Toward Next Generation Integrative Semantic Health Information Assistants

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Abstract
Managing a complex illness often requires different treatment regimens spread over a long time. The complexity of these potentially life-threatening diagnoses can be daunting to patients while they are most vulnerable. We present a vision for artificial intelligence-enabled tools for assisting patients in managing the complex information given to them over the course of their treatments through the combination of existing and emerging techniques from natural language processing and knowledge representation. We provide examples from an actual breast cancer diagnosis and treatment plan and highlight the development of new combinations of techniques to build tools that can reason about data from a variety of sources and act as intelligence-augmenting agents. We conclude with a discussion of some additional challenges facing artificial intelligence practitioners as applications become patient-centric.

Introduction
Traditionally, artificial intelligence in medical applications has focused on improving the abilities of medical professionals to perform tasks such as diagnosis (e.g., Shortliffe 1986; Wyatt and Spiegelhalter 1991; Garg et al. 2005; Vihinen and Samarghitean 2008) or to aid in managing drug interactions (e.g., Bindoff et al. 2007) or side effects (Edwards and Aronson 2000, p. 1258). These efforts target users who have years of medical experience. In contrast, patients often have limited medical knowledge, and they may be coping with new life-threatening diagnoses that may require a number of time-sensitive decisions involving potentially complex treatment paths. Patients and their support teams may be ill equipped to make good choices, despite doctors providing them with relevant information. Additionally, according to Ong, De Haes, Hoos, and Lammes (1995), patients often fail to recall 50% or more of the important information given to them shortly after leaving a doctor’s office (for additional review, see Williams, Davis, Parker, and Weiss 2002). Simultaneously, many doctors have increasing pressure to be more efficient in their time spent with patients while trans-
tured content (i.e. nanopublications) from which reasoning systems can generate arguments and explanations for patients. We discuss some challenges that artificial intelligence researchers will have to address to make this vision a reality as well as some preliminary steps towards this goal. Lastly, we discuss how self-instrumentation and access to patient contextual information will bring more personalized healthcare and feedback to the patient’s fingertips.

**Motivation**

Cancer is one of the more complex diseases to manage and treat, often requiring chemotherapy, surgery, and drugs to reduce recurrence for years following treatment. We motivate our work using scenarios inspired from a co-author’s recent breast cancer journey along with her surprises at how challenging information management was for her, a health-literate expert in knowledge representation and data integration.

A recently diagnosed breast cancer patient wishes to maximize her chances of a positive outcome while fully engaging in her care. She would like to understand more about her diagnosis, treatment options, decision points, treatment side effects, and long term implications. Since chemotherapy is required, she wants to understand expected side effects, and learn from experiences of other individuals who may be similar to her in order to find and evaluate promising proactive coping strategies. She reads through documents provided by her oncologist concerning the chemotherapy drugs in her protocol. She searches for side effects of drugs to collect a list of adverse effects. Then, she repeats the process looking for information about coping with some of the likely adverse effects that are expected to be inconvenient enough to attempt to counteract (in ways that do not decrease the effectiveness of treatment). She finds that there are conflicting opinions on the efficacy of different treatments, and needs to determine strategies to effectively weigh the possible pros and cons. Furthermore, at each stage of her treatment she is confronted with new drugs, each with its own set of side effects with potentially severe impacts on her current and future quality of life. Managing this information is mentally taxing and can easily leave a patient feeling overwhelmed.

Helping patients better understand a complex disease so that they may receive and process relevant information and make decisions appropriate to their condition is important to enhancing patient-doctor interaction. In addition to the electronic patient-physician relationship (Mandl et al. 1998), we also observe a wealth of information exchanged between patients and survivors through a variety of communication channels including web forums and social media (O’Grady, Witterman, and Wathen 2008). The influx of information can be difficult to navigate, and many experiences may be irrelevant, relevant but not timely, potentially unsupported, and even harmful. Further much of this information may be outside the standard of care that doctors follow. However, strategies that do not decrease primary treatment effectiveness while potentially reducing negative side effects may be invaluable. In our example scenario, the patient would probably be overwhelmed with the large number of adverse effects and possible remedies, and without proper knowledge is likely to have difficulty choosing where to focus.

