

Review

Evaluation framework for conversational agents with artificial intelligence in health interventions: a systematic scoping review

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Abstract

Objectives: Conversational agents (CAs) with emerging artificial intelligence present new opportunities to assist in health interventions but are difficult to evaluate, deterring their applications in the real world. We aimed to synthesize existing evidence and knowledge and outline an evaluation framework for CA interventions.

Materials and Methods: We conducted a systematic scoping review to investigate designs and outcome measures used in the studies that evaluated CAs for health interventions. We then nested the results into an overarching digital health framework proposed by the World Health Organization (WHO).

Results: The review included 81 studies evaluating CAs in experimental ($n=59$), observational ($n=15$) trials, and other research designs ($n=7$). Most studies ($n=72$, 89%) were published in the past 5 years. The proposed CA-evaluation framework includes 4 evaluation stages: (1) feasibility/usability, (2) efficacy, (3) effectiveness, and (4) implementation, aligning with WHO's stepwise evaluation strategy. Across these stages, this article presents the essential evidence of different study designs ($n=8$), sample sizes, and main evaluation categories ($n=7$) with subcategories ($n=40$). The main evaluation categories included (1) functionality, (2) safety and information quality, (3) user experience, (4) clinical and health outcomes, (5) costs and cost benefits, (6) usage, adherence, and uptake, and (7) user characteristics for implementation research. Furthermore, the framework highlighted the essential evaluation areas (potential primary outcomes) and gaps across the evaluation stages.

Discussion and Conclusion: This review presents a new framework with practical design details to support the evaluation of CA interventions in healthcare research.

Protocol registration: The Open Science Framework (<https://osf.io/9hq2v>) on March 22, 2021.

Key words: chatbot; conversational agent; virtual assistant; healthcare; evaluation; systematic review.

Introduction

Conversational agents (CAs), also known as chatbots or virtual assistants, are software programs that are designed to imitate human conversations.^{1,2} Over the past decade, CA technologies and applications have advanced rapidly with emerging artificial intelligence (AI)³ including natural language processing⁴ and machine learning.⁵ Several CA applications have already become popular tools in our daily lives, such as ChatGPT,⁶ Google Bard,⁷ Siri, Google Assistant, and Alexa.⁸

With recent advances, CAs present new opportunities to assist in delivering health interventions.^{9,10} For example, researchers have proposed CA-enabled programs in hospitals to provide surgery information,¹¹ patient triage,¹² inpatient care,¹³ and post-discharge follow-ups.¹⁴ Many CA programs have also been studied in community care to improve health

education,^{15–18} mental health,^{19–24} and the self-management of chronic diseases.^{25–27} To combat the COVID-19 pandemic, several large national and international health organizations including the World Health Organization (WHO)²⁸ have implemented CA applications²⁹ to assist in delivering timely health information²⁸ or screening the symptoms for early interventions.^{28,30,31}

To use CAs in healthcare, rigorous evaluations are essential.^{32,33} Conversations in CAs are usually controlled by AI. The use of AI is often associated with poor transparency (known as “the black box effect”) because AI-based control mechanisms are normally complex and cannot be well explained.^{33,34} A lack of transparency has been the leading concern for using AI-based applications in healthcare.^{35,36} In addition, AI studies are often associated with various limitations (or unforeseeable errors) such as ineffective model

designs, insufficient prior knowledge base, inadequate training data, or inappropriate training processes.^{33,37} Because of these limitations, AI-based systems sometimes fail to function as expected.^{3,33} The failures often result in poor user experience, low adherence and uptake, ineffective health outcomes, inappropriate care advice, or even unintended harm.³ These issues have recently been highlighted.^{8,33,38–40} Therefore, rigorous clinical evaluations are essential for understanding CA performance,⁴¹ preventing potential risks,³ and, ultimately, achieving safe, effective, and sustainable interventions in healthcare.^{35,36,41} However, effective evaluation of CAs, involving various design methods and strategies, is often complex and challenging.⁴¹ Existing reviews on CA evaluations are limited to a narrow scope, such as technical metrics,^{42–44} or simple method descriptions without systematic investigations.^{45,46} To support CA evaluations, a comprehensive evaluation framework is needed^{47–50} but remains absent.

The objective of the review is to synthesize existing CA evaluation methods and outline an evaluation framework for supporting future CA evaluation studies. We conducted this scoping review to extract the study designs and outcome measures of health-related CA studies. We then categorized the nested data according to an overarching digital health framework by WHO.⁵¹ We finally discussed the findings and knowledge gaps in CA evaluations.

Methods

We conducted the scoping review in accordance with the PRISMA Extension for Scoping Reviews (PRISMA-ScR).⁵² Our protocol was prospectively registered in the Open Science Framework on March 22, 2021.⁵³ We selected the scoping review approach because it allowed us to explore and synthesize complex and diverse evidence in the literature.⁵⁴

Selection criteria

We designed the selection criteria (Table 1) focusing on peer-reviewed journal articles. The review only included the CAs that allowed users to talk or chat in a natural language without any constraints (unconstrained CA).⁴⁶ In contrast, some CAs only allowed users to enter predefined text messages, such as answering “Yes” or “No,” or select options via forms, menus, or buttons (or *in situ*⁵⁵). We excluded constrained CAs because their conversations and AI functions are often limited.

Table 1. The inclusion and exclusion criteria.

| Inclusion criteria | Exclusion criteria |
|--|--|
| At least one objective of the study was to evaluate CA intervention(s), including CA applications, healthcare modes, or programs. | The CA in the study was only one function of a robot, robotic toy, virtual reality, or game-based application and its conversational function was not evaluated independently. |
| The CA was unconstrained, allowing users to enter text-based messages or conduct voice-based conversations. | The CA mainly sent messages/notifications, asked users to enter data entries, or conversed through predefined responses (buttons, menus, yes, no, etc.) |
| The evaluation was relevant to primary, secondary, or tertiary prevention of disease or health issues. | The CA application was designed to provide education, training, or knowledge/skill assessments to healthcare providers and/or students. |
| The evaluation was based on the analysis of data from humans, including testers, participants recruited, or people using the intervention in the real world. | The study was mainly based on AI training data or an exploratory survey to investigate the preferences/perceptions of a CA application. |
| The article was published in a peer-reviewed journal in the English language. | The study only reported preliminary analysis outcomes, normally in conferences or communications. |

Search strategy

We searched five databases: CINAHL, Medline via Ovid, Scopus, Embase, and IEEE Xplore, using a search strategy with variants and combinations of search terms relevant to CAs and health interventions (Appendix S1). We included articles published in English from the inception of the databases to January 13, 2021. In addition to the database searches, we also manually identified articles from existing systematic reviews in the CA research field.^{9,42–46,56}

Data extraction

We used EndNote (Ver. 20) to export the articles from each database and Covidence⁵⁷ to screen and extract the data. A data extraction form was developed according to the review protocol.⁵³ Two authors (H.D. and J.S.) independently screened the title and abstract of each article. They then conducted full-text reviews to determine the eligible articles. The discrepancies between the 2 authors were resolved by consensus and discussions with the third author (A.V.). We extracted country names according to the recognized members in the United Nations.⁵⁸

Synthesis of results

We identified the design of each study according to published design definitions/descriptions,^{59–63} design guide,⁵⁹ and overview⁶⁴ (Appendix S2).

