



## University of Dundee

### mHealth applications for diabetes

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**mHealth applications for diabetes – user preference and implications for app development.**

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| Keywords:                     | consumer health information, electronic health records, health information on the Web, mobile health, IT design and development methodologies  |
| Abstract:                     | <p><b>Aims</b><br/>Increasing diabetes prevalence has led to the need for more sustainable and person-centred services. The diabetes self-care mHealth marketplace is growing but most effective/valued features are unknown. This study gauges diabetes app user opinion to inform development work.</p> <p><b>Methods</b><br/>An analysis of diabetes mHealth apps informed design of a questionnaire, sent to a random sample of 400 patients stratified by diabetes type and age. Responses were analysed by subgroup, and preferences compared with current diabetes apps.</p> <p><b>Results</b><br/>App features included: data storage/graphics; exercise tracking; health/diet; reminders/alarms; education. Questionnaire response rate was 59%(234/400); 144/233(62%) owned smartphones. Smartphone users expressed preference towards mHealth (101/142(71%)), although diabetes use was low (12/163(7%)). Respondents favoured many potential features, with similar preferences between diabetes type.</p> <p><b>Conclusions</b></p> |

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|  | This study demonstrates that whilst mHealth acceptance is high, current engagement is low. Engagement and functionality could be improved by including stakeholders in future development, driven by clinical/user need. |
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13 **mHealth applications for diabetes – user preference and implications for**  
14 **app development.**  
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## Abstract

### Aims

Increasing diabetes prevalence has led to the need for more sustainable and person-centred services. The diabetes self-care mHealth marketplace is growing but most effective/valued features are unknown. This study gauges diabetes app user opinion to inform development work.

### Methods

An analysis of diabetes mHealth apps informed design of a questionnaire, sent to a random sample of 400 patients stratified by diabetes type and age. Responses were analysed by subgroup, and preferences compared with current diabetes apps.

### Results

App features included: data storage/graphics; exercise tracking; health/diet; reminders/alarms; education. Questionnaire response rate was 59%(234/400); 144/233(62%) owned smartphones. Smartphone users expressed preference towards mHealth (101/142(71%)), although diabetes use was low (12/163(7%)). Respondents favoured many potential features, with similar preferences between diabetes type.

## Conclusions

This study demonstrates that whilst mHealth acceptance is high, current engagement is low. Engagement and functionality could be improved by including stakeholders in future development, driven by clinical/user need.

For Peer Review

## mHealth applications for diabetes – user preference and implications for app development.

### Introduction

An estimated 385 million of the world's 7 billion population have diabetes, over 3 quarters of whom live in low or middle income countries [1]. Diabetes currently accounts for 11% of worldwide healthcare spending with projected costs set to increase, as the numbers affected are estimated to reach nearly 600 million by the year 2035 [1].

The worldwide mobile phone market continues to grow year on year with over 1.3 billion units being shipped in 2014, 72% of which were smartphones [2]. The World Bank estimates that worldwide in 2013, there were 92 subscriptions to mobile phone providers per 100 people [3]. Developing countries have demonstrated the largest increase in ownership in the past few years and it was anticipated that ownership in these countries would exceed those in developed countries for the first time by the end of 2014 [4].

The use of mobile devices to improve health outcomes, healthcare services or health related research has become known as mHealth [5]. Many different smartphone and

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11 tablet apps are available for managing diabetes, the number of which is rising  
12 exponentially [6,7]. Functionality that is most prevalent included: insulin and  
13 medication recording; data export and communication; recording of dietary intake;  
14 and weight monitoring [6]. Very few apps are designed to improved diabetes  
15 knowledge (in contrast to published guidelines which emphasise the need for patient  
16 education [8–10]) and there has been no identified formal evaluation of the role of  
17 social media in diabetes care.  
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26 In general, web-based interventions aimed at improving the management of diabetes  
27 have been shown to improve clinical outcomes [11,12]. It is more difficult to establish  
28 which components are important to achieve these improvements, however, due to the  
29 complex nature of each intervention. Published findings from studies that specifically  
30 report on mHealth-based interventions are mainly restricted to those interventions  
31 which predate the advent of smartphone technology, but have concluded that the use  
32 of mHealth can result in improved glycaemic control and patient self-efficacy and  
33 knowledge [13].  
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#### 43 Local context