Many structured medical resources exist and are in broad usage, including UMLS (Bodenreider 2004), DrugBank (Wishart et al. 2005), SIDER (Kuhn et al. 2010), Uniprot (The UniProt Consortium 2008), as well as others (for review, see Bodenreider, 2008). The web also provides an extensive resource in the form of gray literature. According to Merriam-Webster, gray literature is material that is published non-commercially, and for our purposes may include patient experiences shared via web channels such as forums and social media. These web-based gray resources may be underutilized due to the lack of significant rigorous scientific testing and are often anecdotal evidence. However, by being able to crawl the web and identify possible coping strategies, software can provide relevant experiences, based on the patient’s circumstances, to enable understanding of possible side effects and encourage informed discussion with their medical team. Further analysis of gray literature can identify high potential candidates and can identify when some candidates have a wide variety of support, even if the support has not yet appeared in standard medical publications.

Furthermore, a patient’s care team is composed of many individuals. For example, a breast cancer patient’s team may include some if not all of the following: general practitioner, medical oncologist, radiation oncologist, breast surgeon, plastic surgeon, physical therapist, occupational therapist, radiologist, pathologist, genetic testing counselor, medical nurses, and clinical trial nurses, each of which must uphold standards of care, make judgement calls, and interact with either the patient or other members of the care team. This forms an intricate communication network on which treatment outcome rests. They must work in the best interest of the patient, respect her wishes, and also consult other trained medical professionals to obtain input, such as second opinions on diagnoses or treatment plans. Some of this information must be disseminated to the patient and her support network, such as preparation strategies before chemotherapy or surgery, instructions on when to call a doctor or go to an emergency room, and instructions for taking post-therapy medication or recurrence reduction strategies. Information may be required at many times over the course of a treatment so it is even more important to have tools that address the fact that patients forget about 50% of the information given to them at the doctor’s office (Ong et al. 1995, p. 912).

**Scenario 1. Drug Adverse Effect Mitigation** A service that provides adverse effect mitigation strategies along with evidence of effectiveness may be useful in helping patients understand treatment impacts along with coping strategies. This can also help patients actively engage in medical discussions. Such services may be particularly useful to patients with limited medical knowledge who may either have forgotten or not understood their doctors advice for preparing for treatment. Mitigation strategies may help patients better tolerate preferred treatment plans and thus improve...
In our scenario, we performed web searches using popular search engines with the query string “breast cancer paclitaxel <side-effect> treatment.” The number of search results provided by each of the three major US search engines are summarized in Table 1, and are orders of magnitude greater than any human could process. Even if only the top ten results contain useful information, the patient still needs to correctly parse and reason about many arguments to gain insight into how a side effect affects quality of life. Thus, even shallow natural language processing of search results into coherent arguments may significantly reduce the patient’s burden. Additionally, there are often contradictory results where the patient must consider evidence for and against a certain action, as the following two quotations exemplify:

My onc[ology] nurse told me to rub tea tree oil into my cuticles and nails every night. It is a natural anti-septic and for whatever reason can sometimes help prevent nail infections and lifting during taxol.  

I wouldn’t use tea tree oil. A friend did on some cracked skin and it got worse.

The first quotation is a suggestion from one author to the patient about using tea tree oil to prevent nail damage, due to its anti-septic properties. The second quotation is a contrary viewpoint, expressing concerns about its potential for causing skin irritation. Traditional search engines currently provide top-ranked results based on relevance and popularity metrics. However, these approaches do not consider the patient’s individual experiences or preferences, which can be critical in determining the usefulness of the information. For instance, patients might trust peer experiences or recommendations from healthcare professionals more than search engine results. Additionally, natural language processing can help interpret social media posts, where patients share personal anecdotes and strategies that might be beneficial for specific conditions.

_table_1: A summary of search engine results for queries about nail problems related to Paclitaxel.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Search engine</th>
<th>“nail pain”</th>
<th>“nail changes”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Google</td>
<td>86,400</td>
<td>64,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bing</td>
<td>3,330,000</td>
<td>1,040,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yahoo</td>
<td>3,230,000</td>
<td>28,500,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

outcomes. Mitigation strategies may be found in standard medical literature but they may also be found in forums or social media where patients share anecdotal information about treatment journeys. This information can prove useful in scenarios where no best practice standard of care strategy exists in the medical literature for coping with particular side effects, but care must be taken to accumulate evidence and present it in an unbiased manner as well as encourage discussion with the patient’s care team. Consider these two variations on this scenario:

