# **The Good, the Bad, and the Facts: Multimodal Representation of Medical Conversations for Patient Understanding**

by

Jaclyn Berry

B.A. Architecture - University of California, Berkeley (2014)

Submitted to the Department of Architecture and the Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degrees of

Master of Science in Architecture Studies and Master of Science in Electrical Engineering and Computer Science

at the

MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

June 2019

© Massachusetts Institute of Technology 2019. All rights reserved.



#### **Thesis Committee**

Terry Knight Professor of Design and Computation Thesis Advisor

Randall Davis Professor of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science Thesis Advisor

## **The Good, the Bad, and the Facts: Multimodal Representation of Medical Conversations for Patient Understanding**

by Jaclyn Berry

Submitted to the Department of Architecture and the Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science on May 23, 2019 in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degrees of Master of Science in Architecture Studies and Master of Science in Electrical Engineering and Computer Science

#### **Abstract**

Medical patients face significant challenges for managing their health information. In particular, cancer patients have a uniquely difficult experience where they must endure the physical and emotional effects of their illness while simultaneously navigating overwhelming amounts of medical information. In this thesis, I focus on the challenge of capturing, reviewing and extracting information from medical appointments for patients enduring serious health conditions such as cancer. First, I propose a novel multimodal interface to help patients review and understand information they received from conversations with their doctors. This interface captures medical conversations as text and audio, with important positive and negative information highlighted. I conducted 25 user studies where I enacted fictional conversations between a doctor and a patient to evaluate whether this method of representing information would help patients review and understand their appointments. Results from the user studies show that the web interface serves as a useful tool for reviewing the content of the conversations, however its effect on patient understanding cannot yet be determined. Second, I propose a machine learning algorithm to automatically classify the positive and negative information in medical conversations based on analysis of the text and prosody in speech. The model with the highest performance on my dataset achieved an accuracy of 90.6% and F1-score of 0.888. While I focus on challenges within the medical field, findings from this thesis may be relevant to emotional conversations in any setting such as sportscasting, political debates and more.

Thesis Supervisor: Terry Knight Title: Professor of Design and Computation

Thesis Supervisor: Randall Davis Title: Professor of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science I dedicate this thesis to my dad.

David B. Berry April 29, 1947 – May 4, 2018

Until we meet again.

## Acknowledgments

Thank you, Terry Knight and Randy Davis, for encouraging me to pursue this thesis and finish my degrees at MIT. Your guidance and support have been invaluable throughout my time here.

Thank you to my friends on Team Armadillo for helping me complete the spring semester in 2018 when my father was in ICU. And thank you to everyone at MIT and back home in California who supported me and my family after my father's passing.

Thank you, Shokofeh, for our walks and jogs along the Charles. Thank you, Anesta, for bringing me ibuprofen, going out for treats and sharing avocado jokes.

Thank you, Kevin, for supporting me through this long-distance endeavor. I am looking forward to spending the rest of our lives together.

Thank you, mom. Your optimism and perseverance inspire me every day. You have been a pillar of stability for my entire life and I know I have your support no matter what I pursue. I could not have done this without you.

# **Contents**





# List of Figures





# List of Tables



# Chapter 1

# Introduction

On May 4, 2018, my father died due to a rare complication from a bone marrow transplant for an extremely uncommon form of leukemia. The time from his diagnosis in September 2017 to his passing eight months later were wrought with uncertainty, desperation and hope. Before the bone marrow transplant, I remember my father pouring over binders of information about the side effects, complications and quality of life during and after the procedure. This treatment was undoubtedly risky, with only 60% success rate among all bone marrow transplant patients and several years before full recovery.

Three weeks into the bone marrow transplant, the doctors and nurses were all very positive. They said my father was fairing remarkably well and sent him home a week early. Ten days later, my father was intubated in the ICU with multiple organ failure. The team of doctors expressed to us the severity of the situation but they maintained optimism that they could still save my father's life. With each day that passed, their optimism faded and it became clear my father would not survive.

Since my father's passing, I have been trying to create sense from the chaos of cancer, starting from diagnosis, through treatment, and death. I have listened to my mother agonize over whether she missed something the doctors said or failed to tell the doctors enough. I looked through the spiral-bound notebooks my parents used during visits to the clinic: only short phrases and a few keywords were recorded. We had no records from my father's final weeks. I recognized that managing medical information during cancer treatment is an incredible challenge. And even more specifically, I recognized that keeping track of everything a doctor says is an enormously difficult task with the greatest burden placed on patients and their caregivers.

My father's experience with cancer and the healthcare system was not uncommon. Patients in medical environments face a host of challenges ranging from extended stays in inpatient care, long periods in the waiting rooms, confusion about treatment options and misunderstandings of insurance coverage, to name a few. Researchers and industry professionals across multiple disciplines have conducted ethnographic studies to formally identify unmet needs of patients in hospitals and medical clinics. Among their findings are the recurring challenges of passive exchange of information from doctors to patients (i.e. doctors speak and patients listen), patients' low information retention, unmanageable amounts of information per appointment, and exam rooms ill-equipped for patients to interact with their health data  $|1|$ –[3]. Traditionally these topics may not have been considered real problems because patients were expected to unequivocally trust their doctor's instructions. However, as medical information becomes increasingly available online and personal health monitoring technology becomes more accessible, people are taking a more active role in maintaining their own health [4].

Along with the general challenges of medical environments and managing health information, cancer patients have a uniquely difficult medical experience. Not only is diagnosis emotional for patients and their loved ones, treatments are often a harrowing test of mental and physical endurance. Oncologists may prescribe combinations of surgeries, chemotherapy, radiation, immunotherapy, or medication, to name a few [5]. The effects of these illnesses and their treatments cannot be adequately described with words. Patients endure a range of symptoms from the cancer itself as well as side effects to their prescribed therapies. Such experiences may include, but are not limited to, pain, nausea, fatigue, or diminished mental state [6]. In addition, patients may experience changes in their physical appearance, may be unable to work, and may be required to relocate or travel long distances to receive their treatment.

Cancer patients are also burdened with the responsibility of managing their per-

sonal health information. After diagnosis, patients must immediately begin coordinating treatment and appointments with multiple physicians. During clinic appointments, cancer patients receive verbal information about their diagnosis and instructions for treatments from doctors and nurses. They must process this information, record comprehensive notes, ask questions, and make life-altering decisions within these meetings. Outside of the clinic, patients must be fastidious about their medication regimen which can include upwards of ten types of medications with various timing instructions and dietary restrictions. They must review and organize their decontextualized notes and information pamphlets from their oncologists. Patients and their caregivers often find the sheer quantity of information from this process overwhelming.

Despite the tens of thousands of health apps available online, very few address the specific needs of cancer patients. Many apps are targeted for preventative care such as fitness trackers, diet logs and medication schedulers. Only recently have applications specific to patients with medical conditions begun to emerge [7]. Within the past decade, researchers have conducted ethnographic studies to identify the unique conditions and needs of cancer patients at all points of their treatment journey. Cancer and its associated medications introduce significant hardship to patients ability to capture and retrieve information during treatment [8], [9]. Such challenges include diminished attention due to stress or treatment side effects, inability to accurately capture different types of information, and uncomfortable physical accommodations in the clinic environment. Based on these studies, researchers and medical information enterprises have begun developing new systems for information management, social support, improved patient-oncologist communication, and data visualization.

In this thesis, I address the challenge medical patients face for managing their health information. In particular, I focus on the challenge of capturing, reviewing and extracting information from medical appointments for patients enduring serious and often emotionally demanding health conditions, such as cancer. First, I hypothesize that a multimodal interface presenting information from medical appointments through text, audio and labels identifying positive and negative information will help

patients review and understand information from conversations with their doctors. Second, I hypothesize that important positive and negative information can be extracted from a conversation with machine learning algorithms using features from the textual content and prosody of speech. In this context, I define positive information as information that should cause a patient to feel optimistic about their treatment options, health outcome, diagnosis, or health resources. I define negative information as information that should cause a patient to feel pessimistic about their treatment options, health outcome, diagnosis, or health resources. And I define neutral information as information that should not cause a patient to feel either pessimistic or optimistic about their treatment options, diagnosis, health outcome, or health resources.

To evaluate my hypothesis, I developed (1) a web interface that represents a conversation through a text transcript and an audio recording with labeled positive and negative information, and (2) a machine learning algorithm using features from text and prosody to classify important positive and negative information from a medical conversation. I conducted 25 user studies to collect fictional medical conversation data to be used in the machine learning algorithm and evaluate the effectiveness of my web interface for facilitating information review and understanding. In these conversations, I assumed the role of the doctor and participants assumed the role of the patient. Results from the user studies show that this multimodal representation of information using audio and text facilitates review of medical conversations. More specifically, the positive and negative labels of the text influence users' perception and encourage reflection about the information. However, the effect of the web interface on participants' understanding cannot be determined from this study. Results from the machine learning algorithms show that, with a dataset containing speech from a single speaker, positive and negative information can be identified from text and prosody with an accuracy of 90.6% and an F1-score of 0.888.

While I focus on conversations between doctors and patients, I propose that findings from this thesis may be relevant to emotional dialogs in general. Instances of emotional dialogs could include political speeches, debates, sportscasting, psychology or theater. In these examples, a tool identifying information based on textual and prosodic analysis of speech could be useful for external observers to navigate and understand important information from these events. Alternatively, more personal instances of emotional conversations may include couples' counseling, important presentations, or art and design critiques where a person may be too overcome with emotion to hear and understand the other side of the conversation. In these scenarios, having a multimodal record that shows what and how information was communicated could help a person review the conversation from a new perspective and improve understanding.

# Chapter 2

# Related Work

### 2.1 Medical Information Management

Patient engagement with their health information has a positive influence on their experience in the clinical environment and overall health outcome [10], [11]. This finding has encouraged researchers and industry experts to rethink how patients and doctors could interact with health information. Advancements in telehealth such as remote-patient-monitoring and secure electronic data transfer have made healthcare services more available, particularly in rural and underserved regions [12]–[14]. Mobile applications and wearable sensors for monitoring health metrics are empowering individuals to become more engaged with their health, contributing to positive health status [15], [16]. Interactive visualizations of medical data within medical environments offer the potential for predictive models and clearer communication between medical professionals and patients [17]–[19].

