

Blockchain Revolution: Securing Electronic Health Records for Patient Empowerment and Innovative Healthcare

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Abstract— Blockchain technology has emerged as a promising technology for healthcare, enabling the development of a secure, efficient, and patient-centric healthcare system. This paper examines how blockchain technology might completely change how electronic health records (EHRs) are managed and how healthcare is provided. The results underscore the noteworthy advantages that blockchain provides, such as improved security, patient empowerment, and novel opportunities for data analysis and prediction. Blockchain has the power to transform EHR administration, encourage patient autonomy, and spur innovation in the medical field.

Index Terms— Blockchain, Electronic health record (EHR), Artificial Intelligence, Health-care, Medical data, Sharing and protection, Smart-contract.

I. Introduction

Healthcare applications encompass electronic health records (EHR), clinical data, decision-making, genetics, neurology, biomedicine, and medicines. IoT technology, facilitated by communication protocols and data standardization, holds promise for effective healthcare services. Improving connection, user interfaces, patient data security, and interoperability can enhance healthcare delivery. Current research focuses on developing reliable healthcare apps for both the public and the healthcare sector. Maintaining up-to-date, secure access to health records is crucial for multiple parties, including hospitals, pharmacies, and patients. Blockchain technology, depicted in Figure 1, emerges as a solution to address healthcare sector challenges.

Healthcare researchers stress the importance of multi-source data analysis for identifying community health hazards and improving patient care quality [1]. Integrating blockchain, AI, and other technologies is crucial for business success [3]. To enhance medical exploration,

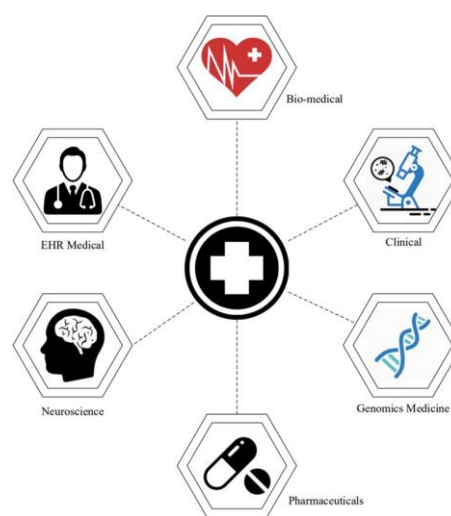


Fig. 1: Applications of Blockchain in Health-care

the industry needs technology for client-centric interfaces and data-driven insights [2], [5]. AI prioritizes cases for medicine monitoring and development, optimizing drug formulations [3]. Blockchain enables secure data analysis, but challenges arise in storing massive records, addressed by integrating AI algorithms [4]. Despite AI's powerful capabilities, reluctance exists due to concerns about rapid execution of dynamic processes [6]. The machine sector demonstrates AI's prowess in applications like autonomous vehicles and financial analysis [6].

A. Perks of using Artificial Intelligence with Blockchain

The fight against the coronavirus pandemic saw the effective use of blockchain and AI. Blockchain securely tracked patient data, aiding in early threat identification

and preventing unauthorized disclosure. It streamlined vaccine trials, ensured transparency in fundraising, and assisted in epidemic control. AI analyzed extensive data on environmental factors, healthcare access, and transmission patterns, predicting disease outbreaks and distinguishing coronavirus cases from similar conditions. Genome-based neural networks effectively managed complications, considering individual immunity and genetic structure. AI accelerated the development of vaccines for emerging strains and created automated models correlating medical records with treatment outcomes. Recognizing these benefits, the White House requested the use of AI in the US government's pandemic response [4], [5], [7].

Blockchain's decentralization, preventing a central authority from solely controlling data, processing, and model validation, offers advantages [9]. It reduces processing time, errors, and costs, enabling the development of predictive models for clinical practice and pandemic response. The immutability of blockchain-verified transactions ensures data authenticity and enhances system security [9]. The cryptographic nature and immutability of data, coupled with the absence of a central authority, build trust among participants, minimizing the need for individual verification [10].

B. The Imminencies of the Healthcare Systems

Blockchain's potential in healthcare is undeniable, yet widespread adoption faces significant roadblocks. Three key challenges—scalability, interoperability, and regulatory ambiguity—pose critical hurdles.

- **Scalability**

Current blockchain networks often grapple with the immense volume of healthcare data, especially with extensive Electronic Health Records (EHRs) covering medical history, diagnoses, medications, and more. When multiplied by millions of patients, the data exceeds the processing capacity of many existing blockchain platforms. It is essential to develop scalable solutions that can efficiently manage this data deluge for the widespread adoption of blockchain in healthcare.

- **Interoperability**

Healthcare systems are known for their fragmentation, featuring numerous incompatible software and data formats. Successful integration of blockchain technology into this complex ecosystem requires seamless interoperability

with existing systems. Without it, clinicians may encounter duplicative data entry, fragmented patient records, and limited communication among healthcare providers. Overcoming interoperability challenges demands collaboration among technology developers, healthcare institutions, and policymakers to establish standardized formats and protocols.

- **Regulatory Ambiguity**

Blockchain technology in healthcare operates in a legal grey area, with uncertainties surrounding data privacy, ownership, and security protocols hindering widespread adoption. Governments and regulatory bodies must develop clear legal frameworks to address these concerns and provide guidelines for the responsible use of blockchain in healthcare data management.