We extracted the outcome measures from each study. We accordingly identified seven widely used categories: (1) functionality,⁵¹ (2) safety and information quality,^{3,65} (3) user experience,^{51,66,67} (4) clinical/health outcomes, (5) costs and cost benefits,⁶⁸ (6) usage, adherence, and uptake from objective analysis of conversation records, distinct from similar subjective evaluations in “User experience,” and (7) user characteristics for implementation.⁵¹

To generate an evaluation framework, we employed an overarching evaluation framework for digital health interventions, published by the WHO.⁵¹ The framework provides evaluation descriptions and targets across four evaluation stages: (1) “feasibility and usability,” (2) “efficacy,” (3) “effectiveness,” and (4) “implementation”.⁵¹ These stages are fundamentally consistent with the 4 widely known phases of clinical trials.^{47–50} We accordingly nested the extracted data across these 4 stages. We selected the WHO’s framework because it was the state of the art, the most comprehensive, and well-recognized in the digital health research field.

Quality assessment

We assessed the reporting quality using the mobile health (mHealth) evidence reporting and assessment (mERA) checklist.⁶⁹ This assessment approach has been used in similar reviews,^{70,71} and the WHO's digital health evaluation guide.⁵¹ The mERA checklist includes 13 domains. We classify each domain into "Fully reported," "Partially reported," and "Not reported." Two authors (H.D., J.S.) independently assessed each included article, and the discrepancies in the assessment were resolved through discussion.

Results

We retrieved a total of 6350 articles from the search (Figure 1), including 6293 articles from the databases and 57 articles from existing reviews. We then removed 3647

duplicates, 1404 articles through the title-abstract screening, and a further 106 articles through the full-text review. We finally included 81 articles for the data extraction.

Study characteristics

The 81 articles included in this review (Appendix S3) were published between 2009 and 2022 (Figure 2A), with 89% of them ($n = 72$) in the past 5 years. The studies originated from 21 countries (Figure 2B), predominantly from the United States ($n = 31$, 38%). We identified 12 main intervention areas (Figure 2C) with the leading of "Mental, psychological, or cognitive health" ($n = 30$, 37%).

Eight health-related CAs were available to the public, focusing on chronic disease or conditions (DoctorBot¹⁵ and Gia⁷²), adolescent health education (on contraception, Layla⁷³), mental health (Bunji,⁷⁴ ELIZA,⁷⁵ Wya,⁷⁶⁻⁷⁸

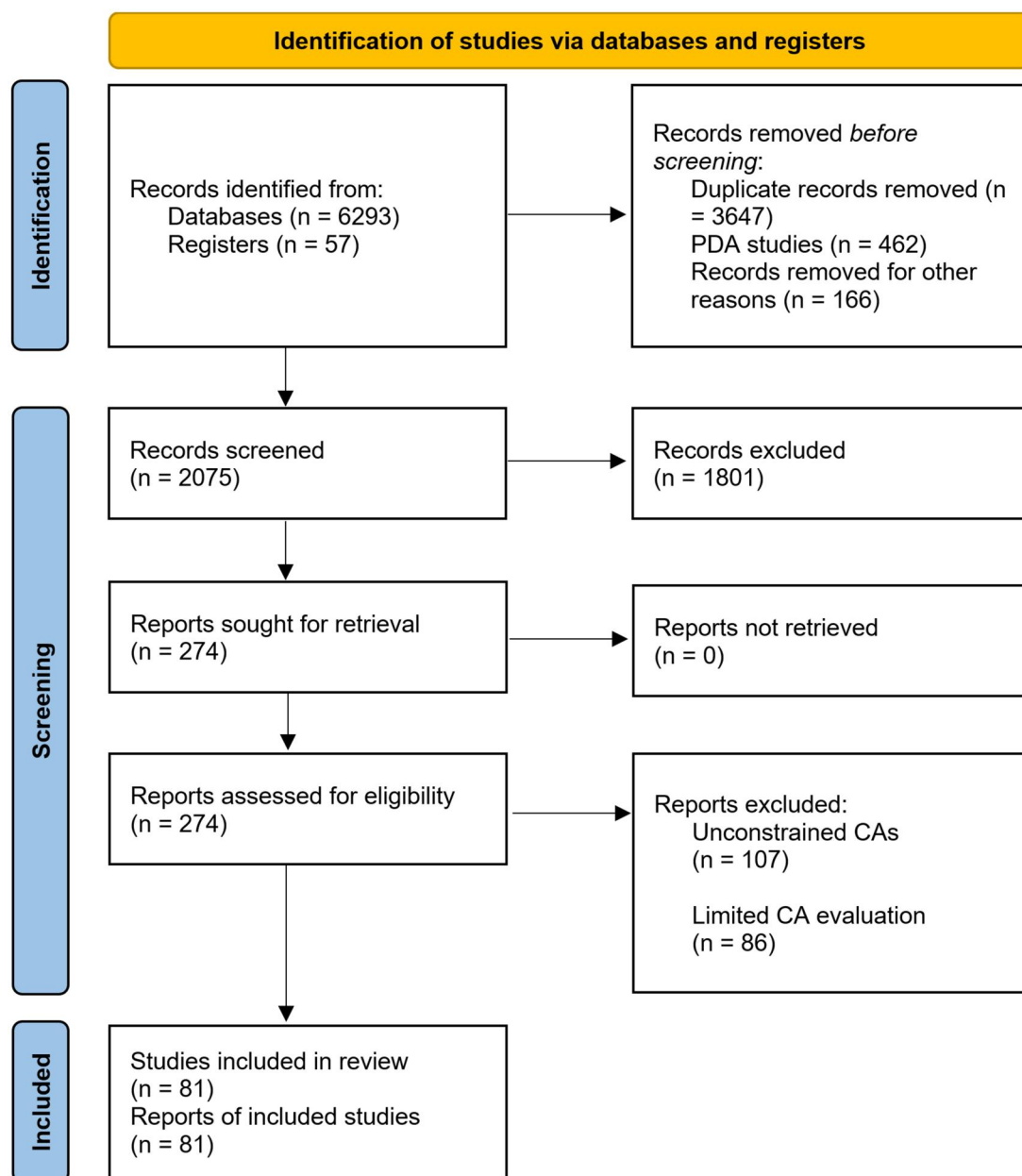


Figure 1. Flow diagram of the bibliographic search results and the included articles through the title-abstract screening and full-text review. CAs, conversational agents; PDA, personal digital assistant—a type of handheld computer irrelevant to CA.