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45 Diabetes care in Scotland relies on a series of managed clinical networks supported by  
46 a national informatics platform [14]. Despite an increase in diabetes prevalence, there  
47 has been a sequential improvement in quality performance indicators and the  
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11 incidences of diabetes-related complications have decreased [15–17]. The informatics  
12 platform has also enabled the creation of the Scottish Diabetes Research Network  
13 (SDRN) – a national clinical trials infrastructure that comprises 10,000 registered  
14 patients to date [18]. MyDiabetesMyWay (MDMW) is a national electronic patient  
15 health record (ePHR) that is integrated with the national diabetes informatics platform  
16 [19]. There are approximately 10,400 registered users to date [20]. Registration for  
17 SDRN and MDMW is not mutually exclusive, however the similarity between the  
18 numbers registered with both is purely coincidental.

#### 27 28 Project aims

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30 This project aims to utilise the SDRN and MDMW patient cohorts to:

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33 • Assess levels of engagement with web-based and mHealth technologies within  
34 the internet-using Scottish diabetes population
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37 • Identify demographic sub-groups that are more or less likely to use such  
38 technologies
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41 • Draw comparisons between features that are currently available within the app  
42 market and features that are most desirable to those with diabetes.  
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## Methods

### Review of Available Diabetes Mobile Apps

Prior to questionnaire design, a search was conducted of the Apple app store in July 2014. This snapshot search was limited to the search term “glucose tracking” and was principally aimed at developing a broad understanding of the diabetes app market, therefore informing questionnaire content. Apps were included (regardless of price) if they specifically targeted diabetes. Search results were then downloaded and reviewed by a single reviewer (IC), who identified and categorised available features. The identified features were then incorporated into the questionnaire to assess user preference (see below). User preference was also sought for features not identified from the snapshot analysis, but thought to be relevant for future app development.

### Diabetes patient mHealth Questionnaire

A 39-item questionnaire was designed in 4 parts: demographics; current use of technology in diabetes self-care; preference for mHealth; and preferred features/functionality of mHealth applications developed in the future (questionnaire available on request). The questionnaire was written in an electronic format and posted online. No identifiable data were collected. All items utilised a categorical response in order to improve response rate and quality of data. Permissions to gather

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11 data were obtained from the local Caldicott Guardian. All patients contacted had  
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13 previously given consent to be contacted ~~for research purposes~~ via unsolicited email  
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15 during the enrolment process for both SDRN and/or MDMW. Ethics permission was  
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17 sought and deemed unnecessary as this work was related to ongoing service  
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19 improvement.  
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22 The MDMW and SDRN datasets were randomly sampled in a stratified way (via a  
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24 random number generator) to return 200 patients, consisting of 50 patients from the  
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26 following 4 groups; T1D <50 years old; T1D ≥ 50 years old; T2D <50 years old; T2D ≥ 50  
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28 years old. Both samples were also mutually exclusive i.e. individuals in the MDMW  
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30 sample were excluded prior to sampling the SDRN dataset. All individuals were  
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32 resident in Scotland and had an active email address that was used to invite them to  
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34 take part in the survey. This invitation email contained a link to the online  
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36 questionnaire. The MDMW survey took place between August-October 2013 and  
37  
38 formed the basis of an undergraduate student project. The SDRN survey took place  
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40 between April and June 2014, in an effort to draw comparisons between the findings  
41  
42 of the MDMW survey and the wider diabetes community.  
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#### 45 Statistical analysis

