the autocomplete was triggered. In addition, after optimization, inference of this model requires an average autocomplete latency of about 18 milliseconds, which is close to the screen refresh rate and therefore perceived as instantaneous to the user.

While the model based approach works well, users indicated a desire to manually override the model—either forcing autocomplete to trigger or specifying the clinical concept to rank first. In these cases, we resort to slash filters: `/labs` or `/1` can be used to trigger an autocomplete context which is limited to labs. An empty slash forces autocomplete to trigger with the default ranking. An example of why filtering is useful can be seen in Figure 3-1. These filter shortcuts give users the fine-grained ability to easily insert structured information at any place in the note.



### 3.2.2 Post Recognitions

During prototyping users disliked that MedKnowts only identified clinical concepts entered with autocomplete. Unrecognized terms could appear because the user opted not to use autocomplete or because the user pasted text into the note. This issue was particularly noticeable when we used recognized terms to pre-populate later sections of the note. Some scribes would spend time re-entering unrecognized terms using autocomplete because they perceived the unrecognized term to be an error or wanted to generate the correct text later in the note. To resolve these issues, we implemented a version of the Aho-Corasick algorithm to automatically identify clinical terms from the text that has already been typed [12]. We dub this tagging mechanism *post recognition*.

### 3.2.3 Semantic Highlighting and Concept Disambiguation

As clinical jargon is notoriously overloaded, it is often the case that the same string can describe multiple terms [99]. For example, *Pt* can refer to a patient, physical therapy, or prothrombin time. While clinicians generally have the domain expertise to disambiguate between similar terms, jargon can create confusion for patients, medical trainees, and clinicians of a different specialty [112]. Therefore, MedKnowts needs to be able to correctly disambiguate each written term to its underlying clinical concept in the ontology in order for users to reap the benefits of contextual information retrieval features that our system offers.

MedKnowts uses live syntax highlighting to provide visual information about terms the system recognizes. MedKnowts supports six concept types: conditions, labs, medications, symptoms, procedures, and vital signs. When the user accepts an auto completion, the system inserts a *chip*—a highlighted block of text that can be copied, moved around, or deleted like other text. Each chip is highlighted with a color associated with its concept type; an example from each of the six concept types MedKnowts supports can be seen in Figure 3-2.

Post recognized phrases are also replaced with chips. However, while auto-completed

---

hypertension no hx of alcoholism  
GLUCOSE  
Tylenol  
chest pain no hx of chest pain  
hysterectomy  
systolic blood pressure

Figure 3-2: Autocomplete inserts terms as highlighted immutable chips. They can be deleted, moved around and copied like other text, but they cannot be modified.

phrases map to unique ontology items specified by the user's selection, post-recognized phrases can be ambiguous. In the case that a post recognition requires disambiguation, the user can click on the chip to select from the relevant set of candidate terms. Post recognitions are differentiated from autocomplete chips with a dotted border. When possible, the border also indicates the concept type with color: if multiple clinical terms match a post recognition but each clinical term is from the same concept type, the color for that concept type is applied to the entire post recognition. If clinical terms from multiple concept types match the post recognition then we display the recognition with a grey background. An example can be seen in figure 3-3.

Clinicians often reference clinical terms to indicate the absence of something, for example "no fever". In our initial prototyping we used double click to toggle chips between "positive" and "negated". When negated the chip is highlighted with an underline, and the text is transformed—for example "fever" becomes "no fever". Additionally, we provided autocompletions for each clinical term prefixed with "no" so that users could insert negated chips with autocomplete, but clinicians found this method of indicating negations brittle and disliked that lists of negated terms such as "no A, B, or C" had to be written as "no A, no B, no C" to comply with MedKnowts' simple negation implementation. To resolve these issues we implemented a modified version of negex [28] to automatically identify and highlight negated chips based on the surrounding text.

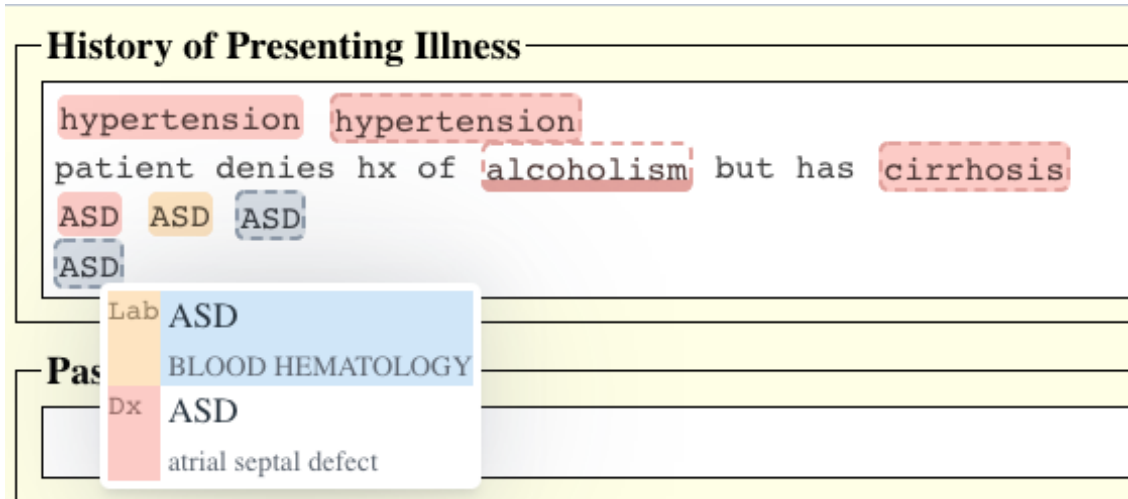


Figure 3-3: Post recognitions are automatically recognized clinical terms. They are rendered with a dotted border and can be disambiguated through a popup menu on click. Negated post recognitions are rendered with an underline.

In the autocomplete dropdown ambiguity can arise when a string refers to multiple terms. For example, **potassium** refers to multiple labs measured with various fluids, so we display this disambiguating information as detail text in the dropdown, as seen in Figure 3-1.

### 3.2.4 Context-specific information retrieval

To further aid clinicians, we automatically retrieve and display context-specific information from a patient's medical record. As an example, when a medication, procedure, or condition appears in the autocomplete dropdown, we use detail text—"in patient medical record" to indicate whether it previously appeared in the patient's medical record. We provide similar information next to chips with a small grey circle indicator.

This structured retrieval and display is particularly handy for documenting labs—after receiving requests to automatically insert quantitative lab results using autocomplete, we implemented a tree-based lab selection menu, displayed in figure 3-4. This hierarchical menu can be used to insert structured data associated with an autocomplete term. The user can select the name of the lab, a time frame based aggregate,