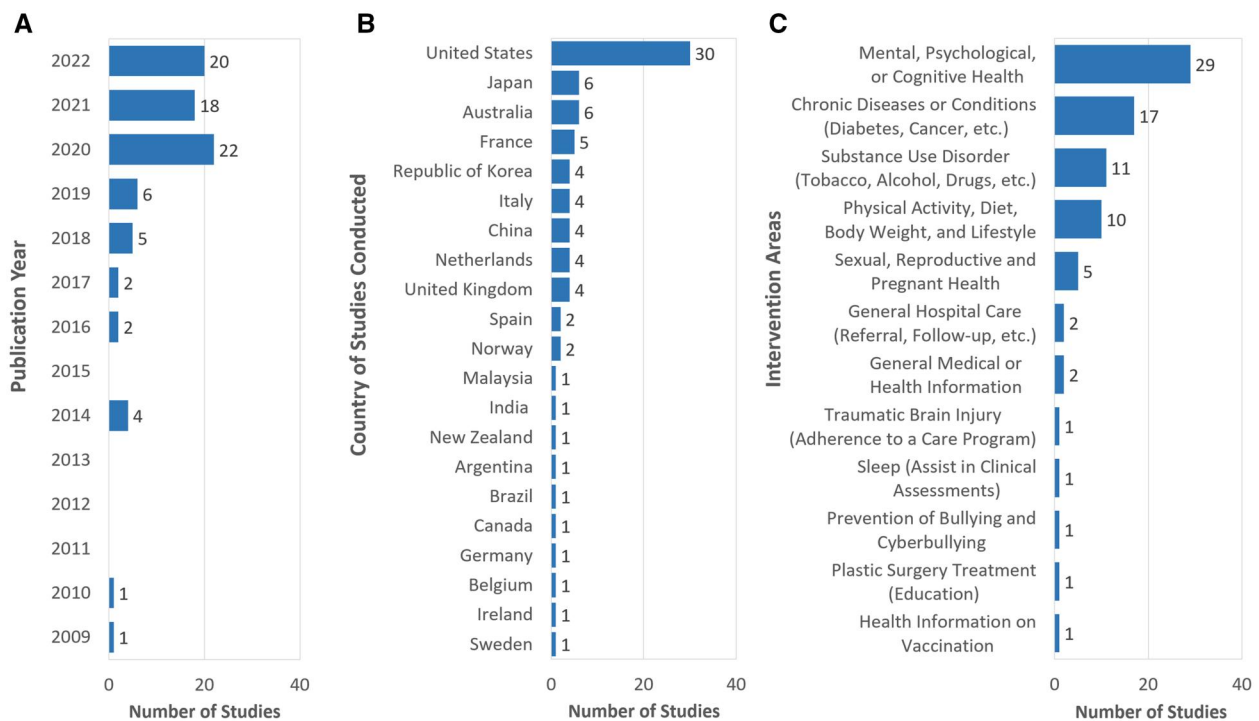


Figure 2. Characteristics of studies in the review with the final bibliographic search in January 2021. (A) Publication year. (B) Country of the studies conducted. (C) Intervention area.

Woebot,⁷⁹ and PAT⁸⁰), and substance use disorders (Woebot^{81,82}). The general CAs of Siri, Google Assistant, and Alexa were also evaluated for providing health information.^{8,17,19,83–87} The remaining CAs were mainly under research.

Study designs

We identified 8 categories of designs (Appendix S3) and summarized them in a hierarchical diagram (Figure 3). There were 15 observational and 59 experimental studies. The observational studies included the cross-sectional ($n=11$), cohort ($n=1$), and case-control ($n=3$) designs. The experimental studies included 20 randomized controlled trials (RCTs) and 38 quasi-experimental trials (or nonrandomized studies). Among the RCTs, there were 20 parallel RCTs and 1 crossover RCT.

We found 7 studies (9%) in which investigators (usually 2 authors) tested CAs using predefined questions and reviewed CAs' responses to determine the safety and information quality of CA interventions.^{17,19,83–87} We categorized these studies in a separate design category ("laboratory setting") because the investigators neither assigned the intervention to participants in an experiment/trial (experimental studies⁵⁹) nor observed intervention effects on people in usual clinical practice (observational studies⁵⁹).

We also found 10 other studies (12%) that were not closely related to clinical interventions. One single-arm study evaluated safety and information quality (Siri, Google Assistant, and Alexa).⁸ Three studies investigated the differences between 2 CAs (MYLO vs ELIZA, a two-arm parallel RCT)⁷⁵ or a CA and traditional search engines (a cross-sectional study).⁸⁸ One single-arm study explored the level of self-disclosure (the willingness to answer sensitive or private questions, a single-arm study).⁸⁹ Three studies investigated the potential to substitute a CA for conventional clinical

assessments (a CA vs a questionnaire, a crossover RCT⁴⁰; a CA vs an interview,⁹⁰ single-arm trials; a CA vs a pain questionnaire, a single-arm experimental study⁹¹). The remaining two studies mainly investigated users' expectations and preferences,⁹² and the barriers and facilitators of CAs.⁸⁰

Interventions were limited in 23 studies. Many studies ($n=22$, 27%) had participants performing predefined tasks^{23,25,93,94} or conversing with the chatbot for only a single session.^{8,11,18,20,22,24,40,75,90,91,95–102} One RCT recruited participants to only review conversation responses (rather than to converse with the CA) from either a CA (Intervention) or a medical committee (Control).³⁹

Outcome measures

We identified 285 outcome measures and categorized them into 7 main categories (Appendix S4). Table 2 summarizes the main categories with subcategories and selected outcome measures. The main categories included "Functionality" (Number of outcome measures, $N_{om} = 44$), "Safety and information quality" ($N_{om} = 17$), "User experience" ($N_{om} = 80$), "Clinical/health outcomes" ($N_{om} = 68$), "Costs and cost benefits" ($N_{om} = 2$), "Usage, adherence, and uptake" ($N_{om} = 62$), and "User characteristics for implementation science" ($N_{om} = 12$).

"Functionality" examines how well CAs functioned as designed. Researchers evaluated how sentence classifications functioned to interpret users' intentions or intents ("Sentence classification performance" with accuracy²⁵, precision^{25,93}, etc.) and overall CAs' conversation functions in terms of "Understanding and responses." Some CAs were designed to conduct various small tasks (screening alcohol use⁹⁴, collecting symptoms²⁵, etc.) or engage with users (initiating new topics²⁶, providing social support⁹², etc.) for long-term personalized interventions. These design functions were also evaluated ("User engagement" and "Task achievements and

