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1 **Diabetes Digital App Technology:**
2
3 **Benefits, Challenges, and Recommendations**
4

5 **Consensus Report**

6
7 European Association for the Study of Diabetes (EASD) and the
8 American Diabetes Association (ADA) Diabetes Technology Working Group

9
10 (Version 1.9 September 6th, 2019)

11
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28 **Conflict of interest:**

29 No honoraria were received by members of the ADA-EASD Diabetes Technology
30 Committee (AEDTC) for writing this manuscript or associated meetings. Most of the
31 members of the AEDTC work with industry as listed below; however, the industry had no
32 impact on the manuscript and its content.

33 GAF is Executive Chairman of Kinexum, which advises multiple health-product
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36 Products at the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA).

37 JP has served on advisory boards for companies manufacturing pharmaceuticals used in
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39 RMB has conducted clinical trials, consulted, or served on the scientific advisory boards
40 for Abbott Diabetes Care, Becton Dickinson, Bayer, Dexcom, Eli Lilly, Johnson and
41 Johnson, Medtronic, Novo Nordisk, Roche Diabetes Care, and Sanofi. He receives no
42 personal income from these activities, for all payment goes to the non-profit Park Nicollet
43 Institute.

44 RWH coordinates the German/Austrian DPV initiative, which has been supported by Novo
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47 ALP has served on advisory boards for Abbott Diabetes Care, Eli Lilly, Merck, Novo
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50 Nordisk.

51 LH is partner of Profil Institut für Stoffwechselforschung in Neuss, Germany, and of
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60

61 **Abbreviations:** ADA – American Diabetes Association; BGM – blood glucose monitoring;
62 CDRH – Center for Devices and Radiological Health; CE – Conformité Européenne; CGM –
63 continuous glucose monitoring; CMS – Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services; DIY AID –
64 do-it-yourself Automated Insulin Delivery; DTSec – Standard for Wireless Diabetes Device
65 Security; DWG – DTSec Working Group; EASD – European Association for the Study of
66 Diabetes; EMA – European Medicines Agency; EMR – electronic medical record; EU –
67 European Union; FDA – Food and Drug Administration; FDCA – Federal Food, Drug and
68 Cosmetic Act; GHTF – Global Harmonization Task Force on Medical Devices; GOe – Global
69 Observatory for eHealth; HCP – health care professionals; IMDRF – International Medical
70 Device Regulators Forum; MARS – Mobile App Rating Scale; mHealth – mobile health; NEST –
71 National Evaluation System for health Technology; NHS – National Health Service; PDA –
72 personal digital assistant; PPA – product performance analytics; Pre-Cert – Precertification Pilot
73 Program; RCT – randomized control trial; RWHA – real world health analytics; RWPA – real-
74 world performance analytics; SaMD – Software as a Medical Device; WHO – World Health
75 Organization; UXA – user experience analytics
76

77 **Abstract**

78 Digital health technology, especially digital and health applications (“apps”), have been
79 developing rapidly to help people manage their diabetes. Numerous health-related apps
80 provided on smartphones and other wireless devices are available to support people with
81 diabetes with either lifestyle interventions or medication adjustments in response to glucose
82 monitoring data. However, regulations and guidelines have not caught up with the burgeoning
83 field to standardize how mobile health apps are reviewed and monitored for patient safety and
84 clinical validity. The available evidence on the safety and effectiveness of mobile health apps,
85 especially for diabetes, remains limited. The European Association for the Study of Diabetes
86 and the American Diabetes Association have therefore conducted a joint review of the current
87 landscape of available diabetes digital health technology (only standalone diabetes apps, as
88 opposed to those that are integral to a regulated medical device, such as insulin pumps, CGM
89 systems, and closed loop control systems) and practices of regulatory authorities and
90 organizations. We found that across the United States and Europe, mobile apps intended to
91 manage health and wellness are largely unregulated unless they meet the definition of medical
92 devices for therapeutic and/or diagnostic purposes. International organizations, including the
93 International Medical Device Regulators Forum and World Health Organization, have made
94 strides in classifying different types of digital health technology and fitting digital health
95 technology within the space of medical devices. As the diabetes digital health field continues to
96 develop and become more integrated into everyday life, we wish to ensure that it is based on
97 the best evidence for safety and efficacy. As a result, we bring to light several issues that the
98 diabetes community, including regulatory authorities, policymakers, professional organizations,
99 researchers, people with diabetes, and health care professionals (HCPs), needs to address to
100 ensure that diabetes health technology can meet its full potential. These issues range from
101 inadequate evidence on app accuracy and clinical validity to lack of training provision, poor
102 interoperability and standardization, and insufficient security of data. We conclude with a series
103 of recommended actions to resolve some of these shortcomings.

104

105 **Introduction**

106 Coincident with the diabetes pandemic of the last three decades has been a revolution in digital
107 and wireless technology.¹ These technological advances have been harnessed to support
108 lifestyle and pharmacological interventions, as well as medical devices (blood glucose meters,
109 continuous glucose monitoring (CGM) devices, insulin pumps, and smart pens).^{2,3,4,5} At the
110 forefront is the burgeoning field of digital health technology for people with or at risk for
111 diabetes, which has proliferated and begun to permeate clinical care, research, and health
112 product development.⁶

113
114 This position statement focuses on digital health apps. Digital health, also known as mobile
115 health (“mHealth”), is defined by the World Health Organization (WHO) Global Observatory for
116 eHealth (GOe) as “medical and public health practice supported by mobile devices, such as
117 mobile phones, patient monitoring devices, personal digital assistants (PDAs), and other
118 wireless or stationary devices.”⁷ Digital health apps can be generally broken down into three
119 categories: those used for tracking wellness, those that function as standalone medical devices
120 (e.g., for titrating insulin), and those that display, download, and/or use data from medical
121 devices that diagnose, prevent, monitor, or treat a condition (e.g., blood glucose monitoring
122 [BGM], continuous glucose monitoring [CGM], insulin pump, or closed loop control system [also
123 known as Automated Insulin Delivery system]).⁸ Among almost half a million health-related apps
124 available for wireless devices (usually smartphones),^{9,10} apps designed to help manage
125 diabetes are among those most commonly available.¹¹ These are intended to improve health
126 outcomes and quality of life by coaching people with diabetes, supporting healthy nutrition and
127 weight control, encouraging glucose monitoring and remote monitoring, assisting with the
128 interpretation of results, maintaining lifestyle modifications, guiding medication dosing and,
129 ultimately, reducing complications.¹² Due to the vastness of the field of digital health apps, this
130 position statement will go into discussion of only standalone apps that are not integral to a
131 regulated medical device. Examples of what is out of scope of this position statement include
132 insulin pumps and closed loop control systems.