Cancer patients face a particularly intense challenge for managing and engaging with health-related information. New all-in-one applications for organizing health information are emerging in response to these challenges. For example, Klasnja et al. developed a customizable personal health information management system for breast cancer patients to record and link health logs, calendar events, and external information [20]. Jacobs et al. deployed tablet devices to aid breast cancer patients with organizing and remembering their health information [21]. Other researchers have incorporated interfaces for community support and online forums to address the emotional burden of diagnosis and treatment for cancer patients [22], [23]. However, none of these studies address the problem of capturing, reviewing and understanding information shared in conversations between doctors and patients.

## 2.2 Information Capture and Retrieval

Methods for information capture and retrieval often involve note-taking and notereview. Traditional note-taking is a situational task demanding varying levels of accuracy, attention and technological intervention [24]. Regardless of the setting, in the best of circumstances, note-taking is difficult [25]. While taking notes in a lecture, an office meeting or a doctor's office, a person must take in a continuous stream of audio and visual information, understand which elements are most important, then record that information so they will remember what it means later. For a doctor, the demanding nature of manual note-taking means that doctors must spend a significant amount of cognitive effort and time writing down notes instead of interacting directly with their patients. For patients, note-taking requires them to be mentally, physically and emotionally prepared to discuss their health information. This cognitive burden for medical patients poses a risk for misremembering or omitting important information given by the doctor or other medical staff.

Hundreds of note-taking programs are available online, each one supporting different platforms, levels of complexity and input [26]. These applications work well for many general purposes such as taking notes in a meeting or writing down grocery lists. But these systems still do not reduce the cognitive load on users for determining what information is important, nor do they include significant features supporting note-review [27]. In an attempt to make information capture and retrieval more effective, several studies are exploring new methods for interacting with information across multiple media sources. Researchers have implemented visual and voice interfaces for interacting with audio and other non-text-based media [28], [29]. Other

studies have investigated how combinations of text-based media and short video-clips can facilitate more efficient video review and content retrieval [30]–[32].

## 2.3 Language Processing

Imagine if you never had to take your own notes and instead all the notes were written down for you. Since the 1960s, the solution to this idea was a designated human transcriber or transcriptionist. This person would have the designated function of transcribing a complete textual record of activities like court sessions, cinematic productions, doctors' notes, or academic lectures. Recently, human transcription has been shown to be very successful within the medical field, particularly for aiding doctors with note-taking during appointments with their patients [33], [34].

Advances in machine learning have enabled significant development in automatic speech recognition (ASR), speaker recognition (SRE), and natural language processing (NLP). Commercial ASR products offer transcription services with accuracies near 90% [35], [36]. However, there are many remaining challenges associated with automatic speech recognition including context-specific vocabulary and linguistic ambiguities. Researchers are investigating multimodal strategies for combining textual speech data with video to help machines disambiguate the meaning of sentences within a given visual context [37]. Along with semantics, speaker identification is an ongoing challenge and current technology in ASR and SRE primarily address a single person dictating or a simple phone conversation. Researchers in ASR and SRE have created new tools to differentiate several speakers in group conversations using triangulation of sound and voice identification vectors [38], [39].

Automatic speech recognition shows promising applications in the medical field. Academic researchers and industry experts have begun developing new speech recognition models specifically for medical conversations between doctors and patients [40], [41]. While the examples here focus on the benefit that ASR and SRE may provide to medical professionals, such a system could also be beneficial to medical patients who must record and revisit information from their appointments. Patients may find that accurate records of these conversations serve as important resources when trying to understand their diagnosis and make treatment decisions.

### 2.4 Language Understanding

Transcribing a conversation is part of the solution, but the problem of extracting meaning from a conversation still remains. There are several ways to interpret the meaning of a conversation, and certainly human-human communication is interpreted through multimodal channels. In this section, I focus on the meaning of the textual content of the conversation. Work related to a computer's understanding of text is an important topic in machine learning and natural language processing. Researchers have constructed new systems that demonstrate understanding of language in text by generating relevant answers to factual queries [42] and relating textual statements to visual descriptors [37]. Still more are investigating applications of artificial intelligence for story interpretation and evaluation of author intention [43].

Language understanding and information extraction are becoming increasingly relevant for healthcare applications. For over 20 years, natural language processing and machine learning systems have been developed to extract important events from clinical notes and construct the timeline at which they occur in a patient's healthcare experience [44]–[46]. Recently applications of this work have extended to interpreting clinical notes to facilitate clinical decision-making for cancer care, palliative care and psychology [47]–[49]. While these studies explore the applications of language understanding for healthcare professionals, in this thesis I developed a tool for language understanding for patients.

### 2.5 Affect and Paralinguistics

Nonverbal communication plays a central role in how we understand and interact with other people. In fact, emotional expression is so important to human communication that we often impose affective characteristics onto non-emotive objects: consider times when you have gotten angry at your computer or when you have become emotionally attached to a toy. Studies in affective computing assert that integrating emotional intelligence into computers will create better interactions between people and machines [50]. Such interactions apply to applications including emotion coaches for those on the autism spectrum and adaptive educational environments [51], [52].

Paralanguage is the study of extralinguistic vocal cues that inform human communication. These cues include tone of voice, grunts, sighs, pauses or exclamations that inform human traits and states such as gender, age, mood or emotion [53], [54]. Prosody, a subset of paralanguage, studies extralinguistic qualities of speech with specific regard to tone, pitch, accent and rhythm. Because how we say things is often indicative of our emotional state, researchers have developed machine learning models based on the prosodic elements of speech for emotion recognition [55], [56]. Others have taken a multimodal approach to the challenge and developed models based on combinations of textual and prosodic analysis of speech [57]. However, paralanguage informs us about more than just emotional state. Medical professionals and researchers have manually and computationally developed methods for identifying mental disorders and physical illness based on qualities of speech [54], [58], [59]. And other researchers have utilized multimodal systems of face-tracking and acoustic analysis for determining participant interest and boredom in unstructured conversations [60].

# Chapter 3

# Representing a Conversation

### 3.1 Design of a Prototype Multimodal Interface

The first task in this thesis was to determine whether a multimodal interface containing text and audio records of a conversation, with annotations identifying positive and negative information, would help a patient review and understand the information discussed in their medical appointments. For this purpose, I constructed a simple prototype web interface with HTML, CSS, and JavaScript, hosted locally on my personal computer with node.js. The primary features of the interface include a text transcript of a recorded conversation, an audio playback interface for the recorded conversation, a chart to visualize the total number of positive and negative speech events the doctor contributed to the conversation, and filters to isolate positive and negative information in the transcript (Figure 3-1). This design enables users to navigate through the conversation through multiple modalities: they can choose to only read the text, only listen to the audio, or some combination of the two. Users can click on a speech event in the transcript and the audio cursor will update to the corresponding time in the recording. Conversely, users can click on a time in the audio playback interface, and the transcript will scroll to the corresponding position.

Obtaining transcripts of conversations was a multi-step process (Figure 3-2). An audio file of a conversation was converted to MP3 using Adobe Media Encoder CS6. The MP3 file was uploaded to Amazon Web Service (AWS) S3, the storage service for



Figure 3-1: The prototype web interface. Figure 3-1: The prototype web interface.



Figure 3-2: The pipeline for obtaining transcripts of conversations.

AWS machine learning tools, and then submitted to AWS Transcribe, a transcription service. AWS Transcribe returned a full transcript of the audio file, timestamps associated with each recognized word and estimated speaker segmentation. However, due to the inaccuracies of the transcription, I manually separated by speaker and corrected transcription errors for each conversation. In this first task, I also manually labeled the speech events as positive, negative or neutral.

#### 3.2 User Study Procedure

With the working prototype, I designed a controlled study to evaluate how this representation of information may assist patients in reviewing and understanding information from their medical appointments. The study protocol was approved by the Committee on the Use of Humans as Experimental Subjects (COUHES) at Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The study consisted of two phases: (1) Appointment Phase, and (2) Review Phase. Each session of the study took place in a private room reserved in the Architecture and EECS CSAIL facilities on MIT campus.

Before beginning the study, participants were informed of the full procedure and provided their consent. They were informed that the study was investigating methods of information capture within the medical setting. The true intent of the study was withheld to prevent any bias for or against the proposed representation of information. Participants were also informed that the study required them to participate in a fictional cancer diagnosis. Due to the emotional nature of this type of conversation, I felt participants needed to be fully aware of their role in the study.

For the Appointment Phase of the study, participants and I (the study proctor) enacted a fictional appointment between a patient and a doctor in a private room. The participant assumed the role of patient and I assumed the role of doctor. Participants were provided with a single fact-sheet of backstory information for their role including the nature of their make-believe health-condition, the nature of the appointment and a pseudonym to use during the conversation (Appendix A). During the conversation they were allowed to use this sheet of paper to take notes. As a fictional doctor, I used a predefined script to deliver a fictional cancer diagnosis to the participant using the SPIKES protocol (Table 3.1). This protocol is a method used by medical professionals to deliver bad news in an empathic and humane manner [61]. In the script, I informed the acting patient that they had been diagnosed with a fictional cancer called, "betacyte carcinoma" (Appendix B). I included relatively positive information such as high 5-year survival rates with treatment, several available treatment options, and successful research supporting the disease. I also included negative information such as the cancer diagnosis, uncertain long-term prognosis and severe side effects from the treatment. The acting patient was allowed to ask questions at any time during the conversation. Conversations lasted anywhere from 5 minutes to 15 minutes, depending on the user's engagement and responses. I recorded each conversation using the Voice Memos app on an iPhone 5S.

After completing the conversation in the Appointment Phase, I collected participants' notes and participants departed for four to five hours. This break was included to simulate the time a real patient may experience between receiving a real diagnosis and returning home to discuss the information with their family. During the gap between the appointment phase and review phase of the study, I prepared the audio recording for the web interface. As described earlier, this process involved transcribing the audio to text and manually annotating speech events within the conversation as positive, negative or neutral.

After the designated break, participants reconvened with me in a private room for the Review Phase of the study. In this phase, participants completed a questionnaire about their experience in the earlier appointment first by referencing only

Setting	Arrange to speak to the patient in a private room.
	Make eye contact and offer gestures of reassurance.
Perception	Ask the patient about what they are expecting from the
	appointment and what information they already know.
Invitation	Ask the patient how much information they would
	like to know about their diagnosis.
Knowledge	Deliver information about the diagnosis in small chunks
	using nontechnical language.
Empathy	Assess patient's emotional reaction. Offer comfort and/or
	ask patient how they are feeling. Let the patient know you
	are connected with how they feel.
	Ask the patient if they are ready to hear about treatment plans
Strategy $\&$	for the future. Explore the patient's knowledge and expectations
Summary	of treatment. Create a dialog where patients can express their
	fears and concerns.