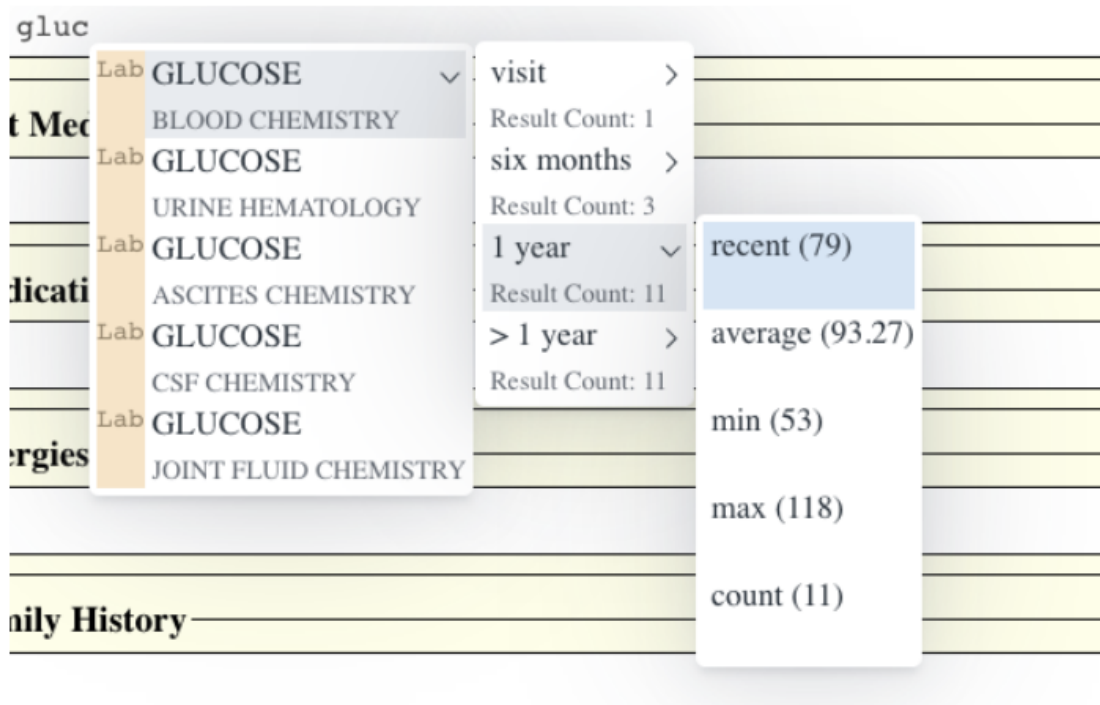


Figure 3-4: An example of context-specific information retrieval. Autocomplete insertion of lab results using a tree based menu with support for aggregation at multiple time frames and specific values

or individual statistics within a time frame. The time frame aggregate is inserted as a string LAB\_NAME (MIN\_VALUE - MAX\_VALUE) AVG\_VALUE and individual statistics are inserted as a string LAB\_NAME STAT\_NAME STAT\_VALUE. We also added the ability to insert vitals (pulse, heart rate, etc.) using the same methods, completing our set of clinical concept types.

### 3.2.5 Default Text

Medical notes are often pre-filled with boilerplate default text, but this text is often overwritten because it does not incorporate enough patient-specific context. Med-Knowts further reduces data entry by taking advantage of structured data capture and using it to fill in later sections of the note. To this end, we created templates for each of the sections of the notes based on clinician input. When the user clicks on a blank note section the section is autopopulated with the template text, which is

Constitutional: No fever, no chills  
Head / Eyes: No diplopia  
ENT: no earache  
Resp: No cough  
Cards: No chest pain  
Abd: No abdominal pain  
Flank: No dysuria  
Skin: No rash  
Ext: No back pain  
Neuro: No headache  
Psych: No depression

Figure 3-5: An example of the review of systems section

constructed using a mix of structured information parsed from the patient's medical record as well as clinical terms previously captured in the note. As an example, the Review of Systems (ROS) section (Fig. 3-5) is a boilerplate list of ten systems, and for each system the clinician has to describe the presence or lack of symptoms related to that system. MedKnowts automatically generates this ROS text for the clinician from text entered in previous sections—when a symptom is documented in the note, it is added to the appropriate line of the ROS template.

The addition of pre-populated text brought additional feedback from clinicians. Clinical terms are often associated with clarifying modifiers and specifiers and it is important to retain these modifiers and specifiers when copying forward clinical terms. For example "left lower abdominal pain" is more informative in diagnosing a condition than simply "abdominal pain". Expanding the ontology to include all possible combinations of modifiers for each term is not feasible. Instead we use a simple greedy algorithm to attach modifiers as prefixes to clinical concepts. This algorithm could

be replaced with more advanced NLP methods but we chose to use this lightweight approximation to satisfy run-time requirements. The use of algorithms to detect negated and modified terms helps retain the nuance and meaning of the original text when copied across sections.

### 3.2.6 Concept-Oriented Views

Although there are multiple documentation systems in use at the hospital for writing ED notes, none of them are integrated with tools to view the patient’s prior medical history. While some documentation systems provide limited views of a patient’s information for the current hospital visit (e.g. recent labs or imaging), this does not help a clinician with reviewing and synthesizing the medical history. In order to access additional data, clinicians must still navigate through multiple different pages.

Some clinicians place two browser windows side by side and access data in one window and their note in another, others flip between pages and use their short-term memory to synthesize information. Both paradigms are error-prone—clinicians evaluate multiple patients in a shift and can easily navigate to the wrong patient’s data or mis-remember details of patients with similar presentations. In addition, when interesting data such as a relevant note or lab trend is found by a clinician, there is no way to bookmark it for later use. All the computers in the hospital implement session timeouts to prevent the inadvertent sharing of patient information, so clinicians copy potentially relevant data into their note to preserve it and the surrounding context is lost.

MedKnowts reduces the need for clinicians to hunt for and retrieve data from multiple sources by proactively fetching relevant data and surfacing it just-in-time. To achieve this, we introduce the notion of a *card* for each clinical term in our ontology. Cards unify diverse information fragments related to the term in a single, templated, format. Each card has a header with the common name for the clinical term and synonyms for the clinical term from our ontology:

- Condition cards (e.g. `diabetes`)—display relevant medications from the pa-

tient’s medical record, relevant vital signs, related procedures, and relevant snippets from notes in the patient’s medical record.

- Labs and Vitals cards (e.g. **creatinine**, **blood pressure**)—display a box and whisker chart of lab values.
- Procedures and Medications cards (e.g. **hysterectomy**, **metformin**)—contain a list of relevant note snippets from the patient’s medical history.

Note snippets are surfaced if they contained a mention of the term or a closely linked term and are ordered chronologically. The set of closely linked terms was algorithmically mined and a sample was validated by a clinician. Based on feedback, we excluded symptoms from our set of cards, as clinicians rarely needed medical history to contextualize symptoms.

### 3.2.7 Surfacing Cards

In our early prototypes we displayed cards in an attached sidebar when clinicians clicked on an associated chip within the note or another card. However this created a two step process to see any card—first type the term with autocomplete and then select the term to see the card. To reduce friction we automatically added a card to the sidebar for any term inserted with autocomplete. However autocomplete is a poor signal for whether a card is useful in the long term. Cards added to the sidebar are displayed in a scrolling vertical stack. Cards can be removed, but left alone, they persist next to the note for the duration of the note authoring process, and useful cards can be pushed out of view as more cards are added. Some clinicians found this method of adding cards to the sidebar unintuitive or confusing, and other clinicians felt like they were seeing too much irrelevant information. Additionally this method fails to surface post recognitions.

We eventually streamlined our approach to surfacing sidebar cards to a two-step process. Any time a term is recognized before the user’s selection, we display the card for that term in a preview pane at the top of the sidebar. The preview pane

displays one card at a time, and the card is not shared between users. Clinicians can pin a card displayed in the preview pane to move it to the sidebar. The cards pinned in the sidebar are persistent and are shared between multiple users. In this way, the sidebar becomes a collaborative record of the fragments from the patient’s medical history that clinicians identify as being particularly important or relevant.

Cards are surfaced in the preview pane in one of three ways: first, they are automatically displayed when an autocompleted or post-recognized term appears before the user’s selection; second, they are manually surfaced by users clicking on a chip within the note or another card; third, they are manually surfaced via a search bar at the top of the sidebar. Post recognitions with naming collisions (e.g. pt) must be disambiguated by the user before the associated card is surfaced.

### **3.2.8 Hand Designed vs Automatically Generated Cards**

Ideally, we could create individually designed and physician curated cards for all possible clinical concepts. But we do not have the resources to take that approach. Instead, during initial prototyping we created a meta-cards for each clinical concept (labs, conditions) which act as templates for all clinical terms within that clinical concept. We describe the contents of the meta-card for each clinical concept in Section 3.2.6.

Automatically generated cards help solve a cold-start problem, as we hypothesized that users would be unlikely to adopt the system if the majority of clinical terms were associated with empty cards. But cards generated for a large number of clinical terms are slow to iterate on. For example, clinicians asked for certain labs to be added to cardiac cards. This type of change, if abstracted to all conditions, requires the development of a dataset to relate labs and conditions. While possible, finding or creating this type of dataset takes time. Conversely, adding lab values manually to cardiac cards is light weight and easy to validate with users. In the long term hand designed features could be replaced with generic models or datasets but in the short term we can iterate faster by taking a manual approach.