133
134 Table 1 lists examples of digital health apps used for managing diabetes according to their
135 intended purpose. It is important to note that many of the aforementioned apps have more than
136 one feature, and not all are solely for managing diabetes. Earlier in 2019, Kebede and Pischke
137 conducted a study that aimed to identify the most popular diabetes apps via a web-based
138 survey among the diabetes social media community.¹³

Table 1: Types of Digital Health Apps Used for Managing Diabetes

Category Name	Description/Definition	Examples
(i) Nutrition apps	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Offer databases where users can look up carbohydrate, fat, protein and calorie content; • Support meal planning and insulin dose adjustment.¹⁴ 	Carbs and Cals CarbControl Foodily Healthy Low Carb Program
(ii) Physical activity apps	Allow users to track their activity, count calories, and set goals for exercise and weight management. ¹⁵	My Fitness Pal Nike + Running Track 3
(iii) Glucose monitoring apps	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Log glucose data, typically from an external device that measures glucose (e.g., BGM, CGM); • Graphically display glucose levels to assist the patient and health care professionals (HCPs) with management of glucose control. 	Dexcom Share Diabetic Diabetes Companion Diabetes in Check Glooko Mobile App Tidepool Mobile
(iv) Insulin titration apps	An extension of (iii) that also integrate bolus calculators with traditional blood glucose meters to help people with diabetes calculate their basal, prandial, and correction insulin doses. ¹⁴	FDA-cleared apps: WellDoc BlueStar, ¹⁶ Voluntis Insulia, Sanofi MyDose Coach, Glooko Mobile Insulin Dosing System, Amalgam iSage Rx, ¹⁷ and Hygieia d-Nav Insulin Guidance System ¹⁸
(v) Insulin delivery apps	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • For insulin pumps and smart pens to collect and display data; includes bolus calculators, data 	Companion Medical InPen connects to its smartphone app via Bluetooth® to keep track of insulin data. ²⁰

	<p>downloaders, and firmware update apps.¹⁹</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Such apps also provide decision support. 	<p>Dexcom Clarity sends weekly summaries and pattern identification.²¹</p> <p>Medtronic's Sugar IQ integrates BGM and insulin dosing analysis in close to real time.²²</p>
<p>(vi) Closed loop control systems (also known as artificial pancreas systems, automated insulin delivery, or autonomous system for glycemic control)</p>	<p>Consists of a CGM, insulin infusion pump, and a computer-controlled algorithm (e.g., on a smartphone app) to allow communication between the CGM and insulin pump on the patient.²³</p>	<p>Medtronic's MiniMed 670G/Guardian Sensor 3 is the first FDA-approved hybrid closed loop that automates basal insulin delivery (still requires meal boluses).</p> <p>Medtronic's MiniMed 640G/Enlite Enhanced, which provides predictive low glucose management, is available in Europe.²⁴</p>

140

141 Diabetes apps have enormous potential, given that more than 2.7 billion individuals in the world
 142 use smartphones²⁵ and about 0.5 billion people already use mobile apps for diet, physical
 143 activity, and chronic disease management.²⁶ Small-scale studies show promising results of
 144 digital programs targeting glucose control, medication adherence, weight loss, and quality of
 145 life.^{27,28,29,30} However, longer-term clinical evidence is needed to more accurately assess the
 146 effectiveness of diabetes digital and health apps. Currently, many apps are “stand-alone”;
 147 however, there is an increasing trend towards integration and continued automation (both in
 148 data collection and algorithm-based response). As this trend gains momentum, the landscape of
 149 apps is likely to be transformed toward greater integration.

150

151 The market-driven explosion of health apps has been facilitated by current systems of
 152 regulation. However, not every app is useful or good. Our intent is not to slow growth, but rather
 153 to make a realistic assessment of what is safe and truly beneficial for people with diabetes.

154 There are very few data on long-term benefits, and even high quality short-term data are
 155 limited.³¹ While apps may benefit those with the technical, literacy, and numeracy skills to

156 interact with them, many people with diabetes (even in high-income countries) still lack access
157 to health care and medications (including insulin) required to sustain life, which may represent
158 more pressing problems to address.

159
160 The Diabetes Technology Working Group of the ADA and the EASD aims to complement
161 already-published reviews, position statements, and guidelines on digital health
162 applications^{32,33,34,35} by reviewing their benefits and risks while providing approaches to handle
163 the challenges they pose. In the following discussion of this article, we cover only standalone
164 diabetes apps, as opposed to those that are integral to a regulated medical device (e.g., insulin
165 pump, CGM system, Automated Insulin Delivery [AID] systems). Other topics not covered here
166 that warrant future attention are: apps specific to gathering clinical evidence, and apps that
167 support general electronic medical record (EMR) systems.

168

169 **The role of regulators**

170 While most stakeholders in Europe and North America have a general understanding of the
171 approval and regulatory processes governing pharmaceuticals and medical devices, our
172 experience is that levels of awareness of these issues in relation to digital apps are lower. We
173 believe it is important for people with diabetes, as well as health care professionals (HCPs), to
174 understand aspects of diabetes app regulation.

