

User Experience and Trust Improvement Evaluation on Healthcare oriented Explainable Artificial Intelligence Interventions: Systematic Review

Samantha Cramer, Elina Gastreich-de-Llanes, Jonas Bäcker, Robin Manz, Philip Meyer, Dominik Müller, Ludwig Christian Hinske, Johannes Raffler, Iñaki Soto-Rey

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Table of Contents

Original Manuscript.....	5
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User Experience and Trust Improvement Evaluation on Healthcare oriented Explainable Artificial Intelligence Interventions: Systematic Review

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Abstract

Background: The field of artificial intelligence (AI) has expanded rapidly in recent years. Generally, AI is viewed as a “black box” since understanding how it came to its presented solution is nearly impossible, which causes mistrust among end-users. This presents a problem, especially when AI is supposed to be implemented in high-stakes decision work environments. An example of such a work environment is the health care system. Additionally, to the general mistrust there are also legal regulations in place in the case of the implementation of AI systems within the health care system. The mistrust and legal regulations create a strong barrier for the widespread implementation of AI methods across the health care sector. To improve trust in the artificial intelligence systems and to fulfill the legal requirements, there has been a need for transparent, interpretable, explainable artificial intelligence systems. Though rather than developing new AI models, many researchers are working on post-hoc explainable artificial intelligence (XAI) systems which could at least provide the legally needed amount of transparency. Nevertheless, to ensure their usability, the created systems must be explainable to the end-user.

Objective: The goal of this systematic review was to identify the number of evaluations done on the usability, user satisfaction, experience and trust of XAI systems in the health care system. We also aimed to find the most used methods for usability/user experience evaluations.

Methods: Following the PRISMA 2020 guidelines, we extracted 6.008 references from four databases. After our concluding our screening steps 134 results remained eligible for the systematic review. The publications were categorized into 26 medical, 102 XAI method and 15 evaluation categories.

Results: 12 of the 15 evaluation categories were user-based. Only 35 of the 134 papers were sorted into user-based evaluation categories. A large portion of the 35 publications used self-designed questionnaires. Only 3 of the 35 presented a User Centered Design-Process. Our hypothesis that XAI is rarely evaluated, let alone developed, in relation to the needs of the end-user was confirmed.

Conclusions: We conclude that there is still a strong need for more involvement of the end-user during the development or at least during the evaluation of the created XAI models. Additionally, we recommend the development of a standardized framework to improve the generalizability of XAI methods. If XAI isn't developed closer to the needs of the end-user, evaluated from the end-user, or at best developed with the users, we expect that the implementation of explainable artificial intelligence in the health care environment will get increasingly hard.

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Review

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Process. Our hypothesis that XAI is rarely evaluated, let alone developed, in relation to the needs of the end-user was confirmed.

Conclusion: We conclude that there is still a strong need for more involvement of the end-user during the development or at least during the evaluation of the created XAI models. Additionally, we recommend the development of a standardized framework to improve the generalizability of XAI methods. If XAI isn't developed closer to the needs of the end-user, evaluated from the end-user, or at best developed with the users, we expect that the implementation of explainable artificial intelligence in the health care environment will get increasingly hard.

Keywords: Systematic Review, XAI, Usability, Evaluation, PRISMA

Introduction

In recent years the field of artificial intelligence (AI) has grown exponentially. AI aims to imitate cognitive functions to solve real-world problems by learning from previous data, thus consistently gaining knowledge and gradually improving its behavior [1]. One of the most popular fields of AI is the field of neural networks. These networks typically consist of several layers which are connected by a multitude of nonlinear relations. Even if one were to inspect each layer and its contributions to the outcome, it is impossible to fully understand how a neural network came to its decision, which is why these networks are considered "black boxes" [2].

In the healthcare environment, AI-based systems are not expected to act autonomously in patient care but to serve as decision support for medical staff [3] with the purpose of reducing the workload for clinicians and thus improving the patient outcome. AI-based systems have demonstrated utility in various medical departments, including pathology, radiology and dermatology [4,5]. However, it has been demonstrated that AI-based systems are not robust and may encounter failures or develop bias in the face of artificial and natural noise [3]. These kinds of failures or malfunctions could have far-reaching consequences in the healthcare environment, especially if they go unnoticed [2]. Studies show that stakeholders who interact with AI tools to reach a decision may be persuaded to follow the presented recommendations even if these recommendations are not correct, rather than verifying the recommendation [6].