### 3.2.9 Card Design

Throughout the prototyping process clinicians consistently displayed strong preferences about the content of cards. We hypothesized that showing synonyms within cards would familiarize users with our ontology of terms. But clinicians found the inclusion of synonyms condescending because they *already knew that*. We received a similar response when we listed names of labs related to a condition on condition cards. However, clinicians reacted positively when we listed the names of labs along with their values since this is proactively fetching relevant information. Clinicians want to see information relevant to their decision making and other information is seen as noisy or unnecessary.

In addition, clinicians want information presented in the immediate format that they require; as an example, if the most recent lab value is the only useful piece of information, that is the only lab value that should be displayed. Conversely, some lab values can only be properly interpreted in the context of other lab values. For example, interpreting an elevated troponin values requires both prior troponin values and prior creatinine values. In that case both lab values must be displayed. We provided feedback forms on cards and accumulated various requests for data to be displayed on particular cards. However implementing granular changes for generic classes of cards is difficult..

To address this, in our second iteration of cards we chose to specifically focus on two types of cards: lab cards, and cards related to cardiac conditions. In the long run we expect that a set of a few thousand cards targeting individual clinical terms as well as general classes of clinical information (such as cardiac function) could support clinician's needs. While it is beyond our capacity to create an exhaustive set of cards, we can learn about and demonstrate the value of cards by creating a few for common terms. If proven valuable, other cards could be created by a small engineering team with clinical guidance, or even by clinicians themselves if given suitable authoring tools.

We worked in collaboration with three physicians to design a card which presents

congestive heart failure



congestive heart failure

Date	Time	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
		proBNP	CREAT	cTropnT	cTropnI
05-24-2008	09:45	-	0.9	-	-
05-24-2008	12:41	-	0.9	-	-
05-24-2008	07:41	-	0.8	-	-
	07:40	-	0.8	-	-
05-24-2008	05:00	-	0.8	-	-

Rows per page: 5 << < > >> 1-5 of 183

Date	Type	Result
05-24-2008	Echo	
05-24-2008	Echo	
05-24-2008	Echo	Normal biventricular cavity sizes with regional left ventricular systolic dysfunction c/w CAD (PDA distribution). Compared...
05-24-2008	Echo	
05-24-2008	Echo	XXX functional exercise capacity. XXX ECG changes with 2D echocardiographic evidence of inducible ischemia at achieved...

Rows per page: 5 << < > >> 1-5 of 39

Date	Title	Service	Type	Author
05-24-2008	TGEST COMPLIANCE	General Medicine/Primary Care	Progress note	05/24/08
05-24-2008	< None >	Emergency	Progress note	05/24/08
05-24-2008	Nursing Shift Note - Eves/Nights	Nursing <sup>50</sup>	Progress note	05/24/08

information relevant to cardiac conditions. Our cardiac card includes labs and snippets from cardiac tests (EKG and Echocardiogram) and other free-text notes. An example of the cardiac card can be seen in Figure 3-6.

We augmented our lab card template to support multiple views of lab results. A table view can be used to see individual result values. When applicable, contextual labs that are useful for understanding the primary lab are added as columns to the table display. A zoomable line chart displays lab values over time and a box and whisker plot is used to display aggregate lab values over various time frames. Additionally we provided support for contextual lab results in the table view. For example, Kidney failure, which is measured by an elevated creatinine, leads to a build up of potassium, causing elevated potassium levels, a life-threatening condition that must be treated immediately. Whenever an abnormal potassium level is encountered, the next piece of information that is needed is what the kidney function is. We proactively provide this information by displaying creatinine levels directly on the potassium lab card.

### **3.2.10 Inline Display of Cards**

Early on we realized it would be useful to access cards from within the note itself. We added the ability to hover on a chip to see a preview of the card.



# Chapter 4

## Evaluation

### 4.1 Evaluation

As described previously, MedKnowts was deployed in two major iterations—one year of iterative prototyping and a one month evaluation. For approximately 7 months the prototypal deployments were used as the primary documentation tool by 1 physician (who is also a co-author) and 4 scribes across 1185 patients; the evaluation lasted 1 month and was used by the same physician and 4 scribes (2 scribes had participated in the prototypal deployments) across 234 patients. Our prototypal deployment ended after the hospital stopped using scribes in the wake of COVID-19; the second deployment began soon after scribes returned to the hospital. We could not do a comparative study against the baseline documentation system due to legal limitations disallowing modifying the commercial note taking tool in use at the hospital, but we describe our evaluation below.

User	Patients	Shifts	Pins
P	150	12	58
S1	69	3	1
S2	50	4	0
S3	43	2	1
S4	33	3	15
Totals			75

User	Autocomplete	Post Recognition
P	71	7
S1	35	0
S2	27	0
S3	6	0
S4	4	0
Totals	143	7

User	Search	Autocomplete	Post Recognition	Note Snippet
P	127	30	21	3
S1	4	4	25	0
S2	0	0	9	0
S3	0	1	7	0
S4	43	0	12	21
Totals	174	35	74	24

Prior to using the tool live in the ED, the scribes were introduced to the tool in thirty minute training sessions. In each training session, one co-author showed the scribe how the tool worked and explained its available features. After working in the ED the same co-author followed up with the scribes to get their feedback. At the time of the follow up the scribes each had used the tool for an average of 3 shifts (min 2, max 4) and completed an average of 46.5 notes (min 33, max 69). In the study follow-up, scribes filled out a system usability scale (SUS) [57] as seen in Figure 4-1, and answered questions from a script.

The final SUS scores were [77.5, 77.5, 85, 95] (avg. 83.75), the physician did not fill out a SUS scale. A score in the high 70s to upper 80s is considered to be good while a score above 90 is excellent [19]. These responses indicate that scribes found the tool relatively intuitive and useful enough to use frequently.

Feature usage, documented in Table 4.1, 4.1, and 4.1 as well as qualitative interviews yielded several takeaways. In both the tables and the rest of the evaluation we refer to the users as Physician (P) or Scribe 1-4 (S1-S4).

Most scribes described that autocomplete sped up their workflows but adoption of autocomplete changed based on scribe experience. S1, the least experienced scribe in the evaluation, noted that they liked autocomplete because they no longer needed

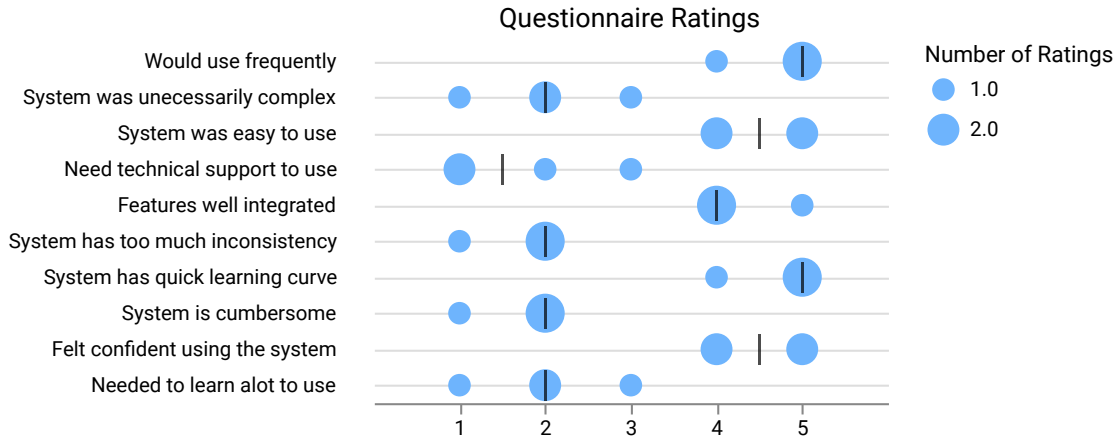


Figure 4-1: Scribes' System Usability Scale scores with medians displayed as black bars for each question

to conduct internet searches to find correct spellings and obtain an understanding of the underlying concept space. S4, the most experienced scribe, found autocomplete less useful due to familiarity with terms, but still found utility for longer terms.

As users acclimated to the tool's functionality their usage changed. For example, S1 used autocomplete 8 times in their second shift and 27 times in their third shift. The increase in usage in the third shift was due to the use of autocomplete to insert lab values. It was unclear if the scribe had discovered this functionality on the third shift or had become familiar enough with the tool to adopt more advanced features.

