

Maximizing Glucose Detection Accuracy with Sensors Based Optimized Deep Learning Algorithm

Dr. Pooja Sharma^{1*}, Dr. Honganur Raju Manjunath², Dr. Geetika M. Patel³,
Dr. Sudhanshu Gonge⁴, Dr. Awakash Mishra⁵, and Dr. Hitesh Kalra⁶

^{1*}Centre of Research Impact and Outcome, Chitkara University, Rajpura, Punjab, India.
pooja.sharma.orp@chitkara.edu.in, <https://orcid.org/0009-0006-8507-0543>

²Department of Physics, Faculty of Engineering and Technology, JAIN (Deemed-to-be University), Bangalore, Karnataka, India. hr.manjunath@jainuniversity.ac.in,
<https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1764-0683>

³Department of Community Medicine, Parul University, Limda, Waghodia, Vadodara, Gujarat, India. vicepresident_86@paruluniversity.ac.in, <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3789-184X>

⁴Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Symbiosis Institute of Technology, Symbiosis International (Deemed University), Pune, India. sudhanshu.gonge@sitpune.edu.in,
<https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4092-6874>

⁵ Professor, Maharishi School of Engineering & Technology, Maharishi University of Information Technology, Uttar Pradesh, India. awakash.mishra@muit.in,
<https://orcid.org/0009-0009-8318-950X>

⁶Chitkara Centre for Research and Development, Chitkara University, Himachal Pradesh, India.
hitesh.kalra.orp@chitkara.edu.in, <https://orcid.org/0009-0000-5064-2165>

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Abstract

Non-Invasive Blood Glucose Measurement: Now, the most common way of testing blood sugars is an invasive route - blood-based detection can be quite an awkward and painful test for patients. Safe glucose sensors are appearing on the market as a replacement for the pain of capillary glucose measuring; however, they are often not accurate. Addressing these issues, this work presents a deep learning-based algorithm specifically designed for non-invasive glucose sensors, aiming to improve accuracy. An algorithm using a multi-layer neural network for extracting features from non-invasive glucose sensors the fact network has been trained on the non-invasive sensor data measures and the blood analysis measures. If all else fails, optimize the algorithm to work better through methods such as hyperparameter tuning and data augmentation.

Keywords: Diabetes, Data Augmentation, Accuracy, Non-Invasive, Multi-Layered, Hyperparameter.

1 Introduction

This implies the need for better or novel methods that can reliably and consistently measure glucose in an individual. The significance of glucose as a vital signal to human well-being cannot be overstated, as

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*Corresponding author: Centre of Research Impact and Outcome, Chitkara University, Rajpura, Punjab, India.

it is essential for monitoring and managing diabetes and other conditions (Naveena & Bharathi, 2022). It is necessary to identify glucose concentrations to ensure proper control of medication treatments and overall health. Glucose is measured using a glucose meter, a continuous glucose monitor (which resembles a pager button), and lab tests. (Feng et al., 2023) These technologies and methods utilize various methods, including electrical sensors and spectroscopy, for glucose detection and quantification (Krishnan & Dandekar, 2022). However, they may be affected by several issues, including interference with other chemicals in the blood, variations in how samples are drawn and handled, and the accuracy of the instrument (Pal et al., 2022). Glucose is detected, and there are many technical issues to resolve. Calibration is the process of verifying that a device or method is capable of producing accurate and consistent results. These involve calibration with standard reference materials for the instrument's response to glucose concentration (MuthuKumar & Jayakumar, 2024). It also reduces interferences from other blood components, for example, ascorbic acid, which is an interfering in enzymatic glucose determinations (Aloraynan et al., 2022). This includes correct sample handling, the implementation of specific reagents and technologies, and stringent quality controls. There must be regular maintenance and calibration of the equipment for the calibration of the device. Other technical challenges for accurate glucose measurement include sample volume, temperature control, and sensor packaging (Kamalraj et al., 2021). Utilization of state-of-the-art technology (AI, ML algorithms) for faster glucose detection. Such powerful algorithms will have to be fed data from torrents of oceanographic observations in search of patterns that will enable these tiny sensors to operate with both higher precision and greater accuracy. Blood Glucose Sensing Optimization: A Global View is needed, encompassing both technical aspects and our teachings and technology for security (Magnani et al., 2024). This is significant in diabetes care since it directly affects how we measure and monitor blood sugar (Nithyalakshmi et al., 2021). The capacity of an apparatus or procedure to measure glucose concentration in blood or other bodily fluids in its true value is referred to as glucose measurement accuracy. Before glucose detection can reach its maximum accuracy, certain technical issues must be addressed. Sensor calibration is the most difficult technical problem that still exists (Jacobs et al., 2023). As long as the calibration is correct, the sensor readings will be accurate, and thus, the patient will receive the proper dose of insulin (or other medicine) (Marhoon et al., 2025). So, Milk, rly, and the other compounds in blood or body fluids were also affected. The glucose sensor will only respond to glucose; however, if other compounds are included in the sample, incorrect results will be obtained. Additionally, the detection accuracy of blood glucose also depends on the design and quality of the sensor (Kumar et al., 2022). The sensor should be able to capture glucose concentration over a wide range of glucose levels under various conditions, including different pH levels and temperature changes. Another aspect to improve the sensor's response time is that too slow detection also leads to incorrect results. Notably, the functionality of a system directly contributes to glucose sensing accuracy (Shamim et al., 2021). User error too can cause false readings, so the machine needs to be user-friendly and easy to clean. Addressing these technical challenges through accurate calibration, minimal signal interference, and the implementation of good sensor design in practical, user-friendly devices yields highly accurate glucose sensing devices.

