
Natural Language to SQL in Healthcare: Bridging Analytics Maturity Gaps, Workforce Turnover, and Technical Barriers Through Conversational AI Platforms

Samuel T Harrold, Yuimedi

December 2025

This research examines the evidence for implementing conversational AI platforms in healthcare analytics, addressing three critical challenges: low healthcare analytics maturity, workforce turnover with institutional memory loss, and technical barriers in natural language to SQL generation. Through review of peer-reviewed benchmarking studies and industry implementations, we demonstrate that natural language interfaces can democratize analytics access while preserving institutional knowledge. Healthcare-specific text-to-SQL benchmarks show significant progress, though current models are “not yet sufficiently accurate for unsupervised use” in clinical settings. Healthcare IT staff turnover of ~34% (as of 2004), the highest among IT sectors at that time, creates institutional memory loss, while low-code implementations demonstrate significant efficiency gains and cost savings. The convergence of technical advances in NL2SQL generation, analytics maturity challenges in healthcare organizations, and workforce turnover creates conditions warranting organizational assessment of conversational AI platforms with appropriate governance. This paper contributes a three-pillar analytical framework (analytics maturity, workforce turnover, technical barriers) and positions healthcare conversational AI as a knowledge portal architecture for institutional memory preservation.

Contents

1	Introduction	3
1.1	Background	3
1.2	Problem Statement	4
1.2.1	Low Healthcare Analytics Maturity	4
1.2.2	Technical Barriers to Data Access	5
1.2.3	Institutional Memory Loss from Workforce Turnover	5
1.3	Objectives	6
1.3.1	Primary Objective	6
1.3.2	Secondary Objectives	6
1.3.3	Non-Goals	6
1.4	Contributions	7
1.5	Document Structure	7
2	Methodology	9
2.1	Review Approach	9
2.2	Literature Search	9
2.3	Source Selection	10
2.4	Evidence Synthesis	12
2.5	Grey Literature Quality Assessment	12
2.6	Methodological Limitations	12
3	Framework Development and Validation	14
3.1	Framework Development Process	15
3.2	Theoretical Grounding	15

3.3 Framework Scope and Limitations	16
4 Literature Review: Natural Language Analytics in Healthcare - Evidence for Institutional Memory Preservation	16
4.1 Current State of Natural Language to SQL Generation	17
4.1.1 Evolution and Technical Advances	17
4.1.2 Healthcare-Specific Challenges	17
4.1.3 Promising Approaches and Limitations	17
4.1.4 Productivity and Efficiency Evidence	18
4.2 State of Healthcare Analytics Maturity	19
4.2.1 Low Organizational Maturity	19
4.2.2 Barriers to Analytics Adoption	20
4.2.3 The Analytics Skills Gap	20
4.3 Healthcare Workforce Turnover and Knowledge Loss	20
4.3.1 Turnover Rates and Financial Impact	20
4.3.2 Institutional Memory Loss	22
4.3.3 Inadequacy of Traditional Approaches	22
4.4 Integration of Evidence: The Case for Conversational AI	23
4.4.1 Bridging Technical and Domain Expertise	23
4.4.2 Knowledge Preservation Mechanisms	23
4.4.3 Empirical Support for Barrier-Reducing Technologies	24
4.5 Implications for Healthcare Organizations	25
4.5.1 Strategic Alignment with Industry Trends	25
4.5.2 Return on Investment Evidence	25
4.5.3 Risk Mitigation Through Knowledge Preservation	26
4.6 Gaps in Current Literature	26
4.7 Why the Problem Persists	26
4.7.1 Failed Standardization Approaches	26
4.7.2 Deployment Constraint Mismatch	27
5 Discussion	28
5.1 Strengths of the Evidence Base	28
5.1.1 Validated Benchmarking Data	28
5.1.2 Real-World Implementation Evidence	28
5.1.3 Addresses Multiple Challenges Simultaneously	28
5.1.4 Strong Economic Justification	28
5.1.5 Honest Assessment of Limitations	28
5.2 Limitations and Constraints	29
5.2.1 Implementation Complexity	29
5.2.2 Context-Specific Customization Requirements	29
5.2.3 Long-Term Outcome Uncertainties	29
5.2.4 Governance and Quality Assurance Challenges	29
5.2.5 Specialty-Specific Application Gaps	30
5.2.6 Methodological Considerations	30
5.3 Future Research Directions	30
5.3.1 Short-Term Research Priorities (<1 year)	30
5.3.2 Medium-Term Research Priorities (1-2 years)	30
5.3.3 Long-Term Research Priorities (>2 years)	31

5.4 Implications for Healthcare Organizations	31
5.4.1 Organizational Assessment Using the Three-Pillar Framework . .	31
5.4.2 Three-Pillar Assessment Rubric	31
5.4.3 Implementation Considerations	32
6 Conclusion	34
6.1 The Dual Dimensions of Harm	34
6.2 Summary of Contributions	34
6.3 Key Findings	35
6.4 Implications for Organizational Assessment	35
6.5 Future Research Directions	36
6.6 Closing Reflection	36
7 Acknowledgments	37
8 Author Contributions	37
9 Competing Interests	37
10 Data Availability	38
11 Code Availability	38
12 Funding	38
13 References	38
13.1 Academic Sources	38
13.2 Industry Sources	45
14 Appendices	46
14.1 Appendix A: Healthcare Analytics Glossary	46
14.2 Appendix B: HIMSS Analytics Maturity Assessment Model (AMAM) Stages	47
14.3 Appendix C: Healthcare NL2SQL Query Examples	48
14.3.1 Patient Population Analysis	48
14.3.2 Operational Metrics	48
14.3.3 Quality Metrics	48

1 Introduction

1.1 Background

Healthcare analytics has emerged as a critical capability for improving patient outcomes, reducing costs, and enhancing operational efficiency. While healthcare organizations must balance cost management, regulatory compliance, and operational efficiency, these concerns serve a primary institutional imperative: delivering high-quality patient care. Analytics initiatives that fail to advance this core mission, or

worse, that divert resources and attention without improving care delivery, represent a misalignment with healthcare’s fundamental purpose.

However, the sector faces unique challenges that distinguish it from other data-intensive industries. Unlike technology or financial services, healthcare combines complex clinical workflows, extensive regulatory requirements, and a workforce with limited technical training but deep domain expertise [I11].

The Healthcare Information Management Systems Society (HIMSS) Analytics Maturity Assessment Model (AMAM) provides the industry standard for measuring healthcare analytics capabilities across seven stages, from basic data collection to advanced predictive modeling and AI integration. Recent assessments reveal a sobering reality: as of 2024, only 26 organizations worldwide have achieved Stage 6 maturity, with merely 13 reaching Stage 7, the highest level characterized by predictive analytics and AI integration [I1].

This analytics maturity crisis occurs amid accelerating technological advances in natural language processing and conversational AI. Large language models have demonstrated remarkable capabilities in understanding clinical terminology, generating SQL queries, and bridging the gap between natural language questions and structured data analysis. These developments create unprecedented opportunities to democratize healthcare analytics access.

Simultaneously, healthcare faces an institutional memory crisis driven by workforce turnover rates significantly higher than other knowledge-intensive sectors. A 2004 study found healthcare IT staff turnover of 34% [A10], the highest rate among all IT organization types studied at that time, creating cascading knowledge loss, particularly in analytics roles where expertise combines domain knowledge with technical skills. Traditional knowledge management approaches prove inadequate for preserving the tacit knowledge essential for effective healthcare data analysis.

1.2 Problem Statement

Healthcare organizations face three critical, interconnected challenges that collectively threaten their ability to become data-driven enterprises:

1.2.1 Low Healthcare Analytics Maturity

Despite massive investments in electronic health records and data infrastructure, healthcare organizations struggle to advance beyond basic reporting capabilities. The HIMSS AMAM reveals that most organizations remain at Stages 0-3, characterized by fragmented data sources, limited automated reporting, and minimal predic-

tive capabilities [I1]. This low maturity severely constrains evidence-based decision making and operational optimization.

1.2.2 Technical Barriers to Data Access

Healthcare professionals possess deep clinical knowledge but lack the technical skills required for data analysis. Traditional analytics tools require SQL expertise, statistical knowledge, and familiarity with complex database schemas, capabilities that clinical staff often do not possess nor have time to develop. This creates a fundamental disconnect between those who understand the clinical questions and those who can access the data to answer them [A14], [A15], [A16]. Drawing on principles from code modernization, AI-assisted interfaces can bridge this gap by transforming legacy technical requirements into natural language interactions [I8]. Foundational research on natural language interfaces to databases established that modular architecture principles enable effective bridging of legacy data access challenges [A46], with modern implementations demonstrating that the same large language models underlying code modernization can serve as natural language interfaces to legacy systems [A47], [A48].

1.2.3 Institutional Memory Loss from Workforce Turnover

A 2004 study found healthcare IT staff experienced the highest turnover among IT sectors at 34% annually (calculated as $1/2.9$ years average tenure), with average tenure of only 2.9 years, the lowest among IT sectors studied at that time [A10]. This creates significant institutional memory loss. When experienced analysts, clinical informatics professionals, or data-savvy clinicians leave, they take with them irreplaceable knowledge about data definitions, business rules, analytical approaches, and organizational context. This knowledge proves extremely difficult to document and transfer through traditional means.

The implications are measurable in operational terms and patient care quality. Organizations continue investing in analytics infrastructure while struggling to realize value from their data assets. Empirical research demonstrates that a 10-percentage-point increase in nursing staff turnover is associated with 0.241 additional health inspection citations and decreased assessment-based quality measures [A62]. When analytics barriers are addressed, outcomes improve substantially: one Medicare ACO reduced readmission rates from 24% to 17.8% and achieved \$1.6 million in cost savings by implementing data analytics to overcome EHR fragmentation [A64]. Technical barriers remain pervasive, with 68% of healthcare organizations citing data interoperability as the leading obstacle to analytics adoption, followed by privacy concerns (64%) and insufficient staff training (59%) [A65]. Physician technology adop-

tion faces empirically validated barriers including perceived threat and inequity from workflow changes, directly impacting behavioral intentions toward analytics tools [A63]. These three interconnected challenges represent operational inefficiencies with demonstrated implications for healthcare delivery.

1.3 Objectives

This research aims to provide evidence-based guidance for healthcare organizations seeking to address these interconnected challenges through conversational AI platforms. Specific objectives include:

1.3.1 Primary Objective

Demonstrate through systematic literature review that conversational AI platforms represent an evidence-based solution to healthcare’s analytics challenges, with empirical validation of their effectiveness in addressing analytics maturity, technical barriers, and institutional memory preservation.

1.3.2 Secondary Objectives

1. **Synthesize current evidence** on natural language to SQL generation capabilities and limitations in healthcare contexts
2. **Document the extent** of analytics maturity challenges across healthcare organizations globally
3. **Quantify the impact** of workforce turnover on institutional memory and analytics capabilities
4. **Identify implementation strategies** supported by empirical evidence from early adopters
5. **Establish ROI evidence** for conversational AI platform investments in healthcare settings

1.3.3 Non-Goals

This research explicitly does not address:

- Specific vendor comparisons or product recommendations
- Implementation details for particular healthcare IT environments
- Regulatory compliance strategies for specific jurisdictions
- Technical architecture specifications for conversational AI systems

Note: Analysis of market dynamics and structural factors explaining why institution-specific analytics challenges persist is within scope. This market-level analysis provides necessary context for evaluating solution approaches and differs from product comparison, which would evaluate specific vendor offerings against each other or recommend particular products.