Overcoming hurdles in scalability, interoperability, and regulatory challenges is essential to unlock the full potential of blockchain in healthcare. Addressing these issues can pave the way for a future where secure, transparent, and patient-centric healthcare data management becomes a reality, ultimately leading to improved healthcare delivery and patient outcomes.

The remaining paper is organized as follows: Section II introduces blockchain technology. Section III explores AI in health records management. Section IV examines the synergy of blockchain and AI. Section V focuses on privacy and security in blockchain-based Electronic Health Record (EHR) management. Section VI delves into using blockchain for privacy in healthcare records. Section VII addresses hurdles in implementing AI-based blockchain technology in healthcare. Finally, Section VIII concludes, highlighting the transformative potential of blockchain and AI in health records management.

II. Blockchain's history within the Health Records Management System

A. Blockchain

Blockchain is a distributed database that aggregates data blocks in a chronological manner and primarily addresses trust and security concerns related to transactions. The blockchain can be broadly classified into three classes: consortium, private, and public blockchains [11], [12]. As new blocks are consistently added to the chain, it grows. To ensure ledger integrity and user security, blockchain technology combines two technologies: P2P distributed consensus and

asymmetric cryptography. As a result, a cryptographic hash connects these time-stamped blocks [13].

Every blockchain, as seen in Figure 2, is made up of numerous blocks, each of which has a block body and a block header. Multiple meta-information about the current block is contained in the block header. Examples include the timestamp, nonce for the blockchain body, hash of current block and a hash value for the previous block. Typically, block bodies are used to capture the actual data of ongoing transactions.

- Time stamp: the timestamp is the moment of creation of the current block.
- Nonce: each time a miner hashes a piece of code, they change a four-byte random field to solve a PoW problem
- Previous block hash: the value of the previous block's hash.
- Hash of the current block: A hash algorithm like SHA-256 is used to create a distinct, cryptographically

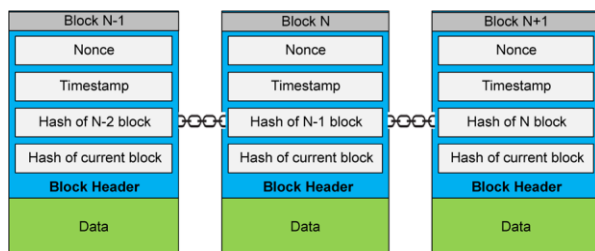


Fig. 2: The structure of the blockchain

secure hash for each block in a blockchain. By serving as the block's "fingerprint," this hash guarantees the block's integrity and immutability. Any modification to the data within the block would produce an entirely new hash, which would make it simple to identify any manipulation or tampering.

The following are the blockchain's primary characteristics[12]:

1) Decentralization

every node is equal and there isn't a central node. Many nodes spread over various locations perform the task of recording transaction information, and each node maintains a comprehensive account. Every node has the ability to oversee the transaction and affirm it together.

2) Resistance against tampering

the subsequent block contains the hash value of the preceding block. Every subsequent block will require recalculation in the event that one is altered. It is therefore invalid for one node to have modified the database.

3) Openness

The blockchain's data is accessible to everyone, in addition to encrypting the private information of each party to the transaction. Anyone can use the public interface to access block data and create pertinent apps.

4) Autonomy

All nodes in the system can freely and securely exchange data since the blockchain uses a consensual protocol (like an open and transparent algorithm). So, a person will not get involved.

5) Anonymity

Since the exchange between nodes is based on a pre-determined mechanism, the other side does not need to establish confidence by revealing their identity in public.

In the Merkle tree, each leaf node represents a transaction, and non-leaf nodes store the hash value of the concatenated child nodes. To verify a transaction's existence and integrity, nodes only need to check the hash value of the two concatenated child nodes in the leaf node. Any modification to a transaction generates a new hash value at the top layer, resulting in a single root hash. The transaction size impacts the maximum transactions per block and the overall block size. All blocks are linked through the hash function, preventing changes or removal of verified data. Each block modification creates a new block with a new hash value and link. Security and immutability are crucial aspects of blockchain technology.

1) Digital signature: In an untrustworthy environment,

asymmetric cryptography is frequently used for transaction authentication [13]. An essential part of the Blockchain is asymmetric cryptography, which is used to transmit and confirm the validity of transactions. Before being received in a P2P network, transactions are signed using the private key of the person who initiated them. The elliptic curve digital signature algorithm (ECDSA) is employed by the majority of modern blockchains [14].

Peers in a peer-to-peer (P2P) network have equal priv-

ileges, and when a transaction is requested or started, a block describing that transaction is generated and

broad- cast to all neighbouring nodes. Other nodes will receive this block. Using predetermined block validation procedures, the sender's public key is utilized to confirm the legitimacy of the received block.

The block will be sent to more nodes until they have all confirmed it if it is authentic. If not, it will be thrown away while the process is underway. The blockchain network can only store and add legitimate blocks.