Some of the differences in feature usage across scribes may be attributed to discoverability. For example S2 found card transclusion to be very helpful, especially for getting more familiar with unknown terms while S4 did not realize that they could hover on chips to see cards inline. S3 stated that card transclusion was helpful to quickly hover and get a sense of how central the concept is to the patient's history.

The lack of disambiguations for post recognitions may be due to the fact that post recognized chips both behave and look very similar to chips inserted with autocomplete. For example, if an ambiguous term is highlighted correctly and copied appropriately in default text, the scribe may not have any need to disambiguate it. Both S3 and S4 were happy that the system recognized terms but were unaware that post-recognized terms could be disambiguated.

Scribes appreciated the colored highlighting of embedded chips in the notes. They found that it allowed them to quickly scan what had occurred so far. For example, they could quickly skim through symptoms to orient themselves, and it was helpful that negated symptom mentions were visualized differently. One scribe mentioned that they could use the colors as an automatic visual aid to determine what components had been completed in the Medical Decision Making section, and what was left to be documented. This quick skim approach wasn't necessary for certain concept types (e.g. medications), but some scribes still found it useful for organization.

Scribes universally appreciated the default text that was auto-populated due to the structured data capture from autocomplete and post recognitions. This was most appreciated in Physical Exam and Review of Systems, despite imperfections in the default text. One scribe (S3) said it "made them much more efficient" allowing them to "get through charts faster." Another noted that the checkbox-based systems employed in the hospital's commercial EHR made it really easy to skip and miss an item, indicating the new system felt less error-prone due to its data entry.

At a high level, scribe experience correlated to the amount of synthesis of a patient's past history that was conducted, as advanced scribes had accrued more of the requisite clinical knowledge and reasoning and could handle documentation and synthesis simultaneously. S4 was the only scribe to examine past notes to try and find relevant information to share with the clinician. S4 liked the note snippets stating that "it saves me a lot of time compared to reviewing all of the patient's prior notes to simply be able to click...and have notes show up." In contrast S2 did not pay much attention to cards or read note snippets because they were focusing on documenting what the clinician was saying.

More experienced scribes were more likely to pin cards to the shared space. The more advanced scribe, S4 described their job as filtering information for clinicians based on relevancy and importance. Less advanced scribes perceived their role as recording rather than synthesizing or finding information.

Scribes integrated cards into documentation and retrieval processes for multiple concept types. For example, scribes mentioned using lab cards to compare a patient's



current value to their baseline, clicking on a past procedure chip to pinpoint its date from surfaced notes, and leveraging condition cards to determine the extent and severity of a patient's existing condition. This indicates such cards act as information scent to guide scribes to important content. S4 described that they would use cards to dig into particularly relevant medical history; for example, if a patient with chest pain had past cardiac disease, the scribe would utilize the card to review "their previous work-up, notes from cardiology, and any prior surgeries/procedures." S3 noted particular utility in associated medications that were surfaced on condition cards; it prompted them to document, and the concept-oriented view also served an educational purpose of teaching them what was relevant, potentially aiding future synthesis.

While multiple scribes noted it was less useful for medications and symptoms, condition cards aided scribes in understanding the extent and trajectory of a patient's past condition. S4 noted that they "use it when... interested in more information about a patient's medical history, especially in a complex patient or a patient that is unable to provide a history due to acuity or altered mental status."

During the deployment MedKnowts proactively displayed 3614 cards to scribes as they typed, with a range of frequencies. For example, 53 hypertension cards were surfaced after typing "htn", while 144 terms were displayed only once each; these rarer terms included "spine fracture" and "lumbar spinal stenosis". Some short phrases that overlap with common language e.g. `as as atrial stenosis` were mistakenly tagged as clinical terms, but future iterations of MedKnowts can recognize these and omit them.

Experienced scribes tended to familiarize themselves with a patient's medical history prior to writing a note, and thus used the search bar to display cards prior to note-writing rather than triggering them automatically during the course of documentation. Future iterations of MedKnowts may want to support this workflow, since the existing information capture is focused on displaying information as the physician types rather than before the physician starts the note, which misses an opportunity to provide information scent before documentation begins. Less experienced scribes

were more likely to click on chips within the note to see relevant cards. All scribes used chips to manually view cards in the sidebar, and all but one (S4) used chips as the primary tool for bringing up cards in the sidebar. The usage data reveals that users are willing to adopt a wide variety of techniques for accessing documentation, but appear to have significant preferences for one technique or the other.

# Chapter 5

## Discussion

### 5.1 Discussion

MedKnowts explores several interaction paradigms by enabling live automatic recognition of clinical terms within a medical note and displaying patient medical history in concept-oriented cards. Our iterative design process for MedKnowts underscored the need for EHR systems to embrace and augment, rather than replace existing clinical workflows. Our features were well received when they synergized with existing documentation practices. Implementing changes in a clinical environment is challenging, and clinicians and scribes are more receptive to such changes when presented with tools that are familiar and intuitive.

In future iterations of MedKnowts, we hope to expand on the possibilities enabled by fine grained linking of chips, in both the note and card interfaces, to standard medical ontologies. MedKnowts can leverage existing health knowledge graphs or outside resources that clinicians use, aiding their decision-making during documentation. Normalization to a standard ontology also allows notes to be translated to different audiences; medical acronyms can be automatically unravelled to layman's terms if a patient wants to understand their note. Clinicians with specific language preferences can also personalize note templates and autocomplete functionality with the vocabulary choices that they prefer.

Our observations from user interviews and interaction data have additionally

presented new avenues for future work that could push forward these interaction paradigms. Clinicians often chunk information together. When a clinician wants to view a *Hemoglobin* lab, they are likely to search for *CBC* (Complete Blood Count), a set of laboratory tests, since *Hemoglobin* is recorded as part of a *CBC lab group*. MedKnowts could support such lab groups by adopting a wider clinical ontology, or even allowing clinicians to merge or combine cards within the user interface, dragging and dropping multiple lab cards together to create higher level lab groups. These modifications do not have to be limited to labs. Clinicians could, for example, group a glucose card with a diabetes card because the medication is directly treating the condition.

Providing clinicians with the ability to mold their information displays could not only help physicians synthesize medical records, but also create new possibilities for crowdsourcing rich labeled datasets of clinical relationships. Clinician-curated content would also be a potential solution for how to scale from a handful of manually curated cards to thousands of cards, and even create cards that serve different roles for different types of users (less granular for generalists like emergency physicians or primary care physicians, more granular for specialists like oncologists or immunologists).

In the opposite direction, clinicians sometimes want to refer to a specific value or event when recording information. When the clinician writes "patient has high glucose" it would be helpful if the system identified exactly which glucose lab was high, autocompleting not just glucose as a clinical term, but a specific measurement. By allowing clinicians to refer to granular as well as chunked information, we can get closer to the ideal of presenting information to the clinician in a way that mirrors their clinical thought process.

Cards could be improved by offering further custom views of the patient medical record, and providing context-dependent defaults. For example, the existing lab cards in MedKnowts display a table of result by default, but can display a line chart, and box and whisker plot as well. For some labs the most recent value is the only value that matters, and a table is appropriate, but for other labs, the trend over time is what matters, and a line chart would be more useful. A clinician's mental model of the

patient becomes more refined over a patient’s visit, resulting in different information needs as the visit progresses. An area of future work would be to investigate how to support this change. Contextual display of information in cards is challenging, but would continue to shift some of the cognitive burden of synthesizing the patient medical record onto the EHR.

We noted several occasions where usage differed based on clinical experience. However, even advanced clinicians can be novice users of the tool — experience level with MedKnowts is thus another dimension of the overall user experience. Ideally, a user interface would be intuitive for the novice user and provide support to help them grow into advanced users for the tool. Future work could expand on the logging we have implemented here to see how a user’s usage of the tool changes over time, and what strategies we could employ to improve adoption of more advanced features.

There is a practical burden in scaling cards. However, because we use standard ontologies, we can leverage ongoing efforts to open-source physician-curated [95] and machine learned [70] concept maps. Users may benefit from the ability to manually author and customize default text templates and card contents but we hypothesize that a relatively small set of cards could cover most referenced terms. *Semanik et al.* estimate that 150-200 concept maps could be used to cover the most commonly encountered conditions for a range of clinical specialties [95].