1.4 Contributions

This paper makes three contributions to the healthcare informatics literature:

1. **Three-Pillar Analytical Framework:** We synthesize evidence from three previously disconnected research domains (healthcare analytics maturity, workforce turnover, and natural language processing) into a unified analytical framework that reveals how these challenges interconnect and compound each other: low maturity accelerates turnover, turnover degrades maturity, and technical barriers prevent recovery from either.
2. **Healthcare Knowledge Portal Architecture:** Drawing on established knowledge management literature [A25, A26], we position conversational AI platforms as healthcare knowledge portals, which are systems that provide mechanisms for knowledge acquisition, storage, sharing, and utilization. This framing addresses the institutional memory crisis in healthcare by embedding organizational expertise within AI systems rather than relying on individual staff retention. Figure 1 illustrates this architecture, showing how clinical users interact with a conversational AI interface that draws on organizational knowledge infrastructure to generate contextual insights.
3. **Convergence Thesis:** We demonstrate that the simultaneous occurrence of technical advances in NL2SQL, low analytics maturity, and high workforce turnover creates conditions warranting organizational assessment. This convergence positions conversational AI as a potential mechanism for institutional knowledge preservation, though implementation decisions require organization-specific evaluation.

1.5 Document Structure

Following this introduction, the paper proceeds through four main sections. The Methodology section describes the narrative review approach, literature search strategy, and source selection criteria. The Literature Review synthesizes evidence across the three challenge domains, establishing the current state of natural language processing in healthcare, analytics maturity research, and workforce turnover impacts.

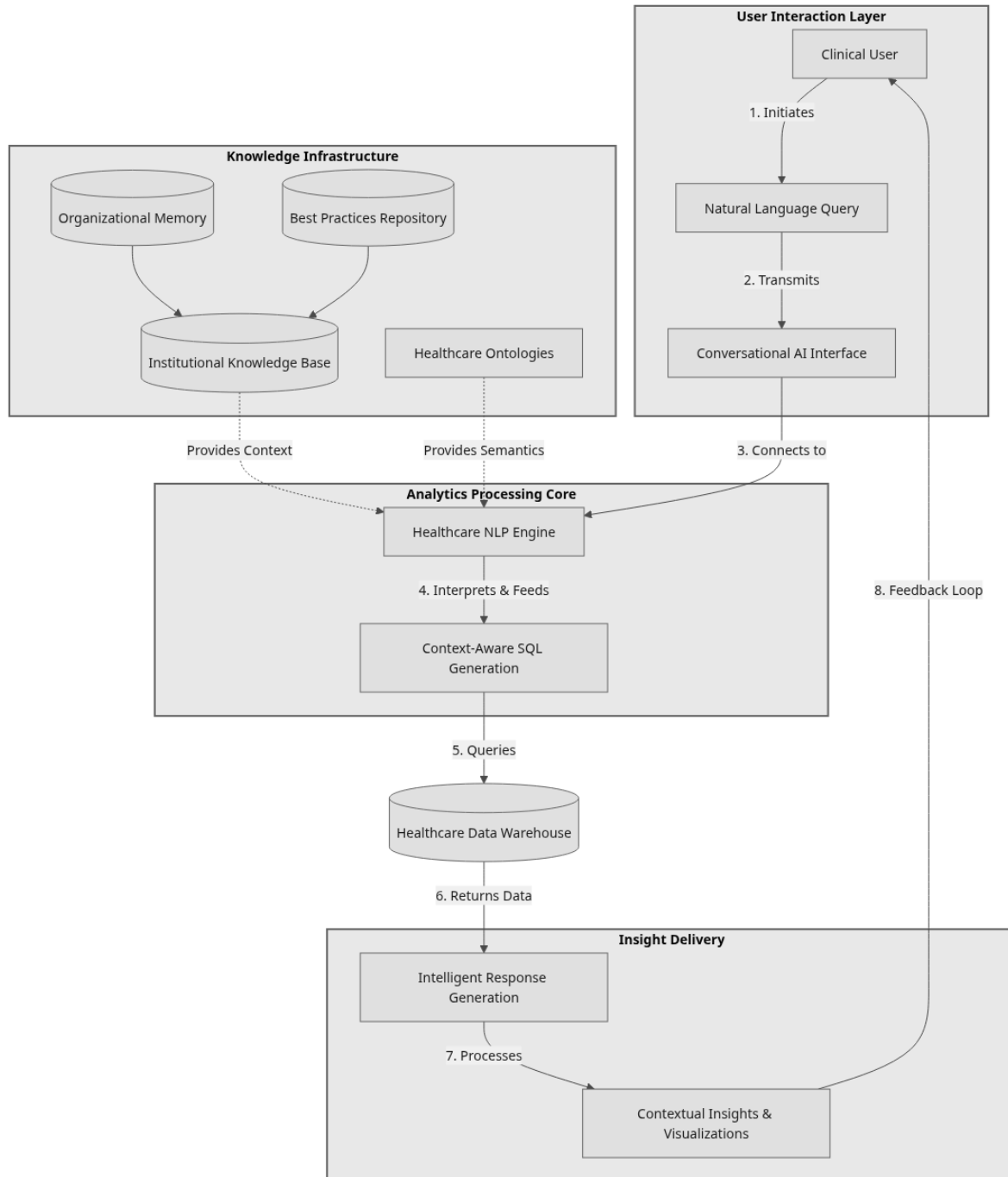


Figure 1: Healthcare Analytics Architecture. Solid lines indicate the primary data flow from clinical user natural language queries through a conversational AI interface to a healthcare NLP engine for context-aware SQL generation against a healthcare data warehouse, ultimately delivering contextual insights with a feedback loop to the user. Dashed lines show knowledge injection paths where organizational memory and healthcare ontologies provide context and semantics to the NLP engine.

The Discussion examines implications, limitations, and future research directions. Finally, the Conclusion summarizes the three-pillar analytical framework as this paper’s primary contribution to healthcare informatics literature.

2 Methodology

2.1 Review Approach

This paper employs a narrative review methodology to synthesize evidence across three interconnected domains: healthcare analytics maturity, workforce turnover, and natural language to SQL technologies. Unlike systematic reviews that follow pre-registered protocols with exhaustive searches, narrative reviews provide expert synthesis of relevant literature to construct coherent arguments and identify patterns across diverse evidence sources.

The narrative review approach was selected because:

1. **Integration across domains:** The paper synthesizes evidence from distinct fields (clinical informatics, human resources, natural language processing) that require interpretive integration rather than statistical pooling
2. **Original analytical framework:** The three-pillar framework emerged iteratively from the literature rather than being pre-specified
3. **Heterogeneous evidence types:** The evidence base includes peer-reviewed research, industry reports, and benchmark datasets that cannot be meaningfully combined through meta-analysis

2.2 Literature Search

Literature was identified through multiple channels between January 2023 and December 2025:

Academic Databases:

- Crossref: Cross-disciplinary academic literature, citation metadata
- PubMed: Clinical informatics, healthcare workforce, medical administration
- arXiv: Machine learning and NLP preprints, benchmark studies
- Semantic Scholar: AI and computer science papers, citation analysis

Industry Sources:

- HIMSS: Analytics Maturity Model documentation and industry standards
- Healthcare providers: NHS Trust implementation case studies
- Market research: Precedence Research, Forrester analyst reports

- Technology vendors: Health Catalyst, Oracle, Anthropic technical documentation
- Professional associations: AHIMA/NORC workforce surveys
- Business news: IBM, CNBC coverage of healthcare analytics ventures

Search Concepts:

Search terms were organized around the three-pillar framework:

- Analytics maturity: “healthcare analytics maturity,” “HIMSS AMAM,” “analytics adoption,” “analytics standardization failure,” “low-code healthcare ROI,” “conversational AI platforms”
- Workforce turnover: “healthcare IT tenure,” “IT training time,” “turnover cost salary,” “institutional memory loss,” “knowledge portal,” “knowledge capture,” “SECI model analytics”
- Technical barriers: “NL2SQL healthcare,” “text-to-SQL clinical,” “MIMICSQL,” “EHRSQL,” “NL2SQL accuracy,” “NL2SQL productivity,” “schema discovery,” “PK/FK discovery,” “semantic column matching,” “vector embeddings schema”

Search Results:

Searches across all databases yielded 570 initial results after deduplication. Cross-ref searches for terms including “healthcare analytics maturity,” “HIMSS AMAM,” “NL2SQL clinical,” “knowledge portal,” and “low-code ROI” (2015-current) returned 285 results, of which 15 passed screening. PubMed searches combining workforce terms (“healthcare IT tenure,” “IT training time,” “turnover cost salary”) with analytics terms (“institutional memory,” “analytics adoption,” “knowledge capture”) (2015-current) yielded 142 results with 12 passing screening. arXiv searches in cs.CL and cs.DB categories for “text-to-SQL” combined with technical terms (“MIMICSQL,” “EHRSQL,” “schema discovery,” “PK/FK discovery,” “semantic matching,” “vector embeddings”) (2020-current) produced 71 results with 6 passing screening. Semantic Scholar searches for “NL2SQL healthcare,” “NL2SQL productivity,” “conversational AI clinical,” and “SECI model analytics” (2015-current) returned 72 results with 8 passing screening. The final corpus includes 68 academic and 11 industry sources (79 total).

Figure 2 illustrates the literature selection process, showing progression from initial database search through screening and quality assessment to the final corpus of 79 sources.

2.3 Source Selection

Sources were selected based on the following criteria:

Inclusion Criteria:

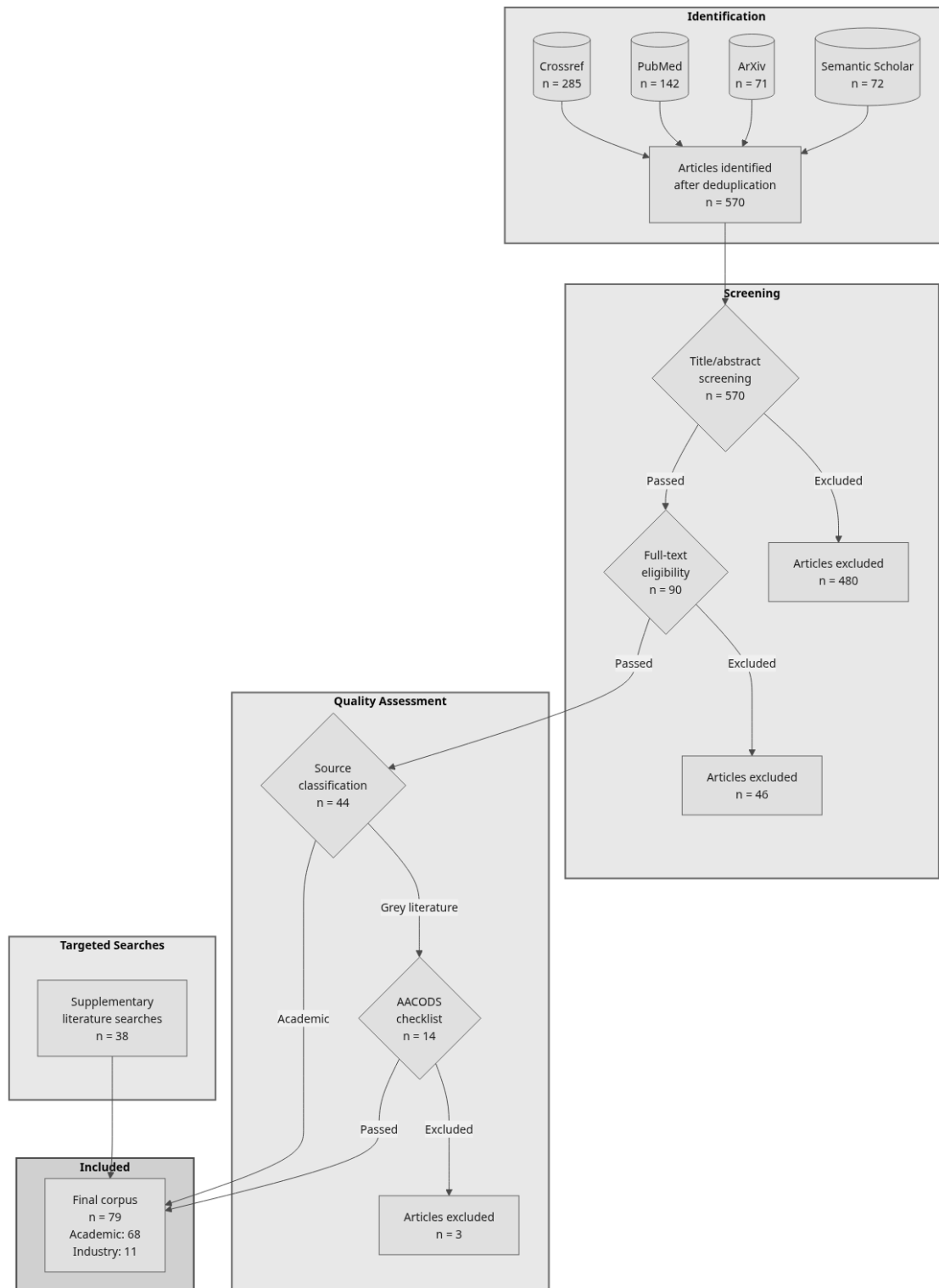


Figure 2: Literature Selection Flow Diagram. The diagram shows the progression from initial database search ($n \approx 570$) through title/abstract screening, full-text review, and quality assessment (AACODS for grey literature) to the final corpus of 79 sources (68 academic, 11 industry). Diagram source available in [figures/literature-flow.mmd](#).