B. Consensus Algorithms: Building Trust in Decentralized Networks

In the world of blockchain and other decentralized systems, where trust is paramount but central authorities are absent, consensus algorithms step up to the plate. These sophisticated protocols allow nodes in a network to agree on a single version of the truth, even amidst unreliable or malicious actors. Now let's explore a few important consensus algorithms:

1) Proof of Work (PoW)

The granddaddy of consensus algorithms, PoW relies on computational power to validate transactions. Miners compete to solve cryptographic puzzles, and the first to find the solution gets to add a block to the blockchain. This energy-intensive method secures the network but faces scalability concerns. [15][16][17]

2) Proof of Stake (PoS)

A greener alternative to PoW, PoS rewards nodes based on their stake in the network's cryptocurrency. Instead of solving puzzles, validators lock up their coins, and the system randomly selects one to validate the next block. This incentivizes honest behavior and reduces energy consumption. [18]

3) Byzantine Fault Tolerance (BFT)

Designed for tolerating even malicious actors, BFT algorithms employ complex communication protocols to ensure agreement. Nodes exchange messages and compare versions of the ledger, eventually converging on a single version even if some nodes act out of spite. However, BFT can be computationally expensive for large networks. [20]

4) Delegated Proof of Stake (DPoS)

A variant of PoS, DPoS delegates the validation power to a limited set of elected validators. Stakeholders vote for their representatives, who then secure the network. This can improve efficiency

and scalability but raises concerns about centralization. [19]

5) Proof of Authority (PoA)

Nodes that have the capacity to create new blocks are allowed. Pre-authentication is the initial step that every node needs to complete. However, this process results in a design that is oriented toward the natural world. [18]

6) Proof of Capacity (PoC)

This consensus method uses hard disc space that is accessible instead of computational resources to reach consensus [21]. You could store more solutions if you had more storage space, which would raise the possibility that a new block will be created.

To increase performance in a range of applications, there is a growing trend toward combining multiple consensus algorithms rather than relying just on one.

C. Smart Contract

Self-executing programs, known as smart contracts, operate on the blockchain, finding applications in government, healthcare, and finance. These contracts execute programmable functions when a transaction is sent to the designated contract address, automatically fulfilling the predefined terms within the secure container. Ethereum, an open-source blockchain platform, introduced Turing-complete smart contract languages, allowing the creation of decentralized applications (Dapps). Dapps, such as those facilitating patient-physician communication on the Ethereum network, empower patients with greater control over their records [22].

D. Essentials for a Medical Data Share and Protection Plan

The ideal system for exchanging and protecting medical data should meet the following fundamental needs [23], [24]:

1) Security and privacy protection

no one could utilize medical data improperly. Malicious attacks should be able to be resisted by the plan, and illicit activity may be tracked down.

2) Data access

Patients can view all of their medical records after gaining authorization, and clinicians can examine past medical records with patients' consent.

3) Patient control

The patient was in charge of their own medical

history; that is, no one else could access their medical history without their consent.

4) Unified standard

To implement data exchange and increase system stability, all players in the model should utilize the unified data standard and management scheme.

III. A Review of AI in the System for Managing Health Records

AI systems in healthcare commonly employ either supervised or unsupervised methods. Supervised learning uses labeled data to train machines in predicting classifications based on input predictors. On the other hand, unsupervised methods identify patterns and correlations without relying on labeled data or anticipating specific outcomes. The majority of machine learning structures in healthcare, especially those developing electronic phenotype algorithms, predominantly utilize supervised learning methods. This section provides a brief overview of various machine learning approaches extensively used for categorizing clinical outcomes from electronic health records, including random forests, support vector machines, as well as both supervised and unsupervised models for deep learning and neural networks [26], [27], [28].

Support vector machines establish an optimal disconnected hyperplane in the co-variate space between observations of distinct outcome groups to identify variables [26]. This hyperplane, with the maximum margin or distance separation from the nearest observations on either side, is determined as the 'support vectors' [31]. On the contrary, random forests function as regulation-based batch classifiers that identify inputs by averaging estimates across a group of decision tree models [32]. Each tree in the random forest classifier is trained with a bootstrap sample of data points, and the sample is split at each node based on the most descriptive among a randomized subset of potential predictors [26]. In recent years, the popularity of deep learning models and neural networks has surged, especially in diagnostic imaging and forecasting activities [26]. When applied in the supervised learning approach, these models are considered progressively complex extensions of the classic regression paradigm [26].

Conventional logistic regression models consist of an input and output layer, with a node in the

input layer for each parameter and a set of relation weights linking input nodes to coefficients or the output node. The output node computes the total from each parameter multiplied by the corresponding relation weight, known as the input nodes' weighted sum, and processes it through the activation function, such as the logistic function. Neural networks enhance this structure by incorporating a hidden layer between the output and input layers, allowing the simulation of more complex and non-linear relationships between response and predictor factors [25]. Subsequently, deep learning models improve upon this by introducing multiple hidden layers between the output and input layers to identify even more subtleties in the data [28].

Despite their ability to autonomously simulate intricate interactions and relationships in data points, these algorithms are challenging to interpret, susceptible to overfitting, and often require substantial training data to yield accurate results [30]. To justify and optimize the application of machine learning for categorizing health responses from electronic health record (EHR) data, researchers should carefully consider when these techniques are most appropriate and for which tasks they should be employed [31].

A. The Difficulties in Applying AI to a Health Records System

1) **Transparency:** Transparency is a critical aspect concerning the intricate machine learning algorithms like deep learning, which poses challenges in their application to phenotyping tasks, especially when high stakes and end-user confidence are paramount. Clinicians, for instance, prefer algorithms to complement their expertise rather than dictate decision-making processes outright [33]. Regulatory authorities demand decipherability for transparency, as classification systems may have significant legal or financial implications [34]. Enhancing the interpretability of these "black box" models is pivotal, as demonstrated in prior research utilizing novel approaches like 'saliency' to interpret deep learning model predictions [34, [35]. These initiatives, such as creating heatmaps based on mappings of class activation, improve the transparency and interpretability of complex machine learning models, thereby strengthening trust among physicians and end-users and encouraging broader applications [36].