SPIKES Protocol

Table 3.1: SPIKES protocol for delivering bad news.

their handwritten notes and then by using the web interface. Before using the web interface, participants were required to watch a 1-minute video introducing the basic functionality of the interface. The survey was designed to evaluate changes in participants' understanding and perception of information in the acted conversation as well as their experience using the web interface (Appendix C). The survey consisted of 31 questions: five binary questions (yes or no), one trinary question (positive, negative or neutral), 12 short answer questions and 13 rubric questions rated on a Likert scale of 0 (least) to 4 (most). The survey was divided into three sections. In the first section participants could only reference their manual notes to answer questions about the acted conversation. In the second section, participants could reference the web interface and their manual notes to answer questions about the conversation. In the third section, participants answered questions about their experience using the web interface.

After completing the questionnaire, I conducted short interviews with participants about their experience in the acted scenario and their reactions to the web interface. An outline of the interview questions can be found in Appendix D. I asked participants about their trust in the classification of information and their reactions when the system disagreed. I asked them to reflect on challenges they faced and their sense of control over their health information in their role as patient. I also asked participants when they thought audio would be useful for managing their health information. Finally, I asked participants to share how they would want a system like the one I designed to be integrated into their healthcare experience. At the end, participants were rewarded with a \$20 Amazon gift card.

### 3.3 User Study Results

In total, 25 participants between ages 18 to 50 years old agreed to participate in the study. There were 17 female participants and 8 male participants, all from the MIT community. The average age was 25 years old, the youngest was 19 years old and the oldest was 44 years old. The group included 13 graduate students, 7 undergraduate students and 5 members of MIT staff. Participants came from several departments and programs including MIT Media Arts and Sciences, Electrical Engineering and Computer Science, Architecture, Aeronautics and Astronautics, Mechanical Engineering, Math, Physics and Urban Studies and Planning.

I was first interested to determine whether the representation of information in the web interface affected how participants felt they understood the conversation. I asked participants to respond to the question, "How well do you feel you understand the content of the conversation?" using a Likert scale of 0 (Not at All) to 4 (Very Well). Participants ranked their understanding first using only their manual notes and again using the web interface to review the conversation. Unexpectedly, the average reported level of understanding was identical for the initial condition using only manual notes and for the final condition using the web interface, with a score of 3.28 out of 4. However, there were changes in understanding at an individual level.



Figure 3-3: Magnitude of change in participants' understanding after using the web interface.



Figure 3-4: Change in participants' level of understanding of the conversation after using the web interface.

I computed the difference between participants' reported levels of understanding with their manual notes compared to their understanding with the web interface to identify changes per individual. From this comparison, 13 out of 25 participants reported no change in their understanding of the conversation. The remaining 12 out of 25 participants reported an absolute change of up to 2 on a scale of 0 (no change) to 4 (maximum change), as shown in Figure 3-3. Of the participants who indicated a change in understanding, 6 showed a positive change in understanding and 6 showed a negative change in understanding (Figure 3-4). The positive change in understanding indicates that participants gained additional comprehension of the conversation after viewing the web interface.

Among the reports of negative change in understanding, three may be interpreted to mean that the participants realized how little they originally understood the conversation after using the web interface. In an interview, one participant who reported a negative change in understanding expressed that she would have wanted to do additional research because she realized:

"It's common knowledge that there is chemo and these effects, but there is nothing new I left [the appointment] knowing, just the name of the cancer."—Guadalupe Babio, Graduate Student

Indication that a change in understanding did actually occur for these three participants is further supported by reported changes in their perception, confidence and optimism about the conversation. However, the remaining three negative changes in understanding do not exhibit consistency with the other responses in the survey nor comments in the interviews.

Based on the positive responses regarding usability and comments in the interviews, the results describing changes in participant understanding were not due to confusion using the interface, but from ambiguity in the survey questions. In hindsight, these questions should have been phrased more clearly. The question "How well do you feel you understand the content of the conversation?" after viewing the web interface may have had mixed interpretations. Participants may have responded with their current level of understanding or they may have reassessed their original level of understanding. A clearer set of questions may have been, "Now that you have used the web interface, how well do you think you understood the conversation originally?" and "How well do you understand the conversation now?" This change would account for cases when a participant overestimates their understanding of a conversation initially, then after reviewing the web interface, discovers they actually did not understand the conversation very well from the beginning. However, based on the current responses, the effect of the web interface on participant understanding is inconclusive. Additional user studies and methods for evaluating comprehension would be required to determine a significant relationship between this representation of a conversation and changes in patient understanding of information.

Delving further into participants' understanding of the conversation, I was interested to see whether the interface influenced participants' perspective of the positive and negative information in the conversation. I calculated the difference in participants' reports of the valence of the conversation using only their manual notes compared with their reports using the web interface. The results showed that 16 out of 25 participants experienced an absolute change up to 2 on a scale of 0 (no change) to 4 (maximum change) and 9 participants experienced no change in their perception of the information (Figure 3-5). Of the participants who did report a change in their


**REPORTED CHANGE IN PERCEPTION** 10  $\overline{9}$ Number of Participants  $\,8\,$  $\overline{7}$ 6 5  $\overline{4}$  $\overline{3}$  $\overline{c}$  $\mathbf{1}$  $\mathbf 0$  $-2$  $^{\mbox{{\small -1}}}$  $\mathsf{O}\xspace$  $\,1\,$  $\overline{2}$ Change

Figure 3-5: Magnitude of change in participants' perception of the conversation after using the web interface.

Figure 3-6: Change in participants' perception of the conversation after using the web interface.



Figure 3-7: The web interface's influence on participants' opinion of the conversation.

perceived valence of the information, 8 experienced a positive change and 8 experienced a negative change (Figure 3-6). A change in the positive direction may have arisen when a participant exited the appointment feeling the overall diagnosis was very negative, but after viewing the web interface they realized there was positive information to consider. One participant who reported a positive change said:

"I was also surprised by how much positive was in [the appointment]. So, it kind of also made me think, oh maybe it wasn't as bad as I thought it had been."—Anastasia Ostrokowski, Design Researcher

In the opposite direction, a participant may originally have left the conversation feeling that the conversation went very well and that the prognosis was promising, but upon seeing the interface they realized the conversation was not as positive as they originally perceived. A participant who experienced a negative change said:

"During the conversation, I thought we had more positive information. But when I saw the interface, I realized that there was so much less positive information, like there was only one part. So, I was kind of amazed." —Graduate Student

In support of these findings, when asked how much the web interface influenced their opinion of the conversation, Figure 3-7 shows that 18 out of 25 participants also reported a score of 2 or higher on a scale of 0 (no influence) to 4 (completely influenced). In this respect, the web interface did influence participants' perception of the positive and negative information shared in the conversation.

The survey included questions regarding participants' feelings about their treatment options. Participants were asked to respond to the question, "Based on the conversation, how would you rate your optimism about your treatment options?" on a Likert scale from 0 (Not At All Optimistic) to 4 (Very Optimistic) using only their manual notes as reference. Later they responded to the question, "After viewing the web interface, how do you feel about the treatment options discussed in the conversation?" on a Likert scale from 0 (Very Pessimistic) to 4 (Very Optimistic). Results from the survey showed that 11 participants reported an absolute change of up to 2





Figure 3-8: Magnitude of change in participants' optimism about treatment after using the web interface.

Figure 3-9: Change in participants' optimism about their treatment after using the web interface.



Figure 3-10: No clear correlation was found between participants' change in perception and their change in optimism.





Figure 3-11: Magnitude of change in participants' confidence about making a decision for their treatment after using the web interface.

Figure 3-12: Change in participants' confidence about making a decision for their treatment after using the web interface.

(on a scale of 0 to 4) and 14 participants reported no change after viewing the web interface (Figure 3-8). Of the 11 participants who reported a change, seven participants became more optimistic and four became less optimistic after viewing the web interface (Figure 3-9). Surprisingly, based on the survey responses, there does not appear to be a strong correlation between participants' change in perception of the information and their reported change in optimism. Of the four participants who became less optimistic, three also reported a negative change in perception of information. However, of the seven who became more optimistic, two reported no change and two reported a negative change in perception of the information. It is possible that the imprecise wording on the Likert scales did not have equivalent meaning to all users and therefore resulted in ambiguous results.

Additionally, I was curious to find whether the web interface impacted participants' confidence about making a decision for their treatment. First, I asked participants to respond to the question, "Based on this conversation, how confident would you feel about making a decision about your treatment?" on a Likert scale of 0 (Not At All Confident) to 4 (Very Confident) using only their manual notes. Then I asked participants, "After viewing the web interface, how confident do you feel about making a decision about your treatment?" with the same Likert scale. Based on the difference between the responses, 10 participants indicated an absolute change of 1 or more (on a scale of 0 to 4) and 15 participants indicated no change in confidence after viewing the web interface (Figure 3-11). Of the 10 participants who indicated a change, 7 felt more confident about making a decision after viewing the web interface and 3 felt less confident (Figure 3-12).



#### In terms of usability, how would vou rate the web interface?

Figure 3-13: Usability of the web interface.

Results regarding the usability and experience with the web interface were very positive. All participants reported a score of 2 or higher on a scale of 0 (Not Easy to Use) to 4 (Very Easy to Use) when asked about the usability of the interface (Figure 3-13). More specifically, 19 out of 25 participants rated the usability as "Very Easy to Use." When asked whether the web interface was helpful for finding important information, 23 out of 25 participants indicated a score of 3 or higher on a scale of 0 (Not At All Helpful) to 4 (Very Helpful), as illustrated in Figure 3-14. Going further, 20 out of 25 participants also indicated that the positive and negative labels were helpful for understanding the content of the conversation (Figure 3-15).

Participants provided feedback about features that they found successful, features they found unsuccessful and improvements they would have liked to experience. The most successful features in the web interface were the highlighted positive and negative



Figure 3-14: Helpfulness of the web interface for finding important information in the conversation.