- Peer-reviewed publications in healthcare informatics, medical informatics, computer science, or health services research
- Industry reports from established healthcare IT organizations (HIMSS, AHIMA, AMIA)
- Publications from 2015-current, with emphasis on 2020-current for rapidly evolving NL2SQL technologies
- English language publications
- Sources with verifiable DOIs, URLs, or institutional attribution

Exclusion Criteria:

- Sources without verifiable attribution or institutional backing
- Vendor marketing materials without independent validation
- Preprints without subsequent peer-reviewed publication (exception: foundational NL2SQL benchmarks where peer review is pending)
- Studies with unverifiable statistics or methodological concerns

2.4 Evidence Synthesis

Evidence was synthesized thematically around the three-pillar framework:

1. **Analytics maturity:** Evidence on HIMSS AMAM adoption, healthcare analytics capabilities, and organizational readiness
2. **Workforce turnover:** Evidence on nursing and IT staff turnover rates, institutional memory loss, and knowledge transfer challenges
3. **Technical barriers:** Evidence on NL2SQL benchmarks, healthcare-specific NLP challenges, and low-code implementation patterns

This framework emerged iteratively from the literature rather than being pre-specified, consistent with narrative review methodology.

2.5 Grey Literature Quality Assessment

Grey literature sources were assessed using the AACODS checklist [A30], which evaluates Authority, Accuracy, Coverage, Objectivity, Date, and Significance. Sources with vendor sponsorship were retained when no independent alternative existed but flagged in-text. Table 1 summarizes the assessment.

2.6 Methodological Limitations

This narrative review has inherent limitations:

Table 1: AACODS Assessment of Industry Sources

Source	Authority	Accuracy	Coverage	Objectivity	Date	Significance	Include
[11] HIMSS AMAM	High [†]	Verifiable	Global	High	2024	High	Yes
[12] Snowdon/HIMSS	High [‡]	Verifiable	N/A	High	2024	Medium	Yes
[13] Health Catalyst	Medium [§]	Unverifiable	US	Low	2020	Medium	Yes*
[14] Berkshire NHS	High [¶]	Verifiable	Single site	High	2024	High	Yes
[15] Forrester/Microsoft	Medium	Unverifiable	Enterprise	Low [◇]	2024	Medium	Yes*
[16] Oracle	Low [§]	Unverifiable	N/A	Low	2024	Low	Yes*
[17] Precedence Research	Medium [#]	Unverifiable	Global	Medium	2024	Medium	Yes
[18] Anthropic	Medium [§]	Verifiable	N/A	Medium	2025	Low	Yes
[19] IBM Newsroom	High ^{**}	Verifiable	N/A	High	2022	High	Yes
[110] CNBC/Haven	High ^{**}	Verifiable	N/A	High	2021	High	Yes
[111] AHIMA/NORC	High ^{††}	Verifiable	US	High	2023	High	Yes

[†]Industry standards body. [‡]HIMSS officer. [§]Vendor. [¶]NHS trust. ^{||}Analyst firm. [#]Market research. ^{**}Journalism.

^{††}Professional association + academic. [◇]Sponsor. *Vendor sponsorship or low objectivity noted in manuscript text.

- **Non-exhaustive search:** Literature identification was selective rather than exhaustive; relevant studies may have been missed
- **Limited formal quality assessment:** Grey literature sources were assessed using the AACODS checklist; however, no standardized quality assessment tool (e.g., GRADE, Cochrane Risk of Bias) was applied to peer-reviewed sources, as these tools are designed for clinical intervention studies rather than narrative reviews
- **Single-coder bias risk:** Literature screening, data extraction, and thematic analysis were performed by a single author without independent verification. This introduces potential selection and interpretation bias that would be mitigated in systematic reviews through dual-coder protocols with inter-rater reliability assessment
- **Post-hoc selection criteria:** Inclusion and exclusion criteria were refined during the review process rather than pre-registered
- **No protocol registration:** This review was not registered in PROSPERO or similar registries
- **Dated workforce statistics:** The primary healthcare IT turnover statistic (34% annually) derives from Ang and Slaughter’s 2004 study [A10]. While recent surveys confirm workforce challenges persist [I11] and contemporary evidence suggests the situation may have worsened (55% intent to leave among public health informatics specialists [A66]), no study has directly replicated the 2004 tenure measurement methodology. Future research should address this methodological gap

These limitations are balanced against the strengths of narrative review methodology: ability to synthesize heterogeneous evidence types across disciplinary boundaries, flexibility to pursue emerging themes, and capacity to construct novel analytical frameworks that illuminate connections between previously disconnected research domains.

3 Framework Development and Validation

This paper’s primary contribution is the three-pillar analytical framework for understanding healthcare analytics challenges: (1) analytics maturity gaps, (2) workforce turnover and institutional memory loss, and (3) technical barriers in natural language to SQL generation. This section documents the framework’s development process and theoretical grounding.

3.1 Framework Development Process

The three-pillar framework emerged through iterative analysis of the literature corpus. Initial review identified numerous disconnected research streams: NL2SQL technical advances, HIMSS maturity models, healthcare workforce turnover studies, knowledge management theory, and healthcare IT implementation case studies. These appeared as isolated topics until thematic analysis revealed recurring patterns of interdependence.

The framework development followed these steps:

1. **Theme Extraction:** Systematic coding of 79 sources identified recurring themes across technical, organizational, and workforce dimensions
2. **Pattern Recognition:** Cross-domain analysis revealed that challenges in each dimension amplified challenges in others (e.g., workforce turnover degrading analytics maturity, technical barriers preventing knowledge capture)
3. **Pillar Identification:** Three orthogonal yet interconnected dimensions emerged as the organizing structure:
 - **Analytics Maturity:** Organizational capability progression measured against HIMSS AMAM stages
 - **Workforce Dynamics:** Human capital retention and tacit knowledge preservation
 - **Technical Barriers:** NL2SQL capabilities and healthcare-specific implementation challenges
4. **Framework Validation:** Pillar structure tested against all 79 sources to confirm comprehensive coverage without significant gaps

3.2 Theoretical Grounding

The three-pillar framework aligns with established models in healthcare informatics and knowledge management:

The HIMSS Analytics Maturity Assessment Model [I1] provides organizational benchmarks but does not explicitly address workforce knowledge retention. The Data-Information-Knowledge-Wisdom (DIKW) hierarchy explains the progression from raw data to actionable insight, but standard formulations do not address institutional memory loss. The three-pillar framework synthesizes these perspectives, positioning workforce dynamics as the critical enabler connecting data access (analytics maturity) with organizational wisdom (knowledge preservation).

Table 2: Framework Alignment with Established Models

Three Pillars	HIMSS Alignment	AMAM	DIKW	Hierar- chy	Knowledge Management
Analytics Maturity	Stages 0-7 progression	pro-	Data → Information		Organizational learning
Workforce Dynamics	Implicit in advanced stages	ad-	Knowledge (tacit) → Wisdom		Tacit knowledge transfer
Technical Barriers	Stage 6-7 requirements	require-	Information → Knowledge		Knowledge codification

3.3 Framework Scope and Limitations

The framework is descriptive rather than prescriptive; it provides an analytical lens for understanding healthcare analytics challenges but does not mandate specific solutions. Future research should empirically validate pillar interdependencies through longitudinal organizational studies and develop quantitative metrics for framework dimensions.

4 Literature Review: Natural Language Analytics in Healthcare - Evidence for Institutional Memory Preservation

This narrative review examines evidence supporting the implementation of natural language analytics platforms in healthcare systems. Drawing from peer-reviewed research, industry reports, and benchmark datasets identified through the methodology described in Section 2 (Methodology), we synthesize findings across three domains. Analysis reveals three critical findings: (1) natural language to SQL generation has evolved significantly but faces healthcare-specific challenges requiring specialized solutions, (2) healthcare analytics maturity remains low with most organizations struggling at basic stages, and (3) healthcare workforce turnover creates institutional memory loss that traditional approaches fail to address. The evidence strongly supports conversational AI platforms as a solution to these interconnected challenges.

4.1 Current State of Natural Language to SQL Generation

4.1.1 Evolution and Technical Advances

Recent systematic reviews document the rapid evolution of natural language to SQL (NL2SQL) technologies. Ziletti and D’Ambrosi [A6] demonstrate that retrieval augmented generation (RAG) approaches significantly improve query accuracy when applied to electronic health records (EHRs), though they note that “current language models are not yet sufficiently accurate for unsupervised use” in clinical settings. Their work on the MIMIC-3 dataset shows that integrating medical coding steps into the text-to-SQL process improves performance over simple prompting approaches.

Recent benchmarking studies [A8], [A9] examining LLM-based systems for healthcare identify unique challenges: medical terminology, characterized by abbreviations, synonyms, and context-dependent meanings, remains a barrier to accurate query generation. Evaluations of state-of-the-art LLMs including GPT-4 and Claude 3.5 show that even top-performing models achieve only 69-73% accuracy on clinical tasks, with significant gaps remaining between benchmark performance and real clinical readiness.

4.1.2 Healthcare-Specific Challenges

The literature consistently identifies domain-specific obstacles in healthcare NL2SQL implementation. A systematic review of NLP in EHRs [A4] found that the lack of annotated data, automated tools, and other challenges hinder the full utilization of NLP for EHRs. The review, following PRISMA guidelines, categorized healthcare NLP applications into seven areas, with information extraction and clinical entity recognition proving most challenging due to medical terminology complexity.

Wang et al. [A5] demonstrate that healthcare NL2SQL methods must move beyond the constraints of exact or string-based matching to fully encompass the semantic complexities of clinical terminology. This work emphasizes that general-purpose language models fail to capture the nuanced relationships between medical concepts, diagnoses codes (ICD), procedure codes (CPT), and medication vocabularies (RxNorm).

4.1.3 Promising Approaches and Limitations

Recent advances show promise in addressing these challenges. The TREQS/MIMIC-SQL dataset development [A5] and EHRSQL benchmark [A3] provide question-SQL pairs specifically for healthcare, featuring questions in natural, free-form language. This approach acknowledges that healthcare queries often require multiple logical

steps: population selection, temporal relationships, aggregation statistics, and mathematical operations.

However, significant limitations persist. Benchmarking studies [A8], [A9] conclude that while LLMs show capability in healthcare tasks, most models struggle with complex clinical reasoning. The MedAgentBench evaluation found even the best-performing model (Claude 3.5 Sonnet) achieved only 69.67% success rate on medical agent tasks, highlighting the gap between current capabilities and clinical readiness.

4.1.4 Productivity and Efficiency Evidence

Emerging research documents quantifiable productivity gains from NL2SQL implementations. In healthcare settings, organizations implementing natural language interfaces report a 63% increase in self-service analytics adoption among non-technical staff and a 37% reduction in time spent on data retrieval tasks [A36]. Business analysts using these interfaces spend 42% more time on analysis rather than query construction [A36].