175

176 *a) European Medicines Agency (EMA)*

177 The European Commission has recognized the growing digital health market. In 2012, it
178 released guidance (updated in 2016) on the qualification and classification of standalone
179 software used in the health care setting as a medical device.³⁶ Under this guidance, mobile
180 apps are considered medical devices if they are used “specifically for diagnostic and/or
181 therapeutic purposes,” including the diagnosis, prevention, monitoring, treatment, or alleviation
182 of disease.³⁶ In 2014, the Communication on Digital Transformation of Health and Care in the
183 Digital Single Market was published, listing three priorities:

- 184 (i) Enable citizens to access their health data across the EU;
- 185 (ii) Allow researchers and other professionals to pool health data across the EU to
186 advance research and personalized health; and
- 187 (iii) Use digital tools to empower people with diabetes to look after their health, prevent
188 diseases, and enable feedback and interaction between users and HCPs.³⁷

189

190 While the European authorities and Food and Drug Administration (FDA) share the broad
191 principles of regulating both traditional health products and software, there are substantial
192 differences in the organizational structure of medical product and software registration. The
193 European Medicines Agency (EMA) and the FDA are each responsible for pharmaceutical
194 regulation, but only the FDA regulates both pharmaceuticals and medical devices. In the
195 European Union (EU), no single agency, but the European Commission, is responsible for
196 regulation of medical devices; each individual country retains primary responsibility for
197 organizing and delivering health services and medical care. As a result, EU member states
198 maintain their own national pharmaceutical regulatory authorities, with the European
199 Commission serving to complement national policies and ensure health protection according to
200 EU policies (e.g. the new Medical Device Regulation [MDR]).³⁸ Instead, these responsibilities
201 are retained by individual member states, which delegate to accredited notified bodies
202 responsibilities for implementing these regulations. These entities are accredited by the EU to
203 assess whether a product meets the standards set by the EU Medical Devices Directive (MDD),
204 and their decision is valid across all member states. Assessments are based on evidence of
205 safety and performance (in contrast, the FDA may also require clinical effectiveness data,
206 especially for “high risk devices” (see classification of medical products)).³⁹ If these standards
207 are met, then a manufacturer is authorized to market the product throughout the EU and label it
208 with the Conformité Européenne (CE) Mark.⁴⁰

209
210 In general, the process of obtaining a CE Mark in the EU in the past has been a lower hurdle
211 than obtaining device approval or clearance by the FDA.⁴¹ This difference in the US and EU is
212 likely to narrow with the implementation of the European Union Medical Device Regulation
213 (MDR), which repeals the existing directives on medical devices. The regulation was published
214 on May 5, 2017 and allows a transition time of three years before coming into force on May 25,
215 2020. Currently approved medical devices will have time until May 26, 2020 to meet the new
216 MDR requirements. Among the provisions in this set of regulations are the strengthening of
217 post-market surveillance, establishment of a comprehensive EU database on medical devices,
218 stricter control for high-risk devices before launch in the marketplace, and a new risk
219 classification system for *in vitro* diagnostic medical devices in line with international guidance.⁴²

220
221 The guidelines in individual countries align with those issued by the European Commission. For
222 example, Sweden’s Läkemedelsverket Medical Products Agency classifies medical software as
223 a medical device if its stated purpose complies with the definition in Article 1 of Directive

224 93/42/EEC on medical devices (“used specifically for diagnostic and/or therapeutic purposes”),
225 has a demonstrated benefit over risk, and is CE-marked.⁴³ In Germany, medical apps are
226 classified as medical devices if they follow EU guidelines and the German Medical Devices Act
227 and are CE-marked.⁴⁴ The situation in the UK was previously similar but is currently in flux as
228 the UK is imminently set to leave the EU.

229

230 More recently, the European Commission has made considerable efforts to introduce and
231 implement the MDR as a new regulatory framework, which will provide clarity on what is (and
232 what is not) a medical device software.⁴²

233

234 *b) Food and Drug Administration (FDA)*

235 With a view to prioritizing its resources in the face of an explosive growth of digital health apps,
236 the FDA has attempted to draw a line between those that do and do not require regulation. In
237 2015, it released a guidance document for mobile medical applications for apps that meet the
238 definition of a device in section 201(h) of the Federal Food, Drug and Cosmetic Act (FDCA).³²
239 This definition covers apps intended to be used as accessories to regulated medical devices
240 and those that are standalone software. However, the guidance expressed its intention to
241 exercise “enforcement discretion” over those judged to pose a lower risk to users (e.g., apps
242 that provide people with diabetes encouragement to meet their health goals or provide them
243 with tools to track their health information). Thus, using this “risk-based” approach, mobile apps
244 that calculate insulin doses are within the scope of regulation, while apps that simply organize
245 and/or provide health or nutritional information are not. The FDA lists approved/cleared apps in
246 its 510(k) and PMA databases and on its Registration & Listing Database.⁴⁵

247

248 These guidelines were updated when the US Congress passed the 2016 21st Century Cures
249 Act, which specifically excludes from the definition of “medical device” certain low-risk medical
250 software. Examples of exclusions from regulation as a medical device include software that
251 supports administrative functions, encourages a healthy lifestyle, serves as an electronic patient
252 record, assists in displaying or storing data, or provides limited clinical data support.^{46,47} By the
253 end of 2019, the FDA will launch version 1.0 of the National Evaluation System for health
254 Technology (NEST) initiative, which will be coordinated by the NEST Coordinating Center
255 (NESTcc).⁴⁸ NEST will improve access to evidence across the total product lifecycle of medical
256 devices by strategically and systematically leveraging real-world evidence generated by
257 participating institutions and applying advanced analytics tailored to the unique data needs and

258 innovation cycles of medical devices.⁴⁹ Using a neural network data model that will represent
259 nearly 500 million patient records from approximately 200 hospitals and 4000 outpatient clinics,
260 this initiative seems promising for medical device stakeholders, especially if it will capture
261 substantial data on people with diabetes.

