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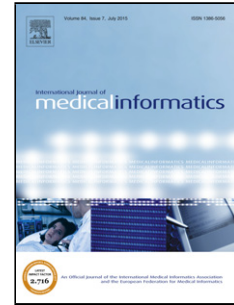
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## Summary Table

Manuscript title: “**Artificial Intelligence for Humanitarian and Global Health: A Literature Review**”

Authors: Muhammad Imran and Luis Fernandez-Luque

- 1) There are many examples of the use of artificial intelligence in health and humanitarian health. These experiences are mostly limited to outbreak detection.
- 2) There is lack of frameworks and policies to ensure data interoperability and sharing in humanitarian health and crisis.
- 3) There is lack of studies on human and organizational factors which can be a major barrier for development and acceptance of the technology.
- 4) There is a lack of studies in the context of low-income countries and some types of crisis (e.g. armed conflicts).

# Humanitarian Health Computing using Artificial Intelligence and Social Media: A Narrative Literature Review

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## Abstract

**Introduction:** According to the World Health Organization (WHO), over 130 million people are in constant need of humanitarian assistance due to natural disasters, disease outbreaks, and conflicts, among other factors. These health crises can compromise the resilience of healthcare systems, which are essential for achieving the health objectives of the sustainable development goals (SDGs) of the United Nations (UN). During a humanitarian health crisis, rapid and informed decision making is required. This is often challenging due to information scarcity, limited resources, and strict time constraints. Moreover, the traditional approach to digital health development, which involves a substantial requirement analysis, a feasibility study, and deployment of technology, is ill-suited for many crisis contexts. The emergence of Web 2.0 technologies and social media platforms in the past decade, such as Twitter, has created a new paradigm of massive information and misinformation, in which new technologies need to be developed to aid rapid decision making during humanitarian health crises.

**Objective:** Humanitarian health crises increasingly require the analysis of massive amounts of information produced by different sources, such as social media content, and, hence, they are a prime case for the use of artificial intelligence (AI) techniques to help identify relevant information and make it actionable. To identify challenges and opportunities for using AI in humanitarian health crises, we reviewed the literature on the use of AI techniques to process social media.

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**Methodology:** We performed a narrative literature review aimed at identifying examples of the use of AI in humanitarian health crises. Our search strategy was designed to get a broad overview of the different applications of AI in a humanitarian health crisis and their challenges. A total of 1,459 articles were screened, and 24 articles were included in the final analysis.

**Results:** Successful case studies of AI applications in a humanitarian health crisis have been reported, such as for outbreak detection. A commonly shared concern in the reviewed literature is the technical challenge of analyzing large amounts of data in real time. Data interoperability, which is essential to data sharing, is also a barrier with regard to the integration of online and traditional data sources.

Human and organizational aspects that might be key factors for the adoption of AI and social media remain understudied. There is also a publication bias toward high-income countries, as we identified few examples in low-income countries. Further, we did not identify any examples of certain types of major crisis, such as armed conflicts, in which misinformation might be more common.

**Conclusions:** The feasibility of using AI to extract valuable information during a humanitarian health crisis is proven in many cases. There is a lack of research on how to integrate the use of AI into the work-flow and large-scale deployments of humanitarian aid during a health crisis.

*Keywords:* Health emergency, machine learning, global health, social media, internet, artificial intelligence, epidemiology

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## 1. Introduction

According to the World Health Organization (WHO), over 130 million people are in need of humanitarian assistance, which can be related, among other factors, to natural disasters, disease outbreaks, and conflicts [1]. Managing a major health crisis requires addressing issues at various levels, from prevention and preparedness to response and recovery. Worldwide, and especially in low- to middle-income countries, a major health crisis can compromise the resilience of a country's healthcare systems, which are essential for achieving the health objectives of the sustainable development goals (SDGs).

Decision making during humanitarian health crises must be rapid and informed, and new technologies, especially those based on artificial intelligence (AI) techniques, are required; emerging data sources, such as social media,

13 can facilitate this process [2]. Dealing with big data for a humanitarian  
14 health response is becoming increasingly necessary [3]; however, questions  
15 arise about how to apply AI techniques and utilize social media for humani-  
16 tarian and global health issues.

17 This paper aims to provide an overview of the current state of the art  
18 in the use of AI and social media for humanitarian and global health. The  
19 purpose of this paper overlaps with various areas, including global health,  
20 crisis computing, humanitarian health, and digital health in low- to middle-  
21 income countries. The focus of this work is to study the role of AI in the  
22 application of digital health in those areas.