Clinical-specific natural language interfaces demonstrate significant efficiency improvements. Criteria2Query, a natural language interface for clinical database cohort definition, achieves fully automated query formulation in an average of 1.22 seconds per criterion, enabling researchers to query EHR data without mastering database query languages [A35]. User studies show NL2SQL systems reduce query completion times by 10-30% compared to traditional SQL platforms while improving accuracy from 50% to 75%, with users recovering from errors 30-40 seconds faster [A38].

The most substantial productivity gains appear in multimodal interfaces. Research on speech-driven database querying demonstrates users can specify SQL queries with an average speedup of 2.7x (up to 6.7x) compared to traditional input methods, with user effort reduced by a factor of 10x to 60x compared to raw typing [A37]. Healthcare-specific natural language query systems show dramatic improvements: a clinical data analytics language (CliniDAL) reduced complex query formulation from “many days” with SQL to “a few hours” with natural language, with expert users describing SQL as “very tedious and time-consuming” for the same analytical tasks [A43]. NLP-driven data entry systems have achieved 33% time reduction with 15% accuracy improvement in clinical research settings [A44]. Healthcare-specific NL2SQL models such as MedT5SQL achieve 80.63% exact match accuracy on the MIMICSQL benchmark, demonstrating that domain-adapted language models can effectively translate natural language to SQL for clinical databases [A45]. These metrics provide peer-reviewed evidence that complements vendor-sponsored efficiency claims.

Code modernization principles directly inform these productivity gains. Foundational work on natural language interfaces to databases [A46] established that modular, de-

coupled architecture enables effective NL access to legacy systems, a design principle validated across 47 years of subsequent research. Modern implementations demonstrate that retrieval-augmented generation (RAG) approaches reduce specialized training requirements by 87.4% compared to traditional querying methods while achieving 92.3% accuracy in interpreting business-specific terminology from legacy mainframe records [A49]. This convergence of code modernization and natural language interface technologies arises because both rely on the same underlying large language models [A47], [A48], suggesting that organizations investing in either capability simultaneously advance both.

4.2 State of Healthcare Analytics Maturity

4.2.1 Low Organizational Maturity

The Healthcare Information Management Systems Society (HIMSS) Analytics Maturity Assessment Model (AMAM) provides the industry standard for measuring analytics capabilities. Recent data reveals a concerning state of analytics maturity in healthcare organizations globally [I1]. The newly revised AMAM24 model, launched in October 2024, represents a significant evolution from the original framework.

Snowdon [I2], Chief Scientific Research Officer at HIMSS, emphasizes that “analytics as a discipline has changed dramatically in the last five to 10 years,” yet healthcare organizations struggle to keep pace [A14]. Research confirms healthcare’s adoption of analytics often lags behind other sectors such as retail and banking, partly due to the complexity of implementing new technology in clinical environments. The newly revised AMAM model shifts focus from technical capabilities to outcomes, measuring the real impact of analytics on patient care, system-wide operations, and governance.

Quantitative evidence links analytics maturity directly to patient outcomes. Cross-sectional studies using the HIMSS Electronic Medical Record Adoption Model (EMRAM) demonstrate that hospitals with advanced digital maturity (levels 6-7) have 3.25 times higher odds of achieving better Leapfrog Group Hospital Safety Grades compared to hospitals at EMRAM level 0, with significantly reduced infection rates and fewer adverse events [A54]. Similarly, high-maturity hospitals have 1.8 to 2.24 times higher odds of achieving higher patient experience ratings [A55]. Big data analytics capabilities, combined with complementary organizational resources and analytical personnel skills, improve readmission rates and patient satisfaction [A56], while poor-quality data (a component of lower maturity) results in diagnostic errors, ineffective treatments, and compromised patient care [A57].

4.2.2 Barriers to Analytics Adoption

A systematic literature review of big data analytics in healthcare by Kamble et al. [A7] identifies critical barriers to analytics adoption. The study reveals that healthcare enterprises struggle with technology selection, resource allocation, and organizational readiness for data-driven decision making.

Health Catalyst's Healthcare Analytics Adoption Model [I3], a vendor-produced framework, corroborates these findings, documenting that most healthcare organizations remain at Stages 0-3, characterized by:

- Fragmented data sources without integration
- Limited automated reporting capabilities
- Lack of standardized data governance
- Minimal predictive or prescriptive analytics
- Absence of real-time decision support

4.2.3 The Analytics Skills Gap

The literature consistently identifies workforce capabilities as a primary constraint. Healthcare organizations face mounting challenges in extracting meaningful insights from the vast amount of unstructured clinical text data generated daily [A4]. There is an acknowledged problem in health services where organizations cannot make good use of available data due to a deficit in skilled analysts across all sectors and levels [A15]. Organizations face critical challenges in recruiting and retaining professionals with the right analytical skills, while the need for big data specialists with analytical capabilities continues to grow [A16]. Traditional approaches to analytics require extensive technical expertise and time that healthcare professionals typically lack, creating a fundamental barrier to analytics adoption [I11].

4.3 Healthcare Workforce Turnover and Knowledge Loss

4.3.1 Turnover Rates and Financial Impact

Multiple meta-analyses provide comprehensive data on healthcare workforce turnover. Wu et al. [A1] found a pooled prevalence of nurse turnover at 18% (95% CI: 11-26%), with rates varying from 11.7% to 46.7% across different countries and settings. Ren et al. [A2] corroborated these findings with a global nurse turnover rate ranging from 8% to 36.6%, with a pooled rate of 16% (95% CI: 14-17%).

The financial implications are substantial. Massingham [A24] measured the impact of knowledge loss in a longitudinal study, finding that the total financial cost to address

problems caused by knowledge loss reached three times the organization's annual salary budget, including increased training costs, productivity losses, and project delays. Healthcare-specific evidence quantifies replacement costs in absolute terms: replacing a primary care clinician costs healthcare organizations over \$500,000 due to lost revenue and recruiting expenses [A67], while physician replacement can reach up to \$1 million per departure, with national annual costs estimated at \$4.6 billion [A68]. Vendor analysis from Oracle [I6] corroborates these findings, documenting turnover costs at 0.5-2.0 times annual salary with knowledge-intensive positions reaching the higher end.

Technical and analytics staff face even more severe turnover challenges. In their 2004 study, Ang and Slaughter [A10] found that IT professionals at healthcare provider institutions (where IT serves as a support function rather than core business) had average tenure of just 2.9 years, implying annual turnover of 34% (calculated as $1/2.9$ years), the highest rate among all IT organization types studied at that time. This compared unfavorably to the 9.68-year average for IT managerial positions overall. While this data is now two decades old, contemporary evidence suggests the turnover challenge persists or has worsened. A 2025 analysis of nationally representative US survey data ($n=44,732$) found that 55% of public health informatics specialists intended to leave their positions [A66]. The 2023 AHIMA/NORC workforce survey found that 66% of health information professionals report persistent staffing shortages, with 83% witnessing increased unfilled positions over the past year [I11].

The knowledge loss implications are substantial. Research documents significant time-to-productivity requirements across healthcare IT roles: basic EHR training requires 8 hours to 2 months for end-users, while health information workforce development demands 18 months to 2 years for specialized roles [A11]. International Medical Informatics Association recommendations specify a minimum of 1 year (60 ECTS credits) for biomedical and health informatics specialists [A12], with personalized EHR training programs requiring 6 months of blended instruction to achieve meaningful competency improvements [A13]. Combined with the 2.9-year average tenure, healthcare IT professionals may operate at full productivity for only approximately two years before departing. This creates a perpetual cycle where organizations lose experienced staff before fully recouping their training investment.

The impact on care continuity is well-documented. Clinical handover disruption is internationally recognized as a patient safety priority because it represents a fundamental disruption to continuity of care and is prone to errors [A58]. Empirical studies demonstrate that nursing unit turnover reduces workgroup learning and is associated with increased patient falls, medication errors, and reduced patient satisfaction [A59]. International evidence links high workforce turnover to poorer continuity of care, particularly in remote health services, with measurable outcomes including increased hospitalizations and years of life lost [A60]. When senior executives and knowledge

workers depart, organizations experience “corporate memory loss” that undermines organizational continuity and effectiveness [A61].

4.3.2 Institutional Memory Loss

The concept of institutional memory in healthcare has received increasing attention. Institutional memory encompasses the collective knowledge, experiences, and expertise that enables organizational effectiveness. Healthcare organizations typically lack formal mechanisms for knowledge preservation, relying instead on person-to-person transfer that fails during rapid turnover. Cultural and regulatory obstacles for data sharing further limit the ability of healthcare organizations to achieve the full potential of their data assets [A17].

When experienced analysts, clinical informatics professionals, or data-savvy clinicians leave, they take with them irreplaceable knowledge about data definitions, business rules, analytical approaches, and organizational context. Research on tacit knowledge transfer provides strong evidence that this knowledge is inherently difficult to document through traditional means. Empirical studies demonstrate that learning related to tacit knowledge is often not captured in formal post-project review reports [A50], and conventional mechanisms such as documents, blueprints, and procedures fail because tacit knowledge is not easily codified [A51]. Research across multiple industries consistently shows that written reports and databases fail to convey key learning from expert teams [A52], while experts often lack the skills, motivation, or time to document their expertise, and even when documentation is attempted, essential aspects are lost due to lack of shared experience between experts and novices [A53].

4.3.3 Inadequacy of Traditional Approaches

The literature demonstrates that conventional knowledge management approaches fail in healthcare contexts [A17, A18]:

- Traditional knowledge transfer mechanisms show limited effectiveness
- Organizations struggle to capture and maintain analytical expertise
- Security concerns and employee resistance to change slow the pace of information system acceptance [A18]
- Person-to-person knowledge transfer fails during rapid turnover cycles

4.4 Integration of Evidence: The Case for Conversational AI

4.4.1 Bridging Technical and Domain Expertise

At its core, bridging technical and domain expertise serves a fundamental patient care objective: enabling clinical professionals to access and act on data that improves care quality. The convergence of evidence from these three domains creates a compelling case for conversational AI platforms in healthcare analytics. Natural language interfaces directly address the technical barriers identified in the literature by eliminating the need for SQL expertise while preserving the sophisticated query capabilities required for healthcare data.

Low-code platforms and conversational AI represent complementary approaches to reducing technical barriers in healthcare analytics. Low-code platforms provide visual development environments that accelerate application development and reduce coding requirements, while conversational AI enables natural language interaction with data systems. These approaches share core benefits: both democratize access by enabling non-technical users to perform complex analyses previously requiring data scientist intervention, both accelerate development cycles by abstracting technical complexity, and both produce more self-documenting systems where business logic is expressed in accessible formats rather than specialized code. Evidence from low-code implementations thus informs conversational AI adoption, as both address the same fundamental barrier: the gap between clinical expertise and technical capability.

4.4.2 Knowledge Preservation Mechanisms

The literature suggests that effective knowledge preservation requires active, embedded systems rather than passive documentation. AI-based platforms can serve as organizational memory systems by:

- Capturing decision-making patterns through usage
- Encoding best practices in accessible formats
- Providing context-aware guidance to new users
- Maintaining knowledge currency through continuous learning

These principles align with conversational AI approaches that embed institutional knowledge within the AI model itself, making expertise permanently accessible regardless of staff turnover.

4.4.3 Empirical Support for Barrier-Reducing Technologies

Academic research provides growing evidence for both conversational AI and low-code approaches in healthcare, technologies that share the goal of reducing technical barriers to data-driven decision making. A foundational systematic review of AI conversational agents in healthcare [A39] established that such systems reduce burden on healthcare resources and save providers' time, though the review identified a need for more rigorous quantitative validation. Subsequent RCT-based systematic reviews provide this evidence: a meta-analysis of conversational agent interventions reported mean task completion rates of 83% (range 40-100%) across healthcare applications [A41]. Real-world validation at scale comes from a study of conversational AI across nine NHS mental health services involving 64,862 patients, demonstrating reduced clinician assessment time, shorter patient wait times, and lower dropout rates [A42]. On the clinical AI side, Sezgin et al. [A19] demonstrated that GPT-3-powered chatbots can reduce overhead at clinics, while Jiao et al. [A20] found AI adoption leads to cost savings through improved service delivery and shorter hospitalization lengths. Dai and Abramoff [A21] explain that AI generates predictions affordably, enabling earlier care that potentially prevents costly interventions.