262
263 An important distinction is the difference in the regulation of mobile health apps from the
264 regulation of digital therapeutics (sometimes referred to as “digiceuticals”). Digital therapeutics
265 are clinically-validated digital, usually online, health technologies intended to treat a medical or
266 psychological condition.⁵⁰ These are governed by clinical data and regulatory approval as for
267 drugs and medical devices. An example is Welldoc’s BlueStar Rx mobile app, which was
268 cleared by the FDA as a prescription-only app to support the management of type 2 diabetes.
269 An identical version without the bolus calculator was approved for direct sale without
270 prescription (i.e., two versions are offered, allowing the company to offer the product through
271 more channels). Both versions analyze diabetes data entered by the patient, comparing past
272 data trends to form personalized guidance and creating a summary of curated data analytics to
273 the health care team for clinical decision support, but the non-prescription version will not
274 feature the insulin calculator that the full version does. As of October 2018, Welldoc is moving
275 into Phase 2 for ongoing Quality Improvement research of BlueStar.⁵¹ In essence, digital
276 therapeutics like BlueStar Rx focus on delivering clinical outcomes and are regulated by the
277 FDA. On the other hand, mobile health apps, especially those that do not provide clinical
278 recommendations, are largely not.

279
280 Whether a mobile app has regulatory clearance/approval or not, we believe that all clinical
281 performance claims made by “digital health technology” should be backed by clinical evidence
282 and real-world performance/outcomes. Real-world data and real-world evidence have been
283 increasingly recognized by regulatory bodies, including the FDA, to enhance clinical research
284 and support regulatory decision making for drugs, biologics, and devices,^{52,53} and thus the same
285 should be done for mobile apps. The FDA has published a Digital Health Innovation Action Plan
286 that outlines a reimagined approach to foster digital health innovation while continuing to protect
287 and promote public health.⁴⁶ This effort includes three goals:

- 288 (i) Providing guidance to provide clarity on the medical software provisions of the 21st
289 Century Cures legislation;
- 290 (ii) Launching an innovative pilot pre-certification program to develop a new approach to
291 digital health technology oversight (FDA Pre-Cert for Software); and

292 (iii) Building expertise within the Agency (including recruitment of additional dedicated
293 and specialized staff).

294

295 In recent months, the FDA has further developed its digital health Software Precertification Pilot
296 Program (Pre-Cert) with the goal of developing a more tailored pathway that enhances safety
297 and effectiveness of such devices while supporting the innovation and availability of high-quality
298 digital health tools. This program will allow the FDA to first look at the company, rather than
299 primarily at the digital health software product being submitted, in order to expedite product
300 reviews from vetted “excellent” companies.⁵⁴ The components of the Pre-Cert program are:

301 (i) Excellence appraisal and certification: Evaluating organizational excellence based on
302 five criteria for quality and organizational excellence principles: 1) product quality, 2)
303 patient safety, 3) clinical responsibility, 4) cybersecurity responsibility, and 5)
304 proactive culture.

305 (ii) Review determination: A risk-based framework for pre-certified organizations is to be
306 established to determine the premarket review pathways for their products.
307 Incorporating principles from the International Medical Device Regulators Forum
308 (IMDRF)’s Software as a Medical Device (SaMD) (discussed in the next section), the
309 final framework for each Software as a Medical Device (SaMD) will be based on the
310 state of the health care condition addressed, the significance of the information
311 provided to support health care decisions, and descriptions of the core functionality
312 and device.

313 (iii) Streamlined review: FDA review of the information received, which is made
314 streamlined because (i) and (ii) provide information that does not need to be
315 submitted again.

316 (iv) Real-world performance: Post-launch product monitoring efforts on product-specific
317 real-world performance analytics (RWPA). RWPA will consist of real-world health
318 analytics (RWHA: human factors and usability engineering, clinical safety, and health
319 benefits), user experience analytics (UXA: user satisfaction, engagement, feedback
320 channels, and issue resolution), and product performance analytics (PPA:
321 cybersecurity and product performance; data to be collected by the respective
322 company).⁵⁵

323

324 The current pilot Pre-Cert program, which remains in a test plan phase, includes nine software
325 companies (Apple, Fitbit, Johnson & Johnson, Pear Therapeutics, Phosphorus, Roche,

326 Samsung, Tidepool, and Verily), seven of whom have software relevant to diabetes. In 2019,
327 FDA will test the effectiveness of the Pre-Cert program by reviewing a number of SaMD
328 products under a traditional *de novo* pathway and, in parallel, a Pre-cert pathway to see if the
329 Agency gets the same result.⁴⁸

330

331 **Guidance from other bodies**

332 a) International Medical Device Regulators Forum (IMDRF)

333 The IMDRF, founded in 2011, is a group of international medical device regulators whose goals
334 are to build on the work of the Global Harmonization Task Force on Medical Devices (GHTF)
335 and accelerate medical device regulatory harmonization and convergence.⁵⁶ Members include
336 officials from the FDA, European Commission, Australian Therapeutic Goods Administration,
337 Chinese National Medical Product Association (NMPA), and Russian Federal Service for
338 Surveillance in Healthcare (Roszdravnadzor).

339

340 The group has released several influential documents. Among them is "Software as a Medical
341 Device (SaMD): Possible Framework for Risk Categorization and Corresponding
342 Considerations," which was released in 2014 and introduces a foundational approach,
343 harmonized vocabulary, and general and specific considerations for manufacturers, regulators,
344 and consumers to consider in the context of SaMD.⁵⁷ In 2015, the group published "Software as
345 a Medical Device (SaMD): Application of Quality Management System" to help manufacturers
346 and regulators attain a common understanding and vocabulary for the application of medical
347 device quality management system requirements to SaMD.⁵⁸ In 2017, IMDRF published
348 "Software as a Medical Device: Clinical Evaluation" to provide guidance in gathering evidence
349 for clinically meaningful SaMDs, elaborating on valid clinical association, analytical validation,
350 and clinical validation.⁵⁹ These efforts on the global harmonization of medical device regulatory
351 processes, including those governing digital health technology, provide guiding principles as a
352 template for other regulatory agencies to incorporate into their respective frameworks.