### 23 1.1. Background

24 Handling a health crisis is a crucial element of the SDGs. The third SDG,  
25 in particular, calls for strengthened capacity, research, and development to  
26 ensure health and well-being at any stage of life. Consequently, humanitarian  
27 health crises are a major risk that can threaten efforts toward ensuring health  
28 and well-being for all, at every stage of life. Medical informatics can help  
29 reduce the impact and risks inherent in such crises. Humanitarian health  
30 crises have inherent characteristics that must be considered: they (i) put  
31 stress on the resilience of health authorities (e.g., the situation can easily  
32 spiral out of control), (ii) might or might not be anticipated by relevant  
33 stakeholders (e.g., a hurricane season might be anticipated, but an outbreak  
34 of new disease might not), (iii) involve uncertainty due to the novelty of the  
35 crisis or a lack of previous knowledge and preparedness, and (iv) have an  
36 important impact on the health of a population and on the resilience of a  
37 country's healthcare system(s).

38 Humanitarian disasters create uncertainty but nevertheless demand rapid  
39 decision making, often with little or no information. Information scarcity is  
40 a major challenge when it comes to disaster response. However, with re-  
41 cent advances in information and communication technologies (ICT) and the  
42 emergence of social media sites, such as Twitter, researchers have tried to  
43 bridge this gap by incorporating information originating from multiple social  
44 media sources. AI techniques such as information retrieval, information clas-  
45 sification and summarization, time-series analysis, and predictive analytics  
46 help process high volumes of data produced from heterogeneous data sources.

47 Building upon the above-described concepts of humanitarian health, AI  
48 and ICT techniques, and social media, we define the concept of *Humanitar-  
49 ian Health Computing (HHC)* as follows:

50 *“The use of information and communication technologies (ICT) and artificial*  
51 *intelligence (AI) techniques to develop computational models for responses to*  
52 *humanitarian health crises caused by conflicts, wars, natural hazards, severe*  
53 *weather conditions, or disease outbreaks.*

54

55 Overall, AI for HHC can be used for awareness, preparedness, prevention,  
56 and recovery. Possible outcomes of the use of AI for HHC include gaining  
57 situational awareness, learning about actionable cases, and improving com-  
58 munication throughout the lifespan of a health crisis. However, information  
59 is a key element for an effective application of AI techniques during a health  
60 crisis. Since decision making has to be done quickly and errors can be catas-  
61 trophic, the availability of credible information is crucial. Big data can play  
62 a major role in health and humanitarian crises [4]. For example, mobile tech-  
63 nologies have been used for monitoring food security during a humanitarian  
64 crisis [5]. As explained below, many applications of emerging social media  
65 data sources exist.

66 Among other uses, information from social media can aid the early detec-  
67 tion of disease outbreaks. Studies have shown early reports on social media  
68 describing symptoms of a health problem [6, 7]. Once a potential outbreak  
69 is detected, keenly observing the situation as it unfolds is one of the core  
70 tasks of an effective healthcare response [8].

71 In crisis management, the importance of community and public education  
72 is emphasized. Decades after the HIV (Human immunodeficiency virus in-  
73 fection) outbreak, this epidemic is still a major public health concern; HHC  
74 could be a useful tool for engaging with the public in a scalable way [9, 10, 11].

75 Other emerging technologies that accord with our concept of HHC have  
76 been used to launch effective responses to humanitarian health crisis. For  
77 example, vulnerable populations can look for possible signs and symptoms  
78 of an ongoing outbreak, while affected individuals can ask treatment-related  
79 questions and visit nearby health emergency centers to get appropriate treat-  
80 ment [12].

81 The use of mobile and online data sources can easily lead to informa-  
82 tion overload, and manual processing of online information is not possi-  
83 ble due to its high volume and velocity. During large outbreaks, the fre-  
84 quency of relevant social media messages could be up to several thousand per  
85 minute. Advanced data analytics approaches are being developed and used  
86 on platforms such as AIDR (Artificial Intelligence for Disaster Response)  
87 [13] or <http://healthmap.org/>. Related to this is the issue of detecting

88 misinformation[14] and irrelevant content as most of the information available  
89 on social media during outbreaks could be irrelevant, and it often contains  
90 rumors rather than solid fact [15].

