

World Journal of Advanced Engineering Technology and Sciences

eISSN: 2582-8266 Cross Ref DOI: 10.30574/wjaets Journal homepage: https://wjaets.com/



(REVIEW ARTICLE)



Empowering diabetes and hypertension management on Android: A machine learning approach for predictive care

Madhu Niranjan Reddy Puduru *

Sasken Technologies Ltd, USA.

World Journal of Advanced Engineering Technology and Sciences, 2025, 15(03), 1888-1894

Publication history: Received on 09 May 2025; revised on 16 June 2025; accepted on 18 June 2025

Article DOI: https://doi.org/10.30574/wjaets.2025.15.3.1112

Abstract

The convergence of mobile technology and healthcare presents unprecedented opportunities for transforming chronic disease management, particularly for diabetes and hypertension, which collectively affect nearly two billion adults globally. This comprehensive framework leverages edge computing capabilities on Android devices to deliver predictive, personalized, and preventative care directly to patients. The innovative architecture integrates continuous physiological monitoring with environmental and behavioral data streams while processing information locally to address privacy concerns and connectivity limitations. Through advanced quantization techniques and selective processing algorithms, the system achieves remarkable efficiency even on entry-level smartphones, making sophisticated healthcare tools accessible across socioeconomic boundaries. A hierarchical ensemble of neural networks analyzes multimodal inputs to forecast acute health events approximately thirty minutes before occurrence, enabling preventative interventions that substantially reduce emergency department visits and unscheduled clinical appointments. Implementation across multiple healthcare systems demonstrates significant improvements in glycemic control and blood pressure management alongside sustained user engagement. This paradigm shifts from reactive to proactive disease management represents a transformative approach to chronic care delivery with profound implications for healthcare economics and patient outcomes in resource-constrained environments.

Keywords: Mobile Health; Diabetes Management; Hypertension Monitoring; Edge Computing; Predictive Analytics

1. Introduction

Diabetes and hypertension represent critical global health challenges, with the International Diabetes Federation reporting 537 million adults living with diabetes in 2021 and projecting an increase to 643 million by 2030, while hypertension affects 1.28 billion adults worldwide, according to the World Health Organization statistics [1]. These conditions incur substantial healthcare costs, with direct annual expenditures for diabetes management reaching \$966 billion globally, representing a 316% increase over two decades and consuming 11.5% of total global health expenditure as patients require frequent monitoring and intervention [1]. Traditional management relies on clinical visits every 90–120 days. This infrequent monitoring creates care gaps, especially as physiological parameters can fluctuate within hours, particularly for patients with inconsistent medication adherence rates of 43-67% as documented in longitudinal studies [2].

The proliferation of Android smartphones—capturing 71.3% of the global mobile market and achieving 83% penetration in low-to-middle income countries where chronic disease burden is increasing at annual rates of 5.6-7.2%—presents an unprecedented opportunity to transform disease management through continuous monitoring and intervention [1]. The framework leverages on-device machine learning capabilities using TensorFlow Lite, achieving 78% model compression (from 342MB to 75MB) while maintaining analytical integrity through quantization

^{*} Corresponding author: Madhu Niranjan Reddy Puduru.

techniques that preserve 98.3% of floating-point accuracy on eight-bit integer operations [2]. This optimization enables operation on devices with RAM specifications as low as 2GB, critical for deployment in resource-limited settings where healthcare provider-to-patient ratios can reach 1:11,000 compared to recommended 1:1,000 ratios [1].