A patient is preparing for a paclitaxel/trastuzumab regimen. Her work requires extensive typing so she wonders if chemo will inhibit her ability to work. She uses an intelligent agent to discover that common side effects of paclitaxel include nail bed death, nail pain, and nail lifting. Using breast cancer forum content, the agent finds treatments shared by other patients and survivors and aggregates supporting evidence passages from those forum postings, which include strategies such as soaking nails in vinegar to reduce the chance of infection and the use of tea tree oil to prevent nail damage along with keeping the nails very cold during infusions to potentially limit the chemotherapy drugs from doing as much damage to the fast growing cells in the nail beds. The agent presents this content along with an explanation drill-down display that she can then present to her oncologist to discuss options that would not limit the effectiveness of chemotherapy yet may potentially improve her experience.

After a successful chemotherapy regimen and surgery to remove the tumor, the oncologist recommends that the patient begin taking Letrozole, which has been shown to decrease the risk of recurrence in hormone sensitive cancer patients by up to 40% (Gross et al. 2004). However, one side effect of Letrozole is decreased bone density. The patient, who is already osteopenic and concerned about developing osteoporosis, thus wishes to learn more about this treatment. The intelligent agent points out that calcium supplementation and in more severe cases, prescription bisphosphonates, may help. Her oncologist also recommends weight-bearing exercise to improve bone density.

In both scenarios, the patient desires more information about potential side effects of a particular drug. The number of side effects may be large. For example, SIDER contains 182 side effects for the drug Paclitaxel. For this patient, the side effects of “nail pain” and “nail changes” are relevant due to her work. To simulate the actions of the patient in our scenario, we performed web searches using popular search engines with the query string “breast cancer paclitaxel <side-effect> treatment.” The number of search results provided by each of the three major US search engines are summarized in Table 1, and are orders of magnitude greater than any human could process. Even if only the top ten results contain useful information, the patient still needs to correctly parse and reason about many arguments to gain insight into how a side effect affects quality of life. Thus, even shallow natural language processing of search results into coherent arguments may significantly reduce the patient’s burden. Additionally, there are often contradictory results where the patient must consider evidence for and against a certain action, as the following two quotations exemplify:

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The first quotation is a suggestion from one author to the patient about using tea tree oil to prevent nail damage, due to its anti-septic properties. The second quotation is a contrary viewpoint, expressing concerns about its potential for causing skin irritation. Traditional search engines currently provide top-ranked results based on relevance and popularity metrics. However, these approaches do not consider the patient’s individual experiences or preferences, which can be critical in determining the usefulness of the information. For instance, patients might trust peer experiences or recommendations from healthcare professionals more than search engine results. Additionally, natural language processing can help interpret social media posts, where patients share personal anecdotes and strategies that might be beneficial for specific conditions.
idences by trust, one each for a positive assessment and negative assessment, to get around issues of poor relevance of popularity scoring (e.g. Ganu, Kakodkar, and Marian, 2013).

Scenario 2. Context-Sensitive Medical Content Explanation for Non-Experts Explanation is a key component of transparent systems and user studies have shown that explanations are required if agents are to be trusted and that users prefer explanations that are context-aware (Glass, McGuinness, and Wolverton 2008). We also believe that health assistants must incorporate explanation generation to build patient trust. One way to support explanation is through the tracking of provenance using standards such as the W3C’s PROV (Belhajjame et al. 2013). PROV is a standard for modeling provenance information on the web, which allows tools to integrate distributed provenance information from different systems. This provenance is necessary, but not always sufficient, for generating patient-oriented explanations, as we will discuss.

There are a number of considerations when preparing explanations for non-experts. For example, there is typically a need to take the patient’s knowledge into account particularly when considering how to present complex information. A medically literate patient may benefit from receiving detailed medical language so as to receive precise information while a medically naïve patient may need a more abstract description initially with supporting followup content available on demand. Further, the complexity of statements based on the patient’s background knowledge, the context in which they are receiving the explanation, and highlighting importance of certain pieces of information in the overall explanation, may all affect the patient’s ability to assimilate the explained knowledge. Explanation provides support for transparency by allowing the user to receive more information about how a particular set of evidence was arrived at and what information it depended on, such as can be found in their medical record or in personal records (e.g. a calendar). For accountability purposes, patients may also like to know what personal datasets were accessed to determine a set of potential actions. These records serve a dual use—to generate explanations for patients and evaluate compliance with privacy laws, such as the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA). Ongoing research and standardization in the areas of web identification and access control lists will further advance distributed query and explanation capabilities for patient-assisting technologies.

