

# Artificial intelligence and health

---

## Potential and challenges

---

Health is one of the areas where a significant contribution of artificial intelligence (AI) is expected, with implications for the cost, quality and efficiency of medical attention, including preparation and response capacities for health emergencies. Nevertheless, there are major challenges related to security, privacy and access to data, and the generation of inequalities. Legislation, regulation, evaluation and human supervision are key elements to facilitate its implementation in professional practice.

Professional and social expectations worldwide see the potential of AI to produce a qualitative leap in healthcare. This is particularly the case for the diagnosis and treatment of patients, clinical management tasks and logistics, or in different aspects of public health.

The current clinical use and implementation of AI in prevention and healthcare on a global scale is severely limited due to social, technical and regulatory challenges.

In the clinical context, developments focus principally on support for healthcare professionals and respect for the autonomy of people, rather than seeking automation without human supervision. AI can also directly contribute to the self-care of people.

The development of new applications and their subsequent adoption by professionals requires collaboration between diverse sectors: research, industry, hospitals, the healthcare sector, regulation, assessment and legislation.

The availability of quality data is essential to develop AI applications. Despite the high degree of digitalisation of the health system in Spain, medical data are underused in R&D&i. The proposal for a European Health Data Space seeks to facilitate the use of this information.

The European Union fosters an ethical development of AI that benefits citizens and respects their rights. The latest proposals for European regulations on AI establish that high or limited risk applications must meet a series of requirements before and after entering the market.

## Production method

C Reports are brief documents on subjects chosen by the Bureau of the Congress of Deputies that contextualise and summarise the available scientific evidence on the analysed subject. They also inform about areas of agreement, disagreement, unknowns, and ongoing discussions. The reports are drafted based on an in-depth review of the literature, supplemented by interviews with experts on the subject and a two-round review process.

To produce this report the C Office referenced 270 documents and consulted 30 experts in the subject. Of this multi-disciplinary group, 50% belong to the field of life sciences (medicine, bioinformatics, biomedical engineering, health regulation and evaluation, and ecology), 26% come from physics and engineering sciences (informatics engineering, natural language processing, electronic engineering and robotics engineering) and 19% from social sciences and humanities (behavioural sciences, ethics, philosophy and law); 87% work in Spanish institutions or centres, whereas 13 % have affiliations abroad.

Oficina C is responsible for the publication of this report.

## Researchers, scientists and experts consulted\* (in alphabetical order)

**Arcos, Josep Lluís**<sup>1</sup>. Research scientist, Institute of Artificial Intelligence Research (Instituto de Investigación en Inteligencia Artificial - IIIA), CSIC.

**Bartumeus Ferré, Frederic**<sup>1</sup>. ICREA research professor, Centre of Advanced Studies of Blanes (Centro de Estudios Avanzados de Blanes - CEAB)

**Bescos, Cristina**<sup>1</sup>. Director of Innovation, EIT Health. Germany. CEO EIT Health, Spain.

**Bueno Mariscal, Claudio**<sup>1</sup>. Director of the management unit, Emergency Services, Virgen del Rocío University Hospital.

**Cabitz, Federico**<sup>1</sup>. Associate professor, University of Milano-Bicocca (Unimib). Italy

**Chavarrías Lapastora, Miguel**<sup>1</sup>. Associate professor, Technical University of Madrid (Universidad Politécnica de Madrid - UPM)

**Chevance, Guillaume**. Assistant Research Professor, Institute for Global Health (Instituto de Salud Global - ISGlobal)

**Corcho, Óscar**<sup>1</sup>. Full Professor, Technical University of Madrid (UPM).

**Degli-Esposti, Sara**<sup>1</sup>. OPIS Research scientist Institute of Philosophy (Instituto de Filosofía - IFS), CSIC.

**Dopazo Blázquez, Joaquín**<sup>1</sup>. Director, Bioinformatics Platform, Progress and Health Foundation (Fundación Progreso y Salud), Virgen del Rocío Hospital.

**García Armada, Elena**<sup>1</sup>. Tenured scientist, Centre for Automation and Robotics (UPM-CSIC). CEO MarsiBionics.

**Gómez Pérez, Asunción**<sup>1</sup>. Vice-Rector for Research, Innovation and Doctoral Studies, Technical University of Madrid (UPM)

**Hernández Hernández, Gloria**<sup>1</sup>. Head of the National Centre for Certification of Medical Devices (Centro Nacional de Certificación de Productos Sanitarios - CNCps - AEMPS)

**Hernández-Orallo, Jose**<sup>1</sup>. Full Professor, Technical University of Valencia (Universidad Politécnica de Valencia - UPV).

**Jain, Manu**. Assistant Attending Optical Imaging Specialist - Assistant professor, Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center - Weill Cornell Medical College. United States.

**Marcos, Mar**<sup>1</sup>. Associate professor in Jaime I University (UJI) and coordinator of the Artificial Intelligence Network in Biomedicine (Red Temática sobre Inteligencia Artificial en Biomedicina - IABiomed-net).

**Martí Bonmatí, Luis**<sup>1</sup>. Director of the Clinical Area, Medical Imaging Department, La Fe Polytechnic and University Hospital

**Martín Sánchez, Fernando**<sup>1</sup>. Research professor, Carlos III Health Institute (Instituto de Salud Carlos III - ISCIII).

**Núñez Jaldón, Ángela M**<sup>1</sup>. Physician, Emergency Services, Virgen del Rocío University Hospital.

**Oliver, Nuria**<sup>1</sup>. Scientific director and co-founder ELLIS foundation Alicante.

**Parra Calderón, Carlos Luis**<sup>1</sup>. Head of Technological Innovation Section, Virgen del Rocío University Hospital - Biomedicine Institute of Seville.

**Petrone, Paula**<sup>1</sup>. Associate professor and leader of the Biomedical Data Science Team, (ISGlobal). Founder and director of PhenobyteLife S.L.

**Rigau, Germán**<sup>1</sup>. Associate Director of the Basque Center for Language Technologies, University of the Basque Country (HiTZ-UPV/EHU).

**Rodríguez de las Heras Ballell, Teresa**<sup>1</sup>. Associate professor in mercantile law, Carlos III University, Madrid (UC3M).

**Sendín, Mercedes**<sup>1</sup>. Physician, Virgen del Rocío University Hospital.

**Sierra García, Carles**<sup>1</sup>. Research professor, Institute of Artificial Intelligence Research (IIIA), CSIC.

**Topol, Eric**. Professor, executive vice-president, Scripps Research Institute. United States.

**Ureña López, Alfonso**<sup>1</sup>. Full Professor of Computer Languages and Systems, Jaen University (UJA). President of the Spanish Society of Natural Language Processing (Sociedad Española de Procesamiento de Lenguaje Natural - SEPLN)

**Valencia, Alfonso**<sup>1</sup>. ICREA research professor. Director of the Life Sciences department, Barcelona Supercomputing Centre (BCS-CNS)

**Vivanco-Hidalgo, Rosa María**<sup>1</sup>. Head of Health Technology Assessment and Healthcare, Service Quality Department of Catalonia (AQuAS)

\* The experts have declared no conflict of interests.

<sup>1</sup> Specialists who also participated in the full or partial review of the report.

# Artificial intelligence and health

14 November 2022

## Introduction

### The potential of technologies with AI in health

### Towards implementation in healthcare

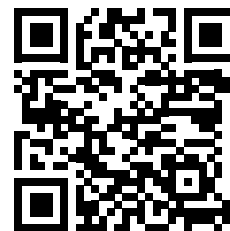
Achieving trustworthy AI

Management and governance of health data

Regulatory framework

A new digitised healthcare professional environment

### AI in the social context of the future



Graphical abstract

## Introduction

Artificial intelligence (AI) is a science and a group of analytic and information science technologies that can achieve complex objectives based on information<sup>1</sup> (**Key point 1**). Although this field has existed since the end of the 1950s<sup>2-4</sup>, new techniques, large volumes of data and high-capacity computing have brought about the disruptive innovation experienced in recent years<sup>5-7</sup>. The current interest in the application of AI is due to its capacity to perform particularly complex tasks on a large scale in a more efficient way than human intelligence; particularly: visual perception<sup>8-10</sup>, processing spoken and written language<sup>11-14</sup> or physical interaction with the environment<sup>15,16</sup>. Nowadays, Health and medicine is one of the fields where the greatest impact is foreseen<sup>5,17</sup>. At the national level, the Digital Spain 2025 strategy<sup>18</sup>, Digital Health Strategy<sup>19</sup>, the Artificial Intelligence National Strategy (ENIA)<sup>20</sup> and the Spanish R&D&I Strategy in Artificial Intelligence<sup>21</sup> cover different aspects of the development of artificial intelligence in the field of health, among other subjects. The Strategic Projects for Recovery and Transformation (known as PERTE in Spanish) in Vanguard Health<sup>22</sup> and New Economics of Language<sup>23</sup> also cover developments in this field. At a European level, there are noteworthy initiatives and programmes like the Digital Europe Programme<sup>24</sup> or the EU4Health programme 2021-2027<sup>25</sup>.

### Key point 1. What is artificial intelligence (AI)?

**Objectives of using AI.** The original intention<sup>2,3</sup> was to achieve a general artificial intelligence, similar to or even greater than human intelligence: artificial superintelligence. As this proved too complex a task, most of the scientific effort in this field turned its focus on the development of specific artificial intelligence, which would be highly efficient in performing a single task under strictly controlled conditions, for instance, playing chess. The many techniques and focuses employed for widely varying purposes mean that defining AI is particularly difficult<sup>1</sup>.

**Definition of AI.** The European Union has an umbrella definition as a basis for developing new regulations<sup>26</sup>. This defines the objective of AI as making recommendations or taking specific decisions that can directly influence the environment with which it interacts. This definition includes most sub-disciplines: from statistical methods and logic coding of knowledge to what is currently the most disruptive area, machine learning.

**Machine learning.** A sub-discipline of AI in which a programme “learns” based on experience (from databases or physical sensors). Such learning can be maintained over time as new experience is acquired<sup>27</sup> and enables the extraction of new patterns and information not previously known. There is a broad diversity of learning variants for different tasks and specific functions<sup>28</sup>.

**Deep learning.** It is a variant of machine learning which uses multilevel neural networks. In a neural network, each neuron performs an operation and, when it connects with millions of other neurons with multiple processing layers and abstraction it forms a deep network<sup>29,30</sup>, which can detect the characteristics of data by itself. In the field of medicine, this began to work well ten years ago with medical imaging, and this is the technique currently causing the greatest disruption<sup>31</sup>. It has also brought major advances in the modelling, use and digital processing of human language<sup>32-34</sup>.

Professional and social expectations worldwide see the potential of AI to produce a qualitative leap in healthcare<sup>35</sup>. Among other possibilities is the potential to contribute to reducing the variability of healthcare between regions or countries<sup>36-38</sup>, or improving the capacity to anticipate and prepare for health emergencies<sup>39</sup>. The development of new applications and their subsequent professional adaptation require collaboration between diverse sectors: research, industry, hospitals, the healthcare sector, regulation, assessment and legislation<sup>5</sup>. Despite the current worldwide momentum in this area and the existence of some successful projects, the deployment of these tools in healthcare and medicine is not widespread<sup>5,17,40,41</sup>. Nowadays, the complex technical, ethical, social and regulatory challenges necessary to achieve trustworthy AI are being resolved, both within Spain<sup>20</sup> and in the EU<sup>42,43</sup>. Finally, the availability of quality, interoperable data is essential to develop specific AI applications. The European Commission has highlighted the value of sensitive health data<sup>44</sup> and estimates that its re-use for R&D&I may amount to an economic value of some 25 to 30 billion euros per year<sup>44</sup>. Nevertheless, this potential is still underused in Europe.

## The potential of technologies with AI in healthcare

Among its benefits, AI can reduce the cost of some procedures while increasing their efficiency<sup>9,45</sup>. A 2017 report considered that including AI to combat diseases and conditions on the increase (specifically childhood obesity, breast cancer and dementia) could mean annual savings in Europe of 17,200 million euros<sup>46</sup>. Additionally, some degree of automation saves time, allowing healthcare professionals to devote more quality time to their patients<sup>5</sup>.