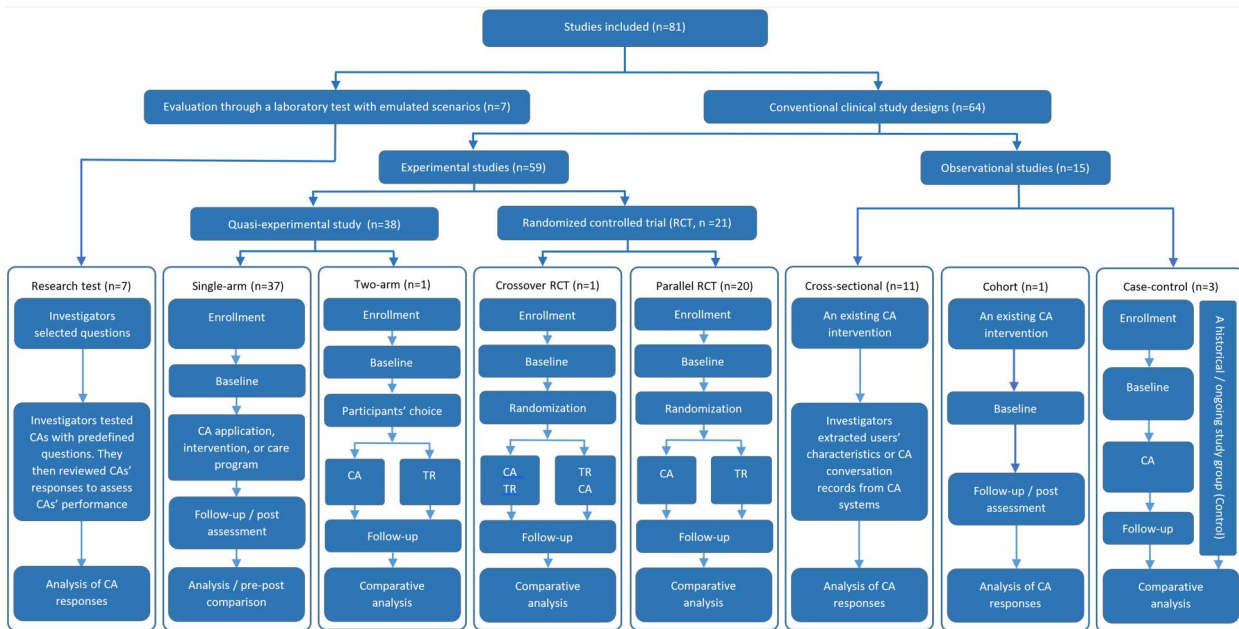


Figure 3. The flowchart of different study designs in the studies. CA, conversational agent (intervention, in comparative studies); TR, a traditional intervention/care program (control, in comparative studies); RCT: randomized controlled trial.

efforts”). For speech-based CAs, two studies evaluated “Voice and device control”, such as voice volume, speed, and sound quality.⁹¹ Finally, some CAs were designed for clinical assessments, such as assessing depressive disorders,⁴⁰ sleep conditions,⁹⁰ and tobacco use disorders.¹⁰⁰ Researchers hence evaluated “Clinical assessment performance” to validate these CAs as clinical assessment tools.

“Safety and information quality” were evaluated, especially for CAs with large language models or contents from the Internet. Researchers examined whether CAs’ responses were appropriate and safe (“CA response appropriateness”). They moreover evaluated the “Risk of misinformation.” Misinformation refers to a health-related claim of fact that is currently false due to a lack of scientific evidence.¹³⁰ Misinformation-related factors were also evaluated, such as resource reliability,⁸⁶ evidence-based resources,⁸⁵ information accuracy and completeness,⁸⁵ and information quality.⁸⁴ As CAs could affect users’ care decisions, the “Risk of unintended harms or adverse events” was evaluated. “Unintended harms” refers to harmful consequences if the action is not taken timely or appropriately, such as actions for allergic conditions and emergency tasks.⁸ “Adverse events” include deaths,⁸ suicide attempt, and alcohol/drug overdose.⁸² Finally, researchers evaluated “Privacy and trust” using surveys,^{55,105} and/or qualitative studies (interviews).⁵⁵

The category of “User experience” included 80 outcome measures in 13 subcategories. None of the outcome measures was specifically designed for evaluating CAs. “Clinical/health outcomes” also included a large number of outcome measures ($N_{om} = 68$) but were mainly evaluated with validated assessment questionnaires. “Costs and cost benefits” were only reported by 2 studies. Evaluations of “Usage, adherence, and uptake” were diverse with 62 outcome measures. “User characteristics for implementation science” were mainly limited to “Age and gender.”

Proposed evaluation framework

The CA evaluation framework comprises 4 essential evaluation stages: (1) Feasibility and usability, (2) efficacy, (3) effectiveness, and (4) implementation (Table 3). For each stage, the framework presents the evaluation descriptions, targets, and illustrative sample sizes, according to WHO’s recommendations for digital health interventions⁵¹. It presents existing study (or trial) designs, outcome measures, and sample sizes. The framework also highlights (in light blue) essential outcome measures. For example, at Stage I, existing studies mainly evaluated CAs using single-arm experimental trials ($n = 30$, 75%) and laboratory tests ($n = 7$, 17.5%). The most widely used sample sizes were in the 10-20 range for single-arm studies and 1 or 2 experts for laboratory tests. The essential outcome measures can be potentially used as primary outcomes. In clinical studies, primary outcomes are aligned with the primary aim to answer important research questions (or hypothesis)¹³⁴ and, sometimes, determining study sample sizes,¹³⁴ for example, the power analysis in RCTs¹³⁵.

Cost-related evaluations are very limited in the framework, with only 2 studies at Stage I and II, respectively. However, studies at Stages I and II are conducted under a research setting, unable to produce generalizable results. We recommend “Costs and health economic analyses” at Stages III and IV. The evaluations potentially include cost-utility analysis, cost-effective analysis, cost-minimization analysis, and cost-benefit analysis.¹³⁶

Quality assessment

We assessed the reporting quality of the included studies using the mERA checklist⁶⁹ (Appendix S5). As the studies in a laboratory setting ($n = 7$) did not evaluate the interventions, many mERA criteria were not applicable to these studies. We, therefore, reported the mERA summary for the remaining 74 studies (Figure 4). Most studies provided “fully

Table 2. The summary of the outcome measures nested in the seven main categories and subcategories in the review.