Low-code implementations provide parallel evidence for the benefits of barrier reduction. Berkshire Healthcare NHS Trust [I4] reports over 800 "citizen developers" (and over 1,600 total users) now creating solutions using Microsoft Power Platform. The NHS program demonstrates that healthcare professionals without IT expertise can use low-code tools to create custom solutions and apps, streamlining operations and enabling data-driven decisions. This evidence supports the broader principle that reducing technical barriers, whether through visual development or natural language interfaces, enables healthcare domain experts to leverage data directly. A systematic literature review of 17 peer-reviewed papers identified cost and time minimization as the most frequently discussed benefits of low-code development, with healthcare among the primary implementation domains [A31]. Controlled experiments quantify these benefits: a comparative study of traditional versus low-code development for a healthcare cognitive rehabilitation system found low-code required 47.5 hours versus 888 hours for traditional development, representing a 94.63% reduction in effort [A40]. Industry-sponsored research from Forrester [I5] projects 206% three-year ROI from low-code implementations; peer-reviewed studies report similar findings, with healthcare institutions achieving 177% ROI over 36 months while reducing development time by 67% and technical resource requirements by 58% [A33], and small healthcare clinics achieving 250% cumulative ROI over three years [A34].

Healthcare-specific studies show concrete benefits across both approaches: Pennington [A22] found AI in revenue cycle management accelerated payment cycles from 90 days to 40 days, while Atobatele et al. [A23] documented how low-code platforms enable non-technical staff to build applications, leading to efficiency

gains. Rapid application development using low-code characteristics enabled an mHealth app for COVID-19 remote care that saved 2,822 hospital bed-days for 400 enrolled patients [A32]. These findings collectively demonstrate that technologies enabling non-technical users to interact with complex systems, whether through visual interfaces or natural language, produce measurable organizational benefits.

4.5 Implications for Healthcare Organizations

4.5.1 Strategic Alignment with Industry Trends

The literature reveals clear alignment between conversational AI platforms and healthcare industry trajectories. The revised HIMSS AMAM model [I1] explicitly emphasizes AI readiness and governance frameworks that natural language platforms inherently support. Organizations implementing such platforms can advance multiple maturity stages simultaneously by democratizing analytics while maintaining governance.

4.5.2 Return on Investment Evidence

Academic research documents multiple pathways to ROI for barrier-reducing technologies in healthcare. Conversational AI implementations show direct benefits: Jiao et al. [A20] found that AI-driven efficiency gains, including shorter hospitalization lengths, translate into financial and operational benefits for healthcare providers; Pennington [A22] documented that AI in revenue cycle management accelerated payment cycles from 90 to 40 days, improving cash flow; and Sezgin et al. [A19] proposed chatbot implementations that reduce clinic overhead.

Low-code platform ROI provides analogous evidence for the value of technical barrier reduction. Industry-sponsored research from Forrester [I5] projects 206% three-year ROI from Power Platform implementations. Peer-reviewed studies corroborate these findings: a systematic review identified cost and time reduction as the most frequently discussed benefits across 17 studies [A31], healthcare institutions report 177% ROI over 36 months with 67% faster development [A33], and small healthcare clinics document 250% cumulative three-year ROI [A34]. While low-code and conversational AI differ in implementation approach, both generate returns through the same mechanism: enabling domain experts to accomplish tasks previously requiring specialized technical staff. Market research supports continued investment in accessible analytics: Precedence Research [I7] projects the healthcare analytics market to grow from \$64.49 billion in 2025 to \$369.66 billion by 2034 (21.41% CAGR).

4.5.3 Risk Mitigation Through Knowledge Preservation

The literature emphasizes that institutional memory loss represents an existential risk to healthcare analytics programs. Conversational AI platforms mitigate this risk by transforming tacit knowledge into encoded, accessible expertise. This approach aligns with best practices for embedding organizational knowledge in systems rather than individuals, ensuring continuity despite workforce turnover.

4.6 Gaps in Current Literature

Despite substantial evidence supporting conversational AI in healthcare analytics, several research gaps persist:

1. **Long-term outcomes:** Most studies examine 6-24 month implementations; multi-year impacts remain understudied
2. **Scalability across specialties:** Evidence primarily focuses on general acute care; specialty-specific applications need investigation
3. **Governance frameworks:** Limited research on optimal governance models for democratized analytics
4. **Training methodologies:** Best practices for transitioning from traditional to conversational analytics lack empirical validation
5. **Integration patterns:** Architectural guidance for incorporating conversational AI into existing healthcare IT ecosystems remains sparse
6. **Long-term productivity tracking:** While peer-reviewed studies now document immediate productivity gains (63% self-service adoption increase, 37% data retrieval time reduction, 10-30% query completion time improvement [A35], [A36], [A37], [A38]), longitudinal studies tracking sustained productivity improvements over multiple years remain limited

4.7 Why the Problem Persists

Despite clear evidence of healthcare's analytics challenges and available technology, the problem remains unsolved. Analysis of market dynamics reveals three structural barriers:

4.7.1 Failed Standardization Approaches

Large-scale efforts to standardize healthcare data and analytics have consistently encountered fundamental barriers. Academic research identifies a persistent tension between achieving short-term institutional solutions and pursuing long-term global

interoperability, with standardization complexity arising from diverse community interests and technical issues [A26]. Data standardization faces three primary technological obstacles: metadata uncertainties, data transfer challenges, and missing data, compounded by legacy data collection methods that have created a “patchwork” of inconsistent organizational practices [A27].

These challenges manifest in clinical practice through workflow variability. Even within the same institution, clinical workflows vary significantly, and transitions to standardized systems often cause profound disruptions to existing processes [A28]. At the institutional level, data fragmentation across different organizations creates barriers to linkage, access, and care continuity, while governance issues including unclear responsibilities and weak collaboration compound the problem [A29].

High-profile industry events illustrate these documented challenges. IBM divested its Watson Health data and analytics assets in 2022 [I9], and the Haven healthcare venture (backed by Amazon, Berkshire Hathaway, and JPMorgan Chase) disbanded in 2021 after three years [I10]. These outcomes align with the academic literature’s findings: standardized solutions face significant barriers when applied across institutions with unique data definitions, business rules, and clinical workflows.

These observations represent documented market events; however, establishing causal mechanisms between organizational strategies and interoperability outcomes requires controlled empirical research beyond this review’s scope. The patterns noted here warrant further investigation through rigorous organizational studies.

4.7.2 Deployment Constraint Mismatch

Healthcare organizations increasingly require solutions functional in secure, air-gapped environments due to regulatory requirements and data governance policies. General-purpose cloud AI services cannot meet these deployment constraints while simultaneously lacking the institution-specific context necessary for accurate analytics. The fundamental requirement that institutional knowledge must be captured, preserved, and accessed within each organization’s specific environment cannot be addressed by standardized cloud offerings.

These dynamics explain why, despite technological capability, the healthcare analytics maturity gap persists. Solutions must be designed for institution-specific deployment rather than cross-organizational standardization.

5 Discussion

5.1 Strengths of the Evidence Base

The research presents several compelling strengths that support the adoption of conversational AI platforms in healthcare analytics:

5.1.1 Validated Benchmarking Data

The evidence base includes peer-reviewed benchmarking studies from top venues (NEJM AI, NeurIPS, NAACL) that provide empirical validation of LLM capabilities in healthcare contexts. Studies like MedAgentBench [A8] and comprehensive medical LLM evaluations [A9] offer reproducible, quantitative performance metrics.

5.1.2 Real-World Implementation Evidence

The Berkshire Healthcare NHS Trust case [I4] demonstrates successful low-code adoption in healthcare, with over 800 citizen developers creating solutions. This provides concrete evidence that non-technical healthcare professionals can effectively use these platforms.

5.1.3 Addresses Multiple Challenges Simultaneously

Unlike point solutions that address individual problems, conversational AI platforms simultaneously tackle technical barriers, analytics maturity constraints, and institutional memory loss. This integrated approach enables healthcare organizations to advance multiple capability areas with a single strategic investment.

5.1.4 Strong Economic Justification

The financial evidence is compelling, with Forrester Research [I5] documenting 206% three-year ROI from low-code implementations. Market growth projections [I7] showing the healthcare analytics market expanding from \$64.49B to \$369.66B by 2034 indicate sustained investment demand.

5.1.5 Honest Assessment of Limitations

The evidence base includes important caveats. Ziletti and D’Ambrosi [A6] note that “current language models are not yet sufficiently accurate for unsupervised use,” and

benchmarking studies [A9, A10] show significant gaps between benchmark performance and clinical readiness. This honest assessment enables appropriate implementation strategies.

5.2 Limitations and Constraints

Despite strong evidence supporting conversational AI adoption, several limitations must be acknowledged:

5.2.1 Implementation Complexity

Healthcare environments present unique complexity challenges including regulatory requirements, legacy system integration, and change management across diverse user populations. Implementation timelines reflect this complexity, though low-code approaches compare favorably to traditional analytics infrastructure projects. Healthcare and pharmaceutical organizations face particularly acute legacy modernization challenges, paralleling patterns documented in broader enterprise software contexts [18].

5.2.2 Context-Specific Customization Requirements

Healthcare organizations vary significantly in data structures, clinical workflows, and analytical needs. Evidence suggests that successful implementations require substantial customization to organizational contexts, potentially limiting the applicability of standardized approaches.

5.2.3 Long-Term Outcome Uncertainties

Most studies examine 6-24 month implementations. Questions remain about long-term sustainability, user engagement over extended periods, and the evolution of organizational capabilities beyond initial deployment periods. The research gap analysis in the Literature Review identifies this as a priority area for future investigation.

5.2.4 Governance and Quality Assurance Challenges

Democratizing analytics access creates new challenges in maintaining data quality, analytical rigor, and clinical safety standards. While the evidence shows reduced error rates with conversational AI, healthcare organizations must develop new governance frameworks for managing distributed analytical capabilities.

5.2.5 Specialty-Specific Application Gaps

Evidence primarily focuses on general acute care settings. Applications in specialized domains (oncology, cardiology, mental health) require domain-specific validation and customization that may not generalize from the existing evidence base.

5.2.6 Methodological Considerations

As a narrative review, this paper has methodological limitations distinct from systematic reviews. The non-exhaustive literature search, single-author synthesis, and post-hoc selection criteria may have introduced selection or interpretation bias. No formal quality assessment tool was applied to included studies. These limitations, documented in detail in the Methodology section, should be considered when interpreting findings. The transparency provided through explicit documentation of search strategies, selection criteria, and synthesis approach enables readers to assess potential biases and evaluate the robustness of conclusions.

5.3 Future Research Directions

The evidence review identifies several priority areas for future investigation:

5.3.1 Short-Term Research Priorities (<1 year)

1. **Reference Implementation Validation:** Empirical validation of NL2SQL approaches using synthetic healthcare data (e.g., Synthea) in reproducible cloud environments, enabling benchmarking against established datasets (EHRSQL, MIMICSQL) without privacy constraints
2. **Schema Discovery for Healthcare Databases:** Research on automated primary/foreign key discovery algorithms applied to healthcare schemas, addressing the complexity of clinical data models
3. **Governance Framework Development:** Research on optimal governance models for democratized analytics

5.3.2 Medium-Term Research Priorities (1-2 years)

1. **Healthcare Terminology Integration:** Development of programmatic approaches for mapping natural language queries to standardized vocabularies (SNOMED CT, LOINC, RxNorm) within NL2SQL pipelines

2. **FHIR/OMOP Interoperability:** Research on reducing ETL burden for OMOP Common Data Model and FHIR transformations, enabling NL2SQL systems to operate across heterogeneous healthcare data standards
3. **Longitudinal Outcome Studies:** Multi-year implementations to assess sustained benefits and organizational evolution
4. **Comparative Effectiveness Research:** Head-to-head comparisons of different conversational AI approaches on healthcare-specific benchmarks

5.3.3 Long-Term Research Priorities (>2 years)

1. **Organizational Transformation Studies:** Research on how conversational AI platforms reshape healthcare organizational capabilities
2. **Clinical Outcome Impact Assessment:** Studies linking improved analytics access to patient care outcomes
3. **Cross-Institution Knowledge Portals:** Investigation of federated approaches enabling knowledge sharing across healthcare organizations while maintaining privacy and security requirements

5.4 Implications for Healthcare Organizations

The evidence has implications for healthcare leaders considering analytics strategy:

5.4.1 Organizational Assessment Using the Three-Pillar Framework

The three-pillar framework provides a structured approach for organizational self-assessment:

1. **Analytics Maturity Assessment:** Where does the organization currently stand on the HIMSS AMAM scale? What capabilities are needed to advance?
2. **Workforce Knowledge Audit:** What tacit knowledge resides with individual staff members? How vulnerable is the organization to knowledge loss through turnover?
3. **Technical Barrier Inventory:** What technical skills are currently required for data access? Which clinical questions go unanswered due to technical barriers?