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47 Initial analysis demonstrated that mHealth preference were the same across both  
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49 groups (see results) and so responses from both surveys were combined into one  
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11 dataset. Preference for mHealth apps was measured via 2 questionnaire items that  
12 were conditional on the respondent owning a smartphone<sup>1</sup>. The internal consistency  
13 of these items as a measure of preference for an mHealth app was tested using the  
14 Kappa statistic. The 2 items were then summed to produce a score (out of 10) that  
15 was used as a summary of an individual's preference for the use of mHealth  
16 technologies - the *mHealth preference scale*. A higher score on the scale (0-10) was  
17 interpreted as an individual being enthusiastic about using mHealth technologies.  
18 Demographic variables (age group, gender and diabetes type) were crosstabulated  
19 with mHealth preference to identify subgroups of interest. Categories within the  
20 demographic variables and mHealth preference were collapsed as appropriate, in  
21 order to achieve representation in each of the cells (see results). Denominators were  
22 adjusted to take into account missing data. Loglinear analysis was used to identify  
23 interactions between demographic subgroups and mHealth preference. Cases with  
24 missing data were excluded from analysis of that data field. Significant interactions  
25 identified in the loglinear analysis were then explored in greater depth using Chi  
26 Square and odds ratios.  
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45 <sup>1</sup> Respondents were asked to reflect on current diabetes management and were asked to agree with the  
46 following statements: "A smart phone app to manage my diabetes would be a positive development"  
47 and "I would prefer to use a smartphone app to manage my diabetes". Both items were agree/disagree  
48 questions that utilised a 5-point scale.  
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11 In addition to mHealth preference, respondents were asked about current use of  
12 technology. Responses were analysed with respect to demographic subgroups that  
13 were found to be significantly associated with mHealth preference. Finally, all  
14 respondents were asked which of the features commonly found in mHealth diabetes  
15 apps would be most desirable with responses stratified according to diabetes type.  
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## 21 Results

### 22 mHealth apps

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27 Seventy four diabetes-related apps were identified through the Apple Store and  
28 analysed. Approximately half (39/74, 53%) were free, whilst the others ranged in price  
29 from £0.69 to £6.99 (€0.87 - €8.83, US\$1.09 – US\$11.06). Sixteen separate features  
30 were identified. The median number of features was 5 (range 2-11). All apps had the  
31 facility to record blood glucose results, whilst only one incorporated a blood glucose  
32 monitor. The available features and the frequency with which they were available are  
33 listed in table 1.  
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### 41 Demographics

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44 Responses to the questionnaire were received by 121/200 (60.5%) of the MDMW  
45 sample and 113/200 (56.5%) of the SDRN sample. Data quality was good with very  
46 little missing data – e.g. completion rate was 98-100% for gender, diabetes type,  
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11 duration of diabetes, treatment and phone ownership. Age group was completed by  
12 218/234 (93%). When compared with MDMW respondents, the SDRN group were  
13 more likely to be: older (SDRN median age group 56-65 years compared to MDMW  
14 median age group 46-55 years,  $U=4232$ ,  $z=-3.771$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), male (SDRN: 79/112  
15 (70.5%) male c.f. MDMW: 66/117 (56.4%) male,  $p=0.029$ ) and have T2D (SDRN: 80/109  
16 (73.4%) T2D c.f. MDMW: 59/121 (48.8%),  $p<0.001$ )<sup>2</sup>. There was no significant  
17 difference in smartphone ownership between both groups (SDRN: 75/112 (67%) c.f.  
18 MDMW: 69/121 (57%),  $p=0.077$ ). Similarly, there was no significant difference in  
19 prevalence of smartphone ownership when those with T1D (55/91, 60.4%) were  
20 compared with T2D (85/138, 61.6%). These similarities allowed for data to be pooled  
21 for subsequent analysis. The majority of respondents (1765/2296, 77%) use self-  
22 monitored blood glucose levels (SMBG) in their diabetes management.  
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### 36 mHealth preference

37 144/233 (62%) people owned a smart phone, of which 142 gave their preference for  
38 mHealth technologies. The majority expressed an interest in the use of mHealth apps  
39 to manage their diabetes - 101/142 (70.1%) agreed or strongly agreed with the  
40 statement: *a smart phone app to manage my diabetes would be a positive*  
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48 <sup>2</sup> Age categories were decades from the age of 16 i.e. 16-25; 26-35 etc.