| Category and subcategory (number of outcome measures, N_{om}) | Selected typical outcome measures (unit, questionnaire or method) |
|--|--|
| 1. Functionality | ($N_{om} = 44$) |
| • Sentence classification performance ($N_{om} = 5$) | Precision (%), ^{25,93} sensitivity (%), ^{25,93} accuracy (%), ²⁵ and specificity (%), ²⁵ and F1 (value) ^{25,93} of the classifier. |
| • Understanding and responses ($N_{om} = 17$) | Response accuracy (%), ^{17,19,86,103} inquiries unable to answer (%), ⁸⁶ response completion (%), ⁸⁶ understanding (scale, survey), ⁹¹ etc. |
| • Engagement functions ($N_{om} = 7$) | Topics initiated by CA versus participants, ²⁶ attempts to restart conversation (n), ⁸ sentiment (score, coding responses manually), ¹⁷ etc. |
| • Task achievements and efforts ($N_{om} = 4$) | Conversation tasks completed (%), ⁹⁴ task failure rate (n and %), ⁸ and task completion (coefficient), ²⁵ and time per task (seconds). ⁸ |
| • Voice and device control ($N_{om} = 2$) | Adequate volume, speed, and sound quality (a survey), ⁹¹ and negative technical aspects (qualitative analysis of user's responses). ¹⁰⁴ |
| • Clinical assessment performance ($N_{om} = 9$) | Accuracy, ^{40,100} sensitivity, ^{40,90} specificity of CA-based clinical assessment outcomes (CA vs standard clinical assessments), ^{40,90} etc. |
| 2. Safety and information quality | ($N_{om} = 17$) |
| • CA response appropriateness ($N_{om} = 6$) | Response appropriateness (scale), ^{19,86,87} appropriate responses (descriptive), ⁸³ etc. |
| • Risk of misinformation ($N_{om} = 4$) | Misinformation (%), ¹⁷ reliable (%), ⁸⁶ and evidence-base (%), ⁸⁵ resources, information accuracy and completeness (%), ⁸⁵ and quality (descriptive). ⁸⁴ |
| • Risk of unintended harms or adverse events ($N_{om} = 4$) | Responses with risk of unintended harms (n and %; eg, medication and emergency tasks), ⁸ serious adverse events (n), ⁸² and deaths (n and %). ⁸ |
| • Privacy and trust ($N_{om} = 3$) | Privacy and trust (a survey), ⁵⁵ privacy and trust (a qualitative study, interview), ⁵⁵ and privacy infringement (a survey). ¹⁰⁵ |
| 3. User experience | ($N_{om} = 80$) |
| • Ease of use ($N_{om} = 2$) | Ease of use (scale, a self-designed questionnaire) ^{11,88} and learning experience (score, a self-designed questionnaire). ¹⁰⁶ |
| • Engagement ($N_{om} = 3$) | User engagement (scale, a survey), ⁹⁵ DBCI engagement (scale), ⁹² and perceived engagement (scale, a survey). ¹⁰¹ |
| • Conversation capability ($N_{om} = 6$) | Response appropriateness (scale, a survey), ¹¹ dialogue performance (score, SASSI), ⁹⁴ emotional awareness (score, a questionnaire), ¹⁰⁶ etc. |
| • Usefulness/helpfulness ($N_{om} = 6$) | Usefulness (scale, a survey) ^{21,107} or interview ⁸⁸), perceived helpfulness (a survey, open-ended question, or interview), ^{21,108} etc. |
| • Perceived quality and trust ($N_{om} = 5$) | Perceived trust (score, a questionnaire), ⁸⁹ perceived quality of the answers (score, EORTC QLQ-INFO25), ³⁹ etc. |
| • Satisfaction ($N_{om} = 5$) | Satisfaction (scale, a self-defined survey, ^{8,15,72,99,105,107,109-111} and CSQ-8 ^{81,82,112}), content satisfaction (scale, a survey), ¹⁰⁶ etc. |
| • Feasibility ($N_{om} = 3$) | Feasibility (score, a self-designed questionnaire). ^{18,20,26,81} |
| • Usability ($N_{om} = 5$) | Usability (scale, SUS), ^{75,96,107,113,114} usability (open comments, a focus group session), ²⁷ perceived usability (scale), ^{92,105} etc. |
| • Acceptance/preference ($N_{om} = 11$) | Acceptance (scale, a survey), ⁸⁸ preference of CA (scale, a survey), ⁸⁸ potential to replace humans (scale, a survey), ¹¹ etc. |
| • Overall user experience with mixed themes ($N_{om} = 26$) | Overall user experience (UEQ, ^{23,25} USE, ⁹⁶ NPS, ¹¹⁵ URP-I ^{81,82}), users with positive or negative experience (n , the CA prompted the survey), ¹⁵ etc. |
| • Working alliance ($N_{om} = 1$) | Working alliance (questionnaire, WAI-SR ^{78,79,81,82,101,112}). |
| • Suggestions for improvement ($N_{om} = 4$) | Suggestions for improvements (open-ended question in a survey), ^{20,93,108,110} good and bad experiences with the CA (a survey), ¹⁰⁹ etc. |
| • Other open comments ($N_{om} = 3$) | Perceived stress (survey and interview), ²⁴ benefit (focus group study), ²⁷ and feelings of answering sensitive questions (CA vs humans). ⁸⁹ |
| 4. Clinical/health outcomes | ($N_{om} = 68$) |
| • Psychological/mental health ($N_{om} = 34$) | PHQ-9, ^{21,95,106,109,112,116} QIDS-SR, ¹⁰⁵ GAD-7, ^{21,81,82,95,106,109,112,116-118} SAS, ¹⁰⁵ PANAS, ^{106,,109,112,119} PSYCHLOPS, ²¹ DASS21, ^{75,117} PSS-10, ^{95,105,120} etc. |

(continued)

Table 2. (continued)

| Category and subcategory (number of outcome measures, N_{om}) | Selected typical outcome measures (unit, questionnaire or method) |
|--|---|
| • Disease conditions ($N_{om} = 3$) | Pain (%), NRS, ⁸² Parkinson's disease rating scale (MDS-UPDRS), ¹²¹ and Parkinson's disease questionnaire. ¹²¹ |
| • Modification of behaviors and risk factors ($N_{om} = 23$) | Behavior modification (score, SQUASH), ^{122,123} smoking cessation (%), a survey, ¹²⁴ physical activity (score, AAS), ^{113,123} etc. |
| • Knowledge and skills ($N_{om} = 4$) | Knowledge gained (scale, a survey), ^{16,18} problem solvability (score, a survey), ⁷⁵ problem resolution (score, a survey), ⁷⁵ etc. |
| • Health wellbeing and issues ($N_{om} = 4$) | SWLS, ¹²⁰ WHO-5-J, ^{95,125} EQ-5D-5L, ¹²⁶ and falls (falls per 1000 patient-days). ¹³ |
| 5. Costs and health economic analyses | ($N_{om} = 2$) |
| • Cost effectiveness ($N_{om} = 1$) | Time spent per 100 patients (hours per 100 patients, an analysis of the conversation logs). ¹⁴ |
| • Costs ($N_{om} = 1$) | Monthly budget (dollars per month, an analysis of running costs of the CA system). ⁷³ |
| 6. Usage, adherence and uptake | ($N_{om} = 62$) |
| • Usage ($N_{om} = 38$) | Conversation duration (second, minute, or hour), ^{14,15,26,55,72,73,75,81,82,88,115,126-128} , exchanges (n), ¹⁰⁸⁻¹¹⁰ , CA responses (n), ^{92,127,129} etc. |
| • Adherence ($N_{om} = 15$) | Adherence (n), ^{108,120} dropouts (n , %; conversation dropouts, ¹⁵ and dropouts of interventions ^{15,116,122}), follow-up rate (%), ¹⁴ etc. |
| • Uptake ($N_{om} = 9$) | Completed questionnaires (n), ¹²² total followers (n), ⁷³ total impressions (n), ⁷³ average daily reach times (times of reach per day), ⁷³ etc. |
| 7. User characteristics for implementation science | ($N_{om} = 12$) |
| • Age and gender ($N_{om} = 2$) | Age (age groups, n , %) ^{15,72,88,110} and gender (n , %). ^{15,72,88,110} |
| • Nationality, ethnicity and religion ($N_{om} = 4$) | Nationality (n), ⁸⁸ race and ethnicity (%), White, Hispanic, Black), ⁷² religion (n), ⁸⁸ and language (%), users in Spanish). ⁷² |
| • Education and socioeconomic status ($N_{om} = 2$) | Occupation and education (n , %, self-designed questionnaire), ⁸⁸ and urbanization levels (n , self-designed questionnaire). ⁸⁸ |
| • Health conditions ($N_{om} = 3$) | Users with a personal history of cancer (%), ⁷² a family history of cancer (%), ⁷² and risks of different cancers (NCCN criteria, Tyrer-Cuzick criteria). ⁷² |
| • Devices used ($N_{om} = 1$) | Mobile users (%). ⁷³ |