According to a European-wide survey<sup>47</sup>, current developments focus on tools for diagnosis (21%), self-care, early prevention and monitoring (14%) or as support systems for clinical decision-making (18%). But the focus of research covers more aspects of its potential use: AI can achieve major advances in biomedical and clinical research<sup>17,48</sup> and rare diseases<sup>10,49</sup>, serve as support during surgical interventions in real time<sup>50</sup>, predict a patient's clinical outcome<sup>51,52</sup> or expedite management of logistics and administrative tasks<sup>53-55</sup>. Likewise, it can contribute to decision-making in public health and in preparation and response to health emergencies (**Key point 2**). However, most of the applications described in the scientific literature have not been validated in a real-life clinical setting<sup>53,56</sup>.

In addition, most of the development and introduction of this technology occurs outside Spain, with the USA and China at the forefront of knowledge transfer and investment in AI-based start-ups<sup>45,47</sup>. Some consortia and business associations highlight difficulties and delays in getting medical and healthcare products and devices on the market, in general due to the differences in interpretation of European regulations by member states, the complexity of reimbursement and acquisition<sup>58</sup>, or a lack of speed in authorisations<sup>59</sup>. The objective of AI in the field of healthcare is to function as support for the worker, rather than generating automation without human supervision<sup>53,60</sup>. The following sections discuss applications that are at different stages of research and implementation. The focus is on applications that are closest to use in the short-term in real-life clinical practice, or ones with the greatest potential in healthcare.

**Support in prevention, self-care and wellness.** AI can quickly examine a large number of patients at a very low cost<sup>41</sup>. This helps in early risk prediction, for instance, in heart function<sup>61,62</sup> or in the diagnosis of tumours<sup>63</sup>, lung cancer<sup>64</sup>, skin cancer<sup>65</sup> or dangerous eye lesions<sup>66-70</sup>. Such early detection of different types of cancer is related with a better prognosis<sup>71</sup>. On the one hand, some AI applications can be used directly by the patient. In this area, AI-based **digital assistants** have proved to be a useful aid to help improve the self-care of people who require follow-up<sup>53</sup>, such as type 2 diabetes patients<sup>72,73</sup>.

**Digital assistant:** a programme that undertakes tasks or provides a service to an individual based on guidelines or questions. A chatbot is an example of a conversation-based digital or virtual assistant.

**Natural language processing (NLP):** a type of AI that enables spoken or written human language to be automatically interpreted and/or generated by a computer.

**Clinical terminology:** a set of specific terms related with medical practice and based on healthcare provision for patients. One used in Spain is SNOMED-CT, a terminology that enables the input of standardised clinical information associated with codes.

**Personalised precision medicine:** personalised medical attention with decisions and treatments specifically tailored for each individual.

**Digital therapeutics:** programmes or devices that provide evidence-based medical intervention, prescribed and regulated in a similar way to medication.

**Diagnostic support.** In the USA, estimates suggest that one in twenty adults has suffered a diagnostic error<sup>74</sup>, which would be avoidable with the help of AI<sup>17</sup>. Moreover, it has been shown that for different types of cancer it can enable more exact, quicker assessments<sup>75-77</sup>, for instance, in breast<sup>78,79</sup>, colorectal<sup>80-82</sup>, or skin cancer<sup>83</sup>. Likewise, in the field of mental health, some studies have been able to predict the appearance of psychotic episodes based on language, with a reliability up to 93% under laboratory conditions<sup>84,85</sup>. Despite these successful examples, several studies indicate the difficulty of introducing AI-based diagnostic tools in real-life clinical practice. The appearance of COVID-19 spurred the search for diagnostic support tools in imaging. However, a systematic review of 62 methods (from 2212 scientific articles) showed that none were reproducible in a clinical setting, due to methodological shortfalls or data bias at origin<sup>86</sup>.

**Logistic support.** **Natural language processing (NLP) technology**<sup>87</sup> enables simplification and a reduction in the length of medical texts. So, a long report with dozens of pages can be transformed into a brief synthesis, adapted so that non-specialists can understand it<sup>88-91</sup>. AI can also compose parts of medical discharge reports<sup>92</sup>, or tag and generate radiology reports<sup>93,94</sup>, freeing up the time of healthcare professionals. It can also automatically enrich **clinical terminology** databases and add knowledge to the most commonly used medical information systems<sup>95</sup>. Initiatives are underway to optimise hospital management of resources and medical personnel in emergency situations that may occur in an emergency service<sup>55</sup>. It has been shown that AI tools would help guarantee equity and a better quality of healthcare, reducing patient waiting times or improving response in situations of overload during waves of COVID-19<sup>96,97</sup>.

**Therapeutic support.** AI plays an important role in developing and applying **personalised precision medicine**<sup>22,98</sup>, with models tailored to each personal profile<sup>99</sup>. A study evaluating the use and dosage of different treatments found that patient mortality was lower when the procedure used coincided with the recommendations of an AI-based assistant<sup>100</sup>. Devices that use AI can also be prescribed in the same way as medication, in what is known as digital therapeutics<sup>101,102</sup>. AI can also be included in robots, where data arrives via sensors (from intelligent visual perception or spatial perception), resulting in direct physical interactions of the device with the patient's environment or the healthcare professional or assistants<sup>103,104</sup>. Finally, another tool that will be used in the future is digital twins: computer models of organs or even an entire person<sup>105</sup> that, among other functions, will enable simulation of response to treatment before it is administered<sup>105</sup>. This line of research has already received funding under the programme R&D Missions in AI, managed by the State Secretariat for Digitalization and Artificial Intelligence (SEDIA)<sup>106</sup>.

**Drug discovery.** Finding new drugs and bioactive compounds has benefited from AI tools<sup>107</sup> and key advances like the understanding of the structure of proteins<sup>108,109</sup>. It is also possible to infer new properties of medicines using the scientific literature

and applying natural language processing 110,111.

### Key point 2. Artificial intelligence in public health.

Around 60% of deaths worldwide are due to a cause associated with the socio-economic and environmental context in which people live<sup>112</sup>. It is currently possible to assess these contexts and measure the associated risks by using information from social networks<sup>113</sup>, meteorological agencies<sup>114</sup>, citizen science<sup>115</sup>, personal devices for health monitoring (wearable technologies)<sup>116</sup>, or smartphones<sup>117,118</sup>. This work falls within the field of public health: the set of activities organised by public administrations, with the participation of society, to prevent illness and protect, promote and recover individual and collective health<sup>119</sup>. Among other actions, this includes monitoring risks that might have an impact on the health of the general public<sup>120</sup>. In this context, monitoring and managing epidemics and pandemics can potentially benefit from the use of artificial intelligence tools<sup>117,121</sup>.

**COVID-19.** During the COVID-19 pandemic, researchers around the world generated a multitude of tools based on AI capable of detecting outbreaks<sup>122</sup>, automatically checking symptoms<sup>123</sup>, predicting the number of cases<sup>124</sup> and tracing contacts<sup>125</sup>. These applications used data from collaborating citizens<sup>126</sup> and smartphones<sup>117</sup>. Although major limitations were found, future applications that use data from multiple sources could provide an adequate approximation to avoid both individual risk and the appearance of new outbreaks<sup>117</sup>.

**Mosquito-borne diseases.** In Spain, there is a potential risk of the proliferation of tropical diseases transmitted by mosquitoes (dengue, yellow fever, White Nile virus, Zika or Chikungunya). Recent decades have seen larger and smaller outbreaks at different points in Spain<sup>127-129</sup>. Currently, the use of images collected with collaboration of the general public, provides important support data for monitoring, risk assessment, management and control of mosquitoes in cities<sup>130</sup>. The combination of this model with artificial intelligence<sup>39,115</sup> has the potential to expedite monitoring and cover larger geographical areas, both in Spain and internationally<sup>39,127,131</sup>.

**Mental health and social networks.** Using sentiment analysis, language processing can detect behaviour patterns on social networks. Hence, AI can contribute to the prevention of cyberbullying, hate speech<sup>132</sup> or suicide, and detect anxiety or depression<sup>133</sup>. The use of smartphone data is also being considered to avoid suicide and assess emotional states<sup>134,135</sup>.

**Links to precision medicine.** The social and environmental information traditionally associated with public health<sup>18,136,137</sup> could eventually contribute to precision medicine<sup>136</sup>. In the same way that genomics is used to perform highly tailored adjustments for each personal profile, it is also possible to identify specific environmental determinants for health and disease<sup>138</sup>. Work is also underway to predict clinical outcomes based on information obtained from personal devices<sup>139</sup>.

## Towards implementation in healthcare

Despite a growing interest and research into AI applications in healthcare, even with the pilot projects undertaken by certain hospitals, there is no generalised transfer of this technology for use in clinical practice<sup>140-143</sup> due to a series of challenges<sup>144,145</sup>. The following section details the requirements necessary to achieve reliable, trustworthy AI<sup>42,145-147</sup>, the challenge involved in the need for large amounts of quality health data<sup>148,149</sup>, protection of patient privacy<sup>150</sup>, and the need to create new frameworks for regulations and professional transformation<sup>47,53,151</sup>. The Artificial Intelligence National Strategy (ENIA, in Spanish), published in 2020<sup>20</sup>, aims to tackle these challenges in Spain and to enable the development of inclusive, sustainable AI for all sectors that focuses on citizens.

### Achieving trustworthy AI

Reliability or trustworthiness is a prerequisite if people and societies are to develop, implement and use AI systems<sup>145,152</sup>. If this were not the case, undesirable consequences might arise that prevent its adoption or generate a perception of insecurity, discouraging its use<sup>142,153</sup>. According to recent studies, the attitude of society to the arrival of AI in medical practice is generally positive. Still, this research also indicates that there are different concerns and human supervision is preferable to full automation<sup>154,155</sup>. The following section provides details of some requirements necessary to achieve greater trust in AI in the healthcare sector.

Clinical prediction and decision-making: clinical prediction models are tools that allow the estimation of risk or the probability of having or developing a disease. They contribute to clinical decision-making.

**Human action and supervision.** Recommendations indicate that healthcare AI systems should support the autonomy and decision-making of people<sup>42,53</sup>. In particular, autonomous **clinical prediction and decision-making** could imply a risk for people unless there is human supervision<sup>53</sup>. In this context, some research has provided healthcare professionals with AI applications to monitor whether there is an improvement in the diagnostic process<sup>156</sup>. Among their conclusions, studies found that risks related to human error decrease<sup>53</sup> because a machine can automatically detect problems that a tired worker, for instance, might overlook<sup>5,53</sup>. However, other research indicates that an excess of trust in an automated system can also lead to inappropriate decision-making<sup>153</sup>.

**Safety and efficacy.** Tools based on AI should generate fair, robust, trustworthy predictions in the real-world clinical setting<sup>157</sup>. Nevertheless, much of the initial research worldwide has been conducted outside the clinical setting, from a technical perspective<sup>153,158,159</sup>, with the available data, which may be limited, biased or not high quality<sup>148,149,158</sup>. This makes it difficult to assess many of the imperfections and its effectiveness in real-life clinical practice<sup>153</sup>. Premature deployment of such systems may result in pressure on the health system, diagnostic error or stress for patients<sup>142,153,158</sup>. In order to prevent this scenario and accelerate the transfer of research to clinical practice, some scientific publications recommend considering ethical implications throughout the entire process of development, evaluation and implementation<sup>160</sup>.

**Explainability.** Multiple reports highlight the importance of being able to explain AI-supported decisions when they have an impact on the lives of individuals<sup>145,161</sup>, which often occurs in healthcare. This quality also means that an AI system can be audited in the case of legal requirements, errors or if harm has been caused<sup>145</sup>. However, there are times when it is not easy to explain how an outcome has been reached using algorithms, particularly those based on deep learning<sup>29</sup>. A currently active line of research is the creation of explainable models<sup>162-164</sup>. Nevertheless, some specialists cast doubt on explainability guaranteeing confidence in AI systems and support the idea of reinforcing the safety and efficacy of the systems<sup>164,165</sup>.