The risks of AI malfunctions and the lack of transparency presented by the systems are a grave cause of mistrust for clinicians [2,4,5]. Additionally, legal regulations such as the European Union's General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR, Article 15) and their AI Act preserve the patients right to receive meaningful information about how a decision was rendered during their care and require AI systems to be developed and used in a traceable and explainable way [2,3,7]. The mistrust and legal regulations create a strong barrier for the widespread implementation of AI methods across the health care sector.

In order to improve trust in the artificial intelligence systems and to fulfill the legal requirements, there has been a need for transparent, interpretable, explainable artificial intelligence systems [1–5,8]. Creating new transparent AI systems is different from creating non-transparent systems, as the desire for transparency contributes an additional layer of complexity that is not necessarily computational. Instead, the creation involves a human factor, namely the end-user to whom the algorithm should be transparent. Consequently, transparency is not a property of the algorithm but a relationship between the AI and the user processing the information [6].

Rather than developing new AI models, many researchers are working on post-hoc explainable artificial intelligence (XAI) systems, which could at least provide a minimal amount of transparency [9]. These post-hoc XAI methods focus on explaining the results of the AI-based systems and providing estimates on how these came to their decisions [8] by reviewing the factors that affect a neural network's output the most [4,10].

However, even when creating post-hoc XAI models, the interpretability and transparency problem is not one that can be solved by a technical approach alone [4]. Similar to the creation of transparent AI systems, the end-users must be involved in the development of post-hoc XAI models as well. It must be ensured that these systems are created to be explainable to the end-user, ensuring their usability. Thus securing that the end-users can evaluate the AI models decision to determine whether or not they should accept the proposed recommendation [3].

The usability of a system is a comprehensive concept which refers to the ease with which users can achieve their goals efficiently, effectively and with satisfaction. While usability itself is not an attribute of a system, there are certain system components that contribute to the usability of a system [11]. Some of these components are learnability, how easy is it to use; efficiency, how quickly can a user perform the desired task; memorability, how easy is it to reestablish the needed skills when returning to the system; effectiveness, how many errors do users make; utility, are all necessary features provided; as well as satisfaction, how pleasant is the system to use [12]. In order to evaluate the usability there are a set of methods to conduct a so-called usability evaluation [13].

To our knowledge, there have been too few usability evaluations conducted to prove that the currently available XAI systems are usable and explainable, thus trustable.

In this manuscript we explore the scientific research which has been conducted on explainable AI in terms of user experience. The research should include a usability evaluation of XAI focusing on which elements have been implemented to create a trustable XAI system. This goal is to be achieved through a systematic review. Our hypothesis is that XAI is rarely evaluated, let alone developed, in relation to the needs of the end-user but rather based on their technical features and accuracy. Furthermore, we aim to find the most used methods for usability/user experience in XAI evaluations.

Material and Methods

The presented systematic review was conducted based on the PRISMA 2020 guidelines [14]. The goal was to identify the number of evaluations done on the usability, user satisfaction, experience and trust of XAI systems in the health care system. We also aimed to find the most used methods for usability/user experience evaluations.

Search Strategy and Selection of Studies

A comprehensive literature search was carried out in relevant bibliographic web-based databases (PubMed, PubMedCentral, Science Direct, Google Scholar). The used search terms were not restricted to the title but rather were found within the title, abstract or full text. The words included in the search query were "XAI", "X-AI", "Explainable", "AI", "Explainable", "artificial intelligence", "Usability", "satisfaction", "experience", "trust", "Evaluation". The words were combined with the conjunction "AND" and the logical operator "OR". An example of a used search query can be seen in Table 2.1.

Table 1. Example of the search query used during the literature search for the Systematic Review.

Searched words	Conjunction	Disjunction	Example of query
"XAI", "X-AI", "Explainable", "AI", "Explainable", "artificial intelligence", "Usability", "satisfaction", "experience", "trust", "Evaluation"	and	or	("XAI" OR "X-AI" OR ("Explainable" AND "AI") OR ("Explainable" AND "artificial intelligence")) AND ("Usability" OR "satisfaction" OR "experience" OR "trust") AND "Evaluation"

The results of the initial search were imported into Citavi Version 6 using the “exclude duplicates” option and all results for which a full text could not be retrieved were excluded from further analysis. The titles, abstracts and keywords of the remaining papers were then read to verify the eligibility of each paper. If the read material was deemed irrelevant, the paper was excluded from the process. Papers were generally discarded if they met any of the exclusion criteria (2.3) or were not peer-reviewed publications.