## 91 2. Methodology

92 Our literature review methodology is based on that of the scoping re-  
93 view (i.e., Tricco et al. [16]) and that designed by the International Medical  
94 Informatics Association (IMIA) Yearbook editors for surveying medical in-  
95 formatics sub-disciplines Lamy et al. [17]. We decided to base our review on  
96 those methods because their designs allowed us to get an overview of multiple  
97 disciplines. The use of a narrative review also allowed us to consider many  
98 types of article for the analysis.

### 99 2.1. Study selection

100 Figure 1 describes different steps performed for the selection of relevant  
101 articles.

102 **Data sources and inclusion criteria:** The inclusion criteria were set to  
103 include English language papers published from 1 January to 30 March 2017  
104 in PubMed (292 results), the IEEE Xplore Digital Library (164 results), and  
105 the ACM Digital Library (1,051 results). There were 17 duplicates across all  
106 the databases. This selection criterion was followed to maximize the inclu-  
107 sion of both technical and health-related articles reporting on the use of AI  
108 in areas related to crisis computing for health and humanitarian health, such  
109 as feasibility studies, pilots, editorials, and reviews.

110  
111 **Generic query model and keyword selection:** Our review spans several  
112 disciplines and also aims to provide an overview of the latest trends in the use  
113 of artificial intelligence in humanitarian health. For the design of the search  
114 queries, we followed a similar approach to the methodology created by Lamy  
115 et. al. for the development of survey papers withing the IMIA (International  
116 Medical Informatics Association) Yearbook [17]. These surveys are designed  
117 to provide an overview of the current state of the art of sub-disciplines of  
118 medical informatics, taking into special consideration the multidisciplinary  
119 nature of the state of the art. Each query is a conjunction of four types  
120 of filters: (i) *topic filter*, (ii) *domain filter*, (iii) *situation filter*, and (iv)  
121 *publication filter*.

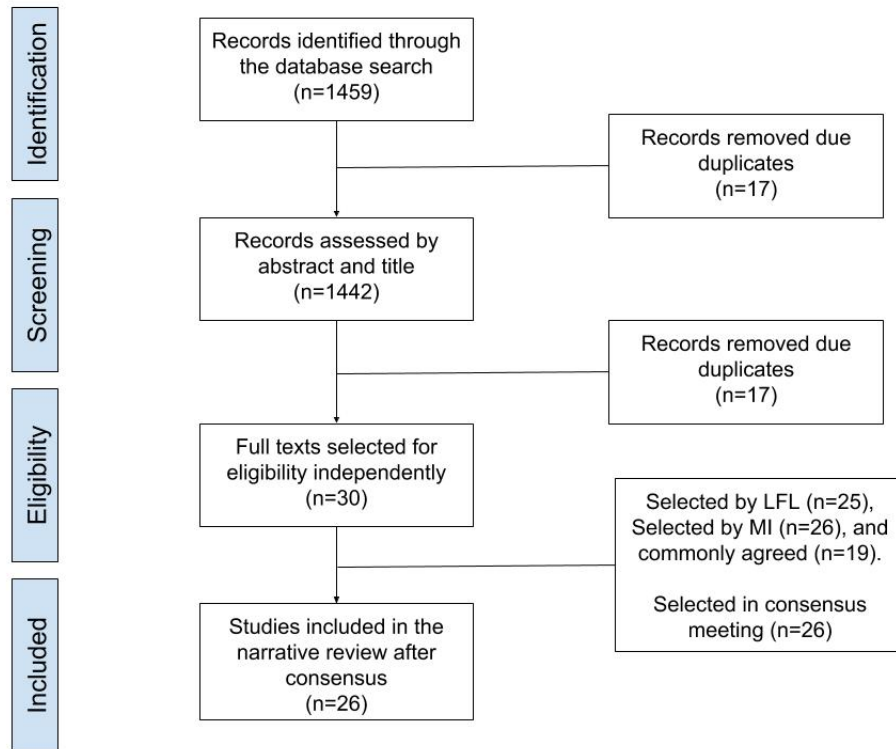


Figure 1: Flow diagram showing all the steps followed for the selection and inclusion of studies

122 The *domain* part of the query represents our domain, which is "health"  
 123 during crises and emergencies. The *situation* part of the query brings crisis  
 124 and humanitarian contexts such as wars, natural disasters etc. The *topic*  
 125 part of the query includes technical keywords such as "machine learning",  
 126 "artificial intelligence". Finally, we also included *publication filters* to ensure  
 127 the retrieval of recent publications. As each scholarly database contains  
 128 different types of articles and constraints, we adapted the generic structure  
 129 of the query to a database-specific structure as follows (see table below).