**Avoiding the risk of discrimination and inequalities.** The risk of social discrimination exists for two reasons: the use of databases that do not equally represent specific groups of people<sup>166</sup>, or due to decisions taken during the development and implementation of algorithms by the developers<sup>167</sup>. A development that does not consider diversity criteria results in devices that exacerbate the bias and discrimination already existing in society, such as prejudice related to racial origin<sup>168,169</sup>, socio-economic situation<sup>169,170</sup>, region of residence<sup>171</sup> or gender<sup>167,172</sup>. Experts indicate that this issue is particularly important in healthcare AI, since in this sector worldwide there are very few teams of developers headed by women<sup>173</sup>. Algorithmic bias produces more diagnostic errors for the discriminated groups<sup>174</sup> and may create a digital divide in healthcare<sup>166</sup>. To mitigate the risk, bias should be considered from the moment of technological development and throughout the processes of regulation and legislation<sup>146</sup>, as should social context<sup>175</sup>. For cases where it is difficult to achieve representative data, there is research underway that uses a focus with a smaller amount of data<sup>176-178</sup> or synthetic data (built using computer-based methods)<sup>179-180</sup>.

**Minimising the risk of cyberattacks.** The increasing digitalisation of the health system opens the door to new vulnerabilities and an increase in cyberattacks<sup>150,181,182</sup>. Working environments that guarantee cybersecurity are a current area of research, although the European Commission affirms that there is still a long road ahead before achieving the cybersafe implementation of AI<sup>44</sup>. In addition to general vulnerabilities, applications based on AI in healthcare have specific ones<sup>183</sup>; for instance, in medical imaging analysis, a malicious alteration of pixels could lead an algorithm to reach completely erroneous conclusions about a patient<sup>184,185</sup>. Some attacks of this nature are easily detected with warning systems<sup>186</sup>.

**Legal changes to civil liability.** Law is an area where AI has great impact<sup>187-190</sup>. The European Commission Expert Group on Liability and New Technologies concludes that, due to the characteristics of AI systems<sup>191</sup>, it could be more difficult to decide damages for victims. Another hurdle could be the identification of the liable party and attribution of liability, which could be unjust or inefficient. To rectify this, the group argues for the need to make changes in civil liability legislation and regulations in the European Union and in member states<sup>192</sup>. The European Commission has prepared two initiatives to reform the Directive on Defective Products to include the particulars of smart products and products with AI systems (robot assistants, surgical robots, etc.) and propose common liability regulations in the case of harm caused by AI systems<sup>193,194</sup>.

## Management and governance of health data

**Interoperability:** capacity of information systems and of the procedures they support to share data and enable the interchange of information and knowledge.

**Standardisation:** the process of making, applying and improving different regulations to impose order on a specific activity.

**FAIR principles:** the FAIR principles are precise, measurable qualities for data publication. The acronym stands for findability, accessibility, interoperability, and reusability.

**Linguistic resources:** datasets and their descriptors in electronic format to construct natural language processing systems and applications for specific areas (such as health). In simple terms, these resources are corpora of annotated and non-annotated texts (the words have tags with additional information), lexicons (ordered series of words), dictionaries or ontologies (relations between words).

For AI-based systems to generate reliable results, large, high-quality databases are necessary at an initial training phase, as are validation of models and obtaining knowledge. Data can be obtained from images (radiological, dermatological, etc.) text (medical reports), genomics or other type of information, like social surroundings or the environment<sup>195</sup>. Improving management and governance is one requisite to expedite R&D&i and its implementation by the research, technology and business sectors. With this objective, progress should advance towards a greater availability, accessibility and **interoperability** of health data<sup>44,196</sup>, while respecting the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR)<sup>197</sup>.

**Quantity and quality of data as the basis for trustworthy AI.** A European Commission study indicates that there is a loss of health efficiency in Spain and in Europe derived from a lack of interoperability, **standardisation** and semantics, or difficulties to access, interchange and analyse big data<sup>198,199</sup>. Among other difficulties, this complicates the reuse of data in R&D&i, which forms part of the Digital Health Strategy<sup>19</sup>. For data to be accessible and usable by a machine learning algorithm, they must be stored in a standard way<sup>28,200</sup>. Despite the high degree of digitalisation in Spain<sup>198</sup> and Spanish public sector initiatives to standardise the data of digital medical records<sup>198,201</sup> image repositories<sup>202</sup>, genome biobanks<sup>202</sup> and cancer registries<sup>203</sup> health information is still underused in R&D&i<sup>44,199</sup>. However, it is essential for the development of personalised precision medicine<sup>98</sup>. The application of **FAIR principles**<sup>200,204,205</sup> alongside the knowledge and tools already available could facilitate the use of data for R&D&i in AI. It should be noted that databases with errors or incomplete data may lead to imprecise or erroneous indications<sup>206</sup>.

**Understanding the languages used by the population.** Approximately 40% of work in AI uses human language as its basis<sup>207</sup>, and many healthcare applications could use the information contained in digital medical records<sup>201</sup>. However, much of this data is in unstructured text format that cannot be easily analysed (general calculations estimate this could be as much as 80%)<sup>32</sup>. For this data to be transformed into useful information requires **linguistic resources** specific to healthcare, in the languages spoken by the target population<sup>32</sup>. Although Spanish is the second most spoken language in the world and holds fifth place in the number of scientific publications, English remains the dominant language of technical developments<sup>208</sup>. In Spain there is a movement to boost AI in Spanish, which is the aim of the MarIA project<sup>23,34</sup>. There are other initiatives with the same objectives in Spain's other co-official languages. AINA in Catalan<sup>209-211</sup>, Nós in Galician<sup>212</sup> or the GAITU plan in Basque<sup>213</sup>. The PERTE of the New Economics of Language, which

**Data re-identification:** or de-anonymisation, is analysing anonymised data to discover the individual to whom data belong.

**Encryption:** representation of information in such a way that only authorised parties can decode it.

**Differential privacy:** system that enables the collection and analysis of data without compromising the identity and privacy of the data providers. Adding randomness to the data can make the relationship between the individual and the dataset less clear.

**Data space:** an ecosystem in which diverse independent actors safely and voluntarily give access to their data following common mechanisms of governance, organisation, regulations and techniques. This may be created at regional, national or international level. Adding randomness to the data can make the relationship between the individual and the dataset less clear.

**Pseudonymisation:** the process by which data is generated that cannot be attributed to a party without the use of additional personal information that must figure separately. This is different from data anonymisation, in which no personal information of any type exists.

**Federated learning:** a type of decentralised machine learning that works, for instance, in a data space. It has the advantage of not requiring data interchange or transfer, thus reducing privacy and security risks.

**Swarm learning:** a type of machine learning that builds models independently in a private data network. Its main advantages are its compatibility with cyber-secure technologies and guarantees of sovereignty, security and privacy.

continues the work undertaken in 2015's Promotion of Language Technologies Plan (Plan de Impulso de Las Tecnologías del Lenguaje), promotes the development of AI in the official languages in specific areas such as health, and also encourages pan-hispanism: progress in conjunction with the Spanish-speaking countries of the Americas and reinforcement of the use of Spanish in the digital world<sup>23</sup>.

**Privacy and access.** In Europe and Spain, access to sensitive data about patients for R&D&i<sup>150</sup> must guarantee compliance with current regulations on privacy and data protection (GDPR)<sup>214,215</sup>. Health data protection is a legal requirement<sup>215</sup>, which makes it important to consider privacy by design and by default when working with big data<sup>216</sup>. Nevertheless, implementation of the GDPR in the area of health is complex and would benefit from specific ethical, legal and operational guidelines when the data are for use in AI<sup>217</sup>. Specifically, at a technical level, to avoid **data re-identification**<sup>218</sup>. A specialist group report<sup>47,217</sup> recommends employing pseudonymisation<sup>219</sup>, **encryption**, or **differential privacy**<sup>220</sup>. On the other hand, to conduct clinical trials based on real-world evidence it is necessary to decode the information in electronic health records. In this task, AI techniques can help hide personal or sensitive information<sup>221</sup>.

**Interoperability.** Refers to the capacity of interchanging and using data from different sources in a simple, automated way. In Spain and in Europe, the use of medical information for R&D&i in AI has been hampered by unequal interoperability and by regional fragmentation<sup>42,222</sup>. In recent years, the healthcare and research communities have sought to reduce the heterogeneity of information by means of standardising knowledge in clinical terminology<sup>223,224</sup>, and by aligning the formats and information contained in electronic health records<sup>225,226</sup>. In Spain, the current Digital Health Strategy includes the goal of having quality interoperable data at national and international levels<sup>19</sup>. The Data Office (Oficina del Dato)<sup>18,227</sup>, has participated in setting up the creation of a National Health **Data Space** to generate scientific knowledge<sup>19,228</sup>. This strategy is complementary to and forms part of the European proposal that follows<sup>44,229</sup>.

**The European Health Data Space (EHDS).** The proposal of an EHDS seeks to improve healthcare and accelerate research in health. Among its objectives is facilitating access to sensitive health data to public and private R&D&i agents for the development of AI<sup>44,229</sup>. The governance, regulations, standard practices and infrastructures included cover the possibility of efficiently sharing health data. This regulation has its foundations in the NIS cybersecurity directive<sup>230</sup>, the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR)<sup>219</sup> and FAIR principles<sup>204,205</sup>. With the application of the Data Act, which the EHDS is also based on, the European Commission estimates savings of 120,00 million euros in the EU healthcare sector each year<sup>231,232</sup>. A pilot programme is scheduled for 2022 in which all European Union member countries must participate<sup>44</sup>. In Spain, actors related with ehealth have favourably received this proposal<sup>58</sup>. A national scale project, IMPaCT, is building the technical foundations to use health information in precision medicine and will be responsible for implementing EHDS recommendations in research<sup>202</sup>. Likewise, although at a much earlier stage, proposals exist for a European Language Data Space, aimed at compiling, creating and reusing language data for all industries, including healthcare<sup>223</sup>.

**Machine learning adapted to the governance of health data.** AI can use the data stored in different infrastructures through **federated learning**<sup>234,235</sup>, or its evolution, **swarm learning**<sup>236</sup>. Swarm learning, in particular, minimises the problems associated with privacy<sup>220</sup> and cybersecurity<sup>237-239</sup> by means of data **pseudonymisation** and encryption. The European Health Data Space will be a decentralised system with the potential for use by these types of AI<sup>44</sup>.

## Regulatory framework

European regulation 2017/745 determines whether a tool is a medical device, and therefore, whether it is subject to having to obtain the CE mark (Conformité Européenne, in French) necessary for its sale within the European space<sup>240</sup>. In Spain, this certification is awarded by the Spanish Certification Agency of Medicines and Medical Products (Centro Nacional de Certificación de Productos Sanitarios – AEMPS). Current regulations on AI deal with software in a generalist way and do not contemplate all its particularities. This means that during the certification process the continuous learning capacity of some applications must be limited and only static models that have stopped learning can be approved, above all if the data is related to its use in a real-life clinical setting<sup>241</sup>. In consideration of the characteristics of these types of tools, in 2021 the European Commission made a proposal for the regulation of artificial intelligence (the AI Act)<sup>242</sup>, which defines the European standards for the development, marketing and use of AI-based products in all industries throughout the European Union. It proposes a risk-based analysis, in which the uses or applications classified as high or limited risk have to meet a series of requirements related to security, efficacy and robustness before and after going on the market. Once on the market, these tools should have monitoring systems to ensure their application remains trustworthy<sup>242</sup>. The AI Act contemplates the designation of a competent national authority to supervise the application and implementation of market regulation and monitoring<sup>242</sup>.

Regulatory sandbox: a safe space to test new regulatory processes. The concept comes from the financial sector, although it has expanded to other fields.

Although still at the planning stage, in 2022, Spain is promoting the creation of a Spanish Agency for Supervision of Artificial Intelligence (Agencia Española de Supervisión de Inteligencia Artificial – AESIA)<sup>243</sup>. Spain is also a pioneer in the creation of a **regulatory sandbox** for AI, which will enable the testing of technical and regulatory solutions related to the AI Act in a controlled environment<sup>244,245</sup>.