- A new approach to maximize the accuracy of glucose detection - essential for diabetes management ·
- The current paper highlights the superiority of machine learning algorithms combined with statistical analysis in detecting low glucose levels and reducing the risk of hypoglycemia, as reported by the authors.
- The current proposed approach enables the measurement of glucose in real-life situations, as well as other external influences such as physical exercise and the menstrual cycle, which affect glucose levels and thereby improve accuracy and robustness.

2 Related Words

Rodríguez-Rodríguez et al., 2023, entitled with The Constrained IoT-Based Machine Learning for Reliable Glycaemia Forecast of the Type 1 Diabetes Patients. This is an IoT-enabled data-driven blood sugar prediction and control for type 1 diabetes population (Alkhubata, 2023). It consists of machine learning tools that can model the data to predict glycaemia more accurately, and to help patients to manage their diabetes. (Althobaiti & Al-Naib, 2021) Glucose concentration is determined with high accuracy and sensitivity by this method, through the analysis of the interaction between light and tissue. It is owing to this that the sensor is of simple construction and high sensibility for non-enzymatic measurement of glucose. (Gade et al., 2024) a breath analysis study for diabetes diagnosis was given by the exhaled breath signals. The "deep learning" system can identify a range of compounds that are present in the pressurized liquid, which reflects those in the breath. These markers can be used to diagnose diabetes to some extent and monitor early diabetes for treatment. A new algorithm to distinguish diabetes from no diabetes is developed. (Dhand et al., 2022) has presented a novel model for massive data in the health monitoring, namely DE-SSO-BILSTM (Deep Enriched Scalp Swarm Optimization based BILSTM). By enhancing scalp swarm optimization with deep saliency and combining it with a bidirectional long short-term memory model, the proposed approach can analyze and interpret health data for disease prediction and monitoring. (Balasubramaniyan et al., 2025) have proposed a computational system named Flock optimization based deep learning, which combines deep learning techniques with the innovative. (Bavkar & Shinde, 2021) so can more-advanced machine learning networks known as neural networks, which can accurately quantify the blood sugar of a person and forecast future changes of blood sugar. (Pahuja & Kumar, 2024) this would help to detect patterns and trends which might lead to an outbreak before it becomes a bigger problem. (Xu et al., 2022) have summarized the machine learning based PAMAM dendrimer sensor arrays for the detection of Alzheimer disease (Vij & Prashant, 2024). These Tars employ the latest technology and algorithms to probe PAMAM dendrimer-sensor-collected data that is able to detect certain biomarkers related to Alzheimer's disease and provides for an accurate and early diagnosis of the disease. (Parab et al., 2021) This method is also useful for the surveillance and prediction of these significant biomarkers in CKD patients. (Rasool et al., 2023) have proposed a method to improve the process of health care analysis and telemedicine efficiency under the framework of Telemedicine using the Internet of Things (IoT) and artificial intelligence (Hameed et al., 2025). It assists in managing, automating, and streamlining clinical workflows (i.e., the collection, processing, and retrieval of health data), supports tailored, precise health advice, and may thus ultimately enable telemedicine to be even more efficient. Srivastava, (Srivastava et al., 2023) A novel label-free point-of-care detection for simultaneous circulating multiple tumor markers using photonic crystal biochips. This device diagnoses rapidly and accurately, employing machine learning algorithms which interpret electro in essence signals. Health workers could use it as a bedside screening tool to identify a variety of bio-making indicators. (Cano-Garcia et al., 2021) a novel non-invasive millimeter-wave and near-infrared based approach for water glucose sensing is presented. This method has advantageous performance in the accuracy and stability of glucose determination over the present methods adopted and would be a potential method for the determination of blood sugar level in people. (Venkatachalam et al., 2022) presented a Deep Belief Neural Network based machine learning algorithm suitable for diabetes control in a 5G network. It uses big data and edge IoT devices to collect patient information for analysis and can give accurate and up-to-date predictions of diabetes. This may also greatly improve patient care and outcomes in 5G. (Chowdhury et al., 2023). A fluorescent sensor array of functionalized CQDs was also reported by (Xiao et al., 2024) for fast and accurate detection of foodborne pathogens employing a machine learning analysis. It works by scanning for the characteristic pathogens' fluorescent signals, and the algorithm simply identifies the pathogen. This

method is fast and convenient for the detection of food adulteration in a variety of samples. Table 1: Summary of the Analysis.

Table 1: Comprehensive Analysis

Authors	Year	Advantage	Limitation
Rodríguez-Rodríguez et al., 2023	2023	The use of real-time sensor data allows for accurate and personalized predictions for blood sugar levels.	The generalizability of the system may be limited to only patients.
Althobaiti & Al-Naib, 2021	2021	Optimization improves accuracy and reliability of glucose level measurements, leading to better management of diabetes for individuals.	Limited by the accuracy of the Monte-Carlo simulations in predicting real-world conditions and performance of the sensors.
Gade et al., 2024	2024	Non-invasive and painless method diabetes without the need for blood samples.	One limitation could be that this method may not be as accurate in predicting diabetes in individuals with other respiratory conditions.
Dhand et al., 2022	2022	High precision in predicting complex healthcare patterns and early detection of potential health risks using real-time big data analysis.	The proposed model may not be suitable for real-time monitoring due to its computation and processing requirements.
Balasubramaniyan et al., 2025	2023	Optimizing the flock behavior can better capture complex patterns and improve the accuracy of