There is some risk that the automation provided by MedKnowts could lead to errors. For example a post recognition may be incorrect, modifiers may be skipped or added unnecessarily, and auto populated text could contain errors. Auto populated text requires manual verification, but this is an existing step in physician workflows, since the current system provides naive boilerplate text for modification. The risk of incorrect tags is lower than comparable clinical recognition systems [5, 93] because users are able to disambiguate terms and have information scent about the recognized terms.

There is additional risk that adopting MedKnowts could impede usability. To that end we have designed MedKnowts’ features to be opt-in, leaving existing workflow unimpeded. Lastly we must consider if using MedKnowts could impact the responsible

practice of medicine. The literature considers the risks of passive clinical decision support (CDS) like our concept-oriented cards to be minimal compared to active CDS [95]. While cards provide synthesized evidence, the responsibility is on the clinician to explore as needed, and data on cards links to the original source, e.g. note snippets expand to the full note.

# Chapter 6

## Conclusion

### 6.1 Conclusion

MedKnowts captures structured clinical terms embedded within a free-text narrative and then links these terms to a concept-oriented, dynamic display of patient information that appears alongside a medical note. Thus, MedKnowts provides clinicians with a unified interface for writing a clinical note and exploring and navigating a patient’s medical record. By integrating documentation and patient information MedKnowts lowers the cognitive burden of synthesizing the medical record, and demonstrates the possibilities of an EHR documentation system that can better serve clinicians.

We capture these clinical concepts via *autocomplete* and *post recognition*, and map them to standardized ontologies. This allows us to connect captured concepts with other medical databases and translate clinical terms for a variety of audiences. We provide patient information in a preview pane next to the note as the clinician types, proactively displaying contextual information when needed. A persistent sidebar of cards helps multiple clinicians develop a shared understanding of the patient and highlights important information. We prove the feasibility of our approach in a months-long deployment in an active ED, and demonstrate in our evaluation that clinicians are receptive to this approach.

Ultimately, we believe that MedKnowts has the potential to make clinical documentation truly work for clinicians by creating a live document that supports cus-

tomized information retrieval, note-taking, and collaboration while simultaneously improving the final note that is shared with downstream doctors and patients.



# Bibliography

- [1] Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services . 1997 Documentation Guidelines for Evaluation and Management Services.
- [2] Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services . Medicare & Medicaid EHR Incentive Program Meaningful Use Stage 1 Requirements Overview.
- [3] Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services . 1995 Documentation Guidelines for Evaluation and Management Services, 1995.
- [4] Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services . Evaluation and Management Services Guide, February 2021.
- [5] Google Cloud . Healthcare Natural Language API | Cloud Healthcare API | Google Cloud. <https://cloud.google.com/healthcare/docs/concepts/nlp>, July 2021.
- [6] National Library of Medicine . SNOMED CT. <https://www.nlm.nih.gov/healthit/snomedct/index.html>.
- [7] The Office of the National Coordinator for Health Information Technology . Non-federal Acute Care Hospital Electronic Health Record Adoption | HealthIT.gov. <https://www.healthit.gov/data/quickstats/non-federal-acute-care-hospital-electronic-health-record-adoption>.
- [8] The Office of the National Coordinator for Health Information Technology . Office-based Physician Electronic Health Record Adoption | HealthIT.gov. <https://www.healthit.gov/data/quickstats/office-based-physician-electronic-health-record-adoption>.
- [9] WikEM . Review of systems documentation - WikEM. [https://wikem.org/wiki/Review\\_of\\_systems\\_documentation](https://wikem.org/wiki/Review_of_systems_documentation).
- [10] S. A. Abookire, J. M. Teich, H. Sandige, M. D. Paterno, M. T. Martin, G. J. Kuperman, and D. W. Bates. Improving allergy alerting in a computerized physician order entry system. *Proceedings. AMIA Symposium*, pages 2–6, 2000.
- [11] Adil Ahmed, Subhash Chandra, Vitaly Herasevich, Ognjen Gajic, and Brian W. Pickering. The effect of two different electronic health record user interfaces on

- intensive care provider task load, errors of cognition, and performance. *Critical Care Medicine*, 39(7):1626–1634, July 2011.
- [12] Alfred V. Aho and Margaret J. Corasick. Efficient string matching: An aid to bibliographic search. *Communications of the ACM*, 18(6):333–340, June 1975.
- [13] Qais Al-Awqati. How to write a case report: Lessons from 1600 B.C. *Kidney International*, 69(12):2113–2114, June 2006.
- [14] E. Ammenwerth and H. Spötl. The time needed for clinical documentation versus direct patient care. A work-sampling analysis of physicians’ activities. *Methods of information in medicine*, 2009.
- [15] Joan S. Ash, Marc Berg, and Enrico Coiera. Some Unintended Consequences of Information Technology in Health Care: The Nature of Patient Care Information System-related Errors. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association*, 11(2):104–112, March 2004.
- [16] Joan S. Ash, Paul N. Gorman, Mary Lavelle, Jason Lyman, Lois M. Delcambre, David Maier, Shawn Bowers, and Mathew Weaver. Bundles: Meeting clinical information needs. *Bulletin of the Medical Library Association*, 89(3):294–297, July 2001.
- [17] Jim Atherton. Development of the Electronic Health Record. *AMA Journal of Ethics*, 13(3):186–189, March 2011.
- [18] Vin Shen Ban, Christopher J Madden, Travis Browning, Ellen O’Connell, Bradley F Marple, and Brett Moran. A novel use of the discrete templated notes within an electronic health record software to monitor resident supervision. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association*, 24(e1):e2–e8, April 2017.
- [19] Aaron Bangor, Philip T. Kortum, and James T. Miller. An Empirical Evaluation of the System Usability Scale. *International Journal of Human-Computer Interaction*, 24(6):574–594, July 2008.
- [20] David W. Bates and Atul A. Gawande. Improving Safety with Information Technology. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 348(25):2526–2534, June 2003.
- [21] David W. Bates, Gilad J. Kuperman, Samuel Wang, Tejal Gandhi, Anne Kitterler, Lynn Volk, Cynthia Spurr, Ramin Khorasani, Milenko Tanasijevic, and Blackford Middleton. Ten Commandments for Effective Clinical Decision Support: Making the Practice of Evidence-based Medicine a Reality. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association : JAMIA*, 10(6):523–530, 2003.
- [22] David T. Bauer, S. Guerlain, and P. Brown. The design and evaluation of a graphical display for laboratory data. *J. Am. Medical Informatics Assoc.*, 2010.

- [23] Marc Berg and Geoffrey Bowker. The Multiple Bodies of the Medical Record: Toward a Sociology of an Artifact. *The Sociological Quarterly*, 38(3):513–537, 1997.
- [24] Dorrit Billman and Eric A. Bier. Medical sensemaking with entity workspace. In *Proceedings of the SIGCHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems*, CHI '07, pages 229–232, New York, NY, USA, April 2007. Association for Computing Machinery.
- [25] Olivier Bodenreider. The Unified Medical Language System (UMLS): Integrating biomedical terminology. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 32(Database issue):D267–D270, January 2004.
- [26] Joel Buchanan. Accelerating the Benefits of the Problem Oriented Medical Record. *Applied Clinical Informatics*, 8(1):180–190, February 2017.
- [27] A. Calvitti, N. Farber, Y. Chen, D. Zuest, L. Liu, K. Bell, B. Gray, and Z. Agha. Temporal Analysis of Physicians’ EHR Workflow during Outpatient Visits. In *2012 IEEE Second International Conference on Healthcare Informatics, Imaging and Systems Biology*, pages 140–140, September 2012.
- [28] Wendy W. Chapman, Will Bridewell, Paul Hanbury, Gregory F. Cooper, and Bruce G. Buchanan. A Simple Algorithm for Identifying Negated Findings and Diseases in Discharge Summaries. *Journal of Biomedical Informatics*, 34(5):301–310, October 2001.
- [29] Johnny Chuah, Lazenby Hall, Neil Avenue, Jiajie Zhang, and Todd R Johnson. The Representational Effect in Complex Systems: A Distributed Representation Approach. *Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the Cognitive Science Society*, 22:7, 2000.
- [30] Neil Clynych and John Kellett. Medical documentation: Part of the solution, or part of the problem? A narrative review of the literature on the time spent on and value of medical documentation. *International Journal of Medical Informatics*, 84(4):221–228, April 2015.
- [31] Enrico Coiera. When Conversation Is Better Than Computation. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association : JAMIA*, 7(3):277–286, 2000.
- [32] Steven J. Davidson, Frank L. Zwemer, Larry A. Nathanson, Kenneth N. Sable, and Abu N. G. A. Khan. Where’s the beef? The promise and the reality of clinical documentation. *Academic Emergency Medicine: Official Journal of the Society for Academic Emergency Medicine*, 11(11):1127–1134, November 2004.
- [33] L. Doré, M. Lavril, F. C. Jean, and P. Degoulet. An object oriented computer-based patient record reference model. *Proceedings of the Annual Symposium on Computer Application in Medical Care*, pages 377–381, 1995.