5.4.2 Three-Pillar Assessment Rubric

The three-pillar framework enables organizational self-assessment to determine readiness for and potential benefit from NL2SQL and conversational AI interventions. Table 4 provides an evidence-based rubric where each indicator anchors to

reviewed literature. Organizations scoring predominantly “Higher Risk” across pillars face compounding challenges that NL2SQL platforms are specifically designed to address: democratizing data access (Technical Barriers), preserving institutional knowledge (Workforce Dynamics), and accelerating maturity advancement (Analytics Maturity).

Convergence Assessment and NL2SQL Indication:

Organizational Profile	Assessment	NL2SQL/Conversational AI Relevance
All pillars Lower Risk	Continuous improvement stance	Opportunistic; enhancement rather than necessity
1 pillar Higher Risk	Targeted intervention needed	Address specific pillar; monitor for spillover
2 pillars Higher Risk	Compounding effects likely	Strong indication for comprehensive assessment
All 3 pillars Higher Risk	Self-reinforcing degradation cycle	Urgent evaluation warranted; NL2SQL addresses all three dimensions simultaneously

NL2SQL platforms specifically target the convergence condition: they reduce Technical Barriers by eliminating SQL requirements, mitigate Workforce Dynamics risks by encoding expertise in queryable systems, and accelerate Analytics Maturity by enabling citizen developer participation [I4]. Organizations at Higher Risk across multiple pillars represent the primary use case for conversational AI adoption.

5.4.3 Implementation Considerations

Evidence from healthcare implementations suggests several factors influence success:

- **Governance Framework Development:** New policies and procedures for democratized analytics
- **Change Management:** Training and support programs to ensure user adoption
- **Phased Deployment:** Gradual rollout beginning with analytics-savvy early adopters
- **Human Oversight:** Current NL2SQL limitations require maintaining human review of AI-generated outputs [A6]

Table 3: Three-Pillar Organizational Assessment Rubric

Pillar	Indicator	Lower Risk	Moderate Risk	Higher Risk	Evidence
Analytics Maturity	HIMSS AMAM Stage	Stages 5-7: Predictive analytics, AI integration	Stages 3-4: Integrated warehouse, standardized definitions	Stages 0-2: Fragmented data, limited reporting (majority of organizations)	[I1], [I3]
	Self-service analytics	Widespread; staff access data directly	Partial; BI tools available but underutilized	None; all analytics require IT intervention	[I4], [A14]
	AI/NL interface availability	Natural language query capability deployed	Pilot programs or evaluation underway	No NL2SQL or conversational analytics capability	[A5], [A6]
Workforce Dynamics	Annual IT turnover rate	<15%	15-30%	>30% (exceeds 2004 healthcare IT baseline)	[A10]
	Knowledge concentration	Distributed expertise; documented processes	Partial documentation; some cross-training	Critical expertise held by ≤3 individuals	[A25], [A26]
	Time-to-productivity for new hires	<6 months with structured onboarding	6-18 months	>18 months (specialized health informatics roles)	[A11], [A12], [A13]
	Tacit knowledge capture	Expertise embedded in systems/AI	Partial documentation exists	Person-dependent; undocumented tribal knowledge	[A25]
Technical Barriers	Data access requirements	Natural language or visual query interfaces	IT queue for complex queries; basic self-service	SQL/technical expertise required for all queries	[A14], [A15], [A16]
	Interoperability status	Unified data platform; real-time integration	Partial integration; some automated feeds	Fragmented systems; manual reconciliation required	[A27], [A29]
	Skills gap severity	Sufficient analysts across departments	Acknowledged deficit with mitigation plans	Critical shortage preventing data utilization	[A15], [A16]

6 Conclusion

This narrative review synthesized evidence across three interconnected domains: natural language to SQL generation, healthcare analytics maturity, and workforce-driven institutional memory loss. The findings illuminate a tension central to healthcare’s approach to emerging technologies, captured in the ancient principle *primum non nocere*: “First, do no harm.”

6.1 The Dual Dimensions of Harm

Healthcare’s traditional interpretation of *primum non nocere* counsels caution: new technologies should be thoroughly validated before clinical deployment, and governance frameworks should default to rejection until safety is established. This principle has served healthcare well, protecting patients from unproven interventions and maintaining professional standards.

However, the evidence reviewed in this paper suggests that *primum non nocere* must be applied bidirectionally. The three-pillar analysis reveals substantial harms from **inaction**:

- **Analytics maturity gaps** leave clinical decisions unsupported by available data, directly impacting patient care quality and safety
- **Workforce turnover** (34% annually for healthcare IT staff as of 2004 [A10]) causes institutional memory loss that disrupts care continuity and erodes the knowledge base essential for quality improvement
- **Technical barriers** disconnect clinical experts from data insights, preventing evidence-based practice improvements that could benefit patients

These findings do not argue that healthcare organizations should abandon caution. Rather, they suggest that a complete application of *primum non nocere* requires evaluating **both** the risks of premature technology adoption **and** the ongoing harms of maintaining current approaches. The three-pillar framework presented in this review provides a structured approach for this dual evaluation.

6.2 Summary of Contributions

This narrative review contributes to healthcare informatics scholarship through:

1. **Novel Analytical Framework**: The three-pillar framework synthesizes previously disconnected evidence from healthcare analytics maturity, workforce management, and natural language processing research, revealing how these challenges interconnect and compound each other: low maturity accelerates

turnover, turnover degrades maturity, and technical barriers prevent recovery from either.

2. **Knowledge Portal Application:** By applying established knowledge portal theory [A25, A26] to healthcare conversational AI, we provide a conceptual foundation for institutional memory preservation systems that embed organizational expertise within AI platforms rather than individual staff.
3. **Convergence Thesis:** The simultaneous occurrence of technical advances in NL2SQL, organizational analytics challenges, and workforce dynamics creates conditions requiring active organizational assessment. This convergence transforms the technology adoption question from a matter of preference to one with institutional knowledge preservation implications, warranting structured evaluation using frameworks such as the three-pillar model.

6.3 Key Findings

This review of academic and industry sources establishes several critical findings:

1. **Technical Progress with Limitations:** Natural language to SQL technologies have advanced significantly, with healthcare-specific benchmarks [A3, A5] demonstrating substantial progress in clinical NL2SQL tasks. However, current models are “not yet sufficiently accurate for unsupervised use” in clinical settings [A6], requiring human oversight.
2. **Organizational Need:** Healthcare analytics maturity remains an ongoing challenge, with the revised HIMSS AMAM model [I1] emphasizing the need for AI readiness and governance frameworks. Most organizations struggle to advance beyond basic reporting levels.
3. **Workforce Impact:** Healthcare IT staff turnover was measured at 34% in 2004 [A10], the highest among IT sectors at that time, and workforce challenges persist today [I11]. Knowledge loss costs can reach three times annual salary budgets [A24], creating need for knowledge preservation approaches.
4. **Implementation Evidence:** Real-world implementations like Berkshire Healthcare NHS Trust [I4] demonstrate that low-code platforms can enable 800+ citizen developers in healthcare settings, with academic research documenting significant efficiency improvements and cost reductions [A19, A20].

6.4 Implications for Organizational Assessment

The evidence synthesis suggests healthcare organizations face decisions that cannot be reduced to simple adoption/rejection binaries. Applying *primum non nocere* comprehensively requires organizational leaders to:

1. **Assess current harm exposure:** Quantify institutional memory loss from turnover, measure time-to-insight for clinical questions, and evaluate analytics capability gaps against organizational needs
2. **Evaluate intervention risks:** Consider NL2SQL accuracy limitations (“not yet sufficiently accurate for unsupervised use” [A6]), governance requirements, and implementation complexity
3. **Apply the three-pillar framework:** Use the analytics maturity, workforce turnover, and technical barrier dimensions to structure organizational assessment and prioritization

Throughout this assessment, quality patient care must remain the primary metric. Operational efficiency, cost savings, and technical capabilities are valuable only insofar as they advance healthcare’s fundamental mission.

This framework acknowledges that optimal decisions will vary by organizational context. Healthcare systems with stable analytics teams and mature data infrastructure face different risk profiles than those experiencing rapid turnover and limited analytics capabilities. The evidence does not prescribe universal solutions but provides structured approaches for context-specific evaluation.

6.5 Future Research Directions

Several research gaps limit the ability to provide definitive organizational guidance:

1. **Reference implementation validation:** Empirical validation using synthetic data (Synthea) and healthcare-specific benchmarks (EHRSQL, MIMICSQL) would establish reproducible baselines for NL2SQL accuracy in clinical contexts
2. **Healthcare terminology and schema mapping:** Programmatic integration with standardized vocabularies (SNOMED CT, LOINC, RxNorm) and interoperability standards (FHIR, OMOP CDM) requires systematic investigation to reduce implementation burden
3. **Longitudinal outcomes:** Most implementation studies span 6-24 months; multi-year institutional knowledge preservation effects remain understudied
4. **Governance frameworks:** Optimal approaches for balancing analytics democratization with data quality and clinical safety standards need development

6.6 Closing Reflection

Primum non nocere ultimately requires healthcare organizations to make evidence-based judgments about both action and inaction. This review contributes a three-

pillar analytical framework to support those judgments, synthesizing evidence on analytics maturity, workforce dynamics, and technical capabilities.

The evidence does not prescribe universal adoption of any technology. Rather, it establishes the scope and interconnection of challenges that organizations must address through whatever means align with their specific contexts, capabilities, and risk tolerances. The ongoing harms documented in this review (institutional memory loss, analytics capability gaps, and technical barriers to data access) merit the same careful consideration as the risks of new technology adoption.

Healthcare's commitment to avoiding harm is best served by evidence-based evaluation that considers all dimensions of potential benefit and risk. The three-pillar framework offers one structured approach for conducting such evaluations.

7 Acknowledgments

The author (S.T.H.) takes full responsibility for the final content, conducted the research, and verified all claims and citations. Claude Code (Claude Opus 4.5, Anthropic) assisted with manuscript editing and refinement.

8 Author Contributions

S.T.H. conceived the research, conducted the literature review, and wrote the manuscript.

9 Competing Interests

The author declares the following competing interests: Samuel T Harrold is a contract product advisor at Yuimedi, Inc., which develops healthcare analytics software including conversational AI platforms relevant to this review's subject matter. The author is also employed as a Data Scientist at Indiana University Health. This paper presents an analytical framework derived from published literature and does not evaluate or recommend specific commercial products, including those of the author's affiliated organizations. The views expressed are the author's own and do not represent the official positions of Indiana University Health or Yuimedi, Inc. This research was conducted independently without funding from any affiliated organization.

10 Data Availability

This is a narrative review synthesizing existing literature. No primary datasets were generated or analyzed. All data cited are from publicly available peer-reviewed publications and industry reports, referenced in the bibliography. The literature search methodology and source selection criteria are documented in the Methodology section.

11 Code Availability

Not applicable. No custom code was developed for this research.

12 Funding

Yuimedi provided funding for the author's time writing and researching this manuscript.