Acquiring certification is an indispensable requirement to put a medical device on the market. However, for a device or product to be considered for inclusion in the Common Services Portfolio of the Spanish National Health System, like any other medical and healthcare device, those that include AI must be evaluated for its use in clinical practice<sup>246</sup>. Deployment of the current European regulations for health technology assessment will consider dimensions for assessment applicable to all countries in the European Union<sup>247</sup>, and member states will be able to add any other dimensions they consider pertinent. In Spain, this assessment is made by the Health Technology Assessment Network (known as RedETS)<sup>248</sup>, whose current manual relates to the general dimensions of health technologies: the health problem it is aimed at, a description of the technology, its safety, efficacy, effectiveness and cost-effectiveness<sup>249</sup>. RedETS has prepared a new framework for evaluation that includes the particularities of AI in a real-world clinical setting<sup>250</sup>. Among others, it includes the need to compare the performance of healthcare workers with and without the support of AI, since many tools are intended for use with, not substitution of, personnel<sup>148,251,252</sup>.

## A new digitised healthcare professional environment

In Spain, 71% of the population believes that AI and automation will cause job loss in different industries<sup>253</sup> and, indeed, in the mid-term and only for certain applications, some studies suggest that professionals trained in digital health competence to use AI could replace those who are not<sup>254</sup>. A survey of 233 radiologists in Spain showed that there is a demand for training in artificial intelligence, computing and new technologies in medicine, and that this should be included in their medical specialisation<sup>151</sup>. Studies indicate that professional groups should be familiar with the limitations and strengths of a deep learning-based system, and therefore training syllabi should be updated<sup>255</sup>. Training is included as a priority in the Vanguard Health PERTE, and includes actions related with training in digital competencies<sup>22</sup> as well as specific postgraduate programmes in public administration and governance<sup>256</sup>. These new skills are essential to promote better cooperation between scientific data personnel and medical staff to obtain correct data and the successful development of applications<sup>257</sup>. This is also true for an integration in real-life clinical practice that includes security risk assessment<sup>8,258</sup>. In coming years, new specialist professions are expected to arise based on digitalisation and on the arrival of AI in the healthcare sector, and likewise AI will have an impact on the way we work and our cognitive skills<sup>183,259</sup>. The incorporation of these technologies should be associated with a cultural change and the evaluation of their acceptability for patients and healthcare professionals<sup>260,261</sup>.

## AI in the social context of the future

Despite the fact that AI has the potential to contribute to improving health in tomorrow's societies<sup>262</sup>, not all countries are committed to it in the same way. According to the AI Index<sup>263</sup>, which evaluates the development of this technology in an international context for all sectors, the USA, China and the United Kingdom are the countries that predominate in international collaborations. In our context, France has made enormous advances, with<sup>242</sup> AI businesses set up between 2013 and 2021. Spain leads the EU ranking for mentions of AI in legislative procedures in the year 2021<sup>263</sup>.

One of the social challenges faced by Spain is based on official demographic projections<sup>264,265</sup>. It is estimated that the population over the age of 64 in Spain will have increased by up to 5 million people by the year 2035 and could be double in 2050<sup>266</sup> with the consequent increase in healthcare pressure associated with old age and chronic disease. AI-based applications, both software and physical supports, are capable of performing tasks very efficiently and could therefore contribute to covering this demand<sup>267</sup>. In radiology, for instance, it would help to interpret a high volume of images, minimising the fatigue of professionals and the associated error<sup>268</sup>. In direct care, healthcare workers (nurses, auxiliary staff, carers) and older people could have the support of robotics to improve their autonomy and quality of life<sup>15,262, 269,270</sup>. Japan, whose demographic projections are similar to those of Spain, is making large investments in assistive robotics, support robotics and the automation of small tasks<sup>16</sup>. All of this has the potential to free up time for the corresponding professional groups. In Spain, therefore, there is a growing interest in AI-based technologies as they can contribute to sustaining the future healthcare of citizens<sup>19,267</sup>.

similar a la española, se están invirtiendo grandes cantidades de dinero en robótica asistencial, de apoyo, y para la automatización de pequeñas tareas<sup>16</sup>. Todo ello con el potencial de dar más tiempo útil al colectivo profesional correspondiente<sup>5</sup>. En España, por tanto, el interés es creciente y radica en que las tecnologías basadas en IA pueden



contribuir a sostener la salud de los ciudadanos en el futuro<sup>19,267</sup>.

---

### How to cite this report

Oficina de Ciencia y Tecnología del Congreso de los Diputados. Report C: Artificial intelligence and health. 2022;  
doi:10.57952/tnn0-z653

---

### Oficina C Team (in alphabetical order)

Ana Elorza\*. Oficina C Coordinator at the Fundación Española para la Ciencia y la Tecnología.

Izaskun Lacunza. Oficina C Coordinator at the Fundación Española para la Ciencia y la Tecnología.

Maite Iriondo de Hond. Scientific and Technological Evidence Officer

Rüdiger Ortiz-Álvarez. Scientific and Technological Evidence Officer

Sofía Otero. Scientific and Technological Evidence Officer

Jose L. Roscales\*. Scientific and Technological Evidence Officer

Cristina Fernández-García. Scientific Community and Society Connections Office

\*contacts for this report

## Bibliografía

1. Russell SJ. Artificial intelligence a modern Approach. Pearson Education, Inc.; 2010.
2. McCulloch WS, Pitts W. A logical calculus of the ideas immanent in nervous activity. *Bull Math Biophys* 1943;5(4):115–133; <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02478259>.
3. McCarthy J, Minsky ML, Rochester N, et al. A Proposal for the Dartmouth summer research project on artificial intelligence, August 31, 1955. *AI Mag* 2006;27(4):12–12; <https://doi.org/10.1609/aimag.v27i4.1904>.
4. Kaplan A, Haenlein M. Siri, Siri, in my hand: Who's the fairest in the land? On the interpretations, illustrations, and implications of artificial intelligence. *Bus Horiz* 2019;62(1):15–25; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2018.08.004>.
5. Yu K-H, Beam AL, Kohane IS. Artificial intelligence in healthcare. *Nat Biomed Eng* 2018;2(10):719–731; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41551-018-0305-z>.
6. Deo RC. Machine learning in medicine. *Circulation* 2015;132(20):1920–1930; <https://doi.org/10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.115.001593>.
7. Oliver N, Mayora O, Marschollek M. Machine learning and data analytics in pervasive health. *Methods Inf Med* 2018;57(4):194–196; <https://doi.org/10.1055/s-0038-1673243>.
8. Faes L, Wagner SK, Fu DJ, et al. Automated deep learning design for medical image classification by health-care professionals with no coding experience: a feasibility study. *Lancet Digit Health* 2019;1(5):e232–e242; [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2589-7500\(19\)30108-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2589-7500(19)30108-6).
9. Zhu B, Liu JZ, Cauley SF, et al. Image reconstruction by domain-transform manifold learning. *Nature* 2018;555(7697):487–492; <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature25988>.
10. Hasani N, Farhadi F, Morris MA, et al. Artificial Intelligence in medical Imaging and its impact on the rare disease community: threats, challenges and opportunities. *PET Clin* 2022;17(1):13–29; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpet.2021.09.009>.
11. Chowdhary KR. Natural language processing. En: fundamentals of artificial intelligence. (Chowdhary KR. ed) Springer India: New Delhi; 2020; pp. 603–649; [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-81-322-3972-7\\_19](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-81-322-3972-7_19).
12. Broderick MP, Di Liberto GM, Anderson AJ, et al. Dissociable electrophysiological measures of natural language processing reveal differences in speech comprehension strategy in healthy ageing. *Sci Rep* 2021;11(1):4963; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-84597-9>.
13. Stewart R, Velupillai S. Applied natural language processing in mental health big data. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 2021;46(1):252–253; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41386-020-00842-1>.
14. Zhang T, Schoene AM, Ji S, et al. Natural language processing applied to mental illness detection: a narrative review. *Npj Digit Med* 2022;5(1):1–13; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41746-022-00589-7>.
15. Abdi J, Al-Hindawi A, Ng T, et al. Scoping review on the use of socially assistive robot technology in elderly care. *BMJ Open* 2018;8(2):e018815; <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2017-018815>.
16. Savage N. Robots rise to meet the challenge of caring for old people. *Nature* 2022;601(7893):S8–S10; <https://doi.org/10.1038/d41586-022-00072-z>.
17. Rajpurkar P, Chen E, Banerjee O, et al. AI in health and medicine. *Nat Med* 2022;28(1):31–38; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-021-01614-0>.
18. Gobierno de España. España Digital 2025. 2020.
19. Secretaría General de Salud Digital, Información e Innovación para el SNS. Estrategia de Salud Digital Del SNS. 2021.
20. Ministerio de Economía. Estrategia Nacional de Inteligencia Artificial (ENIA). 2020.
21. Ministerio de Ciencia, Innovación y Universidades. Estrategia Española de I+D+I En Inteligencia Artificial. 2019.
22. Gobierno de España. PERTE Para La Salud de Vanguardia. 2021.
23. Gobierno de España. PERTE Nueva Economía de La Lengua. 2021.
24. Reglamento (UE) 2021/694 del Parlamento Europeo y del Consejo de 29 de abril de 2021 por el que se establece el Programa Europa Digital y por el que se deroga la Decisión (UE) 2015/2240 (Texto pertinente a efectos del EEE). 2021.
25. European Health and Digital Executive Agency (HaDEA). EU4Health. 2021. [https://hadea.ec.europa.eu/programmes/eu4health\\_es](https://hadea.ec.europa.eu/programmes/eu4health_es).
26. High-Level Expert Group on Artificial Intelligence (European Commission). A definition of AI: main capabilities and scientific disciplines. Brussels; 2018.
27. Mitchell TM. Machine Learning. McGraw Hill; 1997.
28. Royal Society (Great Britain). Machine learning: the power and promise of computers that learn by example. 2017.
29. Marcus G. Deep learning: a critical appraisal. *arXiv*; 2018; <https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.1801.00631>.
30. Esteva A, Robicquet A, Ramsundar B, et al. A guide to deep learning in healthcare. *Nat Med* 2019;25(1):24–29; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-018-0316-z>.
31. Krizhevsky A, Sutskever I, Hinton GE. ImageNet classification with deep convolutional neural networks. En: Proceedings of the 25th International Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems - Volume 1. NIPS'12 Curran Associates Inc.: Red Hook, NY, USA; 2012; pp. 1097–1105.
32. European Language Equality (ELE) Consortium. Report on existing strategic documents and projects in LT/AI. 2021.
33. Beltagy I, Lo K, Cohan A. SciBERT: A pretrained language model for scientific text. En: Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and the 9th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP) Association for Computational Linguistics: Hong Kong, China; 2019; pp. 3615–3620; <https://doi.org/10.18653/v1/D19-1371>.
34. Gutiérrez-Fandiño A, Armengol-Estapé J, Pàmies M, et al. MarIA: Spanish language models. *Proces Leng Nat* 2022;68(0):39–60 <https://arxiv.org/abs/2107.07253>.
35. Jha S, Topol EJ. Adapting to artificial intelligence: radiologists and pathologists as information specialists. *JAMA* 2016;316(22):2353–2354; <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2016.17438>.