At least two independent reviewers reviewed all papers after which they compared their results.

Inclusion Criteria

The inclusion criteria for this systematic review were fixed. The results had to be a scientific publication written in English and published between 01.01.2017 and 31.07.2023. All included papers were required to involve a medical area, describe and evaluate at least one Explainable Artificial Intelligence (XAI) method or they had to be a literature review about XAI.

Exclusion Criteria

Publications that were not written in English, which were not published in a peer-reviewed scientific journal or were not full scientific publications (for example Abstracts, Posters, Books, or editorials) were excluded. If the depiction of a medical area, a XAI-method or an evaluation of this XAI-method were absent from the publication, the publication was also excluded, as these were irrelevant to the review.

Outcome Assessment

The goal of this systematic review was to identify publications pertinent to user trust/ experience/ satisfaction evaluations of XAI in the health care system. We also aimed to find the most often used methods for the evaluation of usability/user experience of XAI-methods.

Bias Assessment

The results were at risk of bias due to the subjective opinion of the reviewers, which we tried to avoid by having each paper be reviewed by two separate reviewers, individually. Furthermore, risk of bias existed due to the fact we might not have found all fitting publications with our search query, even though we developed it to the best of our knowledge.

Results

Study Selection

During the literature search within PubMed, PubMedCentral, ScienceDirect and Google Scholar 6,008 publications were identified using the search terms and the publication date restrictions (Figure 1).

Combining Results, filtration Full Text

After extracting the results from each database, the export files containing the 6,008 references were imported into Citavi Version 6 using the “exclude duplicates” option. During the import Citavi identified 54 duplicates, which were excluded. In sum, 5,954 papers remained in the Citavi-project.

The first step after creating the Review project was the extraction of the papers for which a full text version could be found. Using the Citavi “Find Full Text”- option and manual internet research we found the full text versions of 5,214 papers, thus excluding the 740 papers for which the full text could not be found or could not be accessed.

Screening based on Title, Keywords and Abstract

During the literature search in the different databases, 5,214 full-text papers qualified for the first screening step.

During the first screening step the papers were included or excluded based on their title, keywords and abstract and if these matched the following inclusion criteria. The papers were included if the reviewed material presented proof of the paper being a scientific publication written in English, including material about a medical area, at least one XAI method and some sort of user-based scientific evaluation. The other option for the inclusion was if the paper was a literature review about XAI.

During this step we identified 762 papers for the temporary inclusion, excluded 4,444 and identified an additional 8 duplicates that were missed by Citavi during the import process.

Screening based on Full Text

The full texts of the remaining 762 publications were then screened during the second screening step. Each paper was categorized into at least one specific medical category, a category about the XAI which was presented and the evaluation type, if this was not possible the paper was excluded from further examination.