130 For example, the PubMed query has the three filters as explained be-  
 131 fore: (i) topic filter about humanitarian and health crisis, (ii) domain filter,  
 132 and (iii) publication filter. The queries of IEEE Xplore Digital Library and  
 133 ACM Library were adapted to match the characteristics of corresponding  
 134 databases.



Database	Query
IEEE Explorer	<i>((health) AND (crisis OR humanitarian OR emergency OR war OR hurricane OR earthquake OR disaster OR volcan OR outbreak OR refugee OR tsunami OR cyclone OR Wildfire) AND (artificial intelligence OR machine learning OR deep learning OR computer vision)))</i>
PubMed	<i>("Health crisis"[Title/Abstract] OR "health emergency"[Title/Abstract] OR "Humanitarian"[Title/Abstract] OR "War"[Title/Abstract] OR "refugee"[Title/Abstract] OR "disaster"[Title/Abstract] OR Flood[Title/Abstract] OR Armed conflict [Title/Abstract] Internally displaced person[Title/Abstract] OR Hurricane[Title/Abstract] OR cyclone OR polio outbreak [Title/Abstract] tsunami[Title/Abstract] OR EARTHQUAKE[Title/Abstract] OR Volcan [Title/Abstract]OR Wildfire[Title/Abstract] OR Famine[Title/Abstract] OR Storm[Title/Abstract] OR Zika outbreak [Title/Abstract] OR Ebola outbreak[Title/Abstract] OR natural hazard[Title/Abstract] OR mers outbreak [Title/Abstract] OR tornado [Title/Abstract] OR extreme temperature [Title/Abstract] OR heat wave [Title/Abstract] OR cold wave [Title/Abstract] OR drought [Title/Abstract] OR pandemic [Title/Abstract] OR forest fire [Title/Abstract] OR nuclear hazard [Title/Abstract] OR nuclear explosion [Title/Abstract]) AND ("Machine learning"[Title/Abstract] OR "artificial intelligence"[Title/Abstract] OR "data mining"[Title/Abstract] OR "deep learning"[Title/Abstract] OR "neuronal network"[Title/Abstract] OR "data analytics"[Title/Abstract] OR mobile[Title/Abstract] OR computing[Title/Abstract] OR internet[Title/Abstract] OR computer vision[Title/Abstract]) AND ((2017[DP] OR 2016[DP] OR 2015[DP] OR 2014[DP] OR 2013[DP]OR 2012[DP]))</i>
ACM Library	<i>acmdlTitle:(+health crisis, emergency, humanitarian, war, refugee, disaster, conflict, flood, armed conflict, internally displaced person, hurricane, cyclone, polio outbreak, tsunami, earthquake, volcano, wildfire, famine, storm, zika outbreak, ebola outbreak, mers outbreak, natural hazard, tornado, blizzard, dust storm, extreme temperature, heat wave, cold wave, drought, forest fire, epidemic, pandemic, nuclear hazard, nuclear explosion) AND recordAbstract:(computing, artificial intelligence, ICT, machine learning, data mining, deep learning, neural network, data analytics, big data, informatics) "filter": "publicationYear": "gte":2012, "lte":2017</i>

136 **Study selection:** Articles addressing the use of data mining in global and  
 137 humanitarian health, which included social media as data sources, were in-  
 138 cluded in the review. The authors reviewed a total of 1,459 articles inde-  
 139 pendently using the application Rayyan Ouzzani et al. [18] based on each  
 140 article’s abstract and title. Of those, 17 duplicate articles were removed.  
 141 The author LFL selected 25 articles, and MI selected 24, with agreement  
 142 on 19 articles. Discrepancies were addressed in a consensus meeting which  
 143 resulted in the inclusion of 26 articles.

144 **Data extraction and analysis:** Full-text articles were reviewed by both  
 145 authors, and the main contributions of each paper were analyzed for this  
 146 narrative review. For each study, we analyzed the aim, the target popu-  
 147 lation, the health problem(s) being discussed, the technology involved, the  
 148 country, the type of pilot study, the evaluation used, and the barriers and  
 149 opportunities faced. Two papers were excluded from the full-text review:  
 150 one de Quincey et al. [19] was excluded because it focused on hay fever and  
 151 allergies, and a paper on disease risk mapping Raheja and S. Rajan [20] was  
 152 excluded due to its lack of discussion of AI.