2) **Interpretability and Explainability :**
<https://jcsdf.nfsu.ac.in>

Interpretability and explainability are closely related concepts that address the need for AI algorithms to provide understandable and meaningful insights into their decision-making processes. Interpretability refers to the ability to comprehend and make sense of the outputs generated by AI algorithms, while explainability involves providing clear and intelligible explanations for those outputs. In healthcare, where decisions directly impact patient well-being, understanding why an AI system recommends a particular course of action is paramount. However, many AI models used in health records systems, such as deep learning neural networks, are often complex and difficult to interpret or explain. This lack of interpretability and explainability hinders the adoption of AI in healthcare settings, as clinicians may be hesitant to rely on AI-driven recommendations without a clear understanding of how they were generated.

3) Transportability: Electronic phenotyping research, often conducted in a single-site environment due to privacy concerns and administrative constraints, faces challenges in achieving transportability [37], [38], [39]. Despite this, there is a growing interest in exchanging algorithms among researchers and healthcare bodies to enhance versatility [40]. Platforms like the Phenotype Knowledgebase (PheKB) facilitate the development, sharing, and validation of electronic phenotyping algorithms, showing progress in this domain [40]. To build scalable phenotyping algorithms, external verification is essential for determining portability, followed by modifications if needed to account for site-specific idiosyncrasies [39]. The "validation-adaptation" strategy proves valuable, especially for NLP-based phenotyping algorithms, though it may be laborious. External validation before implementation in different settings is crucial to address overfitting concerns, particularly for machine learning-based phenotyping algorithms [41]. The portability of deep learning models for health responses from imaging procedures may be more feasible compared to those used for NLP tasks due to the lower heterogeneity in medical images across different sites.

4) Training Size: To achieve optimal efficiency, machine learning algorithms, particularly deep learning frameworks, require a substantial amount of labeled training data [42]. The CheXNet algorithm, for example, achieved expert-level results after being trained on over 100,000 labeled images [35].

However, many researchers face limitations in time or resources for data annotation, and pooling labeled data across different locations may not be practical due to privacy and administrative hurdles [42], [38]. Innovative solutions like image data enhancement and active learning, where the most insightful instances are successively selected for training, can help reduce the amount of training data needed for satisfactory performance [43], [44]. In the context of electronic phenotyping for rheumatoid arthritis, combining active learning with support vector machines lowered the annotated samples needed to achieve an AUC of 0.95 by 68.

B. An AI Algorithm for Health-Care Systems

This article facilitates a collaborative discussion between machine learning and data mining as both fields are rooted in data science and often intersect [45]. Despite this convergence, there exist fundamental distinctions between the two disciplines. Machine learning, characterized by its focus on methods capable of autonomously extracting information, encompasses the study of such processes [45]. To predict future events, machine learning relies on two datasets, namely training data and test data. On the contrary, data mining represents an iterative exploration of diverse and valuable patterns within datasets. While data mining can incorporate machine learning, it is not limited to this technique alone, utilizing various other methods to unveil novel patterns. The healthcare sector extensively employs machine learning and data mining technologies to extract insights from extensive electronic health data. The inclusion of both machine learning and data mining approaches in the analysis conducted in [46] stems from their shared mechanisms in disease prediction, with literature often intertwining discussions of the two.

1) Supervised Algorithm:

A. Artificial Neural Network (ANN)

Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs), initially proposed by McCulloch and Pitts [46] and popularized in the 1980s [48], have become instrumental in addressing various categorization challenges. The term 'neural' in their nomenclature reflects their design to emulate brain-inspired systems, mirroring the way human brains learn categories. ANNs are modeled after the human brain's vast network of interconnected neurons with the ability to strengthen or weaken connections through

reinforced labeled training data, resembling biological learning. These neuronal connections are represented by a weighted matrix, analogous to cortical layers in the brain, where training data functions as a form of 'biological learning' for individuals. ANNs typically incorporate one or more hidden layers, supplementing the input and output layers, and are trained to generate outputs based on given input variables. While numerous studies have explored ANNs in the context of survival prediction, limited research utilizing electronic health data is available.

Deep learning, a subset of machine learning inspired by ANNs [49], has seen increased utilization in modeling illness symptoms and hazards. Liu et al.

[50] developed a deep learning-based technique for early Alzheimer's disease and mild cognitive impairment identification in 2014, leveraging neuroimaging data from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative database. To overcome limitations, they employed stacked autoencoders. Another study by Cheng et al. [51] proposed a method for phenotyping patient electronic health records (EHRs) using deep learning. Each patient's EHR was initially represented as a temporal matrix, with time and events as axes. They constructed a four-layer Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) to extract phenotypes and predict risks. In a recent development, [52] introduced the Heterogeneous Convolutional Neural Network (HCNN), a predictive learning model representing EHRs as graphs with diverse properties like diagnosis, procedures, and medications. This information was harnessed to construct a novel risk prediction model for multiple comorbid conditions. The integration of ANNs and deep learning methods holds promise in advancing healthcare predictive modeling, though further exploration in utilizing electronic health data is warranted.