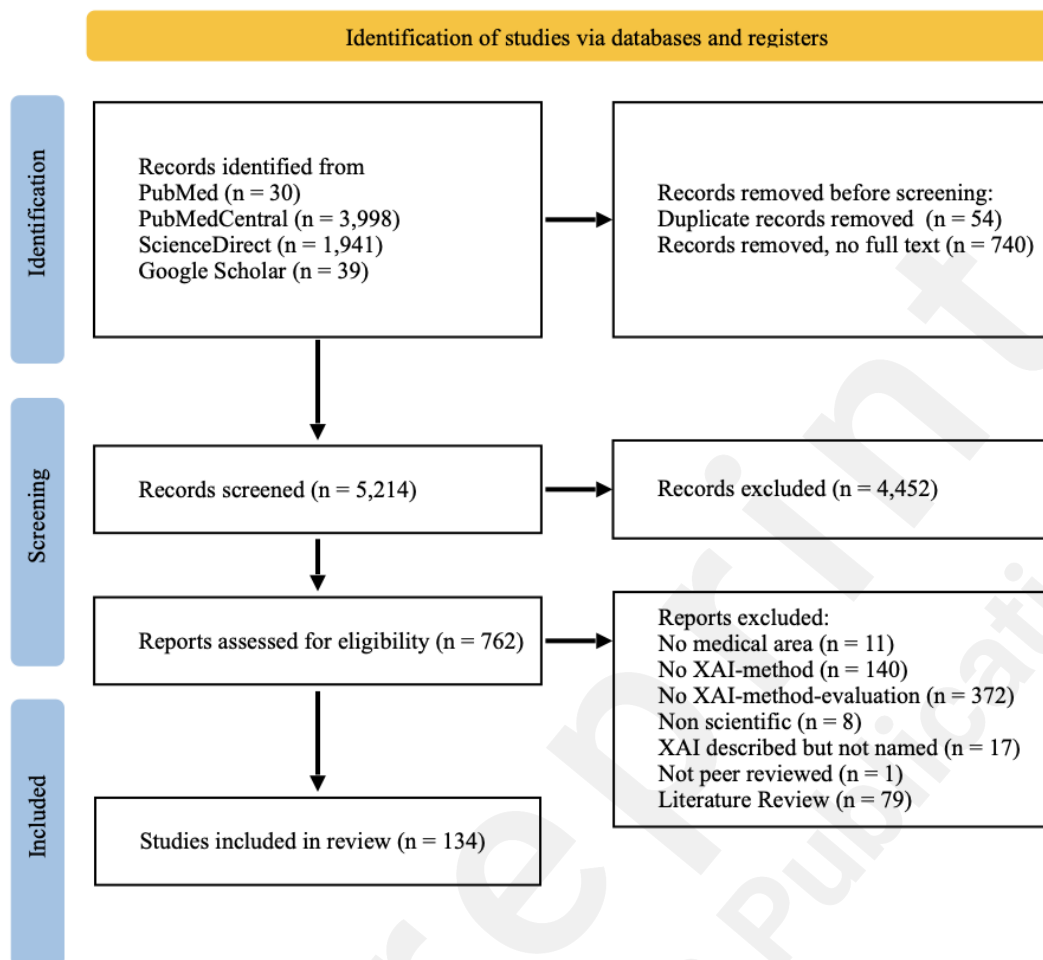
Thus, there were three exclusion categories: no medical area, no XAI-method, no XAI-method-evaluation. During the screening process additional exclusion categories emerged: non scientific, XAI described but not named and not peer reviewed. We also excluded all literature reviews at this point.

Each literature review was extracted and sorted into a category specifically for them, as they would provide possible cross-references later in the review process.

The literature reviews were scanned for cross-references, but no eligible cross-references were identified.

During the second screening step, 628 papers were excluded, leaving 134 results eligible for this systematic review.

Figure 1. Flow Diagram of our PRISMA literature research in the four previously listed databases based on the template of [14]. Out of 6,008 references, 134 were included in this review.



Results of Bias in Studies

The main risk within this review is that the results are based upon the subjective opinion of the reviewers. We aim to avoid this bias by ensuring that each paper is reviewed individually by at least two separate reviewers.

Furthermore, risk of bias exists due to the fact we might not have found all fitting publications with our search query, even though we developed it to the best of our knowledge.

Results of Included Studies

The 134 included studies were categorized into 26 different medical categories visible in Table 3.1. 67 standardized and 35 new XAI methods were identified within the included studies and are visualized in Table 3.2. Lastly, the included studies were classified into 15 evaluation categories listed in Table 3.3. Of the 15 evaluation categories identified, 12 were user-centered. These user-centered categories were based on components which increase the usability of a system, some of which were introduced in the introduction of this paper. The exact categories, as well as the list of papers in each category, are visualized within Table 3.3 starting at the 4th row. A large percentage of the remaining 99 papers were assigned the category “comparison” in combination with “effectiveness” and/or “efficiency” (Table 3.3). 40 papers only described an “effectiveness”- evaluation.

Most of the reviewed papers were categorized into multiple categories of the medical, XAI and evaluation category.

Table 2. Results Table depicting the categorization into medical areas of the included references.