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11 *development*; and 79/142 (54.9%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement: *I*  
12 *would prefer to use a smartphone app to manage my diabetes*. As expected, there was  
13 a statistically significant correlation between responses for each of these statements,  
14 which demonstrated moderate agreement (Kappa = 0.45,  $p < 0.001$ , 95%CI: 0.35-0.56).  
15 The responses to both of these items were then summed to calculate an individual's  
16 mHealth preference score, available for 127/144 (88%) of respondents. ~~There was no~~  
17 ~~significant difference in mHealth preference between SDRN or MDMW respondents~~  
18 ~~(median value 8 versus 8,  $U = 2470$ ,  $z = -0.181$ , *ns*) — see figure 1. This enabled data~~  
19 ~~from both groups to be combined for further analysis of mHealth preference.~~

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32 mHealth preference was skewed towards high preference (see Figure 1). The score  
33 was therefore collapsed into high (7-10) and low (2-6) preference categories in order  
34 to combine the low numbers of respondents at the lower end of the scale. When  
35 comparing mHealth preference categories for each of the demographic groups (age  
36 category, gender and diabetes type), there were no significant differences noted,  
37 although there was a trend for people  $\geq 56$  years to express less preference (data not  
38 shown).  
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11 The four-way loglinear analysis produced a final model that retained the interaction  
12 between gender; mHealth preference; and age ( $\chi^2(1) = 4.16, p = 0.04$ ) as well as  
13 diabetes type and age ( $\chi^2(1) = 9.58, p = 0.02$ ). The former was explored in greater  
14 detail. There was a highly significant association between age and mHealth preference  
15 for women with T2D ( $p = 0.002$ ) but not T1D, whereas there was no such association in  
16 men – see table 2. Odds ratios indicated that women  $\geq 56$  years of age (with T1D or  
17 T2D) were 28 times *less* likely than younger women to express a preference for  
18 mHealth applications to help with their diabetes. In comparison, older men (with T1D  
19 or T2D) were only two times less likely to express a preference when compared to  
20 younger men.  
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#### 32 Smartphones and use of technology for diabetes

33 With regards to current use of technology, of the 144 that owned a smartphone, 121  
34 (84%) used their phone more than once a day. The use of the 2 main operating  
35 systems was roughly equivalent (Android: 69/144, 48%; iOS: 57/144, 40%). Both men  
36 and women  $\geq 56$  years of age were significantly less likely to find the use of  
37 smartphone apps “enjoyable” when compared with younger adults (females who  
38 found apps enjoyable:  $\geq 56$  years 1/8 (12.5%) versus 26/41 (63.4%)  $< 56$  years,  $p = 0.001$ .  
39 Males that found apps enjoyable:  $\geq 56$  years 20/44 (45.5%) versus 28/39 (71.7%)  $< 56$   
40 years,  $p = 0.042$ ).  
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11 176/229 (76.9%) respondents reported that they needed to check blood glucose  
12 regularly as part of their diabetes self-care, including the majority of those with T2D  
13 (T1D: 89/90, 98%; T2D: 87/139, 63%). Of those that ~~responded to questions relating~~  
14 ~~to~~ did use blood glucose monitoring as part of their diabetes self management, the  
15 majority did not use any device to remind them to do so (116/163, 71.8% [NB. 13  
16 individuals did not respond]<sup>3</sup>, with no significant differences between demographic  
17 sub-groups (data not shown). The most common way of recording the result was via  
18 the monitor device (87/163, 53.4%) or a written diary (56/163, 34.4%). Use of other  
19 technologies was minimal – 12/163 (7.4%) used their phone and 17/163 (10.4%) used  
20 their home computer (via a spreadsheet). The only significant difference between age  
21 categories for either gender was that women ≥56 years were significantly less likely to  
22 use their HBGM to record results (9/24, 37.5% women ≥56 years versus 28/43, 65.1%  
23 women <56 years, p=0.027).