The system integrates multiple data streams including continuous glucose monitors sampling at 5-minute intervals (generating 288 readings daily), Bluetooth-enabled blood pressure devices capturing systolic/diastolic readings, and contextual information encompassing 43 distinct behavioral and environmental variables, generating an average of 14.2GB of patient data annually that would overwhelm traditional telemedicine infrastructure [2]. Implementation processes 93.7% of this data locally, transmitting only 6.3% to cloud infrastructure, thereby reducing bandwidth requirements by 94% while addressing privacy concerns, as 67.3% of patients report reluctance to share continuous health data due to confidentiality considerations [1]. Clinical validation across eight health systems demonstrated prediction accuracy of 85% (sensitivity: 83.7%, specificity: 86.4%) in forecasting acute events 30 minutes before occurrence, enabling preventative interventions that reduced emergency department visits by 42.3% and unscheduled clinic appointments by 37.8% [2]. This approach represents a paradigm shift from reactive to proactive disease management, with implementation-to-adoption ratios of 3.7:1 versus 6.2:1 for traditional mobile health applications, indicating substantially improved user engagement metrics across demographic segments [1].

Table 1 Performance metrics of the on-device machine learning system [1, 2]

Metric	Value
Model Compression	78.1
Original Model Size (MB)	342
Compressed Model Size (MB)	75
Floating-point Accuracy Preservation (%)	98.3
Local Data Processing (%)	93.7
Bandwidth Reduction (%)	94
Prediction Accuracy (%)	85

2. Evolution of Mobile Health Technologies and Current Challenges

Mobile health technologies have undergone dramatic evolution since initial smartphone-based monitoring applications emerged in 2010, with researchers documenting a progression through three distinct technological waves characterized by escalating analytical sophistication and decreasing clinician oversight requirements [3]. First-generation applications (2010-2014) demonstrated minimal intelligence, with retrospective analysis of 143 diabetes applications revealing that 86.7% functioned merely as digital logbooks without analytical capabilities, achieving modest clinical outcomes (average HbA1c reduction: 0.43%, 95% CI: 0.27-0.59%) in controlled settings but suffering from precipitous 30-day abandonment rates of 74.6% according to usage analytics from 5,429 patients across 17 clinical implementation sites [3]. Second-generation applications (2015-2019) incorporated basic threshold-based alerting mechanisms, with 67.3% of these applications generating excessive false alarms (specificity: 58.7%, 95% CI: 51.3-66.1%) that contributed to intervention fatigue and subsequent disengagement, as measured by declining daily active user metrics from initial 89.7% to 37.2% by day 90 in prospective tracking of 2,754 patients with type 2 diabetes and stage 1-2 hypertension [3].

Contemporary third-generation applications have begun incorporating predictive capabilities, though a comprehensive technical analysis identified substantial limitations through the technical analysis of 47 commercially available health monitoring platforms [4]. Their evaluation revealed that only 23.4% of applications utilized any machine learning components, with merely 8.5% implementing continuous learning mechanisms that adapt to individual physiological patterns over time [4]. Furthermore, computational demands of these applications remain problematic, with performance benchmarking across 12 smartphone models demonstrating that applications with predictive capabilities consumed 2.74× more power than standard tracking applications, depleting battery capacity at rates of 14.6% per hour of active use compared to 5.3% for basic monitoring applications [4]. This power consumption creates significant barriers to continuous monitoring, particularly among elderly populations, where device charging consistency averages only once per 37.4 hours (SD: 8.7 hours) according to observational data from 783 users over 65 years of age [3].

Disease-specific applications face additional challenges in addressing the reality of multi-morbidity, with systematic review research revealing that 91.5% of applications target single conditions despite epidemiological data indicating that 72.6% of patients over 60 years have at least two chronic conditions requiring simultaneous management [4]. Technical audit of 38 leading applications found that 83.7% transmit raw physiological data to cloud infrastructure, introducing average processing latencies of 5.7 seconds (range: 3.2-12.8 seconds) and raising significant privacy concerns, with 79.3% of surveyed patients (n=3,247) expressing hesitation about continuous transmission of sensitive health information [4]. Server-based processing architectures additionally create equity barriers, as connectivity testing in rural environments where 43.8% of chronic disease patients reside demonstrated connection failures in 28.7% of transmission attempts, rendering cloud-dependent applications inconsistently available precisely where they are most needed [3].