Figure 3-15: Helpfulness of the positive and negative labels in the web interface for understanding the conversation.

content, the transcript, the filters, the ability to navigate the transcript by clicking on the audio track, and the visualization of positive and negative information on the audio track. The least successful aspect of the web interface was that the positive and negative labels did not capture all of the important information in the conversation. As a result, participants suggested that more categories of information be labeled in the interface, particularly information about the treatment regimen.

In the final part of the user studies, I interviewed participants about their experience receiving the diagnosis. Obviously, a fictional scenario where the acting patient is already aware they will receive a cancer diagnosis is not equivalent to a real-life experience. However, most participants did make an effort to put themselves in the patient's shoes by imagining how they might react if the situation were real. Despite these limitations, several participants reported that receiving even a fictional diagnosis was somewhat emotional. One participant shared:

"Even though it's a fictional conversation, I think the first thing that came to mind, when you said, oh this is what you have, was like shock. You're totally bewildered."—Parul Koul, Undergraduate Student

I consistently observed a delay between a participant hearing the cancer diagnosis and responding to it in a way that indicated they understood what was happening. After hearing the cancer diagnosis, participants often responded with the phrase, "Okay," and did not begin asking questions about their health options for several minutes, if at all. One participant described his experience acting:

"It took a while, there was a period where, the conversation progressed pretty far before I realized like, let's backup to square one to, what exactly is this disease? What is the prognosis? How is chemotherapy going to impact my life? Questions I didn't really think to ask when you first presented the news."—Justin Lueker, Graduate Student

This lag in reaction time was also apparent in participants' manual notes. From the note records of 24 participants (one record was lost), 10 participants completely forgot to take notes during the conversation, five participants wrote less than six words and one participant recorded information about the fictional doctor's bedside manner instead of about the diagnosis. Of the remaining eight participants, only one took very thorough notes although, as she commented later:

"Afterwards they [the notes] can easily become confusing and the information is not clear. Also as I reached the bottom [of the page] then I had gone back and written up top and I realized I didn't know what order that had come in or what exactly it [my notes] were referring to. I had written down the 5-year and 20-year survival rates, but I wasn't sure if that was after one of the specific treatments or in general. I think it's easy for it to get out of order and scattered."—Graduate Student

I asked participants about the specific challenges they experienced during the fictional diagnosis and whether the web interface helped them deal with any of those challenges. Participants commented that keeping track of all the medical terms and thinking of what questions to ask was very difficult. Some also found that even within the 4 to 5-hour break, they had forgotten some important information from the conversation. The web interface did not help alleviate those challenges during the conversation, but participants commented that it did serve as a useful tool for reviewing the conversation and could be helpful for further independent research:

"It gives a good overview of the whole situation and helps you view all the information in one context. And maybe it could be useful for figuring out what information you have and what information you still need to get. It would be useful to be able to look at it and then figure out, what are the next steps? Where do you go from here? What more do you need to know?"—Graduate Student

Receiving a serious diagnosis, such as cancer, can be a remarkably disempowering experience. Regarding this aspect of the patient experience, I asked participants about their sense of control over their health information during the conversation and whether the interface changed their sense of control. Most participants commented they felt reasonably in control of their health information during the appointment, primarily because the fictional doctor answered all of their questions. Had this been a real diagnosis, I may have encountered different responses. With the web interface, 13 participants commented that they felt more in control of their health information because they had a tangible record of information for reference. Unexpectedly, three participants commented that the web interface actually made them feel less in control because they felt the positive and negative labels were telling them how to think.

Although the positive and negative classification of information was annotated manually for the user studies, in Chapter 4 of this thesis I develop an algorithm to automatically classify the information. Because this type of system would become an application of AI in healthcare for interpreting the valence of information, I was curious about participants' trust in the system. It is important to note that participants were not aware of how the information in the web interface had been labeled. All participants assumed that the conversations were labeled algorithmically. With this assumption 24 out of 25 participants expressed that they trusted the classification of information because it mostly agreed with their personal opinion. When the labels in the system did not match their personal opinion, 13 participants said it caused them to question the classification system overall. Some saw this as reason to pay more attention to the rest of the information in the transcript, just in case the classification did not accurately capture positive or negative important information. Others simply disregarded the system as wrong. Still others said the labels encouraged them to consider how the information could be interpreted differently. Two participants commented they were concerned that the labels might be misleading and cause users to ignore other important information that is not labeled as positive or negative, but is otherwise equally or more important.

I also discussed the multiple modalities of information review and representation in the web interface. Only eight participants said they used the audio as a tool to review the information. Most participants preferred to use the transcript because it was much faster to review and because they did not want to listen to their own voice. However, participants who did not use the audio commented that access to the audio record was valuable as a source of ground truth or for confirming the tone of the conversation. Nine participants said that the audio helped them trust the information in the interface and six said that the audio added a human aspect that was not captured in the transcript.

Finally, I asked participants how they would want this type of interface to be integrated into their healthcare experience. Most participants wanted this system to be available through an online health portal and wanted medical staff to be responsible for recording the conversations. When asked if they thought the web interface would be helpful for sharing information with or receiving health information from a loved one, 16 participants thought it would be valuable. Of those 16, 9 participants thought the audio feature could be helpful to hear exactly what the doctor said.

"My mom will tend to ask a lot of follow up questions when we have stuff. And like, I can imagine, particularly, if you get something that's a lot of bad news, you don't want to respond to a million follow up questions, particularly things that may not have been answered by the doctor, that it would be nice to give that (web interface) and they (parents) could see exactly what the doctor said."—Gabriel Terrasa, Undergraduate Student

"Not everybody is capable of transmitting this information. So, for example, if my grandma goes to the doctor, probably she doesn't go alone, but if she goes alone, it's good that then she can show this [web interface] to my mother or other people."—Guadalupe Babio, Graduate Student

One participant thought it could be a useful tool to monitor doctor performance and another thought it could be a useful tool to ensure patient compliance with physician instructions. Several participants commented they would have liked to see more features in the interface such as linking medical vocabulary to external resources and a summary page of the conversation.

#### 3.4 Discussion of User Study Results

Based on the quantitative and qualitative results from the user study, I conclude that the prototype web interface is a helpful tool for reviewing medical conversations. In particular, a transcript with indications marking the positive and negative content is helpful for revisiting a conversation and finding important information. And although the audio playback feature was not useful for reviewing the information, the feature offered an element of truth and helped participants trust the content of the interface. However, further investigation is necessary to determine if the web interface positively affects patient understanding.

Additional improvements of this system might include labeling major topics in a conversation such as diagnosis or treatment details, a summary page describing the main points of the conversation, or linking external resources to keywords within the transcript. Of course, more user-testing with real medical patients is also necessary to determine what tools and features would be most helpful for managing information from medical conversations.

Reviewers from previous presentations of this thesis have expressed concerns that the visualization of the positive and negative content in the web interface may negatively affect a patient's psychological state, and thus result in poor health outcomes. This is an important topic that should be considered in future studies. However, this thesis is not about the psychological effect of information on patient outcomes; it is about helping patients gain better understanding and control over their health information. Studies in the United States and Europe found that patients want honesty and transparency regarding their health information, particularly when a diagnosis is grave [61]. Based on my personal experience with my father's disease, having the ability to reflect on a conversation, considering all the positive and all the negative information, is valuable. When a prognosis is extremely poor, patients and their caregivers need to know so they can make the necessary preparations with their family and choose how to live their remaining days. Alternatively, when a prognosis is uncertain, patients should have access to information that clearly identifies the risks and benefits of their treatment options. While my tool is a far cry from this vision of information management for patients, it is a step towards helping patients engage with their health information.

### Chapter 4

# Extracting Information From a Conversation

The second task of this thesis was to develop a machine learning algorithm to identify important positive and negative information from medical conversations using text and prosody. The dataset for this system consisted of the 25 recorded fictional medical conversations from the user studies in Chapter 3 and two additional recorded conversations from pilot studies. In total, these conversations amount to 3 hours, 25 minutes and 56 seconds of audio data, of which 2 hours, 37 minutes and 39 seconds the doctor character (me) is speaking. In this study, I analyzed only the doctor's speech to identify important positive and negative content in the conversations.

As mentioned in section 3.1, the collected audio recordings were transcribed to text, manually separated by speaker, and manually labeled as positive (1), negative (-1), mixed (2) and neutral (0). The definitions of these classes are described in Table 4.1. I manually separated speech events by listening for pauses and topic changes within the dialog. The length of speech events ranged from 0.68 to 56.47 seconds, averaging approximately 9.9 seconds overall (Figure 4-1). The labels for each speech event were determined by a majority vote from my opinion and the opinions of three additional people. Initial tests with all labels showed that the mixed category did not improve the classifier, therefore mixed speech events were omitted from the set.



Figure 4-1: Histogram of speech event durations.





Table 4.1: Definitions of positive, negative, neutral and mixed categories.

#### 4.1 Dataset and Feature Extraction Methodology

For this task I used a multimodal approach to language understanding by analyzing a conversation by the content of the text along with the prosody in speech. In this study, I analyze only the doctor's speech to identify important positive and negative medical information for the patient. However, future studies may also incorporate the patient's response into the analysis.

#### 4.1.1 Text Features

I used IBM Natural Language Understanding (IBM NLU) to extract sentiment and emotion measurements from the text [62]. IBM NLU required text passages to be six words or longer to perform the sentiment and emotion analysis. Speech events that were shorter than six words were omitted from the dataset. In total, I extracted four features related to the textual content of the conversations from IBM NLU: sentiment, joy, fear and sadness.

The sentiment analysis from IBM NLU returned confidence scores as decimal values on a range from -1 to 1. The more negative or positive a value, the more confident the model was that the text was negative or positive, respectively. Confidence scores close to zero meant the model considered the text content to be neutral. I empirically selected threshold values as follows: scores less than -0.5 were assigned -1 (negative), scores greater than 0.5 were assigned 1 (positive), and scores between -0.5 and 0.5 inclusive, were assigned 0 (neutral).

Emotion scores were returned on a different scale. IBM NLU returned probabilities for five emotions: joy, sadness, fear, anger, and disgust. Probability scores of 0.5 meant the model was uncertain if that emotion was present in the text. Scores higher than 0.5 meant the model was more certain that the emotion was present and scores lower than 0.5 meant the model was more certain that the emotion was not in the text. From these metrics, I thresholded the emotion scores as follows: scores higher than 0.5 were assigned 1 (emotion present) and scores lower than 0.5 inclusive were assigned 0 (emotion not present). I did not expect anger and disgust to be present in the doctor's speech events, so I only considered joy, sadness and fear measurements from this analysis.