#### Preferences for mobile technology use and app features.

24 Preferences were analysed with respect to diabetes type. Response rates for each of  
25 the suggested features varied between 84-87/91 (92-96%) for those with type 1

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45 <sup>3</sup> Response to the question: *How do you remind yourself to take medication and/or check blood*  
46 *sugars? Tick all that apply from the following: Just remember without aids/I use an alarm/I*  
47 *have a set routine /I use my phone to set reminders /Someone Reminds Me /Somebody (carer,*  
48 *relative or friend) does it for me*  
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11 diabetes and 123-135/139 (88%-97%) for those with type 2 diabetes. If available, the  
12 feature that both types of users would most commonly use was password protection  
13 (47/84, 56% for T1D and 89/129, 69% for T2D) – see figure 2. Thereafter,  
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15 approximately 40-50% of respondents indicated that they would use the various  
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17 suggested features, irrespective of diabetes type e.g. preference for features relating  
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19 to activity and exercise did not differ markedly between those with T1D and T2D.  
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22 [insert figure 2]  
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25 Diabetes type did have some influence on the types of features that would be  
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27 desirable e.g. those with T1D showed higher preference for a ratio wizard (39/87, 45%  
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29 versus 25/122, 21%;  $p < 0.001$ ) and logging of insulin (38/88, 43% versus 33/123, 27%;  
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31  $p = 0.02$ ). If this comparison was restricted to only those that used insulin, this  
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33 significance was lost or reduced (ratio wizard: 39/87 vs. 10/40  $p < 0.05$ ; insulin logger  
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35 38/88 vs. 13/39,  $p = 0.07$ ). Preference for a glucose-monitoring feature was also higher  
36  
37 for those with T1D (TD: 46/87, 53%; T2D 50/135, 37%;  $p = 0.03$ ). Again, there was no  
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39 such difference between diabetes types if analysis was restricted to those who self  
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41 monitor blood glucose (46/87 vs. 32/85,  $p = 0.1$ ).  
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45 The lowest rated feature was social media integration (positive response: T1D 17/87,  
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47 20%; T2D 26/131, 20%). Preference for social media integration was compared with  
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49 respect to age group, with those  $< 56$  years demonstrating higher preference (30/97,  
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11 30.9% positive) to those  $\geq 56$  years (14/108, 13.0%,  $p=0.008$ ). This significance was lost  
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13 when stratified by gender, owing to smaller numbers.

## 14 15 Discussion

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18 This study has demonstrated interesting insights regarding the use and preferences for  
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20 mobile technology in a diverse diabetes population. In general, smartphone  
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22 ownership and use was high and in keeping with UK usage [21]. However, users did  
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24 not tend to use these or other technologies when managing their diabetes. For  
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26 example, for those that use SMBG, approximately a quarter used some form of  
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28 reminder (e.g. alarm on phone) to do so. Half of this group used their blood glucose  
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30 monitor to record their results and a small minority used some form of other  
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32 technology (e.g. spread sheet on desktop computer). It is perhaps unsurprising  
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34 therefore, that when asked about preferences for app development, a minority felt  
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36 that reminders and alarms in an app would be useful, and less than half felt similarly  
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38 for the inclusion of the facility to record blood glucose data using an app. This  
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40 contrasts with Dobson et al, who concluded that the majority of respondents would  
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42 welcome the ability to track blood glucose data [22].  
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46 A comprehensive review of app features currently available concluded that usability is  
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48 inversely correlated with number of features contained within the app [7]. In our  
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11 study, there was a marked contrast between the availability of features on the apps  
12 included in the snapshot analysis and the features that users showed greater  
13 preference for. For example, the majority of respondents indicated that patient  
14 education would be a useful addition to an app, whereas this feature is currently only  
15 available in a minority of apps. There was a notable lack of enthusiasm for social  
16 media integration with any future app development - whilst younger people were  
17 significantly more likely to show preference for this feature, only a fifth of respondents  
18 were positive overall.  
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28 The digital diabetes landscape has grown rapidly over the past decade and there is  
29 evidence that web-based interventions can lead to improved clinical outcomes [11,12].  
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31 The use of mHealth applications has the potential to improve access to such services,  
32 thereby addressing a key component of the “digital divide” [23]. However, there is  
33 increasing evidence that Internet usage patterns reflect underlying demographic and  
34 socioeconomic differences, with the potential to increase health inequalities [24]. In  
35 this study, most respondents expressed a preference for mHealth apps to manage  
36 their diabetes, however gender, diabetes type and age were significant confounders –  
37 women  $\geq 56$  years were significantly less likely to express a preference for mHealth  
38 apps. This is in keeping with findings from elsewhere [22] Again, this has implications  
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11 for future app development in terms of ensuring that population sub-groups do not  
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13 feel alienated or become disenfranchised.