### 153 3. Results

154 As explained below, we mainly found publications dealing with the use  
 155 of AI during major outbreaks, some of which were triggered due to natural  
 156 disasters. Few articles reviewed the use of AI for applications in natural dis-  
 157 asters (e.g., heat waves and pollution). Tables 1 and 2 show the classification  
 158 of the reviewed literature into different health crisis phases and types.

Table 1: Studies classified into different phases of humanitarian health crises

Health crisis phases	Related studies
Prediction, early warning, and preparation	[21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26]
Impact, damage assessment, and response	[27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 9]
Recovery and reconstruction	[32, 29, 30, 31, 33, 9]
Mitigation and prevention	[34, 35, 33, 36, 9, 24]

#### 159 3.1. Surveys and systematic reviews

160 We decided to include reviews and surveys in our analysis to identify new  
 161 areas of applications and potential barriers to the use of AI in global health  
 162 and humanitarian aid crises.

Table 2: Studies classified into different health crisis types

Health crisis types	Related studies
Natural disasters	[25, 25]
	[22, 37, 28]
Epidemics	[27, 24] [38, 39, 21]
	[22, 23, 29]
	[32, 30, 31]
Pandemics	[40, 41]

163 A review published in 2012 provided an overview of the different steps  
 164 involved in the text mining of online sources for digital epidemiology (mainly  
 165 outbreak detection)[42]. Among the challenges highlighted in the article was  
 166 the need for up-to-date ontologies that describe the content found in online  
 167 sources and the need for the integration of offline data sources. This survey  
 168 also provided an overview of freely available systems, such as HealthMap,  
 169 BioCaster, and open source tools. Although the BioCaster project has  
 170 been discontinued, its source code and ontology are freely available online  
 171 at <https://github.com/nhcollier/biocaster-ontology>. In addition, the review  
 172 of Saini and Kohli focused on the use of various machine learning techniques  
 173 to analyze text from health social networks. A more recent review on the  
 174 use of big data for health Fang et al. addressed technical issues in this area  
 175 by emphasizing the difficulty of detecting potential outbreaks in real time.

176 L. Tsui et al. published a recent technical survey on the use of AI for track-  
 177 ing global pandemics [40]. The authors reviewed the necessary elements for  
 178 modeling and forecasting pandemics using machine learning. They identified  
 179 the challenge of integrating disparate data sources as one of the barriers to  
 180 the development of this AI application, highlighting the need for more work  
 181 on interoperability and policies to foster data sharing. The authors argued  
 182 that more multidisciplinary work is needed that involves a wide range of  
 183 stakeholders, including public health policymakers.

184 Al-garadi et al. provided a systematic review of the literature on pandemic  
 185 surveillance using online social network data [41]. The authors stressed the  
 186 rich information that social networks contain, which is useful to track pan-  
 187 demics. In the survey, a number of machine learning-based techniques for  
 188 processing social media data are reported. The systematic review analyzed a  
 189 total of 20 studies, but despite its focus on global pandemics, only two stud-

190 ies in low- to middle-income countries were identified (Brazil and China).  
191 Further, nearly all the studies focused on the use of Twitter, but this social  
192 network has low penetration in many low-income countries. A related review  
193 [38] reported the problem of false positives and negatives as one of the main  
194 challenges for the analysis of social media data in the detection of outbreaks.

195 Bates recently published an overview paper on digital epidemiology for  
196 predicting outbreaks [39]. In the article, the author explains the evolution  
197 of the discipline and describes some of the most well-known platforms, such  
198 as <http://healthmap.org/>. This overview also examines the barriers iden-  
199 tified by leading researchers in the field. These include the privacy issues  
200 that underlie the use of online social media (e.g. privacy concerns of us-  
201 ing shared personal information in social media). Another issue identified  
202 in the paper is the potential bias of digital epidemiology due to the lack  
203 of representation of some sectors of the population in social media. A re-  
204 view [45] focused on the social science aspects of digital epidemiology points  
205 out the disparity between medical terminology and the vocabulary used by  
206 laypersons to describe a symptom or condition. In this review, the authors  
207 explain transformations that occur at a social level, such as the active evo-  
208 lution of concepts, the incorporation of new informants to provide public  
209 health data, and the transformation of organizations, including the creation  
210 of health–data repositories.