AAS, The Active Australia Survey; CSQ-8, Client Satisfaction Questionnaire with 8 questions; DASS21, depression, anxiety, and stress scales 21; DBCI, a questionnaire on the Digital Behavior Change Intervention; EORTC QLQ-INFO25, The European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer Quality of Life Group information questionnaire; EQ-5D-5L, health-related quality of life with 5 dimensions: mobility, self-care, usual activities, pain/discomfort, and anxiety/depression; F1, the harmonic mean (average) of the precision and recall; GAD-7, the Generalized Anxiety Disorder scale—7; NCCN criteria, National Comprehensive Cancer Network criteria; NPS, net promoter score; PANAS, the positive and negative affect schedule; PHQ-9, the Patient Health Questionnaire—a 9-item self-report questionnaire that assesses the frequency and severity of depressive symptomatology within the previous 2 weeks; PSS-10, the Perceived Stress Scale; PSYCHLOPS, the psychological outcome profiles; ROC, receiver operating characteristic—a graphical plot to evaluate a binary classifier/decision system across different discrimination thresholds; QIDS-SR, the Quick Inventory of Depressive Symptomatology-Self-report; SAS, the Self-rating Anxiety Scale; SASSI, the Subjective Assessment of System Speech Interfaces—a 7-point Likert scale on accuracy, likeability, cognitive demand, annoyance, habitability, and speed; SQUASH, the Dutch Short Questionnaire to assess health enhancing physical activity; SUS, the system usability scale; SWLS, the Satisfaction with Life Scale; UEQ, the User Experience Questionnaire; URP-I, usage rating profile-intervention with feasibility (6 items) and acceptability (6 items) scales; USE, the Usefulness, Satisfaction, and Ease of Use (USE) Questionnaire Short-Form; WAI-SR, the Working Alliance Inventory-Short Revised (agreement on the tasks of therapy, agreement on the goals of therapy and development of an affective bond); WHO-5-J, HEALTH well-being—5 Well-Being Index (Japanese version).

reported” data for 4 mERA assessment domains, namely “Intervention delivery” (>80%), “Intervention content” (>70%), “User feedback” (>60%), and “Intervention fidelity” (>50%). The report rates for the remaining domains were low (<50%).

Discussion

This review includes 81 evaluation studies on CAs for health interventions. The studies were heterogeneous with regard to evaluation methods, intervention strategies and focus. Most CA studies were reported within the past 5 years ($n = 72$, 89%). In the review, we extracted study designs ($n = 8$), sample sizes, and outcome measures ($n = 285$). Then, we categorized and nested the extracted data according to the

overarching framework for digital health evaluations by WHO.⁵¹ We finally outlined a new framework for CA evaluations.

New CA evaluation framework

The new CA evaluation framework synthesizes the existing evidence across 4 evaluation stages. The evidence is rich at Stage I (40 studies, 49%) and gradually becomes limited at Stage IV (8 studies, 10%). Despite the limitations, the framework streamlines evaluation stages, targets, designs, sample sizes, and essential outcome measures (main categories) along the stages. Moreover, the framework includes 2 new essential evaluation aspects: “Functionality” and “Safety and information quality” at Stage I. It also presents the evaluation gaps of “Costs and health economic analyses” at Stages III and IV.

Table 3. The proposed framework for evaluating CAs in healthcare.

| | | Stage → | | 1. Feasibility and usability → | | 2. Efficacy → | | 3. Effectiveness → | | 4. Implementation | |
|---|----------------------------------|--|--|---|---|---------------|--|--------------------|--|-------------------|--|
| WHO digital health | Brief description | Feasibility: The ability to work as intended. Usability: The degree of a system being used to achieve specified goals in a specified context of use. | Efficacy: The ability to achieve the intended results in a research setting or trial. | Effectiveness: The ability to achieve the intended results in a real application (nonresearch setting). | Implementation science: To assess the uptake, integration and sustainability of evidence-based digital health interventions for a given context, including policies and practices. | | | | | | |
| | Evaluation targets | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stability (system uptime/failure rates) Performance consistency Standards adherence (terminology, interoperability, security) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> User satisfaction Workflow “fit” Learning curve (design) Cognitive performance/errors Reliability | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Changes in care processes (time) Changes in outcomes (system performance/health) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Changes in process, outcome, coverage, and costs Total cost of implementation, and health impact Error rates Learning curve of users Changes in policy, practices attributable to system Adaptability and extendibility to new use-cases | | | | | | |
| | Illustrative num of users | 10-100 | 100-1000 | 10 000 + | 1000 000+ | | | | | | |
| Studies reviewed and outcome measures at 4 major evaluation stages aligned with the WHO guide | Studies (n) | 40 | 21 | 12 | 8 | | | | | | |
| | Study design and sample size (n) | Single-arm studies (n = 3-10, ^{107,114,131} 11-20, ^{21,27,91,95,97,103,111} 21-30, ^{11,20,23,24,26,96} 31-40, ^{25,80,90} 41-50, ^{8,55,98,105} 73, 92, 89, ⁹⁴ 101, 81, 116, ¹¹³ 121, ⁹³ 318 ⁷⁴ ; 4390 messages ⁷³), 2-arm quasi-experimental study (n = 454 ¹²⁵), laboratory tests (investigators, n = 1, ¹⁹ 2 ^{17,83-87}) and RCT (n = 142, ³⁹ and 289 ¹³²) | Single-arm studies (n = 28, ¹⁰⁸ 31, ¹²³ 44, ¹⁸ 47, ⁸⁹ 61, ⁷⁷ 128, ⁹⁹ 139, ¹⁰⁰ and 154 ²²) Case-control study (n = 153, ⁷⁶ and 270 ¹⁴) Randomized controlled trials (n = 20, ¹²¹ 23, ¹¹⁹ 70, ¹⁰⁶ 74, ¹⁰⁹ 83, ¹¹² 112, ⁷⁵ 153, ¹⁰¹ 197, ¹¹⁵ 181, ¹¹⁶ 210, ¹⁰² and 958 ¹²²) | Cross-over study (n = 179 ⁴⁰) Case-control study (n = 95 ¹³) Cross-sectional studies (n = 354, ¹²⁷ 929, ⁸⁸ 4737 ¹¹⁰) Randomized controlled trials (n = 28, ¹²⁰ 180, ⁸² 513, ¹²⁶ 700, ¹¹⁸ 927, ¹⁶ 57 214 ¹²⁴) Cohort study (n = 3629 ¹¹⁷) | Cross-sectional studies (n = 1206, ⁷⁸ 7099, ¹⁰⁴ 16 519, ¹⁵ 14 698, ¹²⁹ 36 070, ⁷⁹ 61 070, ⁷² 135 263 ¹²⁸ ; 610 conversations ¹³³) | | | | | | |
| User characteristics for implementation science | | Devices used. ⁷³ | – | Age and gender ^{88,110} Nationality, ethnicity and religions ⁸⁸ Education and socioeconomic status ⁸⁸ | Age and gender ^{15,72} Nationality, ethnicity and religions ⁷² Health conditions ⁷² | | | | | | |
| Usage, adherence and uptake | | Usage, ^{21,26,55,73,81,92,98,103,113,114,131} Uptake ^{27,73} | Usage, ^{14,75,77,108,109,115,116,121,123} Adherence ^{14,108,112,116,119,120} | Usage, ^{82,88,110,117,124,126,127} Uptake ¹²² Adherence ¹²² | Usage, ^{15,72,128,129,133} Uptake ^{72,129} Adherence ^{15,72,133} | | | | | | |
| Costs and health economic analyses | | Costs ⁷³ | Cost effectiveness ¹⁴ | Health economic analyses, such as cost-utility analysis, cost-effective analysis, cost-minimization analysis, and cost-benefit analysis. (our recommendation) | Health economic analyses, such as cost-utility analysis, cost-effective analysis, cost-minimization analysis, and cost-benefit analysis. (our recommendation) | | | | | | |

(continued)