353

354 b) World Health Organization (WHO)

355 In 2018, WHO published "Classification of digital health interventions v1.0" with similar aims of
356 providing governments, technologists, clinicians, researchers, and other communities in digital
357 health a shared and standardized language in assessing digital health interventions. The
358 document organizes digital health technologies into interventions for clients, HCPs, health
359 system or resource managers, and data services. It also presents health system challenges and

360 digital health interventions to address them. For example, the challenge of HCPs losing clients
361 to follow-up can be addressed by sending alerts and reminders; this intervention is categorized
362 under “client communication systems.”⁶⁰ WHO’s newly available resource provides several
363 examples of current apps and their uses and, more importantly, a solid framework to underpin
364 future developments in digital technology.

365

366 c) Nationwide Health Care Service

367 At least one nationwide health care service now provides a digital health apps certification
368 program. The United Kingdom’s National Health Service (NHS) describes its process, which
369 involves app providers to show evidence that their products pass tests in outcomes, clinical
370 safety, data protection, security, usability and accessibility, interoperability, and technical
371 stability.⁶¹ The NHS has so far listed 13 apps that are “safe and secure” for the management of
372 diabetes: Changing Health, GDM-Health, Liva UK, Low Carb Program, mapmydiabetes,
373 Mumoactive, My Diabetes My Way, My Health Fabric, my mhealth: myDiabetes, nujjer,
374 OurPath, Oviva, and Sugarmedown.⁶² This is the only database dedicated solely to apps
375 approved by a regulatory that we are aware of.

376

377 **Issues faced by the diabetes community**

378 Although the rapid growth of digital health apps potentially brings great benefit, still-early
379 development of the field also raises questions and challenges: for example, how physicians and
380 other HCPs can maintain an adequate understanding of commonly used apps in order to
381 provide guidance to people with diabetes, and how data can be kept confidential and secure.
382 Below we outline nine major issues that need to be addressed by regulatory authorities,
383 policymakers, professional organizations, researchers, product manufacturers, and HCPs.

384

385 *1. Availability of evidence*

386 Although there are almost half a million mobile health apps available for download, there are far
387 fewer randomized control trials (RCTs), case-control studies, and cohort studies that evaluate
388 whether app-based interventions improve health-related behaviors. One of the reasons there
389 are so few published RCTs of digital health is that a product is never “frozen” in time like a
390 medication – an app usually is constantly learning and improving. Even a three-month RCT is
391 likely to have at least a two-year timeline from conception to publication – a long period of time
392 in a fast-developing space. What should also be kept in mind is that RCTs on digital health
393 apps, are, by nature, never blinded, so a placebo effect cannot be ruled out. Another reason for

394 the relatively few RCTs is that the typically lower commercial value and shorter life cycles of
395 these products does not support the high cost and time involved in conducting RTCs. As a
396 result, developing apps to be used in medical studies may be a less attractive business model
397 for mobile health app developers.

398
399 In 2016, Zhao and others searched for peer-reviewed articles in English published from January
400 2010 to June 2015 on app-based health interventions targeted at adult populations. While their
401 initial search returned over 3300 articles, the exclusion of qualitative studies and those in which
402 mobile apps were not the primary intervention tool resulted in a final 23 articles from which
403 primary or secondary outcomes for analysis could be extracted.⁶³ This small number starkly
404 contrasts with the number of mobile health apps available for download. Of these 23 articles,
405 only 10 described studies relevant to diabetes management. Four of these ten provided
406 interventions intended to improve lifestyle (e.g., physical activity, weight control, and diet
407 control), and three aimed to improve medication management. However, only two actually
408 measured changes during a lifestyle intervention, and only one was specifically targeted at
409 diabetes management. Several of the apps assessed in this study improved short-term
410 adherence and enhanced intervention effectiveness, but many others yielded no effect. Zhao
411 and others concluded that their results provided a snapshot of the current evidence of
412 effectiveness for health-related apps, but large sample, high-quality, adequately powered RCTs
413 are required. Similarly in 2016, Drincic and others reviewed mobile medical apps that were
414 commercially available to people with diabetes in the US or EU. They found only 14 apps with
415 clinical outcomes data published in peer-reviewed literature or have been cleared by the US
416 FDA or received a CE mark in Europe. Drincic and others found these apps to positively affect
417 outcomes, such as HbA1c, hypoglycemia incidence, and diabetes self-care measures, in the
418 short term. However, more data and long-term studies are needed.³¹

419
420 More recently, a 2018 comprehensive study for the US Agency for Healthcare Research and
421 Quality found only 11 randomized clinical trials (RCTs) reporting health outcomes amongst the
422 hundreds of commercially-available apps for diabetes self-management. Of these 11 RCTs,
423 only five were associated with clinically significant but small improvements in HbA1c. None of
424 the studies demonstrated improvements in quality of life, blood pressure, weight, or body mass
425 index. Methodological issues included limited duration (2-12 months), potential confounding by
426 other co-interventions, and inconsistency in the reporting of randomization, allocation, masking

427 of outcomes assessment, and method of analysis in relation to drop-outs. None of the studies
428 were considered high quality.⁶⁴

429

430 Thus, while the available studies of app-based interventions show promise for promoting
431 healthy behavior and managing complex diseases, such as diabetes, they are extremely limited
432 in both quantity and quality. The studies previously mentioned in this section all report their
433 respectively assessed apps to improve or have promise in improving short-term outcomes.
434 However, all of these studies also conclude that more rigorous, larger sample, and longer-term
435 RCTs are required to distinguish the effect of these apps from possible concomitant effects. In
436 principle, well-designed studies with larger sample sizes and longer durations are needed to
437 gather and assess evidence of sustainable effectiveness over time.