### 211 *3.2. Health outbreaks*

#### 212 *3.2.1. General systems for outbreak detection*

213 One of the most well-known platforms for outbreak detection is <http://healthmap.org/>, which is cited in many of the reviewed articles. Some  
214 articles also reported on other systems designed for outbreak detection. For  
215 example, Denecke et al. presents a system called M-Eco, which was primarily  
216 developed for epidemiologists, public health officials, or decision makers to  
217 monitor various information sources, such as social media, online news, TV,  
218 and radio, to detect emerging public health threats [21]. The system uses  
219 both supervised and unsupervised techniques to detect health issues and  
220 informs users about potential threats through a recommendation feature. In  
221 this case, the authors designed a classifier that facilitates the identification  
222 of content about potential threats.  
223

224 Ji et al. proposed the monitoring of public concerns, emotions, and panic  
225 about health issues on social media as a public health surveillance tool. The  
226 authors presented the Epidemic Sentiment Monitoring System (ESMOS) to

227 detect disease outbreaks over Twitter [22], employing sentiment classifiers  
228 to identify tweets with negative sentiment to generate a concern map and  
229 timeline chart.

230 In 2012, B. Neill published an article suggesting new technical approaches  
231 for the use of AI in outbreak detection [23]. The authors described how they  
232 used free text from emergency departments to create semantic scan statistics  
233 that could be used to identify topics that might be related to an outbreak.  
234 So, instead of looking for a specific disease, the authors developed a system  
235 based on topic discovery, which uses latent Dirichlet allocation.

### 236 3.2.2. *Dengue vector control*

237 One of the most crucial aspects of outbreak prevention is controlling  
238 vectors. For example, mosquito surveillance is used for the prevention of  
239 mosquito-borne diseases, such as malaria, yellow fever, and dengue. In  
240 Lee Chung-Hong et al.'s study, data about environmental risk factors for  
241 mosquito breeding are collected [34]. These include variables such as rainfall,  
242 humidity, and temperature, which were measured by sensors and collected  
243 and stored in online datasets. These datasets contained historically con-  
244 firmed cases from health records in Taiwan. Using support vector machines  
245 (SVMs), the authors explored the feasibility of predicting dengue outbreaks  
246 based on online sensor data and explored the combination of SVM models  
247 with maps for spatiotemporal analysis.

### 248 3.2.3. *Flu outbreak surveillance*

249 Influenza is one of the most common infections in humans, and it is also  
250 a cause of major concern because it is highly contagious. In recent years,  
251 several strains of the influenza virus have caused global health emergencies,  
252 such as the H1N1 strain.

253 Chen et al. developed a topic model to predict the spread of influenza  
254 in South America using Twitter data, which included geographical cues to  
255 improve the accuracy of the models [27]. The analysis of web search logs is an  
256 additional strategy for detecting outbreaks. This strategy was explored by  
257 Araz et al., who found correlations between the search for flu-related terms in  
258 the area of Omaha (United States [US]) with an increasing number of visits  
259 to the local emergency department [28]. In another study, the researchers  
260 combined epidemiological data from the H1N1 flu outbreak with mobility  
261 data (e.g., air traffic information) to simulate the evolution of the outbreak  
262 on a global scale [37]. They reported on the use of influenza surveillance

263 systems that harmonize data collection across public health agencies, such  
264 as [www.epiwork.eu](http://www.epiwork.eu).

#### 265 3.2.4. *Ebola outbreak surveillance*

266 The unprecedented Ebola outbreak in West Africa in 2014 and 2015  
267 sparked a lot of research on the use of data-driven methods for responding to  
268 this health crisis. This research not only included the use of new technologies  
269 to better understand the outbreak, but also to simulate the potential impact  
270 of the outbreak if it were to reach other urban areas.

271 The Ebola outbreak also led to complex clinical encounters, where health  
272 professionals had to make decisions under stressful situations. Colubri et al.  
273 worked in a mobile system that integrated different data sources to predict  
274 an Ebola diagnosis for a given patient [29]. The system included data cap-  
275 tured in mobile form, with clinical and laboratory data available from the  
276 EHR (Electronic Health Record). These predictive models were incorporated  
277 into the Ebola Computational Assignment of Risk Estimates (CARE) mo-  
278 bile application. The classifier built into the mobile phone was a single-layer  
279 artificial neural network due to the computing constraints of mobile devices.

280 In a study regarding the use of tweets to better understand the Ebola  
281 outbreak [32], the authors focused on the use of text mining to explore the  
282 public knowledge and attitudes of over 42 thousand tweets involving over  
283 9 million users. They combined text mining with the geo-location of each  
284 tweet to explore those knowledge patterns across affected regions. The text  
285 mining methodology they used was outlined in a previous publication [30],  
286 which incorporated sentiment analysis from another study [31].