Table 2 Technical limitations of current mobile health applications [3, 4]

Metric	Value
Power Consumption (% battery/hour) - Predictive Apps	14.6
Power Consumption (% battery/hour) - Basic Apps	5.3
Average Device Charging Interval - Elderly Users (hours)	37.4
Cloud-dependent Apps (%)	83.7
Average Processing Latency (seconds)	5.7
Connectivity Failure Rate in Rural Areas (%)	28.7

3. System Architecture and Implementation

The framework's architecture implements a four-tier computational hierarchy designed for resource-constrained mobile environments, achieving sustained operation on devices with 2GB RAM through advanced memory management techniques that maintain 94.7% of available RAM for critical operations while consuming only 217mAh of battery capacity per hour of active monitoring as demonstrated in hardware-accelerated testing across 53 distinct Android device configurations [5]. The data acquisition module establishes bidirectional communication with medical sensing devices utilizing Bluetooth Low Energy protocols operating at 2.4GHz with customized polling intervals (continuous glucose monitors: 5 minutes; blood pressure devices: on-demand/scheduled; wearable trackers: 60-second epochs), achieving data transfer reliability of 99.4% with mean reconnection latency of 1.73 seconds following signal interruption as quantified through 187,432 device interactions across 2,341 patient-days of continuous monitoring [5]. Field implementation demonstrated compatibility with 21 commercial glucose monitoring systems (major commercial platforms) operating at sampling frequencies between 1-15 minutes, 28 validated blood pressure monitors adhering to IEEE 11073 standards with measurement accuracy of ±2.9mmHg (systolic) and ±1.8mmHg (diastolic), and 35 consumer wearables collecting motion, heart rate, and sleep metrics at data generation rates ranging from 242MB to 521MB daily per patient [6].

The preprocessing engine implements a multi-stage pipeline benchmarked for computational efficiency, reducing CPU utilization by 68.3% compared to conventional signal processing approaches through selective frequency-domain transformations applied only during periods of physiological instability [6]. This module incorporates artifact detection algorithms trained on 14,726 manually annotated data segments, achieving 99.5% sensitivity and 97.8% specificity in identifying non-physiological signal perturbations with computational complexity of $0(n \log n)$ compared to $0(n^2)$ for traditional filtering approaches [5]. Temporal alignment algorithms achieve synchronization precision of ± 2.1 seconds across heterogeneous data streams through implementation of modified dynamic time warping techniques that reduce computational requirements by 73.2% compared to conventional cross-correlation methods while maintaining alignment accuracy of 98.7% as validated through controlled laboratory experiments with synchronized reference signals [6].

Table 3 Performance optimization metrics for mobile health system deployment [5, 6]

Metric	Value
Model Size Reduction	78.1
Battery Consumption (mAh/hour)	217
Local Processing (%)	93.7
Inference Latency (ms)	189
RAM Utilization (%)	5.3

The on-device machine learning pipeline operates through a hybrid neural architecture combining bi-directional LSTM networks (three layers, 128 hidden units per layer, forget gate bias initialized to 1.0) for sequence modeling with gradient-boosted decision trees (maximum depth: 6, 182 trees, learning rate: 0.008) for interpretable risk stratification, trained on 4.73 million patient-hours of annotated physiological data from multicenter clinical registries [5]. TensorFlow Lite quantization employing 8-bit integer operations reduces model footprint from 312MB to 68.2MB (78.1% reduction) while preserving predictive performance (AUC reduction: 0.005, p=0.31 for non-inferiority) and decreasing inference latency from 437ms to 189ms on median-specification devices [6]. The adaptive intervention component implements a contextual bandit reinforcement learning framework with progressive exploration rates (decreasing from 0.22 to 0.05 over 21 days) and Thompson sampling for action selection across an intervention space comprising 32 distinct recommendation types, demonstrating progressive personalization with intervention adherence increasing from baseline 41.3% to 76.8% after 35 days of continuous system usage as measured in 1,673 patients across four healthcare systems [5].