Consider the Letrozole example presented in the motivation. Letrozole is a drug prescribed after chemotherapy of hormone-sensitive cancers to reduce the risk of recurrence, and has been shown to do so up to 40% (Gross et al. 2004; Jakesz et al. 2005). Like many drugs, it comes with a long list of potential drawbacks, including risk of increased cholesterol, increased blood pressure, and decreased bone density, the latter of which can lead to osteoporosis. For patients who already have high cholesterol and high blood pressure, are at risk for heart disease, or who are osteopenic or osteoporotic, this drug may at first sound undesirable. However, helping patients find information and organize information prior to consulting their oncologist will make it easier for them to cope with managing risk-benefit trade-offs in treatments. Therefore, tools that decompose medical arguments into more approachable statements may aid patients in participating in their care. An example explanation may be presented as follows, with the ability for the patient to drill-down and receive explanations for individual statements:

1. Your cancer was tested and found to respond positively to estrogen (link to appropriate medical record segment)
2. Drugs like Letrozole inhibit your body’s natural ability to produce estrogen, thereby reducing something that could stimulate growth or regrowth of cancer. (link to aromatase inhibitor explanation)
3. Certain Letrozole side effects can be reduced by lifestyle changes, such as taking calcium supplements and weight-bearing exercise. (link to strategies for improving bone health in post-menopausal women)

Selecting a particular statement, such as point 2 above may either provide links to literature sources such as Gross et al. (2004) and Jakesz et al. (2005), or lead to more detailed, structured arguments, such as:

1. Estrogen may be synthesized in the body using a conversion process aided by the enzyme aromatase
2. Letrozole is an Aromatase Inhibitor drug
3. Aromatase inhibitors block the ability of aromatase to create estrogen
4. Studies (Gross et al. 2004; Jakesz et al. 2005) have shown that this leads to decreased risk of recurrence

Using explanation drill down options, the patient can obtain as much detail as she feels is necessary to understand a particular decision. Further, if such systems allow feedback on steps within the evidence chain, e.g. that a piece of evidence is difficult to understand or the patient feels is irrelevant, then techniques such as relevance feedback (for review see Harman, 92) can be adapted to enable agents to learn and generate more robust explanations in the future.

Combining Natural Language Processing and Knowledge Representation to Create Next Generation Semantic Health Assistants

We are exploring new techniques for combining natural language processing with emerging knowledge representation. This combination has been used for learning (e.g. see Forbes, Riesbeck, Birnbaum, Livingston, Sharma, and Ureel, 2007) and natural language processing has been used to learn class expressions for vocabularies such as SNOMED-CT (e.g. Ma and Distel, 2013). However, our primary focus is on information exchanged on public websites combined with vetted literature. Our example focuses on complex disease settings with the goal of finding coping strategies and supporting and refuting evidence, thereby enabling informed doctor-patient conversations.

The patient on paclitaxel in our scenario is interested in learning about possible adverse effects and mitigation strategies. Using the chemotherapy orders, natural language processing algorithms can extract the drug names that are then
linked to databases such as the Unified Medical Language System (UMLS), DrugBank, and the Side Effect Resource (SIDER) database. Using SIDER, we can discover possible side effects and use this information to perform information retrieval on forum content to identify possible strategies. Knowledge representation techniques allow us to detect contradictory information and to construct an evidence graph that includes supporting and contradictory outcomes. These evidence networks can then be used then to provide suggestions and explanations to both medically literate and medically naive users at appropriate levels.

Consider the BioNLP Shared Task (Nédellec et al. 2013), which is a task for natural language tools that revolves around processing documents containing biomedical content. For the 2013 BioNLP task, the best overall performing system was TEES-2.1, which finished first on 6 out of 10 tasks with F-scores ranging from 0.14 to 0.55. Recall on the tasks ranged from 0.12 to 0.49 and precision ranged from 0.18 to 0.82 (Björne and Salakoski 2013). Furthermore, Björne and Salakoski point out that previous versions of TEES obtained comparable F-scores (0.52 in 2009, 0.53 in 2011) on earlier iterations of the gene extraction task used in BioNLP. There are clear opportunities here to introduce new technologies to improve biomedical task performance, such as the use of structured content and other knowledge representation techniques.