B. Support Vector Machine (SVM)

Support Vector Machine (SVM) stands out as a popular supervised learning approach proficient in classifying both linear and non-linear data. SVMs operate by transforming the input vector into a higher-dimensional feature

space, seeking to identify the hyperplane that effectively segregates data points into two distinct groups. In the context of classification tasks, SVM aims to maximize the marginal distance between the two classes while minimizing classification errors. The marginal distance is defined as the space between the decision hyperplane and its nearest instance belonging to a specific class [53]. In more technical terms, each data point is initially represented as a point in an n-dimensional space (where n denotes the number of features), with each feature value serving as a coordinate. The key objective is to identify the hyperplane that maximizes the separation between the two classes, creating the most significant margin for effective classification. SVM has found applications in various domains, including bioinformatics and healthcare, where its robust categorization capabilities have been utilized [53]. The versatility of SVM makes it a valuable tool in diverse fields, emphasizing its efficacy in handling complex classification tasks across different domains. As technological advancements continue, the synergy between SVM and emerging technologies such as Explainable AI (XAI) becomes increasingly relevant. Ensuring the interpretability of SVM models in healthcare, for instance, is a critical consideration for fostering trust among healthcare professionals and stakeholders [54]. This intersection of SVM with interpretability initiatives aligns with the evolving landscape of responsible and ethical AI adoption.

C. Decision Tree Random Forest

A Decision Tree (DT) represents a sophisticated and deterministic data structure resembling a tree, where internal nodes depict input variables or attributes, and leaves signify decision outcomes. This hierarchical arrangement of nodes and leaves is orchestrated to formulate a strategy for achieving a specific categorization goal. The leaves, situated at the terminal level of the relevant branch, house the final decision outcomes, while nodes can be distributed across multiple levels. The root node marks the inception of the tree, akin to a flowchart where each non-leaf symbolizes a test on a single

property, each branch indicates the outcome of the test, and each leaf signifies the associated class label.

Decision trees find extensive application in the

healthcare sector, where academics leverage them for various purposes. For instance, a decision tree-based prognostic approach was proposed to quantify disease recurrence and predict survival in breast cancer patients [53]. This model, designed for predicting breast cancer survival, utilized two machine learning techniques (Artificial Neural Network and decision tree) along with a statistical approach (logistic regression). The SEER breast cancer database, recognized as a vital population-based repository for evaluating cancer care quality, played a pivotal role in training and evaluating the model's performance.

Random Forest [53], an ensemble classifier comprising

multiple decision trees, has gained prominence as one of the most accurate machine learning-based algorithms. Combining Breiman's 'Bagging' concept with the random selection of features, this method creates a collection of decision trees characterized by controlled variation. In a study by [55], researchers proposed a classifier based on the random forest algorithm to estimate illness risk among individuals,

employing the Healthcare Cost and Utilization Project (HCUP) dataset for their research. Furthermore, [56] developed a diabetes risk prediction model using a scalable random forest classification algorithm based on administrative data.

The versatility of decision trees and their ensemble counterparts, such as random forest, showcases their efficacy in handling complex classification tasks in healthcare. Their interpretability and ability to capture non-linear relationships make them valuable tools for researchers and practitioners alike. As machine learning continues to advance, decision trees remain integral components in predictive modelling within the healthcare domain, contributing significantly to advancements in disease prognosis, risk estimation, and personalized healthcare.

D. K-Nearest Neighbors (k-NN)

K-Nearest Neighbours (k-NN) is a versatile and intuitive supervised learning algorithm that operates on the principle of proximity. The core idea behind k-NN is to classify an unknown data point based on the majority class of its k-nearest neighbours in the feature space. The distance metric, often Euclidean distance, determines the proximity between data points.

In the context of healthcare applications, k-NN has demonstrated effectiveness in various scenarios. For instance, researchers [57] have applied k-NN for predicting patient outcomes, leveraging electronic health records (EHRs) data. The algorithm considers the similarity between a patient's features and those of its k-nearest neighbours to predict potential health outcomes. The simplicity of k-NN makes it particularly suitable for healthcare tasks where interpretability is crucial. Healthcare professionals can easily understand and trust the predictions made by k-NN, as it aligns with their intuitive understanding of patient similarities and outcomes.

As healthcare datasets grow in complexity and size, the ability of k-NN to provide reliable predictions based on local neighbourhoods becomes increasingly valuable. Its adaptability to different data types and straightforward implementation contribute to its widespread use in healthcare analytics.

E. Gradient Boosting

Gradient Boosting is an ensemble learning method that combines the predictive power of multiple weak learners, typically decision trees, to create a robust and accurate model. It operates by sequentially adding trees to correct the errors of the preceding ones. The boosting process assigns more weight to instances that were misclassified, emphasizing their significance in subsequent iterations. In healthcare applications, Gradient Boosting has proven effective in tasks such as disease prediction and risk assessment. Researchers [58][59] have utilized Gradient Boosting to develop models for predicting the progression of chronic diseases based on longitudinal patient data.

The strength of Gradient Boosting lies in its ability to handle complex relationships in data, making it suitable for healthcare datasets with

intricate patterns. Moreover, its capacity to deal with missing values and outliers enhances its applicability in real-world healthcare scenarios. As a part of the ensemble learning family, Gradient Boosting complements other algorithms like Random Forest. Its iterative nature and emphasis on correcting errors make it a powerful tool for building accurate predictive models in healthcare analytics.