13 References

13.1 Academic Sources

[A1] Wu, Y., Li, X., Zhang, Y., et al. (2024). Worldwide prevalence and associated factors of nursing staff turnover: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 149, 104625. DOI: 10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2023.104625. <https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC10802134/>

[A2] Ren, L., Wang, H., Chen, J., et al. (2024). Global prevalence of nurse turnover rates: A meta-analysis of 21 studies from 14 countries. *Journal of Nursing Management*, 2024, 5063998. DOI: 10.1155/2024/5063998. <https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC119>

[A3] Lee, G., et al. (2023). EHRSQL: A practical text-to-SQL benchmark for electronic health records. *Proceedings of NeurIPS 2022*. arXiv:2301.07695. <https://arxiv.org/abs/2301.07695>

[A4] Navarro, D. F., Ijaz, K., Rezazadegan, D., Rahimi-Ardabili, H., Dras, M., Coiera, E., & Berkovsky, S. (2023). Clinical named entity recognition and relation extraction using natural language processing of medical free text: A systematic review. *International Journal of Medical Informatics*, 177, 105122. DOI: 10.1016/j.ijmedinf.2023.105122. <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S13865056230>

- [A5] Wang, P., Shi, T., & Reddy, C. K. (2020). Text-to-SQL generation for question answering on electronic medical records. *Proceedings of The Web Conference 2020*, Pages 350-361. DOI: 10.1145/3366423.3380120. <https://arxiv.org/abs/1908.01839>
- [A6] Ziletti, A., & D'Ambrosi, L. (2024). Retrieval augmented text-to-SQL generation for epidemiological question answering using electronic health records. *NAACL 2024 Clinical NLP Workshop*. arXiv:2403.09226. <https://arxiv.org/abs/2403.09226>
- [A7] Kamble, S. S., Gunasekaran, A., Goswami, M., & Manda, J. (2019). A systematic perspective on the applications of big data analytics in healthcare management. *International Journal of Healthcare Management*, 12(3), 226-240. DOI: 10.1080/20479700.2018.1531606. <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/20479700.2018.1531606>
- [A8] MedAgentBench Study. (2024). MedAgentBench: A virtual EHR environment to benchmark medical LLM agents. *NEJM AI*. DOI: 10.1056/AIdbp2500144. <https://ai.nejm.org/doi/full/10.1056/AIdbp2500144>
- [A9] Chen, Z., et al. (2024). Towards evaluating and building versatile large language models for medicine. *npj Digital Medicine*, 7, 320. DOI: 10.1038/s41746-024-01390-4. <https://www.nature.com/articles/s41746-024-01390-4>
- [A10] Ang, S., & Slaughter, S. (2004). Turnover of information technology professionals: The effects of internal labor market strategies. *ACM SIGMIS Database: The DATABASE for Advances in Information Systems*, 35(3), 11-27. DOI: 10.1145/1017114.1017118. <https://dl.acm.org/doi/10.1145/1017114.1017118>
- [A11] Ledikwe, J. H., Reason, L. L., Burnett, S. M., Busang, L., Bodika, S., Lebelonyane, R., Ludick, S., Matshediso, E., Mawandia, S., Mmelesi, M., Sento, B., & Semo, B.-W. (2013). Establishing a health information workforce: Innovation for low- and middle-income countries. *Human Resources for Health*, 11, 35. DOI: 10.1186/1478-4491-11-35. <https://human-resources-health.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1478-4491-11-35>
- [A12] Mantas, J., Ammenwerth, E., Demiris, G., Hasman, A., Haux, R., Hersh, W., Hovenga, E., Lun, K. C., Marin, H., Martin-Sanchez, F., & Wright, G. (2010). Recommendations of the International Medical Informatics Association (IMIA) on education in biomedical and health informatics: First revision. *Methods of Information in Medicine*, 49(2), 105-120. DOI: 10.3414/ME5119. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20054502/>
- [A13] Musa, S., Dergaa, I., Al Shekh Yasin, R., & Singh, R. (2023). The impact of training on electronic health records related knowledge, practical competencies, and staff satisfaction: A pre-post intervention study among wellness center providers in a primary health-care facility. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Healthcare*, 16, 1551-1563. DOI: 10.2147/JMDH.S414200. <https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC10243608/>
- [A14] Wang, Y., Kung, L. A., & Byrd, T. A. (2018). Big data analytics: Understanding its capabilities and potential benefits for healthcare organizations. *Technologi-*

cal Forecasting and Social Change, 126, 3-13. DOI: 10.1016/j.techfore.2016.08.019. <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0040162516302244>

[A15] Bardsley, M. (2016). Understanding analytical capability in health care: Do we have more data than insight? The Health Foundation. <https://www.health.org.uk/publications/understanding-analytical-capability-in-health-care>

[A16] Pesqueira, A., Sousa, M. J., & Rocha, Á. (2020). Big data skills sustainable development in healthcare and pharmaceuticals. *Journal of Medical Systems*, 44, 197. DOI: 10.1007/s10916-020-01665-9. <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s10916-020-01665-9>

[A17] Mayo, C. S., Deasy, J. O., Chera, B. S., & Freymann, J. (2016). How can we effect culture change toward data-driven medicine? *International Journal of Radiation Oncology, Biology, Physics*, 95(3), 916-921. DOI: 10.1016/j.ijrobp.2016.03.003. [https://www.redjournal.org/article/S0360-3016\(16\)00260-1/fulltext](https://www.redjournal.org/article/S0360-3016(16)00260-1/fulltext)

[A18] Shahbaz, M., Gao, C., Zhai, L. L., Shahzad, F., & Hu, Y. (2019). Investigating the adoption of big data analytics in healthcare: The moderating role of resistance to change. *Journal of Big Data*, 6, 6. DOI: 10.1186/s40537-019-0170-y. <https://journalofbigdata.springeropen.com/articles/10.1186/s40537-019-0170-y>

[A19] Sezgin, E., Sirrianni, J., & Linwood, S. L. (2022). Operationalizing and implementing pretrained, large artificial intelligence linguistic models in the US health care system: Outlook of generative pretrained transformer 3 (GPT-3) as a service model. *JMIR Medical Informatics*, 10(2), e32875. DOI: 10.2196/32875. <https://medinform.jmir.org/2022/2/e32875>

[A20] Jiao, W., Zhang, X., & D'Souza, F. (2023). The economic value and clinical impact of artificial intelligence in healthcare: A scoping literature review. *IEEE Access*, 11, 108134-108149. DOI: 10.1109/ACCESS.2023.3327905. <https://ieeexplore.ieee.org/document/10297311>

[A21] Dai, T., & Abramoff, M. D. (2023). Incorporating artificial intelligence into healthcare workflows: Models and insights. In *Tutorials in Operations Research: Advancing the Frontiers of OR/MS*. INFORMS. DOI: 10.1287/educ.2023.0257. <https://pubsonline.informs.org/doi/abs/10.1287/educ.2023.0257>

[A22] Pennington, R. (2023). Artificial intelligence (AI) and its opportunity in healthcare organizations revenue cycle management (RCM). *Master's Thesis*, Marshall University. <https://mds.marshall.edu/etd/1824/>

[A23] Atobatele, O. K., Ajayi, O. O., & Hungbo, A. Q. (2023). Transforming digital health information systems with Microsoft Dynamics, SharePoint, and low-code automation platforms. *Gyanshauryam International Scientific Refereed Research Journal*, 6(4), 26. <https://gisrrj.com/paper/GISRRJ236426.pdf>

- [A24] Massingham, P. R. (2018). Measuring the impact of knowledge loss: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 22(4), 721-758. DOI: 10.1108/JKM-08-2016-0338. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JKM-08-2016-0338>
- [A25] Benbya, H., Passiante, G., & Belbaly, N. A. (2004). Corporate portal: A tool for knowledge management synchronization. *International Journal of Information Management*, 24(3), 201-220. DOI: 10.1016/j.ijinfomgt.2003.12.012. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijinfomgt.2003.12.012>
- [A26] Richesson, R. L., & Krischer, J. P. (2007). Data standards in clinical research: Gaps, overlaps, challenges and future directions. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association*, 14(6), 687-696. DOI: 10.1197/jamia.M2470. <https://academic.oup.com/jamia/article/14/6/687/750453>
- [A27] Gal, M. S., & Rubinfeld, D. L. (2019). Data standardization. *New York University Law Review*, 94(4), 737-770. <https://www.nyulawreview.org/issues/volume-94-number-4/data-standardization/>
- [A28] Zheng, K., Ratwani, R. M., & Adler-Milstein, J. (2020). Studying workflow and workarounds in electronic health record-supported work to improve health system performance. *Annals of Internal Medicine*, 172(11 Suppl), S116-S122. DOI: 10.7326/M19-0871. <https://www.acpjournals.org/doi/10.7326/M19-0871>
- [A29] Bogaert, P., Verschuuren, M., Van Oyen, H., & Van Oers, H. (2021). Identifying common enablers and barriers in European health information systems. *Health Policy*, 125(12), 1517-1526. DOI: 10.1016/j.healthpol.2021.09.006. <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0168851021002396>
- [A30] Tyndall, J. (2010). AACODS Checklist. Flinders University. <https://dspace.flinders.edu.au/jsp>
- [A31] El Kamouchi, H., & Kissi, M. (2023). Low-code/No-code Development: A systematic literature review. *2023 14th International Conference on Computing Communication and Networking Technologies (ICCCNT)*, IEEE. DOI: 10.1109/ICCCNT56998.2023.10373712. <https://ieeexplore.ieee.org/abstract/document/10373712/>
- [A32] Tan, J. P. Y., Tan, M. W. J., Towle, R. M., Lee, J. S. W., et al. (2023). mHealth app to facilitate remote care for patients with COVID-19: rapid development of the DrCovid+ app. *JMIR Formative Research*, 7, e38555. DOI: 10.2196/38555. <https://formative.jmir.org/2023/1/e38555>
- [A33] Mogili, V. B. (2025). Healthcare and Finance Transformation through Enterprise Content, Low-Code, and Automation: A Multinational Technology Corporation's Approach. *Journal of Engineering and Computer Sciences*. https://sarcouncil.com/download-article/SJECS-209_2025-630-636.pdf
- [A34] Pervaiz, H., & Ijaz, R. (2025). Leveraging Low-Code/No-Code Platforms for Rapid Digital Transformation in Small and Medium-sized Enterprises (SMEs). *Multi-disciplinary Journal of Science, Technology & Business*. <https://imjstb.com/index.php/Journal/article>