- [34] Peter J. Embi, Thomas R. Yackel, Judith R. Logan, Judith L. Bowen, Thomas G. Cooney, and Paul N. Gorman. Impacts of Computerized Physician Documentation in a Teaching Hospital: Perceptions of Faculty and Resident Physicians. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association*, 11(4):300–309, July 2004.
- [35] O. Farri, A. Rahman, K. A. Monsen, R. Zhang, S. V. Pakhomov, D. S. Pieczkiewicz, S. M. Speedie, and G. B. Melton. Impact of a prototype visualization tool for new information in EHR clinical documents. *Applied Clinical Informatics*, 3(4):404–418, 2012.
- [36] Oladimeji Farri, David S. Pieczkiewicz, Ahmed S. Rahman, Terrence J. Adam, Serguei V. Pakhomov, and Genevieve B. Melton. A Qualitative Analysis of EHR Clinical Document Synthesis by Clinicians. *AMIA Annual Symposium Proceedings*, 2012:1211–1220, November 2012.
- [37] Gerhard Fischer. Context-aware systems: The ‘right’ information, at the ‘right’ time, in the ‘right’ place, in the ‘right’ way, to the ‘right’ person. In *Proceedings of the International Working Conference on Advanced Visual Interfaces, AVI ’12*, pages 287–294, New York, NY, USA, May 2012. Association for Computing Machinery.
- [38] Mark W. Friedberg, Peggy G. Chen, Kristin R. Van Busum, Frances Aunon, Chau Pham, John Caloyeras, Soeren Mattke, Emma Pitchforth, Denise D. Quigley, Robert H. Brook, F. Jay Crosson, and Michael Tutty. Factors Affecting Physician Professional Satisfaction and Their Implications for Patient Care, Health Systems, and Health Policy. *Rand Health Quarterly*, 3(4):1, December 2014.
- [39] James F. Fries. Alternatives in Medical Record Formats. *Medical Care*, 12(10):871–881, 1974.
- [40] Laila Maria Füchtbauer, Birgitte Nørgaard, and Christian Backer Mogensen. Emergency department physicians spend only 25% of their working time on direct patient care. *Danish Medical Journal*, 60(1):A4558, January 2013.
- [41] Bryan Gibson, Jorie Butler, Maryan Zirkle, Kenric Hammond, and Charlene Weir. Foraging for Information in the EHR: The Search for Adherence Related Information by Mental Health Clinicians. *AMIA Annual Symposium Proceedings*, 2016:600–608, February 2017.
- [42] Richard F. Gillum. From Papyrus to the Electronic Tablet: A Brief History of the Clinical Medical Record with Lessons for the Digital Age. *The American Journal of Medicine*, 126(10):853–857, October 2013.
- [43] Divya Gopinath, Monica Agrawal, Luke Murray, Steven Horng, David Karger, and David Sontag. Fast, Structured Clinical Documentation via Contextual Autocomplete. *arXiv:2007.15153 [cs, stat]*, July 2020.

- [44] Paul Gorman, Joan Ash, Mary Lavelle, David Maier, Mathew Weaver, and Jason Lyman. Bundles in the wild: Managing information to solve problems and maintain situation awareness. *Library Trends*.
- [45] Janet Haas, Suzanne Bakken, Tiffani J. Bright, Genevieve B. Melton, Peter Stetson, and Stephen B. Johnson. Clinicians' perceptions of usability of eNote. *AMIA ... Annual Symposium proceedings. AMIA Symposium*, page 973, 2005.
- [46] Shasha Han, Tait D. Shanafelt, Christine A. Sinsky, Karim M. Awad, Liselotte N. Dyrbye, Lynne C. Fiscus, Mickey Trockel, and Joel Goh. Estimating the Attributable Cost of Physician Burnout in the United States. *Annals of Internal Medicine*, 170(11):784–790, May 2019.
- [47] Pamela Hartzband and Jerome Groopman. Off the record—avoiding the pitfalls of going electronic. *The New England Journal of Medicine*, 358(16):1656–1658, April 2008.
- [48] Jamie S Hirsch, Jessica S Tanenbaum, Sharon Lipsky Gorman, Connie Liu, Eric Schmitz, Dritan Hashorva, Artem Ervits, David Vawdrey, Marc Sturm, and Noémie Elhadad. HARVEST, a longitudinal patient record summarizer. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association*, 22(2):263–274, March 2015.
- [49] J. C. Hollingsworth, C. D. Chisholm, B. K. Giles, W. H. Cordell, and D. R. Nelson. How do physicians and nurses spend their time in the emergency department? *Annals of Emergency Medicine*, 31(1):87–91, January 1998.
- [50] G. Hripcsak, D. Vawdrey, Matthew R. Fred, and S. Bostwick. Use of electronic clinical documentation: Time spent and team interactions. *J. Am. Medical Informatics Assoc.*, 2011.
- [51] Institute of Medicine (US) Committee on Quality of Health Care in America. *To Err Is Human: Building a Safer Health System*. National Academies Press (US), Washington (DC), 2000.
- [52] Institute of Medicine (US) Committee on Quality of Health Care in America. *Crossing the Quality Chasm: A New Health System for the 21st Century*. National Academies Press (US), Washington (DC), 2001.
- [53] L. Jensen and Claus Bossen. Factors affecting physicians' use of a dedicated overview interface in an electronic health record: The importance of standard information and standard documentation. *Int. J. Medical Informatics*, 2016.
- [54] Ashish K. Jha. The Promise of Electronic Records: Around the Corner or Down the Road? *JAMA*, 306(8):880–881, August 2011.
- [55] Ashish K. Jha, Catherine M. DesRoches, Eric G. Campbell, Karen Donelan, Sowmya R. Rao, Timothy G. Ferris, Alexandra Shields, Sara Rosenbaum, and David Blumenthal. Use of Electronic Health Records in U.S. Hospitals. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 360(16):1628–1638, April 2009.