Medical Area	Number of References	References
Radiology	33	[15–47]
Neurology	20	[31,41,45,48–63]
COVID*	19	[15–19,21,22,24,28,34,38,42,64–70]
Cardiology	17	[71–87]
Intensive care	11	[37,65,82,83,88–94]
Pulmonology	10	[22,29,30,35,37,93,95–98]
Oncology	10	[46,47,50,99–105]
Gynaecology	9	[39,46,50,80,102,103,105–107]
Pathology	9	[5,99,100,108–113]
Medical Genetics	8	[62,69,103,107,114–117]
Ophthalmology	7	[44,101,118–122]
General Medicine/Diagnosis	7	[123–129]
Endocrinology	6	[119,120,130–133]
Pharmacology	5	[71,116,134–136]
Pediatrics	4	[80,95,101,137]
Gastroenterology	3	[43,104,138]
Orthopedic surgery	3	[26,27,139]
Dentistry	2	[140,141]
Dermatology	2	[106,142]
Nutritional Medicine	2	[143,144]
Psychiatry	2	[41,145]
Anesthesiology	1	[146]
Internal medicine	1	[130]
Anesthesiology	1	[146]
Physiology	1	[139]
General Surgery	1	[147]

* Not a medical category but a subcategory of Pulmonology which was partitioned off due increased publications during the pandemic

Table 3. Results Table depicting the categorization into different XAI-methods groups of the included references.

Explainable AI (XAI)	Number of References	References
SHAP	56	[26,31,39,41,47–

		49,51,52,54,58,60,62,65–67,69,70,73,75,76,78–80,82–87,92–94,98,101–103,105,107,114,116,117,121–123,126,128–130,132,134,135,137,138,144,146]
GradCAM	35	[5,15,16,18–24,27–29,31,33,34,36,38,42,44,45,56,57,61,72,77,81,95,97,99,108,109,119,141,142]
LIME	34	[18,26,28,31,32,47,50,51,54,55,58,62,64,66,67,69,76–78,82,85,93,94,97,101,105,111,123,128,129,131,133,136,140]
Saliency Maps	11	[5,15,17,20,35,36,53,56,101,108,118]
Counterfactuals	9	[5,32,40,58,68,125,130,139,145]
Guided Backpropagation	9	[5,25,31,34,36,41,45,121,142]
Guided Grad-CAM	8	[31,34,41,44,45,113,119,142]
Integrated Gradients	8	[20,31,41,45,52,108,127,128]
Occlusion	8	[28,31,59,77,118–120,127]
Partial Dependence Plot (PDP)	8	[58,65,70,75,82,133,136,138]
Anchors	4	[58,66,67,124]
Layer-Wise Relevance Propagation (LRP)	4	[15,25,32,41]
Permutation Feature Importance (PIMP)	4	[51,75,138,145]
Eli5	3	[58,66,67]
GradCAM++	3	[15,33,38]
QLattice	3	[58,66,67]
CAM	2	[97,110]
deepLift	2	[31,41]
Explainable Boosting Machine (EBM)	2	[84,88]
Feature Importance	2	[48,67]
ScoreCAM	2	[33,38]
SmoothGrad	2	[31,41]
Taylor Decomposition	2	[25,87]
Vanilla Gradients	2	[40,108]
XGBoost as XAI	2	[63,84]
XRAI (based on Integrated Gradients)	2	[108,142]
Automated Concept-Based Explanation (ACE)	1	[113]
Average-CAM	1	[97]
Average-Grad-CAM	1	[97]
Blur Integrated Gradients	1	[108]

BreakDown & iBreakDown	1	[94]
Class-Selective Relevance Maps (CRM)	1	[35]
Concept Attribution	1	[5]
Contrastive Explanations Method (CEM)	1	[145]
DALEX	1	[93]
Deconvolution	1	[31]
DeepLabv3+	1	[106]
deepLift SHAP	1	[41]
DenseASPP	1	[106]
Exact Shapley values	1	[129]
Explanation-by-Example (ExMatchina)	1	[58]
ExpliClas	1	[135]
FasterScore-CAM	1	[38]
Feature Ablation	1	[31]
Feature Permutation	1	[31]
G-Deep-SHAP	1	[50]
Generalized Additive Model (GAM)	1	[74]
Generalized Linear Model (GLM)	1	[74]
Gradient Analysis	1	[41]
GUAJE	1	[135]
Guided Integrated Gradients	1	[108]
Hires-CAM	1	[33]
InputXGradient	1	[41]
Layers-CAM	1	[33]
Logistic Regression Classifiers (LR)	1	[78]
LORE	1	[124]
Network Dissection	1	[57]
Permutation Sample Importance (PFI)	1	[76]
Permutation Testing	1	[78]
Random Forest as XAI	1	[68]
Random Forest Classifier	1	[78]
RefineNet	1	[106]
RELAX	1	[43]
RISE	1	[28]
SHAPHT	1	[63]
Uncertain-CAM	1	[19]
Xgrad-CAM	1	[33]
New Methods	3	[15,36,125]
TWIX	1	[147]
Ada-WHIPS	1	[124]
AggMapNet	1	[116]
AI-CAD	1	[30]
Attention Branch Network (ABN)	1	[110]
Automatic Explanation Method	1	[96]
BI-RADS-NET-V2	1	[46]