- [A35] Yuan, C., Ryan, P. B., Ta, C., Guo, Y., Li, Z., et al. (2019). Criteria2Query: a natural language interface to clinical databases for cohort definition. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association*, 26(4), 294-305. DOI: 10.1093/jamia/ocy178. <https://academic.oup.com/jamia/article-abstract/26/4/294/5308980>
- [A36] Dadi, C. B. (2025). Natural Language Interfaces for Database Management: Bridging the Gap Between Users and Data through Conversational AI. *Journal of Computer Science and Technology Studies*. <https://al-kindipublishers.org/index.php/jcsts/article/view/8>
- [A37] Shah, V., Li, S., Kumar, A., & Saul, L. (2020). SpeakQL: towards speech-driven multimodal querying of structured data. *Proceedings of the 2020 ACM SIGMOD International Conference on Management of Data*, 2363-2374. DOI: 10.1145/3318464.3389777. <https://dl.acm.org/doi/abs/10.1145/3318464.3389777>
- [A38] Ipeirotis, P., & Zheng, H. (2025). Natural Language Interfaces for Databases: What Do Users Think? *arXiv preprint arXiv:2511.14718*. <https://arxiv.org/abs/2511.14718>
- [A39] Milne-Ives, M., De Cock, C., Lim, E., Shehadeh, M. H., et al. (2020). The effectiveness of artificial intelligence conversational agents in health care: systematic review. *Journal of Medical Internet Research*, 22(10), e20346. DOI: 10.2196/20346. <https://www.jmir.org/2020/10/e20346/>
- [A40] Aveiro, D., Freitas, V., Cunha, E., Quintal, F., et al. (2023). Traditional vs. low-code development: comparing needed effort and system complexity in the Nexus-BRaNT experiment. *2023 IEEE 25th Conference on Business Informatics (CBI)*, 1-10. DOI: 10.1109/CBI58679.2023.10186753. <https://ieeexplore.ieee.org/document/10186753>
- [A41] Li, Y., Liang, S., Zhu, B., Liu, X., Li, J., Chen, D., Qin, J., et al. (2023). Feasibility and effectiveness of artificial intelligence-driven conversational agents in health-care interventions: A systematic review of randomized controlled trials. *International Journal of Medical Informatics*, 178, 105195. DOI: 10.1016/j.ijmedinf.2023.105195. <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1386505623001296>
- [A42] Rollwage, M., Habicht, J., Juechems, K., Carrington, B., et al. (2023). Using conversational AI to facilitate mental health assessments and improve clinical efficiency within psychotherapy services: real-world observational study. *JMIR AI*, 2, e44358. DOI: 10.2196/44358. <https://ai.jmir.org/2023/1/e44358>
- [A43] Safari, L., & Patrick, J. D. (2014). Restricted natural language based querying of clinical databases. *Journal of Biomedical Informatics*, 52, 333-353. DOI: 10.1016/j.jbi.2014.08.003. <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1532046414001592>
- [A44] Han, J., Chen, K., Fang, L., Zhang, S., & Wang, F. (2019). Improving the efficacy of the data entry process for clinical research with a natural language processing-driven medical information extraction system. *JMIR Medical Informatics*, 7(2), e13331. DOI: 10.2196/13331. <https://medinform.jmir.org/2019/2/e13331>

- [A45] Marshan, A., Almutairi, A. N., Joannou, A., & Bell, D. (2024). MedT5SQL: a transformers-based large language model for text-to-SQL conversion in the healthcare domain. *Frontiers in Big Data*, 7, 1371680. DOI: 10.3389/fdata.2024.1371680. <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fdata.2024.1371680>
- [A46] Hendrix, G. G., Sacerdoti, E. D., Sagalowicz, D., & Slocum, J. (1978). Developing a natural language interface to complex data. *ACM Transactions on Database Systems*, 3(2), 105-147. DOI: 10.1145/320251.320253. <https://dl.acm.org/doi/abs/10.1145/320251.320253>
- [A47] Ogunwole, O., & Onukwulu, E. C. (2023). Modernizing legacy systems: A scalable approach to next-generation data architectures and seamless integration. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*. <https://www.allmultidisciplinaryjournal.com/upload/2025-2-018.1.pdf>
- [A48] Arora, A. (2025). Challenges of Integrating Artificial Intelligence in Legacy Systems and Potential Solutions for Seamless Integration. *SSRN*, 5268176. https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=5268176
- [A49] Khandelwal, A. P. (2025). AI-Driven Mainframe Modernization: Unlocking Legacy Data for Cloud Analytics. *Journal of Engineering and Computer Sciences*. <https://sarcouncil.com/2025/06/ai-driven-mainframe-modernization-unlocking-legacy-data-for-cloud-analytics>
- [A50] Goffin, K., & Koners, U. (2011). Tacit knowledge, lessons learnt, and new product development. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, 28(2), 300-318. DOI: 10.1111/j.1540-5885.2010.00798.x. <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.1540-5885.2010.00798.x>
- [A51] Foos, T., Schum, G., & Rothenberg, S. (2006). Tacit knowledge transfer and the knowledge disconnect. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 10(1), 6-18. DOI: 10.1108/13673270610650067. <https://www.emerald.com/insight/content/doi/10.1108/13673270610650067>
- [A52] Goffin, K., Koners, U., Baxter, D., & Van der Hoven, C. (2010). Managing lessons learned and tacit knowledge in new product development. *Research-Technology Management*, 53(4), 39-51. DOI: 10.1080/08956308.2010.11657637. <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/08956308.2010.11657637>
- [A53] Rintala, N., & Hyttinen, L. (2006). Methods for sharing tacit nuclear knowledge and expertise. *International Journal of Nuclear Knowledge Management*, 2(2), 157-168. DOI: 10.1504/IJNKM.2006.009880. <https://www.inderscienceonline.com/doi/abs/10.1504/IJNKM.2006.009880>
- [A54] Snowdon, A., Hussein, A., Danforth, M., & Wright, A. (2024). Digital maturity as a predictor of quality and safety outcomes in US hospitals: Cross-sectional observational study. *Journal of Medical Internet Research*, 26, e52224. DOI: 10.2196/52224. <https://www.jmir.org/2024/1/e52224>
- [A55] Snowdon, A., Hussein, A., & Olubisi, A. (2024). Digital maturity as a strategy for advancing patient experience in US hospitals. *Journal of Patient Experience*, 11, 1-8.

- [A66] Rajamani, S., Leider, J. P., & Gunashekar, D. R. (2025). Public health informatics specialists in state and local public health workforce: Insights from public health workforce interests and needs survey. *Journal of Public Health Management and Practice*. DOI: 10.1097/PHH.0000000000001234. <https://academic.oup.com/jpubhealth>
- [A67] Willard-Grace, R., Knox, M., Huang, B., et al. (2019). Burnout and health care workforce turnover. *The Annals of Family Medicine*, 17(1), 36-41. DOI: 10.1370/afm.2338. <https://www.annfammed.org/content/17/1/36>
- [A68] Melnick, E. R., Fong, A., Nath, B., Williams, B., et al. (2021). Analysis of electronic health record use and clinical productivity and their association with physician turnover. *JAMA Network Open*, 4(10), e2128790. DOI: 10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2021.28790. <https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jamanetworkopen/fullarticle/2784810>

13.2 Industry Sources

- [I1] HIMSS Analytics. (2024). Analytics maturity assessment model (AMAM) global report. Healthcare Information and Management Systems Society. <https://www.himss.org/maturity-models/amam/>
- [I2] Snowdon, A. (2024). New analytics maturity adoption model pushes for digital transformation and data-driven decisions. *HIMSS*. <https://legacy.himss.org/news/new-analytics-maturity-adoption-model-pushes-digital-transformation-and-data-driven-decisions>
- [I3] Health Catalyst. (2020). The healthcare analytics adoption model: A roadmap to analytic maturity. <https://www.healthcatalyst.com/learn/insights/healthcare-analytics-adoption-model-roadmap-analytic-maturity>
- [I4] Berkshire Healthcare NHS Trust. (2024). Empowering citizen developers: Low-code success in healthcare. <https://ia.berkshirehealthcare.nhs.uk/citizen-developer-programme>
- [I5] Forrester Research. (2024). The total economic impact of Microsoft Power Apps. Forrester Consulting. <https://tef.forrester.com/go/microsoft/powerappstei/?lang=en-us>
- [I6] Oracle. (2024). The real cost of turnover in healthcare. <https://www.oracle.com/human-capital-management/cost-employee-turnover-healthcare/>
- [I7] Precedence Research. (2024). Healthcare analytics market size and forecast 2025 to 2034. <https://www.precedenceresearch.com/healthcare-analytics-market>
- [I8] Anthropic. (2025). Code modernization playbook: A practical guide to modernizing legacy systems with AI. <https://resources.anthropic.com/code-modernization-playbook>

[I9] IBM. (2022). Francisco Partners to Acquire IBM’s Healthcare Data and Analytics Assets. *IBM Newsroom*. <https://newsroom.ibm.com/2022-01-21-Francisco-Partners-to-Acquire-IBMs-Healthcare-Data-and-Analytics-Assets>

[I10] LaVito, A. (2021). Haven, the Amazon-Berkshire-JPMorgan venture to disrupt healthcare, is disbanding after 3 years. *CNBC*. <https://www.cnbc.com/2021/01/04/haven-the-amazon-berkshire-jpmorgan-venture-to-disrupt-healthcare-is-disbanding-after-3-years.html>

[I11] American Health Information Management Association & NORC at the University of Chicago. (2023). Health information workforce survey report. <https://www.ahima.org/news-publications/press-room-press-releases/2023-press-releases/health-information-workforce-shortages-persist-as-ai-shows-promise-ahima-survey-reveals/>

14 Appendices

14.1 Appendix A: Healthcare Analytics Glossary

Term	Definition
AMAM	Analytics Maturity Assessment Model - HIMSS standard for measuring healthcare analytics capabilities
Clinical Terminology	Standardized vocabularies including ICD-10, CPT, SNOMED, and RxNorm used in healthcare data
Conversational AI	Artificial intelligence systems that enable natural language interaction for complex tasks
EHR	Electronic Health Record - digital version of patient medical records
HIMSS	Healthcare Information and Management Systems Society - healthcare IT standards organization
Institutional Memory	Collective organizational knowledge, expertise, and practices that enable effectiveness
NL2SQL	Natural Language to SQL - technology that converts spoken/written queries into database commands
Population Health	Analytics focused on health outcomes of groups of individuals rather than individual patients

Term	Definition
RAG	Retrieval Augmented Generation - AI approach combining information retrieval with text generation

14.2 Appendix B: HIMSS Analytics Maturity Assessment Model (AMAM) Stages

Stage	Name	Description	Key Capabilities
Stage 0	Data Collection	Basic data capture without integration	Manual data entry, paper records
Stage 1	Data Verification	Automated data validation and error checking	Basic quality controls, automated checks
Stage 2	Data Utilization	Standard reporting and basic analytics	Automated reports, dashboard creation
Stage 3	Automated Decision Support	Rule-based clinical and operational support	Clinical alerts, automated protocols
Stage 4	Population Health Analytics	Population-level analysis and intervention	Cohort identification, risk stratification
Stage 5	Predictive Analytics	Statistical modeling and predictive capabilities	Predictive models, trend analysis
Stage 6	Cognitive Analytics	Machine learning and AI integration	Advanced AI, pattern recognition
Stage 7	Precision Medicine	Personalized treatment and genomic integration	Personalized care, genomic analytics

14.3 Appendix C: Healthcare NL2SQL Query Examples

14.3.1 Patient Population Analysis

Natural Language: “Show me all diabetic patients over 65 who had an HbA1c test in the last 6 months”

Generated SQL:

```
1 SELECT p.patient_id, p.age, l.test_date, l.result_value
2 FROM patients p
3 JOIN lab_results l ON p.patient_id = l.patient_id
4 JOIN diagnoses d ON p.patient_id = d.patient_id
5 WHERE d.icd10_code LIKE 'E11%' -- Type 2 Diabetes
6     AND p.age > 65
7     AND l.test_name = 'HbA1c'
8     AND l.test_date >= DATE_SUB(CURRENT_DATE, INTERVAL 6 MONTH)
```

14.3.2 Operational Metrics

Natural Language: “What is the average length of stay for cardiac surgery patients this year?”

Generated SQL:

```
1 SELECT AVG(DATEDIFF(discharge_date, admission_date)) as avg_los
2 FROM admissions a
3 JOIN procedures p ON a.admission_id = p.admission_id
4 WHERE p.cpt_code IN ('33510', '33511', '33512') -- Cardiac surgery codes
5     AND a.admission_date >= '2025-01-01'
6     AND a.discharge_date IS NOT NULL
```

14.3.3 Quality Metrics

Natural Language: “How many patients were readmitted within 30 days of discharge for heart failure?”

Generated SQL:

```
1 SELECT COUNT(DISTINCT r.patient_id) as readmission_count
2 FROM (
3     SELECT a1.patient_id, a1.discharge_date, a2.admission_date
4     FROM admissions a1
5     JOIN admissions a2 ON a1.patient_id = a2.patient_id
6     JOIN diagnoses d ON a2.admission_id = d.admission_id
7     WHERE d.icd10_code LIKE 'I50%' -- Heart failure
8         AND a2.admission_date BETWEEN a1.discharge_date AND DATE_ADD(a1.
9             discharge_date, INTERVAL 30 DAY)
10     AND a1.admission_id != a2.admission_id
11 ) r
```

This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

Correspondence: <https://us.yuimedi.com/contact-us/> (include “NL2SQL paper” in message)