Table 3. (continued)

| Stage → | 1. Feasibility and usability → | 2. Efficacy → | 3. Effectiveness → | 4. Implementation |
|--------------------------------|--|--|---|--|
| Clinical/health outcomes | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge and skills²¹ • Health wellbeing and issues^{95,125} • Psychological/mental health,^{21,55,74,81,95,105,125} • Behavioral modification and risk factors^{26,81,113} | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Disease conditions¹²¹ • Knowledge and skills¹⁶ • Health wellbeing and issues¹²⁰ • Psychological/mental health,^{77,102,106,109,112,115,116,119-121} • Clinical assessment performance,^{22,89,100} • Behavioral modification and risk factors^{108,123,100} • Usability^{75,115} • Feasibility¹⁸ • Ease of use¹⁰⁶ • Satisfaction^{99,106,109,112} • Engagement¹⁰¹ • Working alliance^{101,112} • Overall experience^{89,99,106,108,112,115,120} • Other open comments⁸⁹ • Acceptance/preference^{8,75,89,100,122} • Usefulness/helpfulness^{108,116} • Conversational capability¹⁰⁶ • Perceived quality and trust⁸⁹ • Suggestions for improvement^{108,109} | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Disease condition⁸² • Knowledge and skills¹⁶ • Health wellbeing and issues^{13,126} • Psychological/mental health,^{13,16,82,117,118} • Clinical assessment performance⁴⁰ • Behavioral modification and risk factors^{16,82,110,118,122,124,126} • Ease of use⁸⁸ • Satisfaction^{82,110,122} • Working alliance⁸² • Overall experience^{16,82,110,120} • Usefulness/helpfulness^{88,118} • Acceptance/preference^{82,88} • Conversational capability⁸⁸ • Suggestions for improvement¹¹⁰ | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Psychological/mental health^{78,79} (through short inbuilt questionnaires in CA apps) • Satisfaction^{15,72} • Working alliance^{78,79} • Overall experience^{15,78} • Acceptance and preference¹⁰⁴ |
| User experience | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Usability^{27,92,96,103,105,107,113,114} • Feasibility^{20,26,81} • Engagement^{92,95} • Ease of use¹¹ • Satisfaction^{8,81,91,105,107,111} • Open comments^{24,27} • Working alliance⁸¹ • Overall experience^{8,21,23-25,55,74,80,81,92,94-98,105,113,114,131,132} • Usefulness/helpfulness^{21,55,107} • Acceptance/preference^{11,81,98,105,132} • Conversational capability^{11,23,90,94,107} • Perceived quality and trust^{39,97,132} • Suggestions for improvement^{20,24,27,93} • Privacy and trust^{55,105} • Risk of causing death⁸ • CA response capability^{17,19,85,86} • Risk of misinformation¹⁷ • Risk of unintended harms^{8,85} • CA response appropriateness^{19,83,86,87,105} • Resources and contents quality⁸⁴⁻⁸⁶ • Response speed⁸ • Task achievements^{8,25,94} • Engagement functions^{8,17,26,85,94} • Voice and device control⁹¹ • Classification performance^{25,93} • Clinical assessment performance⁹⁰ • Understanding and accurate responses^{11,19,86,91,98,103,107,111,132} | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Risk of unintended harms⁸² | | |
| Safety and information quality | | | | |
| Functionality | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understanding and accurate responses¹⁰⁸ | | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Voice and device control¹⁰⁴ • Understand and accurate response¹³³ |

The framework demonstrates the included CA evaluation studies ($n = 43$), study designs, outcome measures and sample sizes at four essential evaluation stages. The 4 stages and corresponding evaluation targets were proposed by the WHO. Essential categories, which we identified for each stage, are marked by a light blue.

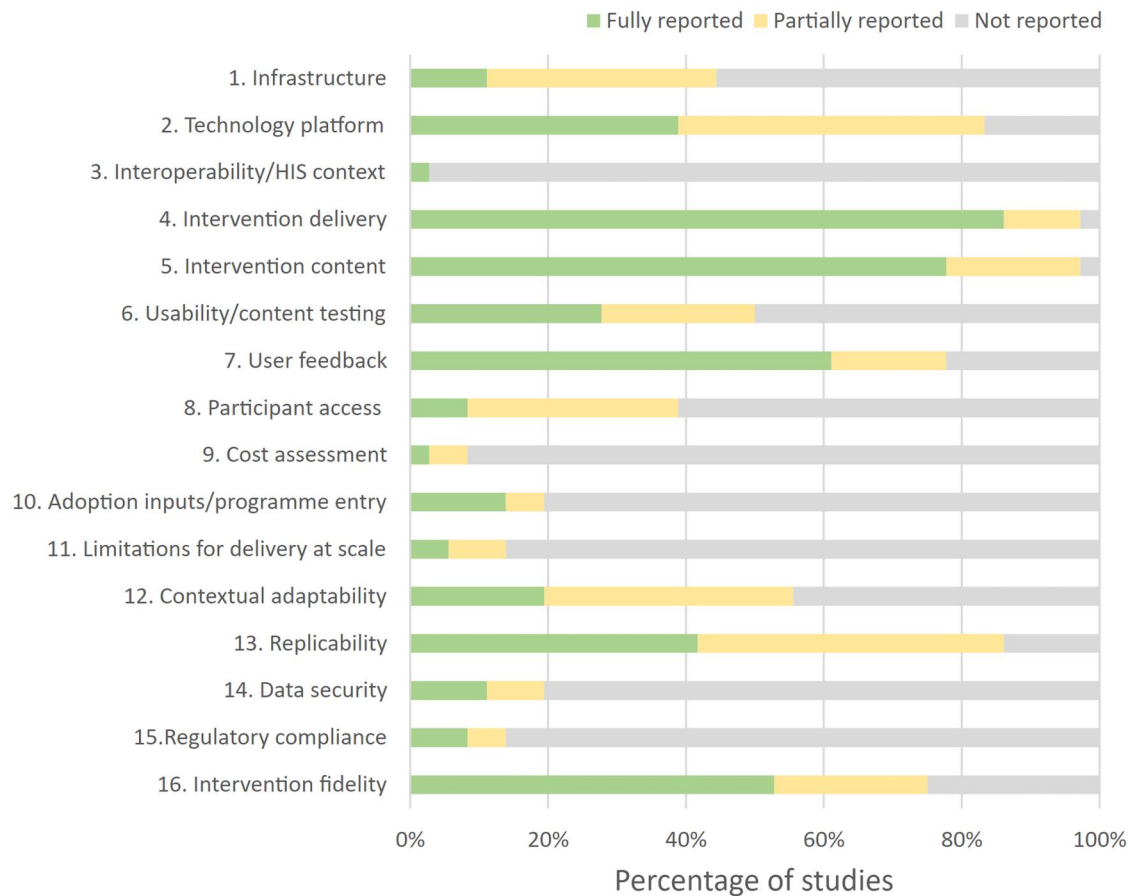


Figure 4. Percentage of articles met the criteria on the mERA checklist. Each mERA criterion is categorized as “Reported,” “Partially reported,” and “Not reported.” HIS, health information systems.