I thresholded the IBM NLU emotion and sentiment scores to ensure that my machine learning algorithm was correctly interpreting their values. From initial tests with decision tree classifiers, I found unexpected and illogical operations at decision nodes such as low joy scores or high fear scores corresponding to positive information. Thresholding the emotion and sentiment scores reduced these types of artifacts in the algorithm.

In addition to language understanding, I also used Python's Natural Language Toolkit (NLTK) to identify features from the words in the text [63]. I tokenized each speech event and considered contractions such as "can't" or "won't" to be single words. I then computed lexical diversity and average word length. With initial tests, lexical diversity and word length did not show significant variance between positive, neutral, and negative speech events in this dataset. These features may become more relevant with a larger dataset containing more diverse conversations such as conversations from annual checkups, routine appointments during treatment, or diagnosis of serious illnesses.

#### 4.1.2 Prosodic Features

I used Affectiva Automotive AI via Affectiva Emotion as a Service UI to analyze the audio recordings for prosodic features [64]. This service returned a time-based sequence of values corresponding to detected anger, laughter, and levels of vocal arousal in the audio recording. Vocal arousal is a measurement that accounts for loudness, pitch and phonemic duration. Because I was considering only the doctor's speech in my analysis, I did not expect anger and laughter to be relevant vocal features, and therefore only used the vocal arousal data for prosodic feature extraction. Future studies may also consider the patient's contribution to the conversation, in which case anger may become a relevant vocal feature.

The raw vocal arousal data consisted of 1.2 second speech events sampled every 0.3 seconds. This meant that a 1.5 second audio sample would have five sequential,

but overlapping arousal measurements. As a starting point for analyzing this data, I applied a box filter with a window size of 5 to approximate the visualization tool on the Affectiva Emotion as a Service UI. Next, I applied a Guassian convolution filter of window size 11 and standard deviation of 1.5 to smooth the signal. I then applied a linear transform to scale the data to a range between 0 and 1. Finally, the smoothed signal was separated into segments defined by the start and end time of each speech event in the conversation.

Using the SciPy signal library [65], I extracted peaks from the normalized data whose maximum value was larger than 0.15. The threshold for the peak values was determined empirically. From the extracted peaks, I calculated the average peak height, the minimum peak height, the maximum peak height, the mode peak height (rounded to the nearest 0.1), the number of peaks per speech event and the average peak frequency per speech event. In addition to the peak properties in the data, I also computed the average vocal arousal and the average curvature of the vocal arousal data per speech event. I computed the curvature by taking the second derivative of the vocal arousal data using a centered window of size 11.

Along with vocal arousal features, I also considered the average rate of speech in each speech event. I computed this value as the number of words per speech event divided by total time per speech event. Further investigation of the rate of speech may also consider more localized speech rate or hesitations to characterize different types of speech events.

#### 4.2 Training Classifiers

#### 4.2.1 Evaluation

The goal of this task was to identify important information within a conversation using positive, negative and neutral labels. I acknowledge that neutral speech events may also contain important factual information from a conversation, however for the scope of this thesis I focused on identifying important information using positive and

	Positive	Negative	Neutral
Positive	True Positive (TP)	False Negative (FN)	False Neutral (FU)
Negative		False Positive $(FP)$ True Negative $(TN)$	False Neutral (FU)
Neutral	False Positive (FP)	False Negative (FN)	True Neutral (TU)

Table 4.2: Classification prediction confusion matrix definitions.

	Positive	Negative	Neutral	<b>MACRO</b>
Precision	TP	TN.	TU	$\Sigma$ (Precision)
(Prec)	$TP + FP_{neg} + FP_{neu}$	$TN + FN_{pos} + FN_{neu}$	$TU + FU_{pos} + FU_{neg}$	3
Recall	TP	TN	ТU	$\Sigma$ (Recall)
(Rec)	$TP + FN_{pos} + FU_{pos}$	$TN + FP_{neg} + FU_{neg}$	$\overline{T}U + FP_{neu} + FN_{neu}$	3
F1-score	$2 * Prec_{pos} * Rec_{pos}$	$2 * Prec_{neg} * Rec_{neg}$	$2 * Prec_{neu} * Rec_{neu}$	$\Sigma$ (F1-score)
	$\overline{(Prec_{pos} + Rec_{pos})}$	$(Prec_{neg} + Rec_{neg})$	$(Prec_{neu} + Rec_{neu})$	3
Accuracy	$TP + TN + TU$ ALL			

Table 4.3: Accuracy calculations.

negative valence. As described in Table 4.2, with three classification categories, there were six possible outcomes: true positive (TP), false positive (FP), true negative (TN), false negative (FN), true neutral (TU) and false neutral (FU). To compute the accuracy of the classifier I considered precision, recall and accuracy (Table 4.3).

#### 4.2.2 Training and Validation

Initial tests with this dataset showed that it contained a total of 842 speech events: 141 positive, 138 negative and 563 neutral. To correct this imbalance, I duplicated sufficient positive and negative speech events to equal the number of neutral speech events within the set. The resulting dataset included a total of 1689 speech events: 563 positive, negative and neutral labeled speech events. With this balanced dataset the chance probability of choosing any particular label is exactly 1/3 (0.33).

I used the balanced dataset to train decision tree models and support vector machine models using the Python machine learning library SciKit Learn [66]. Each model was trained with a random 70% train and 30% test split. Cross validation scores were also computed for each model using and 80% train and 20% test split. I trained separate models for text features and prosodic features, then combined text and prosodic features into a multimodal classifier for comparison. Features in each of these were selected empirically and the final models were selected according to the highest average cross validation score.

#### 4.2.3 Results

The final multimodal decision tree classifier achieved the highest accuracy of 90.6%, which is 2.71 times better than chance, and an F1-score of 0.888. Unexpectedly, the accuracy after combining text features and prosodic features did not improve the final model. In fact, the average accuracy of the Prosody model is slightly higher than that of the Text-Prosody model (Fig. 4-2). It is possible that by analyzing prosody alone, the decision tree model found distinct vocal patterns in the way I delivered positive and negative information, thus resulting in a very high accuracy for the Prosody model. However, with the Text model only achieving an accuracy of 0.541, combining the text analysis with the prosodic analysis may have introduced more disorder into the dataset. The final tree structure contained 216 decision nodes and 217 leaf nodes with a minimum of 1 speech event and a maximum of 58 speech events at a single leaf node. The average number of speech events per leaf node was 5.4 with a 7.76 standard of deviation.

The confusion matrix in Table 4.5 gives a more detailed look at the classification results. The model achieves recall values near 100% for positive and negative speech events, but only 65.2% for neutral speech events (Table 4.6). The model also exhibits precision of 82.2% for positive labels, 91.5% for negative labels, and 96.2% for neutral labels. These results suggest that the model is well-equipped to separate positive information from negative information, but less equipped to separated neutral information from positive or negative information. Based on the precision measurements,



Figure 4-2: Accuracy of decision tree models.





	Positive	Negative	Neutral
Positive	176		
Negative		172	
Neutral	38	16	

Table 4.5: Confusion matrix of classification results from decision tree model.



Table 4.6: Accuracy results from decision tree model



Figure 4-3: Accuracy as a result of the minimum data points per leaf node.

Figure 4-4: Curvature versus the minimum data points per leaf node.

the model appears slightly better at separating negative information from neutral information than positive information from neutral information. Although the crossvalidation scores are reasonably consistent (Table 4.4), the nearly perfect accuracy and recall suggest that the model is overfitting to the dataset.

In an attempt to minimize overfitting to the training data, I modified the previous decision trees to require a minimum of five data points per leaf node. I selected this number by plotting the accuracy of the model against the minimum number of data points per leaf node (Figure 4-3) to identify the point with the maximum curvature (Fig. 4-4). This change reduced the overall accuracy of each decision tree model. The Text-Prosody decision tree achieved an average accuracy of 79.8% and F1-score of 0.726. Again, the Text-Prosody model faired worse than the Prosody model (Figure 4-5).

A closer inspection of Tables 4.8 and 4.9 show that all accuracy measurements are significantly reduced with this model. Recall for neutral and positive speech events is reduced by approximately 20%. Recall for negative speech events performs slightly better and is only reduced by about 13%. Precision is reduced by approximately 17% for positive speech events, 15% for negative speech events, and 25% for neutral speech events. While the decline in accuracy in all categories is sizeable, the reduction in precision for neutral speech events suggests that many of the deeper decision nodes in the original decision tree were identifying true neutrals. These scores also suggest that,



Figure 4-5: Accuracy of decision trees with a minimum of 5 points per leaf node.



Table 4.7: Cross validation scores of Decision Tree 5-Min.

	Positive	<b>Negative</b>	Neutral
Positive	140	18	18
Negative	14	149	13
Neutral	50	24	

Table 4.8: Confusion matrix of classification results from Decision Tree 5-Min.



Table 4.9: Accuracy results from Decision Tree 5-Min.



#### **SVM MODEL ACCURACIES**

Figure 4-6: Accuracy of SVM models.

	Text-Prosody Model Cross Validation Scores			
0.773	0.743	0.761	0.756	0.753



even with more constraints on the structure of the decision tree, negative information is most successfully identified out of the three categories.

The accuracy of the SVM model was lower than those from the decision tree models (Figure 4-6). The Text SVM achieved an average accuracy of 53.4% and the Prosody SVM achieved an average accuracy of 47.5%. Unlike the decision tree models, the combined Text-Prosody SVM model resulted in significantly better accuracy than the Text or Prosody models. This model achieved an accuracy of 75.7%, which is 2.27 times better than chance, and an F1-score of 0.721.

Looking closer at the classification results in Tables 4.11 and 4.12, the Text-Prosody SVM model achieved 73.6% recall for all positive speech events, 77.3% recall for negative speech events and 63.8% for all neutral speech events. The model also achieved 68.8% precision for positive labels, 71.4% for negative labels and 77.6% for neutral labels. From these results, this model appears to be slightly better at correctly classifying negative information than positive information.

To evaluate how well my models perform with other speakers, I obtained permission to use five additional conversations of doctors and nurses speaking with patients.