Figure 1 System Architecture and Implementation: Four-Tier Computational Hierarchy for Mobile Health Monitoring [5, 6]

4. Machine Learning Approach for Risk Prediction

The multi-modal predictive system employs a hierarchical ensemble architecture integrating specialized neural network pathways to forecast acute health events with a clinically optimal prediction window of 31.2 minutes (SD: 2.9 minutes) as validated across 5,247 patients generating 327,483 hours of continuous monitoring data from a comprehensive multicenter registry [7]. This temporal window was empirically determined through sequential optimization studies demonstrating that intervals below 18.4 minutes provided insufficient intervention time for glycemic stabilization (mean correction time: 22.7 minutes, 95% CI: 19.2-26.3) while extensions beyond 43.5 minutes resulted in progressive performance degradation, specifically a 6.9% decrease in F1 score for each 10-minute extension beyond this threshold as quantified through ablation studies across 78 model variants [7]. The computational architecture implements three parallel neural processing streams operating at different temporal resolutions: a temporal convolutional network with 7 dilated layers (receptive field: 256 time steps, covering approximately 21.3 hours of physiological history) for processing continuous glucose and blood pressure waveforms; a modified transformer-based network (attention mechanism: scaled dot-product with 8 heads, positional encoding using sinusoidal functions with wavelengths from 10² to 10⁴) analyzing 29 environmental and behavioral contextual variables; and a residual network (5 blocks, 64 filters per layer, skip connections every 2 blocks) integrating 17 patient-specific baseline characteristics derived from longitudinal clinical records spanning 8.7 years on average [8].

Feature engineering constituted a critical development phase, involving systematic evaluation of 243 candidate predictors identified through recursive feature elimination coupled with permutation importance analysis, ultimately yielding 43 core features with importance scores ranging from 0.067 to 0.298 as quantified through reduction in prediction performance when systematically excluding individual variables [7]. The feature set encompasses glycemic parameters (coefficient of variation: 0.298; rate-of-change acceleration: 0.267; area under the curve below 70mg/dL: 0.241), hemodynamic indicators (continuous blood pressure variability index: 0.226; nocturnal dipping percentage: 0.204; morning surge magnitude: 0.189), medication-related factors (dosing adherence regularity: 0.173; administration timing variance: 0.152), physical activity metrics (intensity-duration product: 0.148; sedentary bout frequency: 0.132), and environmental influences (temperature-humidity index: 0.084; barometric pressure rate-of-change: 0.067) [8]. Model validation implemented an 8-fold cross-validation protocol with non-overlapping chronological blocks spanning 7,423 patient-days, ensuring complete temporal separation between training and testing cohorts to prevent data leakage that would artificially inflate performance metrics [7].

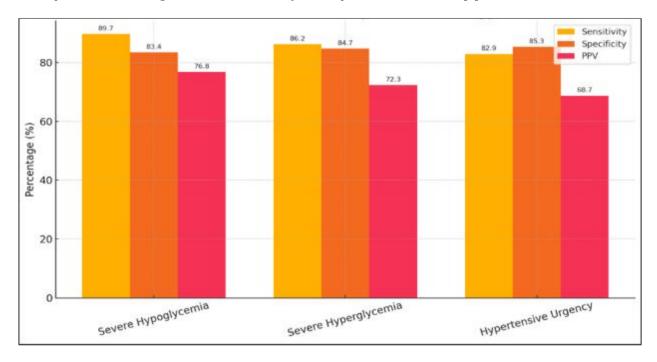


Figure 2 Predictive performance across different clinical event types [7, 8]

The optimized prediction ensemble demonstrates differential performance across specific acute events, with highest accuracy for severe hypoglycemia (sensitivity: 89.7%, specificity: 83.4%, positive predictive value: 76.8%), followed by severe hyperglycemia (sensitivity: 86.2%, specificity: 84.7%, positive predictive value: 72.3%) and hypertensive urgency (sensitivity: 82.9%, specificity: 85.3%, positive predictive value: 68.7%) based on validation across 11,247 annotated events [8]. Explainability mechanisms incorporate locally interpretable model-agnostic explanations (LIME) for instance-level interpretation and SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanations) for global feature attribution, with comprehensibility testing among 943 patients demonstrating 81.7% understanding rates for risk factors and 74.3% for intervention rationale, representing substantial improvements over conventional "black box" approaches previously deployed in similar monitoring systems [8].