- [56] Stephen B. Johnson, Suzanne Bakken, Daniel Dine, Sookyung Hyun, Eneida Mendonça, Frances Morrison, Tiffani Bright, Tielman Van Vleck, Jesse Wrenn, and Peter Stetson. An electronic health record based on structured narrative. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association: JAMIA*, 15(1):54–64, 2008 Jan-Feb.
- [57] Patrick W. Jordan, B. Thomas, Ian Lyall McClelland, and Bernard Weerdmeester. *Usability Evaluation In Industry*. CRC Press, June 1996.
- [58] Andrew J. King, Gregory F. Cooper, Gilles Clermont, Harry Hochheiser, Milos Hauskrecht, Dean F. Sittig, and Shyam Visweswaran. Using machine learning to selectively highlight patient information. *Journal of Biomedical Informatics*, 100:103327, December 2019.
- [59] Nikhil Krishnan. The Six Stages of Health Tech Grief. [https://uploads-ssl.webflow.com/611ed5a217b32b056e5477ec/611ed5a217b32b2296547ab6\\_The%20Six%20Stages](https://uploads-ssl.webflow.com/611ed5a217b32b056e5477ec/611ed5a217b32b2296547ab6_The%20Six%20Stages)
- [60] Philip J Kroth, Nancy Morioka-Douglas, Sharry Veres, Katherine Pollock, Stewart Babbott, Sara Poplau, Katherine Corrigan, and Mark Linzer. The electronic elephant in the room: Physicians and the electronic health record. *JAMIA Open*, 1(1):49–56, July 2018.
- [61] Anil N. Makam, Holly J. Lanham, Kim Batchelor, Lipika Samal, Brett Moran, Temple Howell-Stampley, Lynne Kirk, Manjula Cherukuri, Noel Santini, Luci K. Leykum, and Ethan A. Halm. Use and satisfaction with key functions of a common commercial electronic health record: A survey of primary care providers. *BMC Medical Informatics and Decision Making*, 13(1):86, August 2013.
- [62] L. Mamykina, D. Vawdrey, and G. Hripcsak. How Do Residents Spend Their Shift Time? A Time and Motion Study With a Particular Focus on the Use of Computers. *Academic medicine : journal of the Association of American Medical Colleges*, 2016.
- [63] Lena Mamykina, David K. Vawdrey, Peter D. Stetson, Kai Zheng, and George Hripcsak. Clinical documentation: Composition or synthesis? *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association : JAMIA*, 19(6):1025, November 2012.
- [64] O. Manor-Shulman, J. Beyene, H. Frndova, and C. Parshuram. Quantifying the volume of documented clinical information in critical illness. *Journal of critical care*, 2008.
- [65] Daniel B. Martin, Peter D. Stetson, G. Weldon Gilcrease, Robert C. Stillman, Jessica M. Sugalski, Jack Skinner, and Mia Levy. Preferences in Oncology History Documentation Styles Among Clinical Practitioners. *JCO Oncology Practice*, page OP.20.00756, July 2021.

- [66] Clement J. McDonald. The Barriers to Electronic Medical Record Systems and How to Overcome Them. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association*, 4(3):213–221, 1997.
- [67] Nir Menachemi and Taleah H Collum. Benefits and drawbacks of electronic health record systems. *Risk Management and Healthcare Policy*, 4:47–55, May 2011.
- [68] Troels Mønsted, Madhu C. Reddy, and Jorgen P. Bansler. The Use of Narratives in Medical Work: A Field Study of Physician-Patient Consultations. In *ECSCW*, 2011.
- [69] Amanda J Moy, Jessica M Schwartz, RuiJun Chen, Shirin Sadri, Eugene Lucas, Kenrick D Cato, and Sarah Collins Rossetti. Measurement of clinical documentation burden among physicians and nurses using electronic health records: A scoping review. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association*, 28(ocaa325), January 2021.
- [70] James Mullenbach, Jordan Swartz, T. Greg McKelvey, Hui Dai, and David Sontag. Knowledge Base Completion for Constructing Problem-Oriented Medical Records. *arXiv:2004.12905 [cs, stat]*, August 2020.
- [71] Organisational and Signe Vikkelsø. Subtle redistribution of work, attention and risks: Electronic patient records and organisational consequences” Scandinavian. *Journal of Information Systems*, 17:3–30, 2005.
- [72] Carsten Svarrer Østerlund. *Documenting Dreams : Patient-Centered Records versus Practice-Centered Records*. Thesis, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 2002.
- [73] Isabella Paoletti. Communication and Diagnostic Work in Medical Emergency Calls in Italy. *Computer Supported Cooperative Work (CSCW)*, 18(2-3):229–250, June 2009.
- [74] Sun Young Park, So Young Lee, and Yunan Chen. The effects of EMR deployment on doctors’ work practices: A qualitative study in the emergency department of a teaching hospital. *International Journal of Medical Informatics*, 81(3):204–217, March 2012.
- [75] J. Parker and E. Coiera. Improving clinical communication: A view from psychology. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association: JAMIA*, 7(5):453–461, 2000 Sep-Oct.
- [76] Vimla L. Patel, Andre W. Kushniruk, Seungmi Yang, and Jean-Francois Yale. Impact of a Computer-based Patient Record System on Data Collection, Knowledge Organization, and Reasoning. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association*, 7(6):569–585, November 2000.

- [77] Lauren A Peccoralo, Carly A Kaplan, Robert H Pietrzak, Dennis S Charney, and Jonathan A Ripp. The impact of time spent on the electronic health record after work and of clerical work on burnout among clinical faculty. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association*, 28(5):938–947, May 2021.
- [78] Brian W. Pickering, Yue Dong, Adil Ahmed, Jyothsna Giri, Oguz Kilickaya, Ashish Gupta, Ognjen Gajic, and Vitaly Herasevich. The implementation of clinician designed, human-centered electronic medical record viewer in the intensive care unit: A pilot step-wedge cluster randomized trial. *International Journal of Medical Informatics*, 84(5):299–307, May 2015.
- [79] Brian W. Pickering, Ognjen Gajic, Adil Ahmed, Vitaly Herasevich, and Mark T. Keegan. Data Utilization for Medical Decision Making at the Time of Patient Admission to ICU\*. *Critical Care Medicine*, 41(6):1502–1510, June 2013.
- [80] Peter Pirolli and Stuart Card. Information foraging in information access environments. In *Proceedings of the SIGCHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems*, CHI '95, pages 51–58, USA, May 1995. ACM Press/Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.
- [81] C. Plaisant, R. Mushlin, A. Snyder, J. Li, D. Heller, and B. Shneiderman. LifeLines: Using visualization to enhance navigation and analysis of patient records. *Proceedings of the AMIA Symposium*, pages 76–80, 1998.
- [82] P. E. Politser. How to make laboratory information more informative. *Clinical Chemistry*, 32(8):1510–1516, August 1986.
- [83] Ari H. Pollack and Wanda Pratt. Association of Health Record Visualizations With Physicians’ Cognitive Load When Prioritizing Hospitalized Patients. *JAMA Network Open*, 3(1):e1919301, January 2020.
- [84] A. L. Rector, W. A. Nowlan, and S. Kay. Foundations for an electronic medical record. *Methods of Information in Medicine*, 30(3):179–186, August 1991.
- [85] Madhu C. Reddy, Paul Dourish, and Wanda Pratt. Coordinating Heterogeneous Work: Information and Representation in Medical Care. In Wolfgang Prinz, Matthias Jarke, Yvonne Rogers, Kjeld Schmidt, and Volker Wulf, editors, *ECSCW 2001: Proceedings of the Seventh European Conference on Computer Supported Cooperative Work 16–20 September 2001, Bonn, Germany*, pages 239–258. Springer Netherlands, Dordrecht, 2001.
- [86] S. J. Reiser. The clinical record in medicine. Part 1: Learning from cases. *Annals of Internal Medicine*, 114(10):902–907, May 1991.
- [87] Office for Civil Rights (OCR). HITECH Act Enforcement Interim Final Rule. <https://www.hhs.gov/hipaa/for-professionals/special-topics/hitech-act-enforcement-interim-final-rule/index.html>, October 2009.