36. Wahl B, Cossy-Gantner A, Germann S, et al. Artificial Intelligence (AI) and global health: how can AI contribute to health in resource-poor settings? *BMJ Glob Health* 2018;3(4):e000798; <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjgh-2018-000798>.
37. Schwalbe N, Wahl B. Artificial intelligence and the future of global health. *Lancet Lond Engl* 2020;395(10236):1579–1586; [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(20\)30226-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30226-9).
38. Kappel C, Rushton-Marovac M, Leong D, et al. Pursuing connectivity in cardio-oncology care—The future of telemedicine and artificial intelligence in providing equity and access to rural communities. *Front Cardiovasc Med* 2022;9:927769; <https://doi.org/10.3389/fcvm.2022.927769>.
39. Carney RM, Mapes C, Low RD, et al. Integrating global citizen science platforms to enable next-generation surveillance of invasive and vector mosquitoes. *Insects* 2022;13(8):675; <https://doi.org/10.3390/insects13080675>.
40. Kelly CJ, Karthikesalingam A, Suleyman M, et al. Key challenges for delivering clinical impact with artificial intelligence. *BMC Med* 2019;17(1):195; <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12916-019-1426-2>.
41. Beam AL, Kohane IS. Translating Artificial intelligence into clinical care. *JAMA* 2016;316(22):2368–2369; <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2016.17217>.
42. Grupo independiente de expertos de alto nivel sobre inteligencia artificial creado por la Comisión Europea. Directrices éticas para una IA fiable. 2019.
43. Lepri B, Oliver N, Pentland A. Ethical machines: The human-centric use of artificial intelligence. *iScience* 2021;24(3):102249; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.isci.2021.102249>.
44. Directorate-General for Health and Food Safety (European Commission). Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament and the Council. A European Health Data Space: Harnessing the Power of Health Data for People, Patients and Innovation. 2022.
45. Harvey H. Can AI Enable a 10 Minute MRI? 2018. <https://towardsdatascience.com/can-ai-enable-a-10-minute-mri-77218f0121fe> [Último acceso: 31/5/2022].
46. PwC. Sherlock in Health - How artificial intelligence may improve quality and efficiency, whilst reducing healthcare costs in Europe. 2017.
47. EIT Health Think Tank. Summary Report – Healthcare workforce and organisational transformation with AI. 2020.
48. Gundogdu P, Loucera C, Alamo-Alvarez I, et al. Integrating pathway knowledge with deep neural networks to reduce the dimensionality in single-cell RNA-seq data. *BioData Min* 2022;15(1):1; <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13040-021-00285-4>.
49. Alves VM, Korn D, Pervitsky V, et al. Knowledge-based approaches to drug discovery for rare diseases. *Drug Discov Today* 2022;27(2):490–502; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drudis.2021.10.014>.
50. Urbanos G, Martín A, Vázquez G, et al. Supervised machine learning methods and hyperspectral imaging techniques jointly applied for brain cancer classification. *Sensors* 2021;21(11):3827; <https://doi.org/10.3390/s21113827>.
51. Raghunath S, Ulloa Cerna AE, Jing L, et al. Prediction of mortality from 12-lead electrocardiogram voltage data using a deep neural network. *Nat Med* 2020;26(6):886–891; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-020-0870-z>.
52. Cuocolo R, Caruso M, Perillo T, et al. Machine Learning in oncology: A clinical appraisal. *Cancer Lett* 2020;481:55–62; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.canlet.2020.03.032>.
53. Topol EJ. High-performance medicine: the convergence of human and artificial intelligence. *Nat Med* 2019;25(1):44–56; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-018-0300-7>.
54. Accenture. Artificial intelligence: healthcare's new nervous system. 2017.
55. Medina DG. Algoritmos de optimización para el servicio de urgencias: Caso de estudio en el Hospital Universitario Virgen del Rocío. 2021.
56. Yu K-H, Kohane IS. Framing the challenges of artificial intelligence in medicine. *BMJ Qual Saf* 2019;28(3):238–241; <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjqs-2018-008551>.
57. Asgard and Roland Berger. Artificial intelligence - A strategy for European startups. Recommendations for policymakers. Roland Berger GMBH; 2018.
58. EIT Health. Posicionamiento de EIT Health sobre el Espacio Europeo de Datos Sanitarios. 2022. <https://eithealth.eu/news-article/posicionamiento-de-eit-health-sobre-el-espacio-europeo-de-datos-sanitarios/?lang=es>.
59. Federación Española de Empresas de Tecnología Sanitaria (FENIN). Informe de sostenibilidad. Memoria #TecnologíaParavivir. 2021.
60. Correa N, Cerquides J, Arcos JL, et al. Supporting first FSH dosage for ovarian stimulation with machine learning. *Reprod Biomed Online* 2022; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rbmo.2022.06.010>.
61. Ghorbani A, Ouyang D, Abid A, et al. Deep learning interpretation of echocardiograms. *Npj Digit Med* 2020;3(1):1–10; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41746-019-0216-8>.
62. Ouyang D, He B, Ghorbani A, et al. Video-based AI for beat-to-beat assessment of cardiac function. *Nature* 2020;580(7802):252–256; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-020-2145-8>.
63. Troyanskaya O, Trajanoski Z, Carpenter A, et al. Artificial intelligence and cancer. *Nat Cancer* 2020;1:149–152; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43018-020-0034-6>.
64. Ardila D, Kiraly AP, Bharadwaj S, et al. End-to-end lung cancer screening with three-dimensional deep learning on low-dose chest computed tomography. *Nat Med* 2019;25(6):954–961; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-019-0447-x>.
65. Soenksen LR, Kassis T, Conover ST, et al. Using deep learning for dermatologist-level detection of suspicious pigmented skin lesions from wide-field images. *Sci Transl Med* 2021;13(581):eabb3652; <https://doi.org/10.1126/scitranslmed.abb3652>.
66. Xie Y, Nguyen QD, Hamzah H, et al. Artificial intelligence for teleophthalmology-based diabetic retinopathy screening in a national programme: an economic analysis modelling study. *Lancet Digit Health* 2020;2(5):e240–e249; [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2589-7500\(20\)30060-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2589-7500(20)30060-1).
67. Liu H, Li L, Wormstone IM, et al. Development and validation of a deep learning system to detect glaucomatous optic neuropathy using fundus photographs. *JAMA Ophthalmol* 2019;137(12):1353–1360; <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaophthalmol.2019.3501>.

68. Milea D, Najjar RP, Jiang Z, et al. Artificial intelligence to detect papilledema from ocular fundus photographs. *N Engl J Med* 2020;382(18):1687–1695; <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa1917130>.
69. Abràmoff MD, Lavin PT, Birch M, et al. Pivotal trial of an autonomous AI-based diagnostic system for detection of diabetic retinopathy in primary care offices. *Npj Digit Med* 2018;1:29; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41746-018-0040-6>.
70. Gulshan V, Peng L, Coram M, et al. Development and validation of a deep learning algorithm for detection of diabetic retinopathy in retinal fundus photographs. *JAMA* 2016;316(22):2402–2410; <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2016.17216>.
71. Oficina de Ciencia y Tecnología del Congreso de los Diputados (Oficina C). Informe C: Avances en el tratamiento del cáncer. 2022; <https://doi.org/10.57952/anta-er88>.
72. Stein N, Brooks K. A Fully automated conversational artificial intelligence for weight loss: longitudinal observational study among overweight and obese adults. *JMIR Diabetes* 2017;2(2):e28; <https://doi.org/10.2196/diabetes.8590>.
73. Offringa R, Sheng T, Parks L, et al. Digital diabetes management application improves glycemic outcomes in people with type 1 and type 2 diabetes. *J Diabetes Sci Technol* 2017;12(3):701–708; <https://doi.org/10.1177/1932296817747291>.
74. Singh H, Meyer AND, Thomas EJ. The frequency of diagnostic errors in outpatient care: estimations from three large observational studies involving US adult populations. *BMJ Qual Saf* 2014;23(9):727–731; <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjqs-2013-002627>.
75. Kather JN, Pearson AT, Halama N, et al. Deep learning can predict microsatellite instability directly from histology in gastrointestinal cancer. *Nat Med* 2019;25(7):1054–1056; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-019-0462-y>.
76. Jackson HW, Fischer JR, Zanotelli VRT, et al. The single-cell pathology landscape of breast cancer. *Nature* 2020;578(7796):615–620; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-019-1876-x>.
77. Fu Y, Jung AW, Torne RV, et al. Pan-cancer computational histopathology reveals mutations, tumor composition and prognosis. *Nat Cancer* 2020;1(8):800–810; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43018-020-0085-8>.
78. McKinney SM, Sieniek M, Godbole V, et al. International evaluation of an AI system for breast cancer screening. *Nature* 2020;577(7788):89–94; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-019-1799-6>.
79. Wu N, Phang J, Park J, et al. Deep neural networks improve radiologists' performance in breast cancer screening. *IEEE Trans Med Imaging* 2020;39(4):1184–1194; <https://doi.org/10.1109/TMI.2019.2945514>.
80. Zhou D, Tian F, Tian X, et al. Diagnostic evaluation of a deep learning model for optical diagnosis of colorectal cancer. *Nat Commun* 2020;11(1):2961; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-16777-6>.
81. Wang P, Liu X, Berzin TM, et al. Effect of a deep-learning computer-aided detection system on adenoma detection during colonoscopy (CADE-DB trial): a double-blind randomised study. *Lancet Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2020;5(4):343–351; [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2468-1253\(19\)30411-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2468-1253(19)30411-X).
82. Gong D, Wu L, Zhang J, et al. Detection of colorectal adenomas with a real-time computer-aided system (ENDOANGEL): a randomised controlled study. *Lancet Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2020;5(4):352–361; [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2468-1253\(19\)30413-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2468-1253(19)30413-3).
83. Liu Y, Jain A, Eng C, et al. A deep learning system for differential diagnosis of skin diseases. *Nat Med* 2020;26(6):900–908; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-020-0842-3>.
84. Morgan SE, Diederer K, Vértes PE, et al. Natural Language Processing markers in first episode psychosis and people at clinical high-risk. *Transl Psychiatry* 2021;11:630; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41398-021-01722-y>.
85. Rezaei N, Walker E, Wolff P. A machine learning approach to predicting psychosis using semantic density and latent content analysis. *Npj Schizophr* 2019;5:9; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41537-019-0077-9>.
86. Roberts M, Driggs D, Thorpe M, et al. Common pitfalls and recommendations for using machine learning to detect and prognosticate for COVID-19 using chest radiographs and CT scans. *Nat Mach Intell* 2021;3(3):199–217; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s42256-021-00307-0>.
87. Eisenstein J. Introduction to natural language processing, 2019, ISBN: 978-02-6204-284-0, pp. MIT Press; 2019; pp.536.
88. Siddharthan A. A survey of research on text simplification. *ITL – Int J Appl Linguist* 2014;165(2):259–298; <https://doi.org/10.1075/itl.165.2.06sid>.
89. Mukherjee P, Leroy G, Kauchak D, et al. NegAIT: A new parser for medical text simplification using morphological, sentential and double negation. *J Biomed Inform* 2017;69:55–62; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbi.2017.03.014>.
90. Jiang C, Maddela M, Lan W, et al. Neural CRF model for sentence alignment in text simplification. *arXiv*; 2021; <https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.2005.02324>.
91. Al-Thanyyan SS, Azmi AM. Automated Text simplification: a survey. *ACM Comput Surv* 2021;54(2):43:1–43:36; <https://doi.org/10.1145/3442695>.
92. Teng F, Ma Z, Chen J, et al. Automatic medical code assignment via deep learning approach for intelligent Healthcare. *IEEE J Biomed Health Inform* 2020;24(9):2506–2515; <https://doi.org/10.1109/JBHI.2020.2996937>.
93. Smit A, Jain S, Rajpurkar P, et al. CheXbert: Combining automatic labelers and expert annotations for accurate radiology report labeling using BERT. *arXiv*; 2020; <https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.2004.09167>.
94. Chen Z, Song Y, Chang T-H, et al. Generating radiology reports via memory-driven transformer. *Arxiv*; 2022; <https://doi.org/10.16056v2>.
95. Liu H, Perl Y, Geller J. Transfer learning from BERT to support insertion of new concepts into SNOMED CT. *AMIA Annu Symp Proc AMIA Symp* 2019;2019:1129–1138.
96. Pariente JMM, Jaldon AMN, Gomez MDA, et al. Soporte a la toma de decisiones en la gestión de pacientes COVID en un servicio de urgencia hospitalaria. En: *Ecosistema de una pandemia: COVID 19, la transformación mundial*, ISBN 978-84-1377-328-5; 2021; pp. 27–51.
97. Jaldon AMN, Gomez MDA, Pardo DJS, et al. La adaptación del servicio de urgencias del adulto del hospital universitario Virgen del Rocío a la pandemia COVID-19. En: *Ecosistema de una pandemia: COVID 19, la transformación mundial*, ISBN 978-84-1377-328-5; 2021; pp. 52–67.