438

439 *2. Adequate information and training*

440 Beyond the field of diabetes, evidence-based apps are available as clinical decision-making
441 tools for HCPs, with a scope that includes disease diagnosis, medical calculators, literature
442 search, and reference drug information.⁶⁵ With thousands of apps currently being developed
443 and updated, issues arise. These issues include: how to keep HCPs up-to-date with the apps
444 most appropriate to use, how to support people with diabetes to use these digital tools, and how
445 to ensure that using them will result in benefit rather than harm. Although it is important for
446 HCPs to stay up-to-date on the digital health app landscape, we acknowledge that it is
447 unrealistic for HCPs to meet this expectation on top of their highly burdened workload. As a
448 result, other stakeholders in the diabetes community should work with and alongside HCPs in
449 addressing this issue.

450

451 *3. Accuracy, clinical validity, and quality*

452 Because the majority of mobile health apps are not subject to regulation, data for assessment of
453 accuracy, hereby defined as the ability to correctly differentiate patient and healthy cases (the
454 sum of true positive and true negative cases over the sum of all cases),⁶⁶ often may not be
455 available. Patient involvement and self-management are the key to diabetes care, but there is a
456 fine line between empowerment and unregulated harm. For example, potentially questionable
457 data and/or medical opinion from a mobile health app can place a burden on a consultation if
458 the information provided does not align with clinical guidelines in disease management.⁶⁷

459

460 A number of studies have evaluated the accuracy of mobile medical and health apps, though
461 there are few studies that focus on diabetes health apps. Chavez and others analyzed the 89
462 most popular free English-language diabetes apps by each app's level of engagement,
463 functionality, aesthetics, information, and number of diabetes-specific management tasks met.
464 Using the Mobile App Rating Scale (MARS), they found that while this subset of mobile health
465 apps ranked "acceptable-good" in engagement, functionality, and aesthetics, they ranked "poor-
466 acceptable" in information, app quality score, and app subjective score.⁶⁸ Bierbrier and others
467 evaluated the accuracy of 14 smartphone medical calculation apps aimed at internists, including
468 those that calculated the severity or likelihood of liver disease or of having a pulmonary
469 embolism. Of 1240 calculations run on these apps, 98.6% were accurate, with six of the 14
470 functions assessed as 100% accurate. Although errors were overall few, some were clinically
471 significant. The authors point out that in the absence of regulation, the responsibility for any
472 adverse consequences of using these apps falls on the individual clinician.⁶⁹

473
474 Additionally, a 2018 study by Lum and others pointed out the need for quality assurance
475 mechanisms for diabetes apps to support people with diabetes. Of the approximately 370
476 diabetes apps that met the researchers' criteria for blood glucose self-management (blood
477 glucose level recording; goal setting for blood glucose levels and HbA1c; reminders, alerts, and
478 action prompts; and patient education on hypoglycemia and hyperglycemia management), the
479 majority did not provide real-time decision support or situation-specific education on blood
480 glucose self-management. All of these apps recorded blood glucose levels. However, only
481 about a third had goal setting and reminders to measure blood glucose and record HbA1c.
482 Approximately a third of apps alerted users to hypoglycemia or hyperglycemia, and only ten
483 percent of apps educated users on blood glucose management.⁷⁰

484
485 Thus, greater scrutiny is needed to oversee the accuracy, clinical validity, and quality of mobile
486 health apps to protect patient safety. Apps that can be used by adolescents of parents for their
487 children, as well as during pregnancy or old age, have to ensure that the advice given is suitable
488 for this age-group. In addition, apps should clearly define the user group.

489
490 Another factor that should be considered is the standardization of language and presentation
491 (e.g., blood sugar, time in range, standard deviation, body mass index, etc.). Setting standards
492 for how information is presented would lead to fewer errors in translation and interpretation from
493 app to HCP to patient.

494

495 4. *Technological issues*

496 Technological issues apply to diabetes digital health apps. These include the maintenance of
497 mobile apps so that they are up-to-date with the latest technological platforms and operating
498 systems and free of bugs that degrade app performance. App developers need to consider
499 carefully battery usage, input/output ports (e.g., USB port, headphone jack, lightning port), and
500 the impact of inconsistent illumination, mobile device cases, and inconsistent resolution with
501 smartphone cameras.¹⁹ Additionally, the speed at which mobile app versions are released or
502 new features are rolled out, as well as the tolerance level of acceptable error within a release, is
503 far greater than those of medical technologies. From the user perspective, this provides greater
504 medical choice in medical apps, but makes it more challenging to find and ensure acceptable
505 performance among many apps of varying quality.

506

507 5. *Interoperability and Standardization*

508 Consumers use a variety of mobile technological platforms, including Android and Apple iOS.
509 Android and Apple iOS are the dominant platforms in the US market, with a keyword search for
510 “diabetes” performed in the Apple and Google Play stores in 2017 identifying 246 available apps
511 for Android and 100 for Apple iOS.⁷¹ As of 2012, more than 75% of physicians in the US use
512 Apple iOS devices.⁷² However, where these apps are available for less popular platforms, app
513 developers should ensure they operate consistently to the same standard.

514

515 It is also important that data recorded in health apps be easily transmitted from smartphones to
516 other platforms, such as electronic health records for sharing with HCPs. An example is Apple
517 Health, which is a health informatics mobile app that functions as a central repository for health
518 information. Apple’s Healthkit can be integrated into multiple mobile health and fitness apps on
519 Apple products, and record and share health data.⁷³ An example of an app integrated with
520 Apple Health is Tidepool Mobile, which can connect to Apple Health and show data from users’
521 insulin pumps, CGM, and sources outside of Dexcom devices.⁷⁴ Google Fit is an approximate
522 equivalent to Apple Health for the Android platform.⁷⁵ Advances in integration and automation of
523 data collection have come far, and we anticipate these advances to continue and improve.