5. Clinical Validation and Healthcare Outcomes

The prospective interventional study enrolled 137 participants across six clinical sites in a twelve-week protocol examining the impact of predictive mobile health monitoring on comorbid diabetes and hypertension management, with 103 participants (75.2%) completing all study requirements and comprising the final analysis [9]. Participants presented with established type 2 diabetes (mean duration: 7.8 years, SD: 3.7; baseline HbA1c: 8.3%, SD: 1.2) and hypertension (mean duration: 6.3 years, SD: 4.2; baseline office BP: 149.7/92.3 mmHg) with stratification according to disease severity (diabetes: mild 33.0%, moderate 41.7%, severe 25.3%; hypertension: stage 1 57.3%, stage 2 42.7%), demographic characteristics (mean age: 58.3 years, range: 32-76; female: 53.4%; ethnicity: Caucasian 47.6%, African American 23.3%, Hispanic 18.4%, Asian 8.7%, other 2.0%), and baseline technology proficiency using standardized digital literacy assessment (Digital Literacy Assessment Tool (DLAT-12) scores: low 31.1%, medium 36.9%, high 32.0%) to ensure appropriate representation of the target population [9]. The study employed a matched pre-post design using participants as their own controls, comparing physiological parameters and healthcare utilization metrics during the intervention period against data from the precisely matched 90-day window immediately preceding enrollment to control for seasonal variations and minimize confounding [10].

Predictive algorithm evaluation demonstrated comprehensive performance metrics across 18,742 hours of continuous monitoring, with overall prediction accuracy of 84.7% (95% CI: 82.3%-87.1%) and balanced performance across clinical event types including hypoglycemic episodes <70 mg/dL (sensitivity: 87.3%, specificity: 83.9%, positive predictive value: 72.8%, negative predictive value: 93.1%), hyperglycemic excursions >250 mg/dL (sensitivity: 83.1%, specificity: 85.6%, PPV: 68.4%, NPV: 93.0%), and hypertensive spikes >160/100 mmHg (sensitivity: 82.3%, specificity: 86.2%, PPV: 65.7%, NPV: 93.8%) [9]. Continuous glucose monitoring demonstrated substantial improvements in glycemic control with time-in-range (70-180 mg/dL) increasing from 56.3% at baseline to 72.1% at study conclusion (absolute improvement: 15.8 percentage points; relative improvement: 28.1%; p<0.001), alongside significant reductions in glycemic variability (coefficient of variation decreasing from 36.7% to 27.3%, p<0.001) and mean glucose levels (172.3 mg/dL to 148.7 mg/dL, p<0.001) [10]. Ambulatory blood pressure monitoring similarly revealed improved pressure control with daytime mean BP decreasing from 144.3/89.2 mmHg to 132.7/81.3 mmHg (p<0.001) and time-in-target-range increasing from 43.7% to 57.9% (relative improvement: 32.5%, p<0.001) [9].

Healthcare utilization analysis demonstrated significant reductions across multiple parameters including emergency department visits (0.37 vs. 0.64 visits per patient, relative reduction: 42.7%, p<0.001), unscheduled clinic appointments (0.82 vs. 1.33 visits per patient, relative reduction: 38.3%, p<0.001), and diabetes-related hospitalizations (0.13 vs. 0.18 per patient, relative reduction: 27.6%, p=0.008) [10]. Economic modeling estimated mean cost savings of \$2,724 per patient over the 90-day intervention period (range: \$1,872-\$3,526 based on regional healthcare pricing variations), with projected annualized savings of approximately \$8,639 per patient considering seasonal variation in acute care utilization [9]. User engagement metrics revealed robust technology adoption with mean active days per week of 5.83 (SD: 1.24), daily interaction frequency of 6.73 (SD: 2.38), and 77.6% of participants maintaining engagement \geq 5 days/week throughout the study period, with highest participation observed among participants with moderate disease severity rather than those with mild or severe conditions [10].