98. Hou Y-CC, Yu H-C, Martin R, et al. Precision medicine integrating whole-genome sequencing, comprehensive metabolomics, and advanced imaging. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 2020;117(6):3053–3062; <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1909378117>.
99. Goecks J, Jalili V, Heiser LM, et al. How Machine Learning will Transform Biomedicine. *Cell* 2020;181(1):92–101; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2020.03.022>.
100. Komorowski M, Celi LA, Badawi O, et al. The Artificial Intelligence Clinician learns optimal treatment strategies for sepsis in intensive care. *Nat Med* 2018;24(11):1716–1720; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-018-0213-5>.
101. Sverdlov O, van Dam J, Hannesdottir K, et al. Digital Therapeutics: An Integral Component of Digital Innovation in Drug Development. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 2018;104(1):72–80; <https://doi.org/10.1002/cpt.1036>.
102. Velez FF, Colman S, Kauffman L, et al. Real-world reduction in healthcare resource utilization following treatment of opioid use disorder with reSET-O, a novel prescription digital therapeutic. *Expert Rev Pharmacoecon Outcomes Res* 2021;21(1):69–76; <https://doi.org/10.1080/14737167.2021.1840357>.
103. Garcia E, Jimenez MA, De Santos PG, et al. The evolution of robotics research. *IEEE Robot Autom Mag* 2007;14(1):90–103.
104. Puyuelo-Quintana G, Cano-de-la-Cuerda R, Plaza-Flores A, et al. A new lower limb portable exoskeleton for gait assistance in neurological patients: a proof of concept study. *J NeuroEngineering Rehabil* 2020;17(1):60; <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12984-020-00690-6>.
105. Björnsson B, Borrebaeck C, Elander N, et al. Digital twins to personalize medicine. *Genome Med* 2019;12:4; <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13073-019-0701-3>.
106. Convocatoria para la concesión de ayudas para financiar proyectos del «Programa Misiones de I+D en Inteligencia Artificial 2021», en el marco de la Agenda España Digital 2025 y la Estrategia Nacional de Inteligencia Artificial | Plan de Recuperación, Transformación y Resiliencia Gobierno de España. <https://planderecuperacion.gob.es/como-acceder-a-los-fondos/convocatorias/BDNS/574421/convocatoria-para-la-concesion-de-ayudas-para-financiar-proyectos-del-programa-misiones-de-i-d-en-inteligencia-artificial-2021-en-el-marco-de-la-agenda-espana-digital-2025-y-la-estrategia-nacional-de-inteligencia-artificial> [Último acceso: 21/9/2022].
107. Schneider P, Walters WP, Plowright AT, et al. Rethinking drug design in the artificial intelligence era. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 2020;19(5):353–364; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41573-019-0050-3>.
108. Jumper J, Evans R, Pritzel A, et al. Highly accurate protein structure prediction with AlphaFold. *Nature* 2021;596(7873):583–589; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-021-03819-2>.
109. Senior AW, Evans R, Jumper J, et al. Improved protein structure prediction using potentials from deep learning. *Nature* 2020;577(7792):706–710; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-019-1923-7>.
110. Badenes-Olmedo C, Chaves-Fraga D, Poveda-Villalón M, et al. Drugs4Covid: Drug-driven knowledge exploitation based on scientific publications. *ArXiv*; 2020; <https://doi.org/ArXiv201201953>.
111. Zhu Y, Li L, Lu H, et al. Extracting drug-drug interactions from texts with BioBERT and multiple entity-aware attentions. *J Biomed Inform* 2020;106:103451; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbi.2020.103451>.
112. Global, regional, and national comparative risk assessment of 84 behavioural, environmental and occupational, and metabolic risks or clusters of risks, 1990–2016: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2016. *Lancet Lond Engl* 2017;390(10100):1345–1422; [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(17\)32366-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(17)32366-8).
113. Jiménez Zafra SM, Plaza-del-Arco FM, García Cumbreñas MÁ, et al. Monge: geographic monitor of diseases. *Proces Leng Nat* 2018;61:193–196; <https://doi.org/10.26342/2018-61-30>.
114. Huh K, Hong J, Jung J. Association of meteorological factors and atmospheric particulate matter with the incidence of pneumonia: an ecological study. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2020;26(12):1676–1683; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmi.2020.03.006>.
115. Pataki BA, Garriga J, Eritja R, et al. Deep learning identification for citizen science surveillance of tiger mosquitoes. *SciRep* 2021;11(1):4718; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-83657-4>.
116. Fdez-Arroyabe P, Fernández DS, Andrés JB. Chapter 6 Work Environment and Healthcare: A Biometeorological approach based on wearables. En: *Wearable and Implantable Medical Devices*. (Dey N, Ashour AS, James Fong S, et al. eds). *Advances in Ubiquitous Sensing Applications for Healthcare* Academic Press; 2020; pp. 141–161; <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-815369-7.00006-9>.
117. Pandit JA, Radin JM, Quer G, et al. Smartphone apps in the COVID-19 pandemic. *Nat Biotechnol* 2022; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41587-022-01350-x>.
118. Serrano E, del Pozo-Jiménez P, Suárez-Figueroa MC, et al. Predicting the risk of suffering chronic social exclusion with machine learning. En: *Distributed Computing and Artificial Intelligence, 14th International Conference*. (Omatu S, Rodríguez S, Villarrubia G, et al. eds). *Advances in Intelligent Systems and Computing* Springer International Publishing: Cham; 2018; pp. 132–139; [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-62410-5\\_16](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-62410-5_16).
119. Jefatura del Estado. Ley 33/2011, de 4 de Octubre, General de Salud Pública. 2011.
120. Ministerio de Sanidad, Ministerio de Transición Ecológica. Plan Estratégico de Salud y Medio Ambiente. 2021.
121. Marcus JL, Sewell WC, Balzer LB, et al. Artificial intelligence and machine learning for HIV prevention: emerging approaches to ending the epidemic. *Curr HIV/AIDS Rep* 2020;17(3):171–179; <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11904-020-00490-6>.
122. Abdeldayem OM, Dabbish AM, Habashy MM, et al. Viral outbreaks detection and surveillance using wastewater-based epidemiology, viral air sampling, and machine learning techniques: A comprehensive review and outlook. *Sci Total Environ* 2022;803:149834; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2021.149834>.
123. Gadaleta M, Radin JM, Baca-Motes K, et al. Passive detection of COVID-19 with wearable sensors and explainable machine learning algorithms. *Npj Digit Med* 2021;4(1):1–10; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41746-021-00533-1>.
124. Lozano MA, Orts ÒG i., Piñol E, et al. Open data science to fight COVID-19: winning the 500k XPRIZE pandemic response challenge. En: *Machine learning and knowledge discovery in databases. Applied data science track*. (Dong Y, Kourtellis N, Hammer B, et al. eds). *Lecture Notes in Computer Science* Springer International Publishing: Cham; 2021; pp. 384–399; [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-86514-6\\_24](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-86514-6_24).

125. Colizza V, Grill E, Mikolajczyk R, et al. Time to evaluate COVID-19 contact-tracing apps. *Nat Med* 2021;27(3):361-362; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-021-01236-6>.
126. Oliver N, Barber X, Roomp K, et al. Assessing the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic in Spain: large-scale, online, self-reported population survey. *J Med Internet Res* 2020;22(9):e21319; <https://doi.org/10.2196/21319>.
127. Eritja R, Delacour-Estrella S, Ruiz-Arrondo I, et al. At the tip of an iceberg: citizen science and active surveillance collaborating to broaden the known distribution of *Aedes japonicus* in Spain. *Parasit Vectors* 2021;14(1):375; <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13071-021-04874-4>.
128. European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control. Mosquito-borne diseases. <https://www.ecdc.europa.eu/en/mosquito-borne-diseases> [Último acceso: 15/9/2022].
129. Barzon L. Ongoing and emerging arbovirus threats in Europe. *J Clin Virol Off Publ Pan Am Soc Clin Virol* 2018;107:38-47; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcv.2018.08.007>.
130. #MosquitoAlertBCN. Mapa basado En datos ciudadanos del riesgo de presencia de mosquito tigre en Barcelona a escala diaria y resolución de 20 Metros, usado por la Agencia de Salud Pública de Barcelona (ASPB) para gestionar y realizar el control de sus poblaciones. <https://mosquito-alert.github.io/MosquitoAlertBCN> [Último acceso: 27/6/2022].
131. Palmer JRB, Oltra A, Collantes F, et al. Citizen science provides a reliable and scalable tool to track disease-carrying mosquitoes. *Nat Commun* 2017;8(1):916; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-017-00914-9>.
132. Plaza-del-Arco FM, Molina-González MD, Ureña-López LA, et al. Comparing pre-trained language models for Spanish hate speech detection. *Expert Syst Appl* 2021;166:114120; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2020.114120>.
133. Bathina KC, ten Thij M, Lorenzo-Luaces L, et al. Individuals with depression express more distorted thinking on social media. *Nat Hum Behav* 2021;5(4):458-466; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41562-021-01050-7>.
134. Sükei E, Norbury A, Perez-Rodriguez MM, et al. Predicting emotional states using behavioral markers derived from passively sensed data: data-driven machine learning approach. *JMIR MHealth UHealth* 2021;9(3):e24465; <https://doi.org/10.2196/24465>.
135. Berrouiguet S, Barrigón ML, Castroman JL, et al. Combining mobile-health (mHealth) and artificial intelligence (AI) methods to avoid suicide attempts: the Smartcrises study protocol. *BMC Psychiatry* 2019;19(1):277; <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12888-019-2260-y>.
136. Martín-Sánchez F, Bellazzi R, Casella V, et al. Progress in characterizing the human Exposome: a key step for precision medicine. *Yearb Med Inform* 2020;29(01):115-120.
137. Atienza-Maderuelo M, Collado P, Martín-Sánchez F. Generating data models to manage individual information related to environmental risk factors and social determinants of health. En: *Health Information Science*. (Siuly S, Wang H, Chen L, et al. eds). Lecture Notes in Computer Science Springer International Publishing: Cham; 2021; pp. 234-244; [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-90885-0\\_21](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-90885-0_21).
138. Vermeulen R, Schymanski EL, Barabási A-L, et al. The exposome and health: where chemistry meets biology. *Science* 2020;367(6476):392-396; <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aay3164>.
139. Dunn J, Kidzinski L, Runge R, et al. Wearable sensors enable personalized predictions of clinical laboratory measurements. *Nat Med* 2021;27(6):1105-1112; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-021-01339-0>.
140. He J, Baxter SL, Xu J, et al. The practical implementation of artificial intelligence technologies in medicine. *Nat Med* 2019;25(1):30-36; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-018-0307-0>.
141. OECD. Trustworthy artificial intelligence in health. 2020.
142. Challen R, Denny J, Pitt M, et al. Artificial intelligence, bias and clinical safety. *BMJ Qual Saf* 2019;28(3):231-237; <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjqs-2018-008370>.
143. Martí-Bonmatí L, Cerdá-Alberich L, Pérez-Girbés A, et al. Pancreatic cancer, radiomics and artificial intelligence. *Br J Radiol* 2022;20220072; <https://doi.org/10.1259/bjr.20220072>.
144. Shaw J, Rudzicz F, Jamieson T, et al. Artificial Intelligence and the Implementation Challenge. *J Med Internet Res* 2019;21(7):e13659; <https://doi.org/10.2196/13659>.
145. Fjeld J, Achten N, Hilligoss H, et al. Principled Artificial Intelligence: Mapping consensus in ethical and rights-based approaches to principles for AI. *SSRN Electron J* 2020; <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3518482>.
146. Leslie D, Mazumder A, Peppin A, et al. Does "AI" stand for augmenting inequality in the era of covid-19 healthcare? *The BMJ* 2021;372:n304; <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.n304>.
147. Degli-Esposti S, Arroyo D. Trustworthy humans and machines: vulnerable trustors and the need for trustee competence, integrity, and benevolence in digital systems. En: *Trust and Transparency in an Age of Surveillance*; Routledge; 2021.
148. Yusuf M, Atal I, Li J, et al. Reporting quality of studies using machine learning models for medical diagnosis: a systematic review. *BMJ Open* 2020;10(3):e034568; <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2019-034568>.
149. Reddy S, Rogers W, Makinen V-P, et al. Evaluation framework to guide implementation of AI systems into healthcare settings. *BMJ Health Care Inform* 2021;28(1):e100444; <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjhci-2021-100444>.
150. Arroyo-Guardeño D, Brox-Jiménez P. Challenge 8. Smart cybersecurity. En: *Volume 11. Artificial Intelligence, Robotics & Data Science. CSIC Scientific Challenges: Towards 2030*. Editorial CSIC: España.
151. Eiroa D, Antolín A, Fernández Del Castillo Ascanio M, et al. The current state of knowledge on imaging informatics: a survey among Spanish radiologists. *Insights Imaging* 2022;13(1):34; <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13244-022-01164-0>.
152. Lepri B, Oliver N, Letouze EF, et al. Fair, Transparent, and Accountable Algorithmic Decision-making Processes. Springer Neth 2018.
153. Suján M, Furniss D, Grundy K, et al. Human factors challenges for the safe use of artificial intelligence in patient care. *BMJ Health Care Inform* 2019;26(1):e100081; <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjhci-2019-100081>.
154. Young AT, Amara D, Bhattacharya A, et al. Patient and general public attitudes towards clinical artificial intelligence: a mixed methods systematic review. *Lancet Digit Health* 2021;3(9):e599-e611; [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2589-7500\(21\)00132-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2589-7500(21)00132-1).