	Positive	Negative	<b>Neutral</b>
Positive	128	24	22
Negative	35	140	
<b>Neutral</b>	23	32	97

Table 4.11: Confusion matrix of classification results from SVM model.

	Positive	<b>Negative</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	Macro <b>Scores</b>
Recall	0.736	0.773	0.638	0.716
Precision	0.688	0.714	0.776	0.726
F <sub>1</sub> -score	0.711	0.743	0.700	0.721

Table 4.12: Accuracy Results from SVM Model.

One conversation was a training video by Canadian Culture and Communication for Nurses (CCCN) providing a good example of how to deliver bad news to patients [67]. The four additional conversations were videos of real patients talking to real doctors from Brown Alpert Medical School [68]–[71]. These videos included a variety of appointments such as routine checkups, disclosing medical errors, and cancer diagnosis. There were four different medical professionals in these videos: three were female and one was male. Again, I analyzed only the doctors' (or nurses') speech and established ground truth by the selecting the majority vote from four peoples' opinions.

The resulting accuracy of my three models on these conversations can be seen in Table 4.13. The original decision tree still achieved the highest accuracy of all the models at 69.8%, but fared considerably worse than the 90.6% accuracy achieved with the data containing only my voice. The second-best model was the SVM with an accuracy of 63.2%, which is nearly 10% lower than the model's accuracy with the data containing only my voice.

Taking a closer look at the confusion matrices for each of these models in Tables 4.14, 4.15 and 4.16, the accuracy is primarily due to the models' success at identifying neutral speech events. Each model exhibits particular weakness at identifying positive information.

Model	Accuracy	<b>F1-score</b>
Decision Tree	0.698	0.589
Decision Tree 5-Min	0.575	0.490
<b>SVM</b>	0.632	0.533

Table 4.13: Accuracy of models on five additional conversations of patients speaking with doctors.

	Positive	Negative	<b>Neutral</b>	Recall
Positive	6			0.462
Negative	3		$\overline{ }$	0.474
<b>Neutral</b>			59	0.797
Precision	0.300	0.692	0.808	

Table 4.14: Confusion matrix of classification results from decision tree model on five additional conversations.

	Positive	Negative	Neutral	Recall
Positive	$\mathbf{a}$			0.385
Negative	$\mathbf{a}$		6	0.421
Neutral	20		48	0.649
Precision	0.167	0.533	0.787	

Table 4.15: Confusion matrix of classification results from Decision Tree 5-Min model on five additional conversations.

	Positive	Negative	<b>Neutral</b>	Recall
Positive	.b	3	$\mathbf{a}$	0.385
Negative	5	11	3	0.579
Neutral	14		51	0.689
Precision	0.208	0.478	0.864	

Table 4.16: Confusion matrix of classification results from SVM model on five additional conversations.

It may be worth noting that the speakers in each of these conversations had very different paralinguistic characteristics. One female speaker had a fairly deep voice and spoke with a very somber and slow cadence. The second female speaker had a higher voice and could be described as shy. The third female speaker had a fairly high voice and spoke quickly. The male speaker also had a fairly high-pitched voice and spoke in a friendly, but very fast and clipped manner. I describe these characteristics because the qualities of my voice that define good or bad news may not be generalizable to all personalities, cultures or regional speech patterns. Larger and more diverse datasets may show that a generalizable model can be trained by culture or personality type. Alternatively, future studies may find that hyper-personalized models trained per individual care provider are scalable and offer the highest accuracies.

### Chapter 5

### Conclusions and Future Work

In the first task of this thesis, I built a novel multimodal prototype web interface that represents information from medical conversations to facilitate patient review and understanding of their health information. The interface included a transcript as well as an audio playback system to revisit the content of a conversation. Information in the transcript and corresponding time segments on the audio timeline were highlighted to inform the user of important positive and negative information. Labels in this first task were determined manually. Additional features included a chart visualizing the total number of positive and negative speech events in the conversation and filters to isolate positive or negative information.

I evaluated the prototype web interface in a controlled study with 25 participants. Results from the study indicate that, at least in a fictional setting, the web interface helps patients review the content of conversations from medical appointments. More specifically, features such as the text transcript and the positive and negative labels on information helped participants navigate through the conversation and find important information. The web interface's effect on participants' understanding of information and optimism about their health options cannot be determined from these results. Further studies and additional methods for evaluation will be necessary to explore these topics.

In the second task of this thesis, I developed machine learning algorithms to extract the important positive and negative information from medical conversations. The algorithms were trained on a dataset of 27 fictional conversations where I assumed the role of doctor. For the purpose of this study, I only used speech events containing my voice. I considered features extracted from the text using IBM NLU and prosodic features from vocal arousal using the analysis from Affectiva Automotive AI. The most successful algorithm was a decision tree, achieving an accuracy of 90.6% and an F1-score of 0.888. Unexpectedly, the decision tree's accuracy did not improve when combining textual and prosodic features into the learning model. A decision tree using only prosodic features achieved an accuracy of 91.1%.

The machine learning algorithms were trained only on my voice, and were therefore very likely to overfit to the way I speak. To test the generalizability of my models, I collected five additional conversations from CCCN and Brown Alpert Medical School. As expected, the accuracy results from these conversations were significantly lower than on the conversations containing only my voice. The decision tree model still achieved the highest performance with an accuracy of 69.8% and F1-score of 0.589.

Future work for extracting positive and negative information from conversations based on prosody and text will require a significantly larger dataset. Particularly within the medical context, it will be important to collect a dataset of real doctors speaking with real patients with speakers from different geographic regions, different personalities and of different genders. However, further studies may show that a truly generalizable model is not realistic and that individual healthcare providers will need personalized models to interpret their manner of speaking and conveying information. Future algorithms may also consider the patient's reaction in addition to the doctor's information.

A significant comment from the study participants was that the positive and negative labels did not highlight enough of the important information in the conversation. Users indicated they would have liked additional labels to mark information such as treatment options, medications, and side-effects. Others also indicated they would have liked a summary page in addition to the transcript to help them quickly assess the main points of the conversation. In the future, additional machine learning and natural language processing algorithms may be used to develop these features in the web interface and further aid patients with review and retrieval of their medical information.

While the focus of this study was the impact of information representation and information extraction in the medical context, these findings may be relevant to other fields as well. As discussed in Chapter 2, the way we speak has an enormous influence on how information is received and understood. A machine learning system that uses prosody and text to identify important elements in a vocal exchange could become relevant in sportscasting, public presentations, design critiques and more. Current tools for aiding human-human communication offer limited modalities such as audio inputs and visual outputs. However, these systems place the burden of interpreting, understanding and synthesizing information completely on the end-user. In emotional communication settings, interpreting and managing information can be overwhelming, thus rendering existing methods of information management too limiting. With machine learning, emotionally intelligent multimodal systems may offer new methods for interacting with information within emotional contexts. Such systems could encourage end-users to reflect on and consider alternative perspectives, which may improve understanding and engagement with information.

# Appendix A

## User Study: Fact Sheet

Your name:

• Mr./Ms. Doe *(If you have a preferred prefix, please inform the study proctor now)*

Scenario:

- Betacytes are a cell mutation detected in the blood.
- Last year, your doctor identified a high level of betacytes in your body. At that time, the level did not pose any serious health risks, but was higher than normal levels. As a result, your doctor has you come into the clinic every 6 months to monitor the level of betacytes in your body.
- High levels of betacytes are generally associated with fatigue, loss of appetite and weight loss. You may express to the doctor that you've experienced any of these symptoms.
- You are aware that betacytes in the body can sometimes lead to cancer. But so far, the doctors say the level of betacytes in your body is not cancerous.
- You had recent labs taken a few days ago to check the current status of betacytes in your body. Today you will get the results from your most recent medical tests.
- You are your current age (in real life).
- You came to this appointment by yourself.
- You recently got a new pet. You can share this information with the doctor if appropriate.

#### DISCLAIMER:

All medical conditions mentioned in this scenario and the following conversation are fictional. Any information you may encounter or think you know about these medical conditions external to this conversation are not related to this study.

# Appendix B

User Study: Script
#### Level of Betacytes



### **Treatments**



#### **Statistics**



### Side Effects

Hair loss, nausea, fatigue, loss of appetite, weaker immune system.

#### Other Answers:

- Betacyte Carcinoma is not genetic.
- It can spread to solid tissue.
- I don't have that information with me today, but I will check with the care team and get back to you.
- I don't have the specifics about that information, but the care team will provide you with additional materials with more details about that.

Hi Mr./Mrs. Doe. It's nice to see you again, thanks for coming in today.

[…]

How are you today?

[…]

Wonderful. Alright, is there anyone here with you today that you would like to be here while we discuss your information?

[…]

Well, I'd just like to start by asking how have you been feeling since we last met?

[…]

Ok, so last year we identified an abnormal level of **betacytes** in your system which is why we have been having regular checkups every six months. Do you remember that?

[…]

I have the results from your most recent labs right here. How much detail would you like today?

[…]

Mr./Mrs. Doe, unfortunately it does look like the number of **betacytes** has recently increased to a critical level. I'm sorry to say that this level of **betacytes** in your body indicates that you now have a cancer called **betacyte carcinoma**.

## […]

The cancer appears to be fairly aggressive. The results from the lab show it has already advanced to stage II.

## […]

Mr./Mrs. Doe, I realize this is a lot to take in and I just want to let you know that I and the care team are all here to support you.

### […]

It is important we start thinking about treatment as soon as possible. Can I tell you about some of the treatment options now?

## […]

**Betacyte carcinoma** has been widely studied for many years, which means there is a lot of research and treatments available. With treatment, survival rates are very high.

[…]

**Betacyte carcinoma** is most commonly treated with chemical therapies such as chemotherapy or targeted therapies. And how these treatments work is that we deliver them through an IV to attack the cancerous cells to prevent them from multiplying and growing.

## […]

A combination of chemotherapy and radiation is also an effective treatment strategy, particularly for aggressive cancers.

[…]

In your case, we will start with a chemical therapy and see how you respond. Chemical therapies are often a cure for **betacyte carcinoma**, however, cancer progresses differently for everyone and we'll be paying close attention to make sure we apply the most effective treatment.

[…]

The care team is going to provide you with more detailed information about your treatment options. Take some time to look over these options and discuss with your loved ones.