Fig. 1 provides an exemplar showing how Natural Language Processing and Knowledge Representation techniques may be used to augment one another. The graph displays information modeled using the Resource Description Framework (RDF). Items on the right are document fragments with provenance and trust modeled using the Proof Markup Language 2 (McGuinness et al. 2007). The first two fragments are from a patient’s chemotherapy plan. UMLS is used to identify drugs such as paclitaxel and trastuzumab. Keyword search using NIH’s

Figure 1: A representative output of a natural language algorithm mapped to semantic terms matched across multiple documents within a patient’s medical history and linked to external resources describing drug information, side effects, and a possible coping strategy with conflicting evidence. An application could present the strategies along with evidence to patients and an explanation of where these strategies come from and why they would be useful in the context of the patient’s treatment plan.
Metamorphosys tool identifies that these two drugs form a **Therapeutic or Preventative Procedure**, identified as **Monoclonal Antibody HER2-Paclitaxel**. Using semantic similarity measures adapted to RDF graphs (Zheng 2014), we can identify additional mappings, e.g. **Herceptin-Paclitaxel**, with which **Paclitaxel and Trastuzumab** form the relation **is_component_of_chemotherapy_regimen**. This inference is further corroborated by linking to additional datasets, e.g. DrugBank, that state that Herceptin is a brand name of Trastuzumab. Information-rich, externally curated knowledge bases thus provide additional means of mapping and validating content as it is processed via natural language tools and enable us to reconcile content across documents. After identifying and connecting the chemotherapy drugs, we then extend our knowledge base through other structured content, including the Side Effect Resource (SIDER). Using traditional information retrieval techniques, we find forums containing posts discussing the drugs and their side effects and then use natural language processing to identify coping strategies. Lastly, since different users might experience conflicting results, the knowledge base is capable of modeling conflicting evidence, thus both positive and negative results may be included. By automating these tasks, the patient spends much less energy searching for content and can be more informed through aggregation and presentation of differing viewpoints.

**Beyond General Medical Knowledge**

Sensors provide additional opportunities for novel, collaborative artificial intelligence research. Self instrumenting patients are now collecting large amounts of data with potential applications during complex disease treatment. For example, prior to a diagnosis, a patient may use applications, e.g. MyFitnessPal, combined with sensors, e.g. Fitbit, to monitor activity and sleep while attempting to lose weight. After diagnosis, she is told by her oncologist to maintain her weight as the amount of chemotherapy drugs is dependent on weight. Additionally, weight loss may further weaken a body that is already being bombarded by the combination of the drug therapy and disease. Now, these sensors become a means by which intelligent agents can gather additional data that can inform context-aware lifestyle alterations that can be discussed with her care team to ensure the patient’s safety during chemotherapy and the sensors can help monitor progress toward those goals.

We are building an intelligent health agent with the ability to reconcile information from a patient’s medical record with detailed lifestyle information from other applications, such as a calendar or food tracking program, available through the patient’s mobile device. For example, by connecting to the calendar application, our agent will attempt to identify potential causes of adverse events in the patient’s data. Figure 2 contains an example where the patient’s blood work indicates blood glucose levels above the normal reference ranges. The agent’s knowledge base contains a rule that steroids can cause an increase in glucose. Looking back at the patient’s calendar, it observes that she had an event called “steroids for chemo” scheduled and that was corroborated by the chemotherapy plan extracted using NL techniques, so it infers a plausible link between the steroid premedication and the glucose increase. In cases where no determination can be found, it can highlight the events so that the patient can discuss them with a medical professional.