155. Scott IA, Carter SM, Coiera E. Exploring stakeholder attitudes towards AI in clinical practice. *BMJ Health Care Inform* 2021;28(1):e100450; <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjhci-2021-100450>.
156. Miller DD, Brown EW. Artificial intelligence in medical practice: the question to the answer? *Am J Med* 2018;131(2):129–133; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amjmed.2017.10.035>.
157. Marti-Bonmati L, Koh D-M, Riklund K, et al. Considerations for artificial intelligence clinical impact in oncologic imaging: an AI4HI position paper. *Insights Imaging* 2022;13(1):89; <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13244-022-01220-9>.
158. Nsoesie EO. Evaluating artificial intelligence applications in clinical settings. *JAMA Netw Open* 2018;1(5):e182658; <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2018.2658>.
159. Coiera E. The Last Mile: Where artificial intelligence meets reality. *J Med Internet Res* 2019;21(11):e16323; <https://doi.org/10.2196/16323>.
160. Wiens J, Saria S, Sendak M, et al. Do no harm: a roadmap for responsible machine learning for health care. *Nat Med* 2019;25(9):1337–1340; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-019-0548-6>.
161. Storey VC, Lukyanenko R, Maass W, et al. Explainable AI. *Commun ACM* 2022;65(4):27–29; <https://doi.org/10.1145/3490699>.
162. Amann J, Blasimme A, Vayena E, et al. Explainability for artificial intelligence in healthcare: a multidisciplinary perspective. *BMC Med Inform Decis Mak* 2020;20(1):310; <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12911-020-01332-6>.
163. Díaz-Rodríguez N, Lamas A, Sanchez J, et al. EXplainable Neural-Symbolic Learning (X-NeSyL) methodology to fuse deep learning representations with expert knowledge graphs: The MonuMAI cultural heritage use case. *Inf Fusion* 2022;79:58–83; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.inffus.2021.09.022>.
164. Ghassemi M, Oakden-Rayner L, Beam AL. The false hope of current approaches to explainable artificial intelligence in health care. *Lancet Digit Health* 2021;3(11):e745–e750; [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2589-7500\(21\)00208-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2589-7500(21)00208-9).
165. Reddy S. Explainability and artificial intelligence in medicine. *Lancet Digit Health* 2022;4(4):e214–e215; [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2589-7500\(22\)00029-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2589-7500(22)00029-2).
166. Ibrahim H, Liu X, Zariffa N, et al. Health data poverty: an assailable barrier to equitable digital health care. *Lancet Digit Health* 2021;3(4):e260–e265; [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2589-7500\(20\)30317-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2589-7500(20)30317-4).
167. West SM, Whittaker M, Crawford K. Discriminating Systems: Gender, Race and Power in AI. AI Now Institute. 2019.
168. Buster KJ, Stevens EI, Elmets CA. Dermatologic health disparities. *Dermatol Clin* 2012;30(1):53–viii; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.det.2011.08.002>.
169. Obermeyer Z, Powers B, Vogeli C, et al. Dissecting racial bias in an algorithm used to manage the health of populations. *Science* 2019;366(6464):447–453; <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aax2342>.
170. Fry A, Littlejohns TJ, Sudlow C, et al. Comparison of sociodemographic and health-related characteristics of UK biobank participants with those of the general population. *Am J Epidemiol* 2017;186(9):1026–1034; <https://doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwx246>.
171. Kaushal A, Altman R, Langlotz C. Geographic Distribution of US cohorts used to train deep learning algorithms. *JAMA* 2020;324(12):1212–1213; <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.12067>.
172. Tomašev N, Glorot X, Rae JW, et al. A clinically applicable approach to continuous prediction of future acute kidney injury. *Nature* 2019;572(7767):116–119; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-019-1390-1>.
173. Valls Llobet C. Mujeres invisibles para la medicina. 1ª. Capitán Swing; 2021.
174. Norori N, Hu Q, Aellen FM, et al. Addressing bias in big data and AI for health care: A call for open science. *Patterns* 2021;2(10):100347; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.patter.2021.100347>.
175. Selbst AD, Boyd D, Friedler SA, et al. Fairness and abstraction in sociotechnical systems. En: Proceedings of the Conference on Fairness, Accountability, and Transparency. FAT\* '19 Association for Computing Machinery: New York, NY, USA; 2019; pp. 59–68; <https://doi.org/10.1145/3287560.3287598>.
176. Hekler EB, Klasnja P, Chevance G, et al. Why we need a small data paradigm. *BMC Med* 2019;17(1):133; <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12916-019-1366-x>.
177. Brown TB, Mann B, Ryder N, et al. Language models are few-Shot learners. *ArXiv*; 2020; <https://doi.org/ArXiv200514165>.
178. Sun Q, Liu Y, Chua T-S, et al. Meta-transfer learning for few-Shot Learning. 2019; pp. 403–412.
179. Chen RJ, Lu MY, Chen TY, et al. Synthetic data in machine learning for medicine and healthcare. *Nat Biomed Eng* 2021;5(6):493–497; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41551-021-00751-8>.
180. Norgaard S, Saeedi R, Sasani K, et al. Synthetic sensor data generation for health applications: a supervised deep learning approach. En: 2018 40th Annual International Conference of the IEEE Engineering in Medicine and Biology Society (EMBC) 2018; pp. 1164–1167; <https://doi.org/10.1109/EMBC.2018.8512470>.
181. CCN-CERT. Centro Criptológico Nacional. Ministerio de Defensa. Gobierno de España. Ciberamenazas y Tendencias. Edición 2021. 2021.
182. Oficina de Ciencia y Tecnología del Congreso de los Diputados (Oficina C). Informe C: Ciberseguridad. 2022; <https://doi.org/10.57952/c8hy-6c31>.
183. Joint Research Centre (European Commission). Artificial intelligence in medicine and healthcare: applications, availability and societal impact. Publications Office: LU; 2020.
184. Finlayson SG, Bowers JD, Ito J, et al. Adversarial attacks on medical machine learning. *Science* 2019;363(6433):1287–1289; <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aaw4399>.
185. Han X, Hu Y, Foschini L, et al. Deep learning models for electrocardiograms are susceptible to adversarial attack. *Nat Med* 2020;26(3):360–363; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-020-0791-x>.
186. Ma X, Niu Y, Gu L, et al. Understanding adversarial attacks on deep learning based medical image analysis systems. *Pattern Recognit* 2021;110:107332; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.patcog.2020.107332>.
187. Reddy S, Fox J, Purohit MP. Artificial intelligence-enabled healthcare delivery. *J R Soc Med* 2019;112(1):22–28; <https://doi.org/10.1177/0141076818815510>.

188. Smith H, Fotheringham K. Artificial intelligence in clinical decision-making: Rethinking liability. *Med Law Int* 2020;20(2):131–154; <https://doi.org/10.1177/0968533220945766>.
189. Koch BA, Borghetti J-S, Machnikowski P, et al. Response of the European Law Institute to the Public Consultation on Civil Liability – Adapting liability rules to the digital age and artificial intelligence. *J Eur Tort Law* 2022;13(1):25–63; <https://doi.org/10.1515/jetl-2022-0002>.
190. Smith H. Clinical AI: opacity, accountability, responsibility and liability. *AI Soc* 2021;36(2):535–545; <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00146-020-01019-6>.
191. Rodríguez de las Heras Ballell T. Legal challenges of artificial intelligence: modelling the disruptive features of emerging technologies and assessing their possible legal impact. *Unif Law Rev* 2019;24(2):302–314; <https://doi.org/10.1093/ulr/unz018>.
192. European Commission Expert Group on Liability and New Technologies – New Technologies Formation. Liability for artificial intelligence and other emerging digital technologies. 2019.
193. European Commission. COM (2022) 495 – Proposal for a Directive of the European Parliament and of the Council on liability for defective products. Brussels; 2022.
194. European Commission. COM (2022) 496 – Proposal for a Directive of the European Parliament and of the Council on adapting non-contractual civil liability rules to artificial intelligence (AI Liability Directive). Brussels; 2022.
195. Sidey-Gibbons JAM, Sidey-Gibbons CJ. Machine learning in medicine: a practical introduction. *BMC Med Res Methodol* 2019;19(1):64; <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12874-019-0681-4>.
196. Corcho Ó, Simperl E. Data.Europa.Eu and the European common data spaces. A Report on challenges and opportunities. Publications Office of the European Union; 2022.
197. Reglamento (UE) 2016/679 del Parlamento Europeo y del Consejo de 27 de abril de 2016 relativo a la protección de las personas físicas en lo que respecta al tratamiento de datos personales y a la libre circulación de estos datos y por el que se deroga la Directiva 95/46/CE (Reglamento general de protección de datos). Texto pertinente a efectos del EEE. 2016.
198. Kostera T. #SmartHealthSystems – Digital Health: Europe is moving at different speeds. <https://www.bertelsmann-stiftung.de/en/our-projects/the-digital-patient/project-news/smarthealthsystems> [Último acceso: 23/5/2022].
199. Empirica, Open Evidence. eHealth, interoperability of health data and artificial intelligence for health and care in the EU. Lot 1 – Interoperability of Electronic Health Records in the EU (SMART 2019/OO56). 2019.
200. Sinaci AA, Núñez-Benjumea FJ, Gencturk M, et al. From raw data to FAIR Data: The FAIRification workflow for health research. *Methods Inf Med* 2020;59(S 1):e21–e32; <https://doi.org/10.1055/s-0040-1713684>.
201. Instituto de Información Sanitaria, Agencia de Calidad del Sistema Nacional de Salud (SNS). El sistema de historia clínica digital del SNS. Sin año.
202. ISCIII, Ministerio de Ciencia e Innovación. Infraestructura de Medicina de Precisión Asociada a La Ciencia y La Tecnología (IMPACT). Plan Estratégico. 2021.
203. Spanish Network of Cancer Registries (Redecan). <https://redecan.org/en> [Último acceso: 6/10/2022].
204. Mons B, Neylon C, Velterop J, et al. Cloudy, increasingly FAIR; revisiting the FAIR Data guiding principles for the European Open Science Cloud. *Inf Serv Use* 2017;37(1):49–56; <https://doi.org/10.3233/ISU-170824>.
205. Carmona-Pérez J, Poblador-Plou B, Poncel-Falcó A, et al. Applying the FAIR4Health solution to identify multimorbidity patterns and their association with mortality through a frequent pattern growth association algorithm. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 2022;19(4):2040; <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19042040>.
206. Gianfrancesco MA, Tamang S, Yazdany J, et al. Potential biases in machine learning algorithms using Electronic Health Record data. *JAMA Intern Med* 2018;178(11):1544–1547; <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamainternmed.2018.3763>.
207. Stanford University. AI Index annual report. 2018.
208. Blasi D, Anastasopoulos A, Neubig G. Systematic Inequalities in language technology performance across the world's Languages. En: Proceedings of the 60th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long papers) Association for Computational Linguistics: Dublin, Ireland; 2022; pp. 5486–5505; <https://doi.org/10.18653/v1/2022.acl-long.376>.
209. Penagos CR, Armentano-Oller C, Villegas M, et al. The Catalan Language CLUB. *CoRR* 2021; <https://arxiv.org/abs/2112.01894>.
210. Generalitat de Catalunya. CATALONIA.AI. L'Estrategia d'Intel·ligència artificial de Catalunya. 2020.
211. AINA. <http://smartcatalonia.gencat.cat/en/projectes/tecnologies/details/article/AINA> [Último acceso: 19/9/2022].
212. De-Dios-Flores I, Magariños C, Vladu AI, et al. The Nós project: Opening routes for the Galician language in the field of language technologies. European Language Resources Association (ELRA): Marseille; 2022 <https://aclanthology.org/2022.tdle-1.6>.
213. Gobierno Vasco. GAITU. Plan de Acción de Las Tecnologías de La Lengua 2021-2024. 2021.
214. Reglamento (UE) 2016/679 del Parlamento Europeo y del Consejo de 27 de abril de 2016 relativo a la protección de las personas físicas en lo que respecta al tratamiento de datos personales y a la libre circulación de esos datos y por el que se deroga la Directiva 95/46 CE (Reglamento general de protección de datos) (Texto pertinente a efectos del EEE). 2016.
215. BOE. Ley Orgánica 3/2018, de 5 de Diciembre, de Protección de Datos Personales y Garantía de Los Derechos Digitales. 2018.
216. European Union Agency for Network and Information Security (ENISA). Privacy by design in big data. An overview of privacy enhancing technologies in the era of big data analytics. ENISA 2015; <https://doi.org/10.2824/641480>.
217. EITH Think Tank. Healthcare workforce and organisational transformation with AI – Enacting change. Think tank round table meeting proceedings (Spain). EIT Health; 2020.
218. Veale M, Binns R, Edwards L. Algorithms that remember: model inversion attacks and data protection law. *Philos Trans R Soc Math Phys Eng Sci* 2018;376(2133):20180083; <https://doi.org/10.1098/rsta.2018.0083>.
219. GDPR.EU. Recital 35: health data. <https://gdpr.eu/recital-35-health-data/>.
220. Abadi M, Chu A, Goodfellow I, et al. Deep learning with differential privacy. En: Proceedings of the 2016 ACM SIGSAC Conference on Computer and Communications Security 2016; pp. 308–318; <https://doi.org/10.1145/2976749.2978318>.