BoCSor XAI	1	[48]
CACHE-Grader	1	[112]
CA-Net	1	[106]
Case-Based Reasoning	1	[102]
COmic	1	[115]
Compensated Integrated Gradients	1	[52]
COVID-GMIC, COVID-GMIC-DRC, COVID-GBM t	1	[37]
COVID-view	1	[16]
Cumulative Fuzzy Class Membership Criterion (CFCMC)	1	[100]
DeepAISE	1	[91]
DeepConsensus	1	[90]
ENDOANGEL-LA	1	[104]
ExplAIn	1	[120]
FSXRF - Feature Selection with Explainable Random Forest	1	[68]
Graph Chart Diagram	1	[80]
MIME	1	[127]
Multi-Input Conv-Att	1	[61]
Natural Language Generation	1	[143]
NDG-CAM	1	[99]
NeuroXAI	1	[45]
SkiNet	1	[142]
Spectro-Temporal Attention (STA)	1	[72]
Text Based Explanations	1	[71]
TraCE	1	[40]
XAIRE	1	[89]
XGBoost Classifier	1	[102]
xVITCOS	1	[17]

Table 4. Results Table depicting the categorization into evaluation types of the included references.

Evaluation Types	Number of References	References
Effectiveness	100	[5,15,17-24,26-29,31,33,35-41,43,44,46,48-52,55-58,60,63,65-68,70,72-76,78-80,84,85,88,89,91,95-104,106-115,117,119,120,122-132,134,135,138-143,145-147]
Comparison *	67	[5,15,18-20,25,26,28,32-34,36,38,40-42,45,47,48,50,52,54,58,59,62,63,69,70,72,74-78,82-85,87,92-

		94,97,101,102,105,106,108,110,113,116,118,119,121,123–125,127–130,133,136,138,142,144,147]
User Satisfaction	22	[5,16,23,28,30,32,43,44,49,53,61,64,71,81,88,100,102,104,121,125,126,137]
Explainability	14	[5,16,23,28,30–32,49,54,90,102,114,126,143]
Efficiency	14	[31,38,42,44,48,50,52,68,76,106,115,117,124,145]
Trust	11	[5,28,31,32,41,49,64,76,104,125,126]
Utility	8	[28,31,49,53,88,108,126,137]
Learnability	4	[32,53,73,102]
Transparency	4	[30,31,57,126]
Fidelity	2	[90,138]
Generalizability	1	[90]
Interpretability	1	[138]
Persuasiveness	1	[90]
Repeatability	1	[20]
Reproducibility	1	[20]

* not an attribute but rather a comparison of different XAI methods within the paper

Results of syntheses

Of the 5,214 full text papers identified during our initial search, 762 publications were eligible for the second round of screening, describing a medical area, XAI method and some sort of evaluation within their titles, abstracts or keywords (Figure 1). Of these remaining papers, only 134 papers ended up being included for this systematic review, with only 99 describing a technical evaluation of the used XAI methods. Only 34 publications included some sort of user-based evaluation (Table 3.3).

There is not one specific user-based evaluation method that is used to evaluate the XAI methods, though more than a third of the papers, 15 to be exact, use a type of questionnaire to gather feedback about their used XAI methods (Table 3.4). While 15 of these publications used self-designed questionnaires, two used standardized questionnaires additionally and one solely (Table 3.4). A large number of papers also described an evaluation of the improvement of the accuracy of the clinicians when using AI and XAI without focusing on the opinions of the clinicians.

Table 5. listing all used methods for the evaluation of usability/user experience of the different XAI-methods.