287 In [35], an simulation of Beijing, which consisted of a multilayer social net-  
288 work framework of about 19.6 million individuals with various real-life roles  
289 (e.g., infants, students, and workers) and 8 million buildings (e.g., work-  
290 places, hospitals, and schools) [46], was used to reconstruct the spread of the  
291 Ebola epidemic following the propagation patterns observed in West Africa.  
292 Using machine learning models, which are mainly based on heuristics, the au-  
293 thors optimized the behaviors of individuals in the simulation by re-planning  
294 their daily activities (e.g., travel, sports, meals, and sleep). To predict epi-  
295 demic situations for Ebola and influenza, two measures were used, i) infection  
296 probability and ii) contact frequency, and experiments were conducted under  
297 various durations (i.e., 100 days, 180 days, and 240 days). The researchers  
298 found that residential buildings were a main source of epidemic propagation,  
299 which means that families are possible carriers of infection.

300 *3.2.5. The HIV pandemic: surveillance and education*

301 HIV/AIDS continues to be a major global health issue, causing nearly  
302 thousands of deaths worldwide every year. Consequently, the prevention  
303 of HIV and support of those living with HIV continues to be part of the  
304 humanitarian effort for global health.

305 For the management of patients with HIV, a primary task is to identify  
306 the patients' demands for information. Thangarajan et al. collected and  
307 analyzed around 11 million geo-tagged tweets over a period of one year from  
308 the San Diego area in the US. Based on the HIV-related keywords generated  
309 by domain experts, the tweets were classified into five categories related to  
310 HIV using data mining techniques. Twitter-specific meta-information was  
311 used to generate a graph to identify relationships between users and their  
312 tweets. Ku et al. followed a similar approach, but instead of Twitter, they  
313 relied on web forums of people affected with HIV, using SVMs to interpret  
314 data from Yahoo answers [36].

315 The most effective measure to reduce the impact of HIV on global health is  
316 prevention, which requires health education. Imran and Castillo explored the  
317 use of the AI for Disaster Response (AIDR) platform [13] for the automatic  
318 classification of messages requesting HIV-related information; the platform  
319 is part of an SMS-type information center in Zambia run in cooperation  
320 with UNICEF. The goal of such classification was to improve the routing of  
321 HIV-related questions to the right health counselor [9, 24].

322 *3.3. Natural disasters and humanitarian health*

323 Despite the effects of natural disasters on human health, we found very  
324 few examples of the use of machine learning and AI in such cases. Caution  
325 is needed before reaching a conclusion; a possible explanation for this gap in  
326 the literature is that natural disasters might, in many cases, spark a health  
327 outbreak. For example, after the earthquake of Haiti in 2010, there was  
328 a cholera outbreak. Another issue related to the health of a population  
329 during a natural disaster is the potential destruction of roads, electricity  
330 infrastructure, and health facilities.

331 We identified one study that explored the use of AI to forecast the impact  
332 of environmental factors on health, such as the polluted air (i.e., smog) crisis  
333 in Beijing, China in 2013 [25]. In that study, the authors combined social  
334 media data from Twitter with ground sensor data and satellite images. The  
335 objective of the AI system was to predict smog-related health hazards using

336 different machine learning algorithms (e.g., SVN, random forest, and artificial  
337 neural networks).

338 In Europe, the impact of heat waves on the population was a great con-  
339 cern, especially for the elderly. Keramitsoglou et al. et al. investigated the  
340 use of machine learning to forecast the risk of heat waves [26]. Heat waves  
341 are a growing concern due to the effects of climate change. Their model could  
342 predict heat wave hazards and their spatial distribution within large cities  
343 using hourly air temperature data taken from a thermal infrared satellite.

#### 344 4. Discussion

345 Health organizations vary in terms of their information needs. Depending  
346 on their roles and responsibilities in addressing global health crises, an orga-  
347 nization may look for different information than that of other organizations.  
348 Assessing, for example, the signs and symptoms of an unanticipated disease  
349 outbreak is a challenging task. Automatic approaches that were trained to  
350 work well for a past outbreak often fail to perform well in a new crisis. Many  
351 of the systems described in this literature review do not specifically address  
352 scalability and reuse of AI-based solutions across different crisis. Therefore,  
353 understanding these various needs for information is a crucial step for auto-  
354 matic AI-based systems to produce results that are suitable for a particular  
355 organization.