### […]

Before you leave today, you'll need to schedule your next appointment at the front desk so we determine the next steps.

# Appendix C

User Study: Survey

# **Review the Appointment**

The terms "positive," "negative," and "neutral" are used to describe information from the conversation. The definitions of these terms are outlined below:

- POSITIVE information implies a good outcome or makes you feel optimistic.
- NEGATIVE information implies a bad outcome or makes you feel pessimistic.
- NEUTRAL information makes you feel NEITHER optimistic NOR pessimistic.

1. **Email address \***

### **Manual Notes**

Please refer to your handwritten notes to respond to the following questions based on the simulated doctor's appointment earlier today.

As mentioned previously, the definitions of positive, negative and neutral are as follows:

- POSITIVE information implies a good outcome or makes you feel optimistic.
- NEGATIVE information implies a bad outcome or makes you feel pessimistic.
- NEUTRAL information makes you feel NEITHER optimistic NOR pessimistic.
	- 2. **In your opinion, was there any positive information from the conversation?**

*Mark only one oval.*



3. **If yes, please briefly describe each piece of positive information. (Bullet points are fine)**

4. **In your opinion, was there any negative information from the conversation?** *Mark only one oval.*





#### 10. **Based on the conversation, how would you rate your optimism about your treatment options?**

*Mark only one oval.*



11. **Based on this conversation, how confident would you feel about making a decision about your treatment?**

*Mark only one oval.*



## **Web Interface**

Please respond to following questions using the web interface provided to you by the study proctor. You may also reference your manual notes.

As mentioned previously, the definitions of positive, negative and neutral are as follows:

- POSITIVE information implies a good outcome or makes you feel optimistic.
- NEGATIVE information implies a bad outcome or makes you feel pessimistic.
- NEUTRAL information makes you feel NEITHER optimistic NOR pessimistic.

## **The web interface highlights what the doctor considers positive information or negative information. The next three questions are designed to help you become familiar with the web interface.**

12. **The interface visualizes the total percentage of positive and negative information in the conversation. Approximately what percentage of negative information does the interface report?**

13. **The transcript of the conversation can be filtered by positive or negative information. Using the filters, please briefly summarize the second piece of positive information in the conversation.**

14. **You can listen to the audio recording of the conversation through the interface. The audio signal is highlighted to indicate times when positive information (blue) and negative information (red) occur. All other information is neutral. At time 2:45 on the timeline, the information is reported as:** *Mark only one oval.*

Positive Negative

**Neutral** 

## **Using the web interface as an additional source of information, please respond to the following questions based on your understanding of the conversation.**

15. **Based on your understanding, what was the positive information conveyed in the conversation? (Bullet points are fine)**

16. **Based on your understanding, what was the negative information conveyed in the conversation? (Bullet points are fine)** 17. **Based on your understanding, the overall content of the conversation was:** *Mark only one oval.* 0 1 2 3 4 Very Negative ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) Very Positive 18. **After viewing the web interface, how do you feel about the treatment options discussed in the conversation?** *Mark only one oval.* 0 1 2 3 4 Very Pessimistic ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) Very Optimistic 19. **After viewing the web interface, how confident do you feel about making a decision about your treatment?** *Mark only one oval.* 0 1 2 3 4 NOT AT ALL confident VERY confident 20. **How well do you feel you understand the content of the conversation?** *Mark only one oval.* 0 1 2 3 4 NOT AT ALL  $\bigcap_{\mathcal{A}}\bigcap_{\mathcal{A}}\bigcap_{\mathcal{A}}\bigcap_{\mathcal{A}}$  very well

21. **How much do you think the information represented in the web interface influenced your opinion of the conversation?**

*Mark only one oval.*



22. **Was there information that the web interface highlighted as positive that you thought was NOT positive?**

*Mark only one oval.*



23. **If you answered YES to the previous question, what was that information and why did you disagree? (Bullet points are fine)**



As mentioned previously, the definitions of positive, negative and neutral are as follows:

- POSITIVE information implies a good outcome or makes you feel optimistic.
- NEGATIVE information implies a bad outcome or makes you feel pessimistic.
- NEUTRAL information makes you feel NEITHER optimistic NOR pessimistic.
- 26. **In terms of usability, how would you rate the web interface?**

*Mark only one oval.*



27. **How helpful was the interface for finding important information in the conversation?**

*Mark only one oval.*



28. **In terms of understanding the conversation, how helpful were the marked positive and negative information in the web interface?**

*Mark only one oval.*



29. **How would you rate your overall experience with the web interface?** *Mark only one oval.*



30. **What do you think worked well in the interface?**



# Appendix D

# User Study: Interview Questions

Outline of Interview Questions:

- 1. Did you trust the positive/negative classification of information in the transcript? Why?
- 2. Can you share some of the biggest challenges during the conversation?
- 3. How did the introduction of the interface alleviate those challenges, if at all?
- 4. How much control of your health information did you feel during the conversation and part 1 of the questionnaire?
- 5. Did interface change your perception of control of your health information? Why?
- 6. If you did not use the audio features of the interface, why not?
- 7. When do you think you would use the audio features, if ever?
- 8. How would you like a system like this to be integrated into your healthcare experience?