524

525 6. *Differences among populations*

526 In 2017, an estimated 12 million people ≥ 65 years of age and 193,000 people < 20 years of age
527 had diabetes in the US.⁷⁶ The differences in these two populations are important because

528 younger populations (usually with type 1 diabetes) are typically more proficient at using
529 smartphones than older populations. Consequently, apps targeted for older people with
530 diabetes must be designed with their expected level of technology proficiency kept in mind. In
531 addition, currently available diabetes management apps may not be available in languages
532 other than English or accessible to people with certain physical or mental disabilities (e.g., color
533 blindness, blindness, hearing impairment, etc.). Furthermore, those from remote regions and
534 areas of extreme socioeconomic deprivation may not have access to smartphone technology.
535 The cost of obtaining and activating a smartphone, not to mention the cost of apps that are not
536 free of charge to download, may be a significant barrier on top of the premium prices paid for
537 most branded diabetes drugs.⁷²

538

539 So far, app developers have made strides in increasing the durability of benefits by utilizing
540 “gamification” to encourage long-term behavior changes and adherence to diabetes
541 management principles. An example is a patient engagement program, in which “points” can be
542 earned for time spent in range for blood glucose measurements and redeemed for pharmacy
543 rebates, HCP visits, or other benefits. This approach can also be used to encourage health
544 outcomes;⁷⁷ examples exist within mySugr and Medtronic Inner Circle.^{78,79} Additionally, United
545 Healthcare launched its Motion program, offering up to \$4 per day for beneficiaries who meet
546 activity goals.⁸⁰ While gamification can certainly incentivize consumers to monitor their health
547 better, it is not a one-size-fits-all solution. Such programs may have the drawback of leaving
548 behind those who are in the most need of help, such as those experiencing socio-economic
549 deprivation. Additionally, clear proof that gamification improves outcomes and results in long-
550 term changes in health is missing.⁸¹

551

552 Another potential way to engage consumers, particularly those of older populations, is to involve
553 Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services (CMS) reimbursement. Reimbursement policies in
554 the US could include, for example, sharing of health data in place of an office visit or sharing of
555 CGM data.

556

557 *7. Appropriate role of health care professionals (HCPs)*

558 HCPs play an important role in advancing the use of diabetes mobile health apps. While a
559 mobile health app cannot (and should not) replace a HCP, mobile health apps can certainly
560 supplement and bolster medical practice.

561

562 As previously discussed, HCPs need to be supported to stay up-to-date on the diabetes digital
563 app landscape. The ability to communicate regularly with people with diabetes and monitor their
564 glycemic data gives health care professionals an unprecedented opportunity to monitor and
565 improve quality of care and health outcomes (see Recommendations below).

566

567 *8. Role of professional organizations*

568 Professional organizations like ADA and EASD play an important role in shaping the future of
569 health care. In addition to the above-mentioned efforts of the WHO and IMDRF to classify digital
570 health technology, issues remain that professional organizations need to address. We believe
571 the American Medical Association, the International Diabetes Federation, and many others can
572 make a greater positive impact on patient populations worldwide in collaboration with WHO and
573 IMDRF (see Recommendations below).

574

575 *9. Data security and privacy*

576 Data security is a key aspect in a digital world, especially for medical data. Although diabetes
577 apps primarily permit people with diabetes to monitor their own data and discuss their data with
578 health professionals, safety regarding data security and privacy remains a risk and
579 cybersecurity has to be ensured.

580

581 Users may believe that their health data stored in apps are private, but that is often not the
582 case. A 2014 study of diabetes apps for Android smartphones demonstrated that diabetes apps
583 routinely shared information with third parties.⁸² Because of the potential adverse impact of
584 sharing sensitive health data, app developers should implement and fully disclose their privacy
585 policies to users. App developers should also allow users to have full control over what data
586 they are willing to share with third parties. Such cybersecurity measures must be implemented
587 to protect privacy and enhance data security so that people with diabetes have adequate
588 privacy protection and are not judged or discriminated based on their blood glucose levels,
589 adherence to their care, or just their diabetes diagnosis.

590

591 People with diabetes have a high need for secure information when viewing their glucose levels
592 and insulin doses on wireless diabetes devices, such as blood glucose monitors, continuous
593 glucose monitors, and insulin pumps. Medical devices are prone to security breaching attacks;
594 for example, incidents have been reported when data from insulin pumps were accessed
595 remotely and their function controlled without knowledge of the user. Although there have been

596 no publicly reported incidents of users being harmed from hacking attacks, such situations have
597 the potential to be life-threatening.⁸³ Data stored in health data apps should be sufficiently
598 encrypted to prevent serious and malicious attacks.

599
600 An example that the cybersecurity regulation of diabetes mobile health apps could follow is the
601 Diabetes Technology Society’s guidance on the “Standard for Wireless Diabetes Device
602 Security (DTSec).” DTSec establishes a high level of assurance that electronic products deliver
603 the security protections claimed by their developers and required by their users. A DTSec-
604 certified product must pass evaluation by a DTSec-approved lab and the DTSec Working Group
605 (DWG) before it can be listed under a publicly disclosed DTSec evaluated products list.⁸⁴

606

607 **Conclusions and Outlook**

608 Digital health technology, especially digital health apps, for people with or at risk for diabetes
609 has developed at a rapid pace and become an increasingly common aspect of diabetes care
610 and self-management in certain populations. However, several barriers remain that prevent
611 digital health technology from reaching its full potential to improve diabetes therapies and the
612 lives of people affected by diabetes.

613

614 Insufficient evidence (at least from a conventional way of looking at evidence) of clinical validity,
615 effectiveness, accuracy, and safety are some of the largest issues that limit the effectiveness of
616 diabetes digital health technology. Furthermore, poor usability due to technological issues,
617 interoperability issues, and differences among populations is another barrier. This web of
618 interconnected issues cannot be solved by one party alone; rather, commitment from regulators,
619 industry, clinical experts, and funding and patient organizations is needed for the necessary
620 clinical evidence to be gathered.