#### 14 15 **Limitations**

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18 There are a number of limitations acknowledged in this study. The sample size was  
19  
20 one of convenience as opposed to the result of a power calculation. The use of  
21  
22 stratified sampling from more than one dataset ensured that the respondents included  
23  
24 sub-groups of the wider diabetes community in terms of diabetes type and age,  
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26 although the number of those with T1D were over-represented when compared with  
27  
28 national data [20]. In addition, low numbers in certain demographic sub-groups (e.g.  
29  
30 older women) makes it difficult to make robust statistical inference. Young people <16  
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32 years old were not included—, and it could be argued that this user group would  
33  
34 provide a very different perspective on the use of mHealth technologies. It should  
35  
36 also be noted that the MDMW and SDRN cohorts may have some inherent biases in  
37  
38 that both datasets may represent a more engaged section of the diabetes community -  
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40 they have all given prior consent to be contacted for research and all those contacted  
41  
42 were internet-users (contact was via email address). In addition, subscribers to the  
43  
44 online MDMW portal are probably more likely to be engaged with modern technology,  
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46 tend to be younger, and by implication, have less co-morbidities. Whilst not being  
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48 representative of the wider diabetes community, it could be argued that the sample  
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11 demographic is a potential strength of the study as this population are more likely to  
12 use mHealth technologies. We did not gather data on questionnaire respondents'  
13 ethnicity. The sample was drawn from a population who are 96% white [25]. This  
14 limits the generalizability to other populations, given that ethnicity is associated with  
15 the likelihood of engaging with mHealth technologies [26]. Another potential  
16 shortcoming is that the use of categorical responses introduced limitations to the  
17 analysis. However, the relatively high response rate can in part be attributable to the  
18 ease in which the questionnaire can be completed, and so we believe this design was  
19 justified. The search strategy of available apps was limited in terms of search terms  
20 and market place (iOS apps only). The decision to limit the search in this way was a  
21 pragmatic choice that was primarily intended to inform questionnaire design. We  
22 believe the results to be representative of the wider app market.  
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### 36 Conclusion

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39 The growing prevalence of diabetes accounts for an ever-increasing proportion of  
40 health care spending. There is a recognised need to improve the way that care is  
41 delivered to provide a more sustainable and person-centred service. The integration  
42 of mHealth technologies within existing informatics systems has the potential to  
43 empower patients; increase patient choice; improve outcomes; and provide service in  
44 a different and sustainable way.  
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This study has demonstrated that in this sample of people with diabetes, most would welcome the development of mHealth technologies to manage help manage their condition. However, we have also shown that the functionality of existing apps does not currently meet the preferences of this potential user group. Both functionality and user engagement could be improved by including relevant stakeholders in future app development, which should be driven by clinical and user need as opposed to what is easiest to develop.

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### Conflicts of Interest

There are no conflicts of interest to disclose.

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### Supplementary materials

Access to research materials, including questionnaire and data, are available from the corresponding author.