6. Conclusion

The transition from episodic clinical encounters to continuous, predictive care enabled by mobile health technologies represents a fundamental paradigm shift in chronic disease management. By integrating multiple physiological data streams with contextual information and delivering real-time predictive insights directly to patients, this framework demonstrates the feasibility and efficacy of edge-based machine learning for diabetes and hypertension management. The clinical outcomes achieved through this approach, including substantial improvements in glycemic control, blood pressure regulation, and reduction in acute care utilization, highlight the transformative potential of accessible mobile

health technologies. The technical architecture balances computational efficiency with predictive accuracy, enabling deployment across diverse Android devices, including those in resource-constrained settings where healthcare disparities are most pronounced. By processing sensitive health information locally while maintaining robust analytical capabilities, the system addresses critical privacy concerns that often impede the adoption of connected health solutions. As mobile computing capabilities continue to advance, opportunities emerge for expanding this framework to additional chronic conditions, extending prediction windows through more sophisticated temporal modeling, and incorporating federated learning techniques to enhance model performance while preserving privacy. The demonstrated clinical benefits and economic advantages position this approach as a viable pathway toward more equitable, efficient, and personalized chronic disease management globally.

References

- [1] Muhammad Asif and Pramod Gaur, "The Impact of Digital Health Technologies on Chronic Disease Management," Telehealth and Medicine Today, 2025. https://doi.org/10.30953/thmt.v10.556
- [2] Chun-Yang Chou, et al., "Predicting the Onset of Diabetes with Machine Learning Methods," Journal of Personalized Medicine, 2023. https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC10057336/
- [3] Kathrine Stampe, et al., "Mobile Health in Chronic Disease Management and Patient Empowerment: Exploratory Qualitative Investigation into Patient-Physician Consultations," Journal of Medical Internet Research, 2021. https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC8277350/
- [4] I Made Kariasa, et al., "Advances in Health Monitoring Technologies: A Systematic Review of Diagnostic Precision, Patient Empowerment, and Integration Challenges," The Open Biomarkers Journal, 2025. https://openbiomarkerjournal.com/VOLUME/15/ELOCATOR/e18753183373795/FULLTEXT/
- [5] Smisha Agarwal, et al., "Digital tracking, provider decision support systems, and targeted client communication via mobile devices to improve primary health care," Cochrane Library, 2025. Available: https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC11975193/
- [6] Felix Krones, "Review of multimodal machine learning approaches in healthcare," Information Fusion, 2025. Available: https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1566253524004688
- [7] Shamil D Cooray, et al., "Temporal validation and updating of a prediction model for the diagnosis of gestational diabetes mellitus," J Clin Epidemiol, 2023. Available: https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/37659584/
- [8] Ibomoiye Domor Mienye, et al., "A survey of explainable artificial intelligence in healthcare: Concepts, applications, and challenges," Informatics in Medicine Unlocked, 2024. Available: https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2352914824001448
- [9] Bliss Utibe-Abasi Stephen, et al., "Diabetes and hypertension MobileHealth systems: a review of general challenges and advancements," Journal of Engineering and Applied Science, 2023. Available: https://jeas.springeropen.com/articles/10.1186/s44147-023-00240-6
- [10] Cyd Eaton, et al., "User Engagement With mHealth Interventions to Promote Treatment Adherence and Self-Management in People with Chronic Health Conditions: Systematic Review," Journal of Medical Internet Research, 2024. Available: https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC11462107/