The 4 evaluation stages in the CA framework are based on WHO’s recommendations. They are fundamentally consistent with the traditional clinical and medical evaluation phases.^{47–51} These stages are built upon each other to ensure safety, health benefits, and socioeconomic impacts in the research translation of new interventions into the real world.^{47–51}

The framework will, accordingly, help researchers review existing studies, identify knowledge gaps, and develop new methods or recommendations for improving CA evaluations. It practically supports the stepwise evaluation strategy in future CA evaluation studies and encourages new systematic reviews with extensive scopes at different evaluation stages to improve the research translation of CA interventions in the real world. The framework also helps engineers and policymakers understand the complex journey of the research translation. Such understanding is essential for achieving effective and sustainable CA research in healthcare.

Relevant findings and recommendations

We found extensive evaluations of “Functionality”, such as classifying sentences, providing responses, engaging with users, achieving various simple tasks, and assessing patients as an independent clinical assessment tool. The functionality evaluations are essential because those functions collectively determine the intervention delivery. In addition, such evaluations help understand the technical potentials and limitations of CA applications for designing effective interventions in the

research. We therefore propose functionality evaluations as a main category at Stage I in the CA evaluation framework.

We found 8 studies (10%) evaluated topics with risks, such as medication, suicide attempt, alcohol/drug overdose, and private information, especially for complex CAs with contents from the Internet, such as Siri and Google Assistant. Accordingly, we recommended safety and information evaluations at Stage I in the framework. The findings and recommendation support recent concerns of potential safety and privacy risks when using AI in healthcare,^{3,36,137}. They underscore the need for understanding the risks in CA evaluation studies,¹³⁸ especially for advanced CAs which enable broad conversations with large knowledge networks or language models^{139,140} such as recent ChatGPT^{6,141}.

By analyzing study designs, we found that the safety and information evaluations were limited to studies using predefined questions in a laboratory setting or a session-based single-arm trial. How to evaluate safety and information quality effectively and reliably in other study designs remains unclear. This finding encourages the development of new strategies, such as large question-answer (QA) databases and experts’ reviews of large conversation records, to improve safety and information quality evaluations in CA studies.

We found that the outcome measures for evaluating user experience were diverse ($n=285$). In addition, none of the measures had been specifically validated for CA interventions. Many evaluation components such as usability, feasibility, satisfaction, and acceptance were inconsistently

defined and selected. Because of difficulties in qualitative evaluations, many studies used qualitative evaluation methods such as interviews or open-ended questions to capture in-depth evidence. These findings indicate overwhelming difficulties in evaluating user experience and imply a strong need for developing and validating suitable questionnaires to improve user experience evaluations in future CA studies.

We found that 4 studies explored whether a CA could provide a clinical assessment (not an intervention) equivalent to or better than in-person clinicians^{22,40,90,100} (“Clinical assessment performance” in “Functionality”). The evaluations fundamentally differed from the traditional evaluation focusing on comparing an intervention program against usual care in terms of improvements in clinical/health outcomes. The finding indicates a need for extending conventional evaluation frameworks and scopes to accommodate and encourage new evaluation perspectives such as conversation comparisons between CAs and humans in future CA studies.

Only 2 studies evaluated “Costs and health economic analyses”^{14,73} at Stages 1 and 2. Cost-related evaluations often determine healthcare policies for improving health interventions. Reporting on cost is also recommended by the mERA checklist. We recommend cost-related evaluations at Stages 3 and 4 in the framework because CAs at these stages are normally implemented in the real world, essential to obtain generalizable results. In addition, clinical trials at these stages are normally larger than those at Stages 1 and 2, essential for achieving reliable evaluation outcomes.

There were only 8 studies found at Stage 4 of the proposed framework. The evidence was insufficient for us to synthesize essential methods for WHO’s recommendations, such as “health impact,” “Error rates,” and “Changes in policy.” Obtaining users’ data such as age, gender, and conversation records could also be difficult because of privacy and security-related policies.¹⁴² More studies with integrated data retrieval approaches, such as electronic health records and national healthcare systems (eg, Medicare Benefits Schedule in Australia), are needed to effectively address those recommended tasks at Stage 4.

Many CA evaluation studies ($n = 22$, 27%) were limited to predefined tasks, single conversation sessions, or participants’ review of a conversation record. We also found that several studies used a crowdsourcing method (the practice of obtaining information or input from paid services of a large number of people via the Internet),^{102,132} rather than studies using more traditional methods of recruitment. Crowdsourcing methods help recruit participants quickly,¹⁴³ but the results may be inaccurate because of incentive mechanisms and risks of spammers.¹⁴⁴ Therefore, understanding the design details and limitations is essential for the accurate interpretation of evaluation outcomes.

We found that the study sample sizes in this review were generally smaller than the illustrative numbers of users outlined by WHO’s framework, especially at Stages 3 and 4. In the research, sample sizes are often estimated carefully¹³⁵ according to the intervention, trial design, evaluation stage, and primary outcomes. Therefore, more studies and further investigations are needed for understanding and proposing illustrative sample size ranges for CA interventions in the research.

For individual studies, identification of essential requirements in detail for evaluating safety, information quality, and functionality is often complex because there are various

influential factors, such as CA designs (Rule-based dialogues, state-based systems, generative language models, etc.), intervention areas (Mental health, chronic disease management, substance use disorders, etc.), intervention components (Health information, education, clinical assessments, medication, care decision support, etc.), and users’ characteristics (Normal healthy adults, women with pregnancy, people with severe mental conditions, seniors, etc.). For example, a complex CA application for mediation intervention to vulnerable people would present a higher level of safety concern than a simple CA for general health promotion in normal adults. However, how to evaluate these 2 CAs differently and effectively to ensure their safety remains unclear. Therefore, expert reviews, from multidisciplinary research fields, would be needed to address the knowledge gap in future studies.

Regarding the reporting quality of CA studies in this review, the mERA results demonstrated low reporting rates across many mERA criteria including “Cost assessment,” consistent with recent digital health intervention reviews.^{71,145} The results imply that some essential evaluation details might not be reported fully by the authors and, hence, captured in our review. They again indicate a strong need for improving the adherence and update of digital health evaluation guidelines and frameworks in future CA studies.

Strengths

We categorized diverse CA study designs and outcome measures and employed a globally recognized framework to synthesize the evidence. We finally provided a comprehensive evaluation framework for CA interventions and discussed issues and gaps for future studies.

Limitations

The data synthesis was limited to a single overarching digital health evaluation framework. The digital health framework focuses on general web applications or smartphone apps. Its recommendations on AI technologies are limited. Integrating multiple evaluation guidelines or frameworks, such as recommendations for complex interventions^{146,147} or AI-related applications,^{35,36} would be useful to improve and enrich the CA evaluation framework in future studies.

Conclusion

Evaluation frameworks are essential to achieving safe and effective health and clinical outcomes in CA-based intervention studies, but none yet exists. We synthesized the evidence from 81 CA evaluation studies and outlined an evaluation framework for CA interventions. Our findings provide several important implications for evaluating CA interventions and encourage further investigations to continue to improve CA evaluation frameworks in future research.

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Author Contributions

H.D. and T.R. designed the systematic review. H.D. and J.S. screened titles and abstracts of articles obtained in the

databases. H.D. and J.S. reviewed the full-text articles and extracted the data. A.V. resolved data discrepancies. All authors contributed to the interpretation of extracted data and discussion. H.D. contributed to the drafting of the manuscript. All authors contributed to critical revisions and approved the final version of the review.

Supplementary material

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Conflict of interest

None declared.

Data availability

The data underlying this article are available in the article and in its [online supplementary material](#).

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