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11 **Tables**

12 **Table 1.** Frequency of mHealth app features identified during snapshot analysis. Total  
13 apps analysed was 74.  
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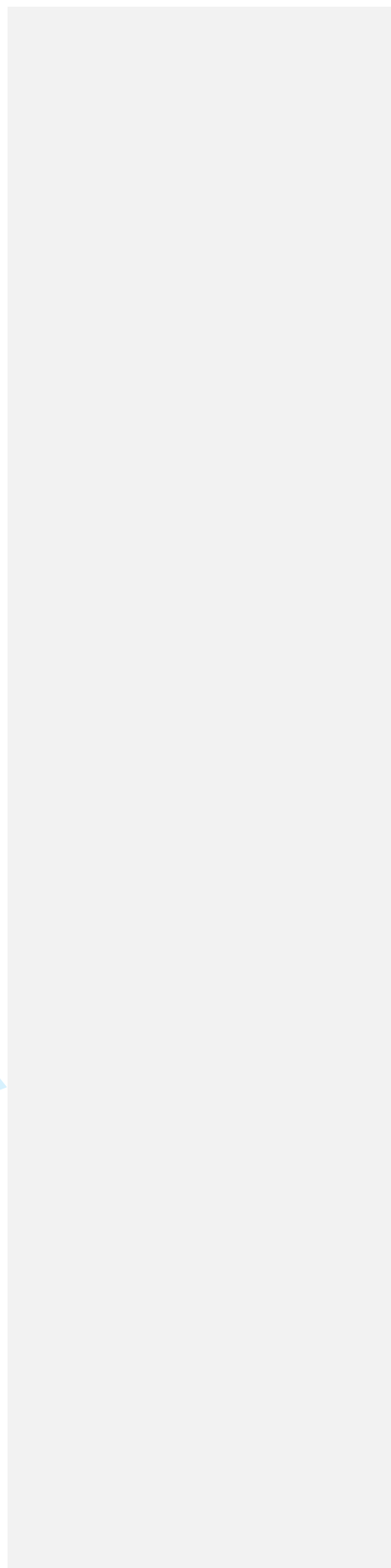
| feature                  | Available |      |
|--------------------------|-----------|------|
|                          | n         | %    |
| Password protection      | 9         | 12%  |
| Graphic display/analysis | 56        | 76%  |
| Education                | 10        | 14%  |
| CHO counter              | 26        | 35%  |
| Data backup              | 14        | 19%  |
| Email backup             | 47        | 64%  |
| Glucose monitor          | 74        | 100% |
| Physiology tracker       | 32        | 43%  |
| Download meter           | 1         | 1%   |
| Weight tracker           | 33        | 45%  |
| Medication log           | 24        | 32%  |
| Activity tracker         | 25        | 34%  |
| Reminders/Alarms         | 21        | 28%  |
| Insulin Logger           | 31        | 42%  |
| Ratio wizard             | 0         | 0%   |
| Social media             | 11        | 15%  |

**Table 2.** mHealth preferences stratified by demographic sub-groups.

| Gender | Diabetes type | Age<br>(years) | mHealth preference scale (collapsed) |            |    |       | Total | p     |       |
|--------|---------------|----------------|--------------------------------------|------------|----|-------|-------|-------|-------|
|        |               |                | low (n,%)                            | high (n,%) |    |       |       |       |       |
| female | Type 1        | <56            | 6                                    | 28.6%      | 15 | 71.4% | 21    | 0.138 |       |
|        |               | >=56           | 1                                    | 100.0%     | 0  | 0.0%  |       |       | 1     |
|        | Type 2        | <56            | 3                                    | 15.8%      | 16 | 84.2% | 19    |       | 0.002 |
|        |               | >=56           | 6                                    | 85.7%      | 1  | 14.3% | 7     |       |       |
| male   | Type 1        | <56            | 2                                    | 11.8%      | 15 | 88.2% | 17    | 0.561 |       |
|        |               | >=56           | 2                                    | 20.0%      | 8  | 80.0% | 10    |       |       |
|        | Type 2        | <56            | 4                                    | 19.0%      | 17 | 81.0% | 21    |       | 0.351 |
|        |               | >=56           | 11                                   | 34.4%      | 21 | 65.6% | 32    |       |       |