356 Social media is full of rumors and noisy content Westerman et al. [47].  
357 However, the information processed by AI systems that will be used for  
358 decision-making purposes has to be credible, especially for healthcare. De-  
359 termining the credibility of information originating from social media is a  
360 challenging task Castillo et al. [48]. Despite its importance, determining the  
361 credibility of information is an aspect that received the least attention in this  
362 literature review. Therefore, we emphasize the need for a credibility assess-  
363 ment component to be developed for future AI techniques, algorithms, and  
364 systems that are based on techniques and that address HHC issues. The need  
365 to tackle online misinformation has already been highlighted in policymaking  
366 discussions, such as the World Economic Forum Howell et al. [49], and can  
367 be also seen in current discussions on cybersecurity.

368 Information triage and triangulation processes address a number of issues  
369 related to refining data, such as completing missing information, addressing  
370 the interoperability of information systems that are communicating with each  
371 other, and information verification. For critical decision making, like in the



372 domain of HHC, automatic processing systems should implement information  
373 triangulation strategies to improve the reliability of the results produced.

374 Furthermore, there is a lack of frameworks that facilitate data sharing  
375 Dye et al. [50]. In the context of a major crisis, many stakeholders start  
376 collecting and curating data, which, often, are not shared among different  
377 stakeholders. Many initiatives are emerging to solve these issues, such as  
378 <http://openmaps.org/>; however, formal data sharing frameworks and poli-  
379 cies have to be established and enforced in the domain of HHC.

380 All the studies reporting on the use of social media data mentioned that  
381 one of the main challenges is the heterogeneity of social media content, as it  
382 contains much irrelevant information. In addition, there is a lack of public  
383 health data, which are essential to compare, combine, and complement online  
384 data sources. Further, there is no a coherent definition of the meaning of  
385 quality of data within health social media, although some similarities can be  
386 found with EHRs type of data [51].

387 More investigations of the human factors of HHC are needed, including  
388 user interfaces, data management policies, and capacity building. We found  
389 only one article addressing the social science aspects of global health French  
390 and Mykhalovskiy [45] despite its socio-ethical complexities Kickbusch [52].  
391 Most previously published studies describe pilot projects, with very little  
392 information on what drives the use of AI in humanitarian and global health  
393 studies. For example, we did not find any previous research on the acceptance  
394 or usability of this kind of technology. Understanding these human factors  
395 would help us to determine which area of capacity building is necessary  
396 and how to implement an AI-system in real-life settings. Some manuscripts  
397 mentioned concerns about privacy Bates [39], but such concerns were not  
398 discussed in detail.

399 In our study, we focused only on published research in the literature.  
400 This could explain why we only found a few studies targeting low- to middle-  
401 income countries, despite the fact that many humanitarian and global health  
402 crises happen in such countries. This discrepancy is a well-known problem  
403 Haines et al. [53], which could not be easily overcome in our review.

404 For further development in this application area, the lack of a common  
405 framework for developing HHC techniques must be overcome. In our future  
406 work, we plan to use the findings, barriers, and shortcomings identified in  
407 this review to develop a framework that will guide the development and  
408 evaluation of new systems and technologies in the HHC domain.

## 409 5. Conclusions

410 Natural and man-made disasters pose serious challenges for communities  
411 and healthcare infrastructures in disaster areas. Among other factors, rapid  
412 access to information about victims and healthcare facilities can help to  
413 reduce suffering and rebuild communities. This review paper identified the  
414 usefulness of ICT-based technologies and AI techniques, when combined with  
415 online information sources like social media, to address humanitarian health  
416 issues. However, enormous challenges exist that must be overcome to fully  
417 utilize AI applications in the domain of HHC.

418 Online information sources (e.g., social networks) and data-driven AI ap-  
419 proaches for health crises can help SDGs goals to be achieved. Nevertheless,  
420 guidelines and fully tested frameworks, as specified in the discussion sec-  
421 tion, are required before they can be used. The effective utilization of many  
422 technologies by stakeholders, which we have reviewed in this survey, has not  
423 yet been fully evaluated. This is mainly due to the lack of large-scale de-  
424 ployments and technology-driven pilot studies with a focus on human factor  
425 evaluation.

426 We identified a gap in the literature regarding the use of AI techniques  
427 for humanitarian health crises that do not involve an outbreak, and there is  
428 another gap in terms of AI and social media applications during humanitarian  
429 health crises caused by armed conflicts and natural disasters. Future research  
430 should address these gaps by building new technologies and systems that  
431 employ AI techniques and retrieve online information from social media.

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