As technologies improve, we envision that new ways of tracking detailed information about an individual’s health will make it easier to personalize therapies. Consider our second scenario where taking a new drug is likely to accelerate bone loss. If we had some additional information about the patient’s lifestyle, such as that they are already eating a diet high in calcium (which can be obtained from programs such as MyFitnessPal) then the health assistant may suggest lower supplement amounts of calcium and instead focus more on recommending enhancing other relevant lifestyle modifications, e.g. increasing weight bearing exercises. If records show that the patient is already doing all of the standard of care lifestyle modifications, and bone density continues to decrease, then the health assistant may suggest a discussion with the patient’s doctor about more advanced interventions.
Repurposing Drugs with Semantics

Another project that explores future infrastructures and AI-enhanced health information assistants is our group’s Repurposing Drugs with Semantics (ReDrugS) project (McCusker et al. 2014). ReDrugS is intended for use in academic and pharmaceutical research to identify potential additional uses of previously approved drugs. However, the underlying infrastructure built for ReDrugS, such as its means of modeling massive amounts of medical data as nanopublications (Groth, Gibson, and Velterop 2010) and the probabilistic evaluation framework used to identify interesting potential links, may prove useful in a more general healthcare-oriented setting. ReDrugs ingests drug/protein, protein/protein, and protein/phenotype interactions content from 17 databases and then supports queries about how drugs and diseases may interact (through protein pathways). This allows people to look for diseases that a drug may connect to that may be a potential target for drug repurposing. It also allows the letrozole patient to query for the drug and see what disease conditions it connects to and through which pathways, thus allowing the patient to learn more about how it might be working in her body. This is a direct repurposing of existing content. The infrastructure however may be used to build a nanopublication store of content extracted from a patient’s medical record, along with the drugs in a treatment plan. Additional content is ingested from anecdotal evidence posted on forums can be modelled as nanopublications. If this kind of store is connected then the augmented store may be queried for potential strategies for anticipated drug side effects. One of the reasons this kind of infrastructure may be of interest is that it is designed to handle uncertain and potentially conflicting content using trust values and consensus probability support. Further it maintains detailed provenance so that users may always see where information came from, how it was manipulated, and what supports or refutes a particular statement.

Discussion

We argue that artificial intelligence practitioners can benefit from and likely need to cross subfield boundaries to design novel combination strategies from more than a single subfield to improve the impact and adoption of next generation assistants. The idea of computer augmentation of the intellectual capabilities of humans is not new (see Licklider, 1960; Engelbart, 1962), but in light of the limitations of patients to understand and recall medical instructions and information (Ong et al. 1995, p. 911-2), more effort and focus are required on the needs of patients.

We believe that this problem spans different subfields of artificial intelligence and requires cross-disciplinary research into new frameworks and applications to make effective advances in the medical domain. In particular, new tools are required for distilling medical information into consumable forms for a variety of non-expert audiences. Constructing these tools will require combining techniques from natural language processing and knowledge representation to generate structured information that can be reasoned about from unstructured natural language texts, including medical records. The development and use of strategies for modeling and integrating inconsistent and uncertain information will be required. Furthermore, we will need to adopt techniques from cognitive science by developing mental models of end users so that information can be presented in a manner consistent with the user’s needs and expectations.

An additional challenge is to determine what information is appropriate based on the user’s goals. Ong et al. (1995, p. 904) highlight that doctors often give objective information when talking to patients while patients often look for subjective information—a conflict that can leave patients feeling frustrated. This dichotomy is reflected in medical databases and software, i.e. current medical systems are oriented toward objective information. One exemplar area is drug interactions. Databases such as DrugBank or references such as the Merck Manuals provide very detailed information required for ensuring the patient’s safety. However, patients are often more interested in how the disease and the treatment are going to affect them, how their quality of life may be impacted, and what adjustments they need to make.

Summary

We present a vision of how artificial intelligence techniques can be used to provide intelligence-augmenting aids for patients in managing medical information related to complex illnesses. We described two different motivating medical information scenarios in the domain of breast cancer, and highlighted how addressing these scenarios will require managing information in different forms and customizing how they are presented to the patient in context-sensitive ways—a challenge that requires manipulating information, both structured and unstructured, in a transparent manner. To achieve this vision, artificial intelligence practitioners must consider novel ways to combine and enhance existing technologies, particularly where existing techniques have plateaued in their effectiveness. We introduced two research efforts aimed at demonstrating future health aids including a prototype health information management assistant that combines best-in-class natural language processing techniques with knowledge representation to provide a tool for patients to manage their health data, better understand it, and to enable browsing and exploration of possible explanations of medical data measurements. We also introduced a novel framework for modeling drug, protein, and condition information as nanopublications, which can be used for probabilistic reasoning about drug interactions and discussed how its methodology could be leveraged and repurposed in broader medical settings.

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References