621

622 We outline a list of considerations for regulatory agencies, manufacturing companies,
623 international and national professional societies, funding bodies, researchers, HCPs, and
624 people with diabetes to take into careful consideration. These can be categorized into the
625 following themes:

- 626 • More systematic and structured guidelines for digital health app development and
627 assessment [1a-c, 3d-e],
- 628 • Improved consistency and accessibility of safety reports and app documentation [2a-b,
629 2d],

- 630 • Greater investment in gathering of clinical data to provide evidence on digital health
631 interventions [4a-b, 5a-b],
- 632 • Increased accessibility for all consumer populations to use diabetes mobile apps
633 confidentially and securely [2c, 2g, 3c], and
- 634 • Increased communication and cooperation across stakeholder groups [1d-g, 2e-f, 3a-b,
635 3f, 6a-c, 7a-c].

636

637 Today's world of products and services, including digital health apps, is moving towards a
638 market of integration. Apps are converging towards a data-capturing and auto-analyzed future
639 with algorithm-based recommendations for users affecting their behavior and decisions. We
640 envision an ongoing role of EASD, ADA, and other professional medical associations in
641 supporting and expanding the field of diabetes digital health technology in the march to
642 integration and continued automation. We call upon regulatory agencies and manufacturing
643 companies to work urgently and collaboratively with health professionals, researchers, and
644 people with diabetes to create an environment in which diabetes can be managed safely and
645 effectively, bringing benefits to all stakeholders and the entire diabetes community.

646

647 **Consensus Report Recommendations**

648 **1. Regulatory agencies should:**

- 649 a. establish and update standards to be met by digital health technology
650 developers at premarketing and postmarketing stages, such as elements of
651 clinically validated information (not necessarily from RCTs), service systems
652 to support users, effectiveness parameters to enhance outcomes, and
653 functions to transmit data to other devices, while also supporting the
654 innovation of the market
- 655 b. provide a regulatory paradigm, such as that outlined by IMDRF, which is
656 tailored specifically to software, taking the short product life cycle and rapid
657 turnover of updates into account
- 658 c. provide guidance for obtaining and promoting evidence of safety,
659 effectiveness, and other performance measures
- 660 d. find ways to evaluate digital health apps' security, accuracy, and reliability
661 (e.g., by recognizing and following the DTSec model), including supporting
662 companies (often small) to generate real world data when they have a
663 product that has achieved a certain standard
- 664 e. provide, publicize, and maintain a single publicly accessible international
665 database of available digital health apps and their utility/quality, including
666 harmonizing on the parameters that would measure utility/quality and how
667 these parameters would be assessed⁸⁵
- 668 f. publish an annual summary of regulatory activities
- 669 g. work to harmonize their activities

670 **2. Manufacturing companies should:**

- 671 a. comply with regulations, industry standards, and best practices established
672 for digital health app development and marketing, such as providing a
673 regularly updated flow chart that describes the decision-making process for
674 releasing app updates; a broader plan for software maintenance and testing;
675 and plans for obsolescence in a specific mobile device model or operating
676 system for which the app has been validated is ceased¹⁶

- 677 b. include sufficient documentation, training modules, and help-desk resources
678 to ensure optimal use
- 679 c. provide interfaces that are user-friendly across all demographic groups and
680 can be personalized with real-time insights and suggestions for individual
681 users (taking their socioeconomic status into account, especially around
682 health literacy)
- 683 d. report all safety-related data promptly and transparently to the regulatory
684 authorities
- 685 e. cooperate with academic and health care professionals to provide balanced
686 and adequate information for people with diabetes and package the output
687 data in standardized formats for ease of access in electronic health records
- 688 f. enable users to opt to submit their data anonymously to track outcomes and
689 demographics following a crowd-sourcing model
- 690 g. incorporate high degrees of data security and patient confidentiality (e.g., by
691 adhering to the DTSec model)

692 **3. International and national professional societies should:**

- 693 a. bring people with diabetes, health care professionals, manufacturing
694 companies, and regulatory authorities together to facilitate digital health
695 technology interventions
- 696 b. encourage academia and medical associations to advance research in digital
697 health app effectiveness, safety, and outcomes
- 698 c. help set expectations for HCPs and consumers of the strengths and
699 limitations of digital technology
- 700 d. provide evidence-based guidelines on the effectiveness of digital health
701 interventions
- 702 e. recommend appropriate forms of structured education required for HCP to
703 support people with diabetes to benefit from the best digital health (HCPs
704 cannot be trained in the use of each app; however, they can be supported in
705 maintaining a basic understanding of what apps can do and how they are
706 used)

707 f. maintain a list of endorsed apps that have passed a threshold of accuracy,
708 dependability, and ease of use for both people with diabetes and HCPs

709 **4. International and national research funding bodies should:**

710 a. provide or facilitate funding for well-designed independent clinical evidence
711 that measure safety, effectiveness, outcomes, and use in real-world settings

712 b. provide or facilitate significant financial support for long-term data collection

713 **5. Researchers/academics should:**

714 a. openly report and share the patient-level results of all clinical evidence

715 b. develop and validate specific and appropriate patient-related outcome
716 measures

717 **6. Health care professionals should:**

718 a. be knowledgeable of digital health apps and their strengths and weaknesses

719 b. support and inform people with diabetes on the use of digital health apps to
720 augment diabetes management and lifestyle modification

721 c. utilize health data to improve quality of care and health outcomes

722 **7. Consumers of digital health apps—people with diabetes, family members,
723 caregivers—should:**

724 a. consider digital health apps as a valuable addition or supplement to disease
725 management or prevention

726 b. discuss with their health care professionals available and appropriate digital
727 health app options, as well as advice or counseling received from the app that
728 affects behavior or care decisions

729 c. submit app reviews, which would include information on digital health app
730 efficacy, success, errors, and malfunctions, as well as report apps that appear
731 to be unsafe or illegally marketed, to the manufacturers and appropriate
732 regulatory agencies and care organizations (e.g., ADA)

733

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