- [88] Alexander Rind, Paolo Federico, Theresia Gschwandtner, Wolfgang Aigner, Jakob Doppler, and Markus Wagner. Visual Analytics of Electronic Health Records with a Focus on Time. In Giovanni Rinaldi, editor, *New Perspectives in Medical Records: Meeting the Needs of Patients and Practitioners*, TELe-Health, pages 65–77. Springer International Publishing, Cham, 2017.
- [89] Alan F. Rose, Jeffrey L. Schnipper, Elyse R. Park, Eric G. Poon, Qi Li, and Blackford Middleton. Using qualitative studies to improve the usability of an EMR. *Journal of Biomedical Informatics*, 38(1):51–60, February 2005.
- [90] S Trent Rosenbloom, Joshua C Denny, Hua Xu, Nancy Lorenzi, William W Stead, and Kevin B Johnson. Data from clinical notes: A perspective on the tension between structure and flexible documentation. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association*, 18(2):181–186, March 2011.
- [91] Adam Rule, Isaac H. Goldstein, Michael F. Chiang, and Michelle R. Hribar. Clinical Documentation as End-User Programming. In *Proceedings of the 2020 CHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems*, CHI '20, pages 1–13, New York, NY, USA, April 2020. Association for Computing Machinery.
- [92] Adam Rule, Steven Rick, Michael Chiu, Phillip Rios, Shazia Ashfaq, Alan Calvitti, Wesley Chan, Nadir Weibel, and Zia Agha. Validating free-text order entry for a note-centric EHR. *AMIA Annual Symposium Proceedings*, 2015:1103–1110, November 2015.
- [93] Guergana K Savova, James J Masanz, Philip V Ogren, Jiaping Zheng, Sunghwan Sohn, Karin C Kipper-Schuler, and Christopher G Chute. Mayo clinical Text Analysis and Knowledge Extraction System (cTAKES): Architecture, component evaluation and applications. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association*, 17(5):507–513, September 2010.
- [94] Jeffrey L. Schnipper, Jeffrey A. Linder, Matvey B. Palchuk, Jonathan S. Einbinder, Qi Li, Anatoly Postilnik, and Blackford Middleton. “Smart Forms” in an Electronic Medical Record: Documentation-based Clinical Decision Support to Improve Disease Management. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association*, 15(4):513–523, July 2008.
- [95] Michael G Semanik, Peter C Kleinschmidt, Adam Wright, Duwayne L Willett, Shannon M Dean, Sameh N Saleh, Zoe Co, Emmanuel Sampene, and Joel R Buchanan. Impact of a problem-oriented view on clinical data retrieval. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association*, 28(5):899–906, May 2021.
- [96] Y. Senathirajah, Jinglu Wang, E. Borycki, and A. Kushniruk. Mapping the Electronic Health Record: A Method to Study Display Fragmentation. *MedInfo*, 2017.

- [97] J. Shoolin, L. Ozeran, C. Hamann, and W. Bria II. Association of Medical Directors of Information Systems Consensus on Inpatient Electronic Health Record Documentation. *Applied Clinical Informatics*, 4(2):293–303, June 2013.
- [98] James E. Siegler, Neha N. Patel, and C. Jessica Dine. Prioritizing Paperwork Over Patient Care: Why Can’t We Do Both? *Journal of Graduate Medical Education*, 7(1):16–18, March 2015.
- [99] Catherine Arnott Smith, Scott Hetzel, Prudence Dalrymple, and Alla Keselman. Beyond readability: Investigating coherence of clinical text for consumers. *Journal of Medical Internet Research*, 13(4):e104, December 2011.
- [100] D. H. Solomon, R. H. Shmerling, P. H. Schur, R. Lew, J. Fiskio, and D. W. Bates. A computer based intervention to reduce unnecessary serologic testing. *The Journal of Rheumatology*, 26(12):2578–2584, December 1999.
- [101] Justin B Starren, William M Tierney, Marc S Williams, Paul Tang, Charlene Weir, Ross Koppel, Philip Payne, George Hripcsak, and Don E Detmer. A retrospective look at the predictions and recommendations from the 2009 AMIA policy meeting: Did we see EHR-related clinician burnout coming? *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association*, 28(5):948–954, May 2021.
- [102] Nicole Sultanum, Devin Singh, Michael Brudno, and Fanny Chevalier. *Docurate* : A Curation-Based Approach for Clinical Text Visualization. *IEEE Transactions on Visualization and Computer Graphics*, 25(1):142–151, January 2019.
- [103] Reed T. Sutton, David Pincock, Daniel C. Baumgart, Daniel C. Sadowski, Richard N. Fedorak, and Karen I. Kroeker. An overview of clinical decision support systems: Benefits, risks, and strategies for success. *npj Digital Medicine*, 3(1):17, December 2020.
- [104] H. J. Tange, A. Hasman, P. F. de Vries Robbé, and H. C. Schouten. Medical narratives in electronic medical records. *International Journal of Medical Informatics*, 46(1):7–29, August 1997.
- [105] Huibert Tange. How to approach the structuring of the medical record? Towards a model for flexible access to free text medical data. *International Journal of Bio-Medical Computing*, 42(1):27–34, July 1996.
- [106] J. M. Teich, P. R. Merchia, J. L. Schmiz, G. J. Kuperman, C. D. Spurr, and D. W. Bates. Effects of computerized physician order entry on prescribing practices. *Archives of Internal Medicine*, 160(18):2741–2747, October 2000.
- [107] Torbjørn Torsvik, Børge Lillebo, and M. Hertzum. How Do Experienced Physicians Access and Evaluate Laboratory Test Results for the Chronic Patient? A Qualitative Analysis. *Appl. Clin. Inform.*, 2018.

- [108] Michael A. Tutty, Lindsey E. Carlasare, Stacy Lloyd, and Christine A. Sinsky. The complex case of EHRs: Examining the factors impacting the EHR user experience. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association*, 26(7):673–677, July 2019.
- [109] A. M. van Ginneken. The Physician’s Flexible Narrative. *Methods of Information in Medicine*, 35(2):98–100, 1996.
- [110] Lara Varpio, Judy Rashotte, Kathy Day, James King, Craig Kuziemsky, and Avi Parush. The EHR and building the patient’s story: A qualitative investigation of how EHR use obstructs a vital clinical activity. *International Journal of Medical Informatics*, 84(12):1019–1028, December 2015.
- [111] Priska Vonbach, André Dubied, Stephan Krähenbühl, and Jürg H. Beer. Prevalence of drug-drug interactions at hospital entry and during hospital stay of patients in internal medicine. *European Journal of Internal Medicine*, 19(6):413–420, October 2008.
- [112] C. Jason Wang. Medical Documentation in the Electronic Era. *JAMA*, 308(20):2091–2092, November 2012.
- [113] Lawrence L. Weed. Medical Records That Guide and Teach. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 278(11):593–600, March 1968.
- [114] Justin M. Weis and Paul C. Levy. Copy, Paste, and Cloned Notes in Electronic Health Records. *CHEST*, 145(3):632–638, March 2014.
- [115] Michael E. Wiklund, Jonathan Kendler, Limor Hochberg, and Matthew B. Weinger. Technical Basis for User Interface Design of Health IT. Technical Report NIST GCR 15-996, National Institute of Standards and Technology, September 2015.
- [116] Adam B. Wilcox, Yueh-Hsia Chen, and George Hripesak. Minimizing electronic health record patient-note mismatches. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association: JAMIA*, 18(4):511–514, 2011 Jul-Aug.
- [117] Adam B. Wilcox, Scott P. Narus, and Watson A. Bowes. Using natural language processing to analyze physician modifications to data entry templates. *Proceedings of the AMIA Symposium*, pages 899–903, 2002.
- [118] Lauren Wilcox, Jie Lu, Jennifer Lai, Steven Feiner, and Desmond Jordan. Physician-driven management of patient progress notes in an intensive care unit. In *Proceedings of the 28th International Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems - CHI '10*, page 1879, Atlanta, Georgia, USA, 2010. ACM Press.
- [119] Jesse O. Wrenn, Daniel M. Stein, Suzanne Bakken, and Peter D. Stetson. Quantifying clinical narrative redundancy in an electronic health record. *Journal of*

*the American Medical Informatics Association: JAMIA*, 17(1):49–53, 2010 Jan-Feb.

- [120] Qian Yang, Aaron Steinfeld, and John Zimmerman. Unremarkable AI: Fitting Intelligent Decision Support into Critical, Clinical Decision-Making Processes. *Proceedings of the 2019 CHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems*, pages 1–11, May 2019.
- [121] Q. Zeng and J. J. Cimino. A knowledge-based, concept-oriented view generation system for clinical data. *Journal of Biomedical Informatics*, 34(2):112–128, April 2001.
- [122] Qing Zeng, James J. Cimino, and Kelly H. Zou. Providing Concept-oriented Views for Clinical Data Using a Knowledge-based System: An Evaluation. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association*, 9(3):294–305, May 2002.
- [123] Jiajie Zhang. The nature of external representations in problem solving. *Cognitive Science*, 21(2):179–217, April 1997.
- [124] Kai Zheng, Rema Padman, Michael P. Johnson, and Herbert S. Diamond. An interface-driven analysis of user interactions with an electronic health records system. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association: JAMIA*, 16(2):228–237, 2009 Mar-Apr.