2) Unsupervised Algorithm:

A. Association Analysis

Association analysis is a widely utilized technique in the realms of data mining and machine learning, particularly for prediction purposes, as it has the capability to extract concealed and pertinent information from extensive datasets [53]. This method generates a set of association rules for dataset items [56]. An association rule takes the form of $X \rightarrow Y$, where X and Y are disjoint item sets (i.e., $X \cap Y = \emptyset$). This implies that the presence of items in set X in current transactions may lead to the appearance of one or more items in set Y in future transactions. Consequently, association analysis has found extensive application in market basket data to predict retail sales behaviour, where each item reflects a customer's purchase [53]. In a medical context, if items represent diseases and the item set is defined as a patient's set of conditions up to the present moment, this method can be employed to predict future disease risk.

The Hierarchical Association Rule Model (HARM), as introduced in [60], utilizes association analysis and Bayesian estimation to predict illness risk from medical data. In this modelling technique, a set of association rules is established through association analysis methods, and these rules are subsequently ranked using Bayesian estimation. HARM has the capability to anticipate a patient's potential future medical issues based on their past and current history of reported ailments, assuming regular consultations with healthcare professionals. This approach demonstrates the adaptability of association analysis in extracting meaningful patterns from diverse datasets, making it a valuable tool in predictive modelling

within the medical domain.

B. Hierarchical Clustering

Hierarchical Clustering, an unsupervised algorithm in data analysis, groups similar data points into clusters, forming a dendrogram with leaves representing individual data points. In healthcare, it proves valuable, as shown by researchers [61] categorizing patients based on EHRs to identify patterns and contribute to personalized medicine. The flexibility of hierarchical clustering extends to various healthcare data types, making it versatile for exploring complex datasets and revealing hidden structures. As healthcare datasets grow in size and complexity, hierarchical clustering becomes crucial for uncovering intricate patterns within patient populations. Its unsupervised nature allows exploration without predefined labels, making it instrumental in revealing hidden insights in complex medical datasets.

3) Reinforcement Learning: Reinforcement Learning (RL) stands as a dynamic and adaptive paradigm within machine learning, where an agent learns through interaction with an environment. This learning process involves the agent taking actions and receiving feedback, typically in the form of rewards or penalties, with the goal of maximizing cumulative rewards over time. In the healthcare domain, RL finds versatile applications in optimizing decision-making processes, treatment strategies, and resource allocation.

Applications in Healthcare:

1) Treatment Optimization

RL fine-tunes treatment plans by dynamically adapting and personalizing strategies based on patient responses. Electronic health records (EHRs) are utilized for treatment optimization, incorporating a value-decomposition method for improved results [62].

2) Clinical Trial Design

RL significantly contributes to designing efficient and adaptive clinical trials. Reinforcement learning is employed for learning dosing policies, utilizing action-derived rewards to tailor dosing regimens in trials, including those with TMZ and PCV treatments [63].

3) Resource Allocation

RL optimizes resource allocation in hospital

settings, enhancing operational efficiency and patient outcomes. A decentralized resource allocation management model for Peer-to-Peer (P2P) communications employs multi-agent deep reinforcement learning to address delay constraints [64].

4) Chronic Disease Management

RL plays a pivotal role in the dynamic management of chronic diseases. The algorithm adapts treatment plans over time, taking into account patient progress and responses. This dynamic approach is particularly beneficial for conditions with a gradual onset. [65]

5) Surgical decision-making

RL is valuable in surgical decision-making, addressing challenges in formulating reward functions and defining patient states. Personalized reinforcement learning models can enhance surgical care, with considerations for privacy-focused alternatives, including on-device machine learning and federated learning. Adopting a partially observable Markov Decision Process (MDP) approach may offer superior modeling of patient states. Challenges persist in ensuring data quality and consistency in electronic health records, emphasizing the importance of understanding the impact of noise and bias on patient states [66].

Implementing RL in healthcare introduces challenges related to safety, ethics, and the interpretability of decision-making processes. Addressing these challenges requires careful design and validation of RL algorithms to ensure their effectiveness, reliability, and alignment with ethical considerations in healthcare. The adaptability and learning capabilities of RL hold promise for transformative advancements in healthcare decision-making and personalized interventions.

4) Network Methods: A network is a graphical representation composed of nodes (vertices or actors) and edges (ties or links), where edges denote relationships and nodes represent entities. Various scientific problems, including disease prediction in healthcare, can be modeled as graphs, and the literature presents numerous graph theory approaches and algorithms for analysis. Conventional statistical and data mining methods often overlook the links between diseases and symptoms

when predicting disease risk from healthcare data. Chronic and non-communicable diseases typically share risk factors, whether genetic, environmental, or behavioral, complicating individualized study predictions. A network-based approach, encompassing graph theory and statistical methods, is more suitable in such scenarios. Social Network Analysis (SNA) is a comparable approach rooted in network and graph theories, examining relationship patterns among entities in a dataset. In a healthcare context, SNA proves valuable when analyzing interactions among clinicians, patients, pharmacists, nurses, and medical technicians. Each entity in healthcare data is represented as a node in a social network, with edges denoting relationships. SNA has been applied to study physician-patient partnerships and collaborations within hospital networks. Uddin et al. [67] introduced an SNA framework for analyzing physician collaboration and hospital coordination, emphasizing patient-centric care, hospital-rehab coordination, and physician collaboration networks. In obesity research, SNA is employed to understand research trends and map knowledge structures. Large-scale studies exploring comorbidities and predicting chronic diseases using electronic health data hold significant potential. [68] proposed a novel strategy utilizing graph theory and SNA to analyze chronic disease progression, constructing a baseline network based on hospital records. Expanding this approach to study comorbidities related to type 2 diabetes, they introduced the concept of a 'comorbidity network' for predicting chronic illness risk [69], [70].