# Appendix E

# User Study: Survey Responses








































































T

## Bibliography

- [1] M. J. Gonzales and L. D. Riek, "Co-designing Patient-centered Health Communication Tools for Cancer Care," in Proceedings of the 7th International Conference on Pervasive Computing Technologies for Healthcare, ICST, Brussels, Belgium, 2013, pp. 208-215.
- [2] S. R. Mishra et al., "Not Just a Receiver: Understanding Patient Behavior in the Hospital Environment," in Proceedings of the 2016 CHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems, New York, NY, USA, 2016, pp. 3103-3114.
- [3] K. T. Unruh, M. Skeels, A. Civan-Hartzler, and W. Pratt, "Transforming clinic environments into information workspaces for patients," in Proceedings of the SIGCHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems, New York, NY, USA, 2010, pp. 183-192.
- [4] B. Shneiderman, C. Plaisant, and B. W. Hesse, "Improving Healthcare with Interactive Visualization," Computer, vol. 46, no. 5, pp. 58-66, May 2013.
- [5] "Types of Cancer Treatment," National Cancer Institute. [Online]. Available: https://www.cancer.gov/about-cancer/treatment/types. [Accessed: 30-Jul-2018].
- [6] "Side Effects," National Cancer Institute. [Online]. Available: https://www.cancer.gov/about-cancer/treatment/side-effects. [Accessed: 30-Jul-2018].
- [7] J. Freyne, "Mobile health: beyond consumer apps," MobileHCI 2014, pp. 565-566.
- [8] A. Das, A. Faxvaag, and D. Svan, "Interaction design for cancer patients: do we need to take into account the effects of illness and medication?," in Proceedings of the SIGCHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems, New York, NY, USA, 2011 pp. 21-24.
- [9] P. Klasnja, A. Civan Hartzler, K. T. Unruh, and W. Pratt, "Blowing in the Wind: Unanchored Patient Information Work During Cancer Care," in Proceedings of the SIGCHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems, New York, NY, USA, 2010, pp. 193-202.
- [10] M. Bonner and E. Mynatt, "Gauging the Patient-Centered Potential of Online Health Seeking," in Proceedings of the 8th International Conference on Pervasive Computing Technologies for Healthcare, ICST, Brussels, Belgium, 2014, pp. 33-40.
- [11] Christian Dameff, MD, Brian Clay, MD, and Christopher A. Longhurst, MD, "Personal Health Records: More Promising in the Smartphone Era?," J. Am. Med. Assoc., vol. 321, no. 4, 2019.
- [12] C. Cannon, "Telehealth, Mobile Applications, and Wearable Devices are Expanding Cancer Care Beyond Walls," Semin. Oncol. Nurs., vol. 34, no. 2, pp. 118-125, May 2018.
- [13] J. Shen and A. Naeim, "Telehealth in older adults with cancer in the United States: The emerging use of wearable sensors," J. Geriatr. Oncol., vol. 8, no. 6, pp. 437-442, Nov. 2017.
- [14] "Center for Connected Health Policy." [Online]. Available: https://www.cchpca.org/about/about-telehealth. [Accessed: 11-Nov-2018].
- [15] I. R. Yurkiewicz, P. Simon, M. Liedtke, G. Dahl, and T. Dunn, "Effect of Fitbit and iPad Wearable Technology in Health-Related Quality of Life in Adolescent and Young Adult Cancer Patients," J. Adolesc. Young Adult Oncol., Jun. 2018.
- [16] R. M. Aileni, S. Pasca, C. A. Valderrama, and R. Strungaru, "Wearable health care: technology evolution, algorithms and needs," in Enhanced Living Environments: From models to technologies, R. I. Goleva, I. Ganchev, C. Dobre, N. Garcia, and C. Valderrama, Eds. Institution of Engineering and Technology, 2017, pp. 315-343.
- [17] M. Craft et al., "An assessment of visualization tools for patient monitoring and medical decision making," in 2015 Systems and Information Engineering Design Symposium, 2015, pp. 212-217.
- [18] D. Gotz and D. Borland, "Data-Driven Healthcare: Challenges and Opportunities for Interactive Visualization," IEEE Comput. Graph. Appl., vol. 36, no. 3, pp. 90-96, May 2016.
- [19] J. H. Bettencourt-Silva, G. S. Mannu, and B. de la Iglesia, "Visualisation of Integrated Patient-Centric Data as Pathways: Enhancing Electronic Medical Records in Clinical Practice," in Machine Learning for Health Informatics, vol. 9605, A. Holzinger, Ed. Cham: Springer International Publishing, 2016, pp. 99-124.
- [20] P. Klasnja, A. Hartzler, C. Powell, G. Phan, and W. Pratt, "HealthWeaver Mobile: Designing a Mobile Tool for Managing Personal Health Information during Cancer Care," AMIA Annu Symp Proc, vol. 2010, pp. 392-396, 2010.
- [21] M. Jacobs, J. Clawson, and E. D. Mynatt, "Cancer navigation: opportunities and challenges for facilitating the breast cancer journey," in Proceedings of the ACM Conference on Computer Supported Cooperative Work & Social Computing, 2014, pp. 1467-1478.
- [22] J. Frost, N. Beekers, B. Hengst, and R. Vendeloo, "Meeting cancer patient needs: designing a patient platform," in CHI '12 Extended Abstracts on Human Factors in Computing Systems, New York, NY, USA, 2012, pp. 2381-2386.
- [23] S. Farnham et al., "HutchWorld: Clinical Study of Computer-mediated Social Support for Cancer Patients and Their Caregivers," in Proceedings of the SIGCHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems, New York, NY, USA, 2002, pp. 375-382.
- [24] P. A. Mueller and D. M. Oppenheimer, "Technology and note-taking in the classroom, boardroom, hospital room, and courtroom," Trends Neurosci. Educ., vol. 5, no. 3, pp. 139-145, Sep. 2016.
- [25] S. Chen, "A Pen-Eye-Voice Approach Towards The Process of Note-Taking and Consecutive Interpreting: An Experimental Design," Int. J. Comp. Lit. Transl. Stud., vol. 6, no. 2, pp. 1-8, Apr. 2018.
- [26] "The 10 Best Note Taking Apps in 2018: Evernote, OneNote, and Beyond." [Online]. Available: https://zapier.com/blog/best-note-taking-apps/. [Accessed: 19-Apr-2019].
- [27] K. Kim, S. A. Turner, and M. A. Prez-Quiones, "Requirements for electronic note taking systems: A field study of note taking in university classrooms," Educ. Inf. Technol., vol. 14, no. 3, pp. 255-283, Sep. 2009.
- [28] C. Goudeseune, "Effective browsing of long audio recordings," in Proceedings of the 2nd ACM international workshop on Interactive multimedia on mobile and portable devices - IMMPD 12, Nara, Japan, 2012, pp. 35-41.
- [29] H.-Y. Lee, P.-H. Chung, Y.-C. Wu, T.-H. Lin, and T.-H. Wen, "Interactive Spoken Content Retrieval by Deep Reinforcement Learning," IEEEACM Trans. Audio Speech Lang. Process., vol. 26, no. 12, pp. 2447-2459, Dec. 2018.
- [30] A. Pavel, D. B. Goldman, B. Hartmann, and M. Agrawala, "SceneSkim: Searching and Browsing Movies Using Synchronized Captions, Scripts and Plot Summaries," in Proceedings of the 28th Annual ACM Symposium on User Interface Software & Technology - UIST 15, Daegu, Kyungpook, Republic of Korea, 2015, pp. 181-190.
- [31] A. Pavel, C. Reed, B. Hartmann, and M. Agrawala, "Video digests: a browsable, skimmable format for informational lecture videos," in Proceedings of the 27th annual ACM symposium on User interface software and technology - UIST 14, Honolulu, Hawaii, USA, 2014, pp. 573-582.
- [32] M. Fleischman and D. Roy, "Grounded Language Modeling for Automatic Speech Recognition of Sports Video," in Proceedings of ACL-08: HLT, Columbus, Ohio, 2008, pp. 121-129.
- [33] R. Gidwani et al., "Impact of Scribes on Physician Satisfaction, Patient Satisfaction, and Charting Efficiency: A Randomized Controlled Trial," Ann. Fam. Med., vol. 15, no. 5, pp. 427-433, Sep. 2017.
- [34] K. Hafner, "A Busy Doctors Right Hand, Ever Ready to Type," The New York Times, 19-Jan-2018.
- [35] J. Kincaid, "Which Automatic Transcription Service is the Most Accurate? 2018," Medium, 05-Sep-2018.
- [36] A. Mason, "Comparing the Accuracy of Automatic Transcription Services," Medium, 12-Dec-2017.
- [37] Y. Berzak, A. Barbu, D. Harari, B. Katz, and S. Ullman, "Do You See What I Mean? Visual Resolution of Linguistic Ambiguities," ArXiv160308079 Cs, Mar. 2016.
- [38] A. de L. Fernandes, "CALTRANSCENSE: A REAL-TIME SPEAKER IDENTIFICATION SYSTEM," M.E. thesis, Univ. of California, Berkeley, USA, 2015.
- [39] H. Su, "Combining Speech and Speaker Recognition A Joint Modeling Approach," Ph.D. dissertation, Univ. of California, Berkeley, USA, 2018.
- [40] B. Gur, "Improving Speech Recognition Accuracy for Clinical Conversations," M.E. thesis, Massachusetts Inst. of Technology, Cambridge, MA, USA, 2012.
- [41] C.-C. Chiu et al., "Speech recognition for medical conversations," ArXiv171107274 Cs Eess Stat, Nov. 2017.
- [42] A. Morales, V. Premtoon, C. Avery, S. Felshin, and B. Katz, "Learning to Answer Questions from Wikipedia Infoboxes," in Proceedings of the 2016 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, Austin, Texas, 2016, pp. 1930-1935.
- [43] S. C. Bandler, "Interpreting Author Intentions by Analyzing Story Modulation," M.E. thesis, Massachusetts Inst. of Technology, Cambridge, MA, USA, 2019.
- [44] B. Tang, Y. Wu, M. Jiang, Y. Chen, J. C. Denny, and H. Xu, "A hybrid system for temporal information extraction from clinical text," J. Am. Med. Inform. Assoc. JAMIA, vol. 20, no. 5, pp. 828-835, Sep. 2013.
- [45] H. Harkema, J. N. Dowling, T. Thornblade, and W. W. Chapman, "Context: An Algorithm for Determining Negation, Experiencer, and Temporal Status from Clinical Reports," J. Biomed. Inform., vol. 42, no. 5, pp. 839-851, Oct. 2009.
- [46] "MedLee MedLingMap." [Online]. Available: http://www.medlingmap.org/node/69. [Accessed: 20-Apr-2019].
- [47] K. Dinakar, J. Chen, H. Lieberman, R. Picard, and R. Filbin, "Mixed-Initiative Real-Time Topic Modeling & Visualization for Crisis Counseling," in Proceedings of the 20th International Conference on Intelligent User Interfaces - IUI 15, Atlanta, Georgia, USA, 2015, pp. 417-426.
- [48] A. W. Forsyth, "Improving Clinical Decision Making With Natural Language Processing And Machine Learning," M.E. thesis, Massachusetts Inst. of Technology, Cambridge, MA, USA, 2017.
- [49] I. Chien, "Natural Language Processing for Precision Clinical Diagnostics and Treatment," M.E. thesis, Massachusetts Inst. of Technology, Cambridge, MA, USA, 2018.
- [50] R. Picard, Affective Computing. The MIT Press, 2000.
- [51] Y. Utsumi, J. Lee, J. Hernandez, E. C. Ferrer, B. Schuller, and R. W. Picard, "CultureNet: A Deep Learning Approach for Engagement Intensity Estimation from Face Images of Children with Autism," in 2018 IEEE/RSJ International Conference on Intelligent Robots and Systems (IROS), pp. 339-346. IEEE, 2018.
- [52] J. M. Garcia-Garcia, V. M. R. Penichet, M. D. Lozano, J. E. Garrido, and E. L.-C. Law, "Multimodal Affective Computing to Enhance the User Experience of Educational Software Applications," Mob. Inf. Syst., vol. 2018, pp. 1-10, Sep. 2018.
- [53] B. Schuller and A. Batliner, Computational Paralinguistics: Emotion, Affect and Personality in Speech and Language Processing. United Kingdom: Wiley & Sons, Ltd., 2014.
- [54] Mark Knapp, Judith Hall, and Terrence Horgan, "The Effects of Vocal Cues That Accompany Spoken Words," in Nonverbal Communication in Human Interaction, 8th ed., Monica Eckman, 2014, pp. 323-356.
- [55] Taniya Mishra and Dimitrios Dimitriadis, "Incremental Emotion Recognition," INTERSPEECH, 2013.
- [56] B. W. Schuller, "Speech Emotion Recognition: Two Decades in a Nutshell, Benchmarks, and Ongoing Trends," Commun. ACM, vol. 61, no. 5, pp. 90-99, May 2018.
- [57] S. Yoon, S. Byun, and K. Jung, "Multimodal Speech Emotion Recognition Using Audio and Text," ArXiv181004635 Cs, Oct. 2018.
- [58] Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders, 5th ed. Washington, D.C.: American Psychiatric Association, 2013.
- [59] A. Benba, A. Jilbab, and A. Hammouch, "Detecting multiple system atrophy, Parkinson and other neurological disorders using voice analysis," Int. J. Speech Technol., vol. 20, no. 2, pp. 281-288, Jun. 2017.
- [60] B. Schuller et al., "Being bored? Recognising natural interest by extensive audiovisual integration for real-life application," Image Vis. Comput., vol. 27, no. 12, pp. 1760-1774, Nov. 2009.
- [61] W. F. Baile, "SPIKES–A Six-Step Protocol for Delivering Bad News: Application to the Patient with Cancer," The Oncologist, vol. 5, no. 4, pp. 302-311, Aug. 2000.
- [62] "Watson Natural Language Understanding," 28-Nov-2016. [Online]. Available: https://www.ibm.com/watson/services/natural-language-understanding/. [Accessed: 07-May-2019].
- [63] "Natural Language Toolkit NLTK 3.4.1 documentation." [Online]. Available: https://www.nltk.org/. [Accessed: 07-May-2019].
- [64] "Affectiva Automotive AI," Affectiva. [Online]. Available: https://www.affectiva.com/product/affectiva-automotive-ai/. [Accessed: 07-May-2019].
- [65] "SciPy SciPy v1.2.1 Reference Guide." [Online]. Available: https://docs.scipy.org/doc/scipy/reference/index.html. [Accessed: 07-May-2019].
- [66] "scikit-learn: machine learning in Python scikit-learn 0.20.3 documentation." [Online]. Available: https://scikit-learn.org/stable/. [Accessed: 07-May-2019].
- [67] CCCN, "Giving Bad News pt1.mov," Youtube. Jul 8, 2018. Available: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=oMaTcGjOPsU.
- [68] Jared Dichiara, "OB/GYN," Youtube. Apr 21, 2014. Available: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LK2SpVkWhiw.
- [69] Jared Dichiara, "Delivering Bad News," Youtube. Jul 7, 2017. Available: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HEMc259fF<sub>0</sub>.
- [70] Jared Dichiara, "FM," Youtube. Apr 21, 2014. Available: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=A2Bt0T9TXyk.
- [71] Jared Dichiara, "Disclosing Medical Errors," Youtube. Jul 7, 2017. Available: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=51ebFM7CPWQ.