Method for the evaluation of usability/user experience	Number of References	Papers using this Method

Self-constructed Survey/Questionnaires	15	[5,28,30–32,49,61,76,100,102,104,121,125,126,130,143]
Interviews / Focus Group	4	[5,31,71,81,102,137]
User Centered Design	3	[16,88,137]
SUS Questionnaire	2	[53,143]
Several Standardized questionnaires (Explanation Satisfaction Scale, Trust in Automation (TiA), Discrete Emotions Questionnaire (DEQ))	1	[32]
Z-Inspection®	1	[64]
Computational explainability checks		
Method testing, working with AI and XAI	5	[23,44,73,76,108]
Other	3	[41,54,57]
Feature based scores	2	[90,138]
Pearson correlation and mean SHAP	1	[114]
Relevance rank accuracy score (ground truth)	1	[43]
Utility	1	[20]

Reporting Bias and Certainty of Evidence

During the screening process, some papers described their methods as being explainable because of the usage of different XAI methods without ever going into detail about how the methods were used or if they improved the usability or explainability of the system for the end-user; thus never proceeding to do any sort of evaluation.

Discussion and Conclusion

Principal Results

We started by doing a literature search on four databases, using a search query to achieve a good consistency of all results throughout the databases.

Of the 6,008 resulting papers, we first extracted the 54 duplicates automatically using the Citavi import system. After the remaining 5,954 papers were imported, we searched for the full text versions of the papers. We found the full text versions of 5,214 results. These results were then filtered based on set requirements based on their title, keywords and the abstract. During the first screening step, we excluded 4,452 papers, leaving 762 publications to be screened during the second step. The full texts were analyzed and categorized based on the presented medical area, XAI method and evaluation type. If the publication could not be sorted into all three categories at least once, the paper was excluded. After the second screening step, only 134 papers were eligible to be included in our systematic review. During this last step, only 34 of

the 134 papers were sorted into user-based evaluation categories.

This confirmed our hypothesis that XAI is rarely evaluated, let alone developed, in relation to the needs of the end-user. Especially when reviewing the 34 papers sorted into user-based evaluation categories, it became clear that XAI is very rarely developed in relation to the end-user. Only 3 of the 6,008 papers that were selected by our initial search presented a User Centered Design-Process, thus a user-centered development of the XAI.

There was not one specific usability evaluation method which was prominent within the publications presenting a user-based evaluation and there was no detailed information on which specific elements of the XAI provided the users with additional trust in the systems.

Limitations

The results are at risk of bias due to the subjective opinion of the reviewers, which we aimed to avoid by having each paper reviewed by at least two reviewers separately before they discussed their individual categorization.

An additional limitation is the restricted number of databases that we searched. There might have been more papers published within other databases that would have fit our search query as well.

Lastly, there were some papers which were difficult to classify into specific medical/XAI/evaluation categories during the final screening step. The reason for the categorization issue varied. Most often than not, the issue arose around the categorization into a specific evaluation category. While some papers mentioned explainability and evaluation within their titles, keywords or abstracts, they only had very vague effectiveness evaluations which didn't refer to the ground truth and did not compare their results with any other methods within their full texts. Other papers included user-based evaluation keywords but did not explicitly describe any user involvement. [58] is an example of such a paper. While they use the keywords fidelity and understandability, they do not describe any user involvement and base their XAI grading solely on technical features and their own opinion.

Comparison with Prior Work

The scientific community has been aware of the need for transparency of AI systems long before this review [1–5,8]. Nevertheless, only a handful of studies have attempted to bridge the gap between technical implementation and user experience of XAI in the health care domain [5]. Many publications that strive to learn about the explainability of XAI methods chose to conduct interviews with the end users (Table 3.4) [148] or interview design experts to review the development side of usability [149]. However, there are some publications, including [150] which try to summarize the discovered knowledge about usability as we have done here. [150] for instance focuses on extracting the explanation type and the effect of it on the user while we focused on the specific user-based evaluation types.

Conclusion and Future Work

This paper presented the results of a systematic review done based on the PRISMA 2020 guidelines. During the review, the hypothesis was confirmed that XAI is rarely evaluated, let alone developed, in relation to the needs of the end-user and that there is no standardized user-based evaluation method.

Based on this review we conclude that there is still a desperate need for more involvement of the end-user during the development or at least during the evaluation of the created XAI

models. This would ensure a safer usage of the XAI after the development phase, as users would have been in contact with the system early on and could be more aware of its limitations. This awareness could improve the relationship and thus the trust of the end-users in the system and make for a smoother implementation of these developed systems in the work environment.

Additionally, to improve the development process, we advise the creation of a standardized framework or evaluation method to support the generalizability of XAI methods.

If XAI isn't developed closer to the needs of the end-user, evaluated from the end-user or at best developed with the users, we expect that the implementation of explainable artificial intelligence in the health care environment will get increasingly hard.

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Conflicts of Interest

None to declare.

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