IV. Handling EHR using Blockchain and AI

Machine learning holds the potential to optimize healthcare systems and enhance the delivery of intelligent services. However, ensuring the secure storage, exchange, and training of sensitive datasets poses a significant challenge for practical machine learning implementations. The integration of machine learning and blockchain technologies is emerging as a solution to enhance the security and privacy of datasets [71], [72].

Federated learning, a machine learning technique conducted across multiple computing nodes while safeguarding the confidentiality of sensitive data during sharing, is a promising approach. Through the exchange of encrypted datasets, different medical organizations can collaborate to develop highly accurate prediction models. Blockchain, serving as a regulator, can record associated training transactions

in an immutable and transparent manner, fostering accountability and reliable cooperation. This approach encourages medical organizations and researchers to share encrypted datasets, thereby advancing medical treatment and public health.

Blockchain acts as a robust foundation for machine learning algorithms, ensuring the security of data input. The sharing of large datasets across various applications and domains, a challenge highlighted by [73], is addressed through homomorphic encryption. Although homomorphic encryption incurs significant computational costs, future advancements may enable the encryption of sensitive data without compromising the efficiency of machine learning for intelligent services.

Blockchain can also be leveraged to store rollback models in instances of high rates of erroneous predictions. Pointers to essential data of retrained models are securely and immutably stored on the blockchain. In the context of erratic arrhythmia alarm rates, [74] suggests that retraining models indexed by pointers on the blockchain can enhance accuracies for continuous remote systems. Additionally, AI can automate the creation of smart contracts, enhancing processes' security and adaptability.

The intersection of blockchain and healthcare has garnered increasing interest in both academic research and industry, with startups exploring innovative applications [75], [76], [77], [78], [79], [80]. While [81] claims ownership of the first attempt to utilize blockchain for an Electronic Health Record (EHR) management system, the presented system remains conceptual and awaits deployment and testing. MedRec, a decentralized EHR management framework, was developed by [75], utilizing blockchain technology for security and ease of transfer. [79], on the other hand, implemented a closed, access-controlled blockchain EHR system, incorporating cloud storage and access key transfers for encryptions. The synergy of AI and blockchain in the context of EHR management systems is an evolving area, as seen in recent literature [80], [81]. The advantages of combining AI with both permissionless and permissioned prototypes of blockchain EHR systems are yet to be fully realized.

[82] discusses the fundamental role of blockchain technology in monitoring health records, emphasizing its potential for meaningful results in drug tracking, treatment effectiveness, safe patient management, and improved clinical outcomes when

combined with healthcare data and big data. Conversely, [27] focuses on critical aspects of an EHR, such as comprehensive reporting, quality assurance, monitoring health-related expenses, billing details, and confidentiality. It also highlights the inefficiencies of current systems, characterized as slow, inflexible, and insecure. Furthermore, [83] underscores the importance of patient records availability and the challenges in accessing vital aspects of a patient's medical history due to time constraints and lack of expertise among healthcare professionals.

V. Dimensions of Blockchain-based EHR

Management: Privacy, Security, Accessibility, and Storability

A. Privacy

The principle of privacy involves an individual's entitlement to control the access, modification, and sharing of their electronic health records (EHRs) [84]. Concerns arise from the potential misuse of EHRs by healthcare providers, either intentional or unintentional, resulting in privacy violations [85]. A study [86] reveals widespread patient apprehension regarding the security of their EHRs, with around half of the respondents [87] expressing concerns that sharing health data might compromise personal information. Consequently, privacy stands as a critical factor in evaluating blockchain-based solutions that claim to enhance EHR privacy.

B. Security

EHR security pertains to the degree to which an individual's electronic health records are confined to authorized individuals. Approximately half of patients express worries about EHR security, particularly as these records traverse the internet [88]. Interestingly, doctors prioritize EHR security more than patients [89], and some physicians still favour paper records, perceiving them as safer than digital alternatives. Yet, the transition to digital records increases vulnerability to security breaches compared to traditional paper-based systems [90]. Addressing security concerns, Liu et al. [91] emphasize the necessity of in-depth studies on securing EHRs, underscoring the importance of robust security measures.

C. Accessibility

Efficiently controlling and managing access to sensitive data is a fundamental aspect of accessibility. Common strategies for healthcare

systems include role-based, attribute-based, and identity-based access control [92].

Given the sensitivity of patient health data in EHRs, implementing effective access management is imperative.

D. Storability

The scalability challenge of blockchain technology has evolved over the years. Bitcoin's initial block had a mere 1MB storage limit, but with the blockchain's growing popularity, participants, and blocks, scalability became a concern [93]. Blockchain applications address scalability through on-chain and off-chain solutions. On-chain storage involves directly storing all user-uploaded data on the blockchain, requiring substantial storage capacity. In contrast, off-chain storage keeps the actual data elsewhere but links it to the main chain, albeit with less robust security. Consideration for storing EHRs on-chain must weigh the need for substantial storage capacity against the imperative to ensure data safety and security [93].