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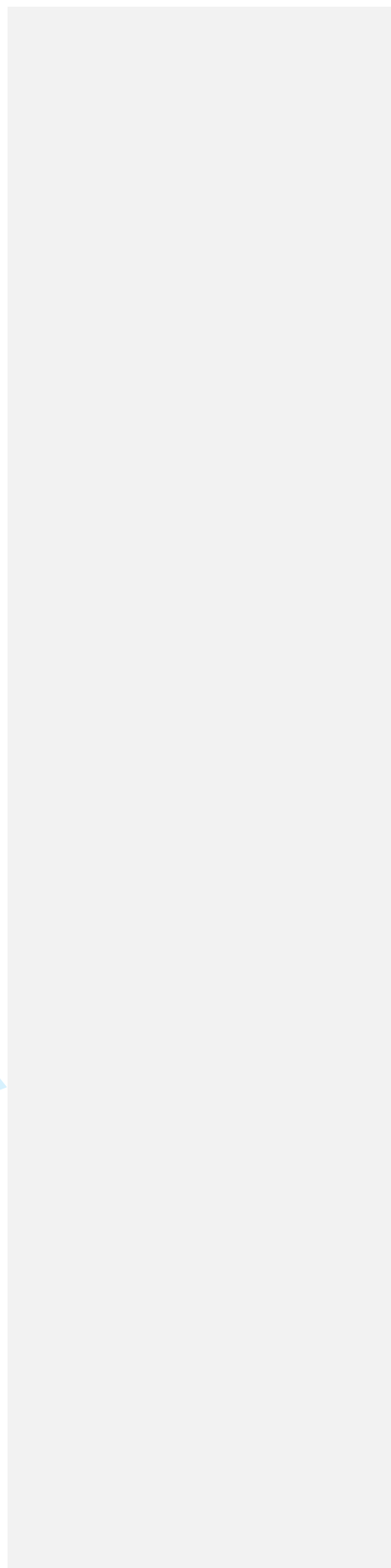
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Figure Legends

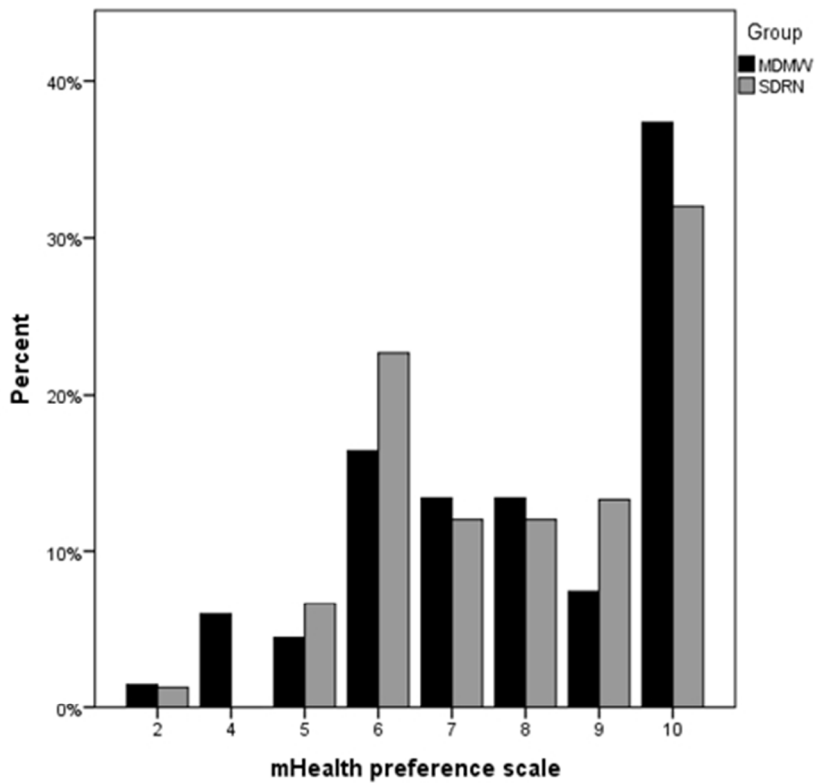
**Fig. 1.** mHealth preference scale by respondents' group. Percentages calculated using group totals (MDMW n=67, SDRN n=75) as denominator

**Fig. 2.** Preferred features of an mHealth app, stratified by diabetes type. Features are arranged in descending order of preference (T1D and T2D combined). Denominators for preference vary depending on number of respondents to each item (total n=213-226). "Strongly agree" and "agree" were categorised as being positive responses. "Strongly disagree" or "disagree" responses were categorised as being negative.

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