221. Murugadoss K, Rajasekharan A, Malin B, et al. Building a best-in-class automated de-identification tool for electronic health records through ensemble learning. *Patterns* 2021;2(6):100255; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.patter.2021.100255>.
222. Mandel JC, Kreda DA, Mandl KD, et al. SMART on FHIR: a standards-based, interoperable apps platform for electronic health records. *J Am Med Inform Assoc JAMIA* 2016;23(5):899–908; <https://doi.org/10.1093/jamia/ocv189>.
223. NCBO. BioPortal. 2005. <https://bioportal.bioontology.org/> [Último acceso: 24/8/2022].
224. EMBL-EBI. Ontology Lookup Service. 2022. <https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ols/index> [Último acceso: 24/8/2022].
225. Pedrera-Jiménez M, Spanish expert group on EHR standards, Kalra D, et al. Can OpenEHR, ISO 13606 and HL7 FHIR work together? An agnostic perspective for the selection and application of EHR standards from Spain. 2022; <https://doi.org/10.36227/techrxiv.19746484.v1>.
226. Dickinson G. ISO 13606/ISO 13940/ FHIR Implementation Guide - Electronic Health Records - Confluence. 2022. <https://confluence.hl7.org/pages/viewpage.action?pageId=94634291>.
227. Gobierno de España. Estrategia Nacional de Inteligencia Artificial (ENIA). 2020.
228. Gobierno de España. Plan de Recuperación, Transformación y Resiliencia. Componente 18. Renovación y ampliación de las capacidades del Sistema Nacional de Salud. 2021.
229. European Commission. European Health Data Space #EUDigitalHealth Fact Sheet. 2022.
230. Directiva (UE) 2016/1148 del Parlamento Europeo y del Consejo de 6 de julio de 2016 relativa a las medidas destinadas a garantizar un elevado nivel común de seguridad de las redes y sistemas de información de la Unión. 2016.
231. Directorate General for Communication (European Commission). Ley de Datos: itinerario hacia la década digital. Publications Office: LU; 2022.
232. Propuesta de reglamento del parlamento europeo y del consejo sobre normas armonizadas para un acceso justo a los datos y su utilización (Ley de Datos). 2022.
233. Language Data Space call for tenders | Shaping Europe's digital future. <https://digital-strategy.ec.europa.eu/en/funding/language-data-space-call-tenders> [Último acceso: 22/9/2022].
234. Bonawitz K, Eichner H, Grieskamp W, et al. Towards federated learning at scale: System Design. *Proc 2nd SysML Conf* 2019.
235. McMahan B, Ramage D. Federated learning: collaborative machine learning without centralized training data. 2017. <http://ai.googleblog.com/2017/04/federated-learning-collaborative.html> [Último acceso: 27/5/2022].
236. Warnat-Herresthal S, Schultze H, Shastry KL, et al. Swarm learning for decentralized and confidential clinical machine learning. *Nature* 2021;594(7862):265–270; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-021-03583-3>.
237. Kaissis G, Ziller A, Passerat-Palmbach J, et al. End-to-end privacy preserving deep learning on multi-institutional medical imaging. *Nat Mach Intell* 2021;3(6):473–484; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s42256-021-00337-8>.
238. Salem M, Taheri S, Yuan J-S. Utilizing transfer learning and homomorphic encryption in a privacy preserving and secure biometric recognition system. *Computers* 2019;8(1):3; <https://doi.org/10.3390/computers8010003>.
239. Ma C, Li J, Ding M, et al. On safeguarding privacy and security in the framework of federated learning. *IEEE Netw* 2020;34(4):242–248; <https://doi.org/10.1109/MNET.001.1900506>.
240. Reglamento (UE) 2017/745 del Parlamento Europeo y del Consejo de 5 de abril de 2017 sobre los productos sanitarios, por el que se modifican la Directiva 2001/83/CE, el Reglamento (CE) nº 178/2002 y el reglamento (CE) nº 1223/2009 y por el que se derogan las Directivas 90/385/CEE y 93/42/CEE del Consejo (Texto pertinente a efectos del EEE). 2017.
241. Vivanco-Hidalgo RM, Blanco-Silvente L. Generació d'evidència amb dades del món real en l'avaluació de tecnologies sanitàries: guia metodològica. *Scientia* 2022.
242. Propuesta de Reglamento del Parlamento Europeo y del Consejo por el que se establecen normas armonizadas en materia de inteligencia artificial (Ley de Inteligencia Artificial) y se modifican determinados actos legislativos de la Unión. 2021.
243. Jefatura del Estado. Ley 22/2021, de 28 de Diciembre, de Presupuestos Generales del Estado para el año 2022.
244. Ministerio de Economía y Transformación Digital, Comisión Europea. Spain proposes to Pilot an artificial intelligence sandbox to implement responsible AI with a human-centric approach. 2022.
245. Leckenby E, Dawoud D, Bouvy J, et al. The Sandbox Approach and its Potential for use in health technology assessment: a literature review. *Appl Health Econ Health Policy* 2021;19(6):857–869; <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40258-021-00665-1>.
246. Ministerio de Sanidad y Consumo. Orden SCO/3422/2007, de 21 de Noviembre, por la que se desarrolla el procedimiento de actualización de la cartera de servicios comunes del Sistema Nacional de Salud. 2007.
247. Reglamento (UE) 2021/2283 del Parlamento Europeo y del Consejo de 15 de diciembre de 2021 sobre evaluación de las tecnologías sanitarias y por el que se modifica la Directiva 2011/24/UE (Texto pertinente a efectos del EEE). 2021.
248. Ministerio de Política Territorial y Función Pública. Real Decreto 735/2020, de 4 de Agosto, por el que se desarrolla la estructura orgánica básica del Ministerio de Sanidad, y se modifica el real decreto 139/2020, de 28 de Enero, por el que se establece la estructura orgánica básica de los departamentos ministeriales. 2020.
249. Janet PR, Leonor V-L, María Auxiliadora CM, et al. Guía para la elaboración y adaptación de informes rápidos de evaluación de tecnologías sanitarias. *Avalia-t*. ed. 2016;152.
250. Segur-Ferrer J, Moltó-Puigmartí C, Pastells-Peiró R, et al. Methodological frameworks and dimensions to be taken into consideration in digital health technology assessment: protocol for a scoping review. *JMIR Res Protoc* 2022;39905 <https://doi.org/10.2196/39905> (aceptado).
251. Park Y, Jackson GP, Foreman MA, et al. Evaluating artificial intelligence in medicine: phases of clinical research. *JAMIA Open* 2020;3(3):326–331; <https://doi.org/10.1093/jamiaopen/ooaa033>.

252. Gov UK. Deliverable 1: Principles for the evaluation of artificial intelligence or machine learning-enabled medical devices to assure safety, effectiveness and ethicality. 2021.
253. European Commission. European citizens' knowledge and attitudes towards science and technology, Special Eurobarometer. 2021.
254. Meskó B, Hetényi G, Györffy Z. Will artificial intelligence solve the human resource crisis in healthcare? *BMC Health Serv Res* 2018;18(1):545; <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12913-018-3359-4>.
255. Keane PA, Topol EJ. AI-facilitated health care requires education of clinicians. *The Lancet* 2021;397(10281):1254; [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(21\)00722-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(21)00722-4).
256. Universidad Politécnica de Madrid (UPM). Master on artificial intelligence for public services (AI4Gov). 2022. <https://ai4gov-master.eu/> [Último acceso: 31/5/2022].
257. Flotte TJ, Bell DA. Anatomical pathology is at a crossroads. *Pathology (Phila)* 2018;50(4):373–374; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pathol.2018.01.003>.
258. Dietz RL, Pantanowitz L. The future of anatomic pathology: deus ex machina? *J Med Artif Intell* 2019;2(0). <http://doi.org/10.21037/jimai.2019.02.03>.
259. Tolan S, Pesole A, Martínez-Plumed F, et al. Measuring the occupational impact of AI: tasks, cognitive abilities and AI benchmarks. *J Artif Intell Res* 2021;71:191–236; <https://doi.org/10.1613/jair.112647>.
260. Loveys K, Prina M, Axford C, et al. Artificial intelligence for older people receiving long-term care: a systematic review of acceptability and effectiveness studies. *Lancet Healthy Longev* 2022;3(4):e286–e297; [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2666-7568\(22\)00034-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2666-7568(22)00034-4).
261. AI-Edresee T. Physician acceptance of machine learning for diagnostic purposes: caution, bumpy road ahead! *Stud Health Technol Inform* 2022;295:83–86; <https://doi.org/10.3233/SHTI220666>.
262. Stone P, Brooks R, Brynjolfsson E, et al. Artificial intelligence and life in 2030: the one hundred year study on artificial intelligence. Report. Stanford University; 2016.
263. Zhang D, Maslej N, Brynjolfsson E, et al. The AI Index 2022 annual report. AI Index Steering Committee, Stanford Institute for Human-Centered AI, Stanford University; 2022.
264. Autoridad Independiente de Responsabilidad Fiscal (AIReF). Actualización de previsiones demográficas y de gasto en pensiones (documento técnico). 2020.
265. Instituto Nacional de Estadística (INE). Proyecciones de población 2020–2070 (nota de prensa). 2020.
266. Secretaría General para el Reto Demográfico. Proyecciones población del Instituto Nacional de Estadística y previsiones demográficas de la Autoridad Independiente de Responsabilidad Fiscal. 2020.
267. Grubanov-Boskovic S, Ghio D, Goujon A, et al. Healthcare and long-term care workforce: demographic challenges and potential contribution of migration and digital technology. EUR 30593. Publications Office of the European Union: Luxembourg; 2021; <https://doi.org/10.2760/234530, JRC121698>.
268. McDonald RJ, Schwartz KM, Eckel LJ, et al. The effects of changes in utilization and technological advancements of cross-sectional imaging on radiologist workload. *Acad Radiol* 2015;22(9):1191–1198; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.acra.2015.05.007>.
269. Fasola J, Matarić MJ. A socially assistive robot exercise coach for the elderly. *J Hum-Robot Interact* 2013;2(2):3–32; <https://doi.org/10.5898/JHRI.2.2.Fasola>.
270. Okamura AM, Matarić MJ, Christensen HI. Medical and health-care robotics. *IEEE Robot Autom Mag* 2010;17(3):26–37; <https://doi.org/10.1109/MRA.2010.937861>.