VI. Blockchain Implementation for Privacy and Anonymity in Healthcare Records

The degree of privacy and anonymity in healthcare records can be tailored based on the type of blockchain implementation, whether it's public, private, or licensed [94]. For instance, Corda enhances transaction privacy by validating only through participating individuals, emphasizing a more controlled and secure environment [95][96]. In the context of Industry 4.0, the Secure Mutual Authentication System (BSeIn) employs blockchain to ensure privacy and security, demonstrating scalability through Smart Contracts [97]. Anonymization techniques, like pseudonymization, are introduced to protect identities, acknowledging that blockchain may not ensure absolute anonymity [98][99][100]. The application of cryptography is crucial in maintaining participant anonymity, offering varying levels of privacy based on cryptographic methods [115]. To address the challenges posed by public exposure of health data, approved blockchain technology and out-of-chain solutions are suggested, striking a balance between security and practicality [100][101].

The need for confidence and privacy extends beyond healthcare, as seen in the Blockchain-Based Anonymous Reputation System (BARS) proposed for

Vehicular Ad Hoc Networks (VANETs) [154]. This system, designed to protect the privacy of VANET users, could be adapted for Electronic Health Records (EHRs) by leveraging similar features. Additionally, the broadcast encryption and multi-receiver encryption used in the BSeIn approach ensure secure communication, providing a model for privacy in transactions [97].

A. Privacy by Design for Healthcare Records

Implementing Privacy by Design (PbD) is crucial in ensuring inherent data protection and privacy features in healthcare systems [102]. PbD, introduced by Ann Cavoukian in the mid-1990s, has become an international privacy standard, incorporated into regulations like the GDPR [103][104][105][106]. Its incorporation into the U.S. Commercial Privacy Bill of Rights Act underscores its global acceptance [107]. EHR systems can significantly benefit from PbD to maintain robust privacy protection in the face of evolving information technology.

B. Strategies for Privacy by Design

1) **Data-Driven Approaches:** Keep it Simple: Minimizing the processing of personal data ensures the least impact on privacy, emphasizing the avoidance of unnecessary data collection [108].

2) **Design Patterns:** Approaches like "choose before you collect" and the use of pseudonyms and anonymization are essential design patterns aligned with the strategy of simplicity [109][110].

3) **Hide:** Concealing personal information prevents various abuses, with design patterns like data encryption contributing to maintaining privacy [111][110].

4) **Design Patterns:** Encryption strategies play a crucial role within the "hide" strategy, providing security by converting data to an unreadable format [110].

5) **Separate:** Storing personal data in distinct partitions and segregating the storage and processing ensure privacy protection, demanding a distributed processing solution [112].

6) **Aggregate:** Managing personal data with minimal details at a higher aggregate level reduces sensitivity, employing strategies like the "Granularity of Location" and "K-anonymity" design patterns [113][114][115].

VII. Navigating Challenges in Implementing AI-

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AI-based Blockchain Technology in Healthcare

Integrating AI-driven blockchain technology into the healthcare landscape presents a transformative potential, yet it encounters several substantial challenges. The following points shed light on critical considerations:

A. Technological Challenges:

- **Scalability**
The extensive computational power required by both blockchain and AI models faces a challenge when dealing with the vast volumes of healthcare data. Achieving scalability without compromising performance or security is a formidable task.
- **Interoperability**
Healthcare data fragmentation across various institutions demands seamless interoperability between systems and blockchain platforms. Standardization and collaborative efforts are imperative for success.
- **Data Privacy and Security**
Striking a balance between the transparency and accessibility features of blockchain and the paramount importance of patient privacy demands robust encryption and access control mechanisms.

B. Regulatory and Ethical Challenges:

- **Regulatory Uncertainty**
Evolving regulations regarding data ownership, access, and governance on blockchain in healthcare create uncertainties that may impede widespread adoption.
- **Ethical Considerations**
The ethical dimensions surrounding algorithmic bias, fairness, and explainability of AI models used in healthcare decisions necessitate careful attention to ensure responsible and ethical utilization.
- **Consent and Trust**
Garnering patient trust and informed consent for utilizing their data on blockchain platforms calls for transparent communication about potential risks and benefits.

C. Other Challenges

- **Cost and Technical Expertise**
The implementation and maintenance of these sophisticated technologies come with a

significant financial burden and require specialized technical expertise, which might not be universally available in healthcare settings.

- **Change Management and Workforce Training**
Effectively integrating these technologies entails substantial workflow changes and demands comprehensive training for healthcare professionals regarding their use and implications.
- **Limited Awareness and Understanding**
Widening acceptance of AI-based blockchain technology in healthcare hinges on raising awareness and educating stakeholders about both its potential advantages and challenges.

VIII. Conclusion

This study explores how blockchain technology can revolutionize electronic health records (EHRs) management and healthcare delivery, highlighting benefits such as enhanced security and patient empowerment. By decentralizing data storage and integrating with AI and IoT, blockchain offers transparent and secure EHR management. Despite challenges like interoperability and scalability, ongoing research holds tremendous potential for the future of healthcare. Blockchain has the capacity to transform EHR administration, promote patient autonomy, and drive innovation in healthcare. Addressing challenges requires further investigation and collaboration to fully realize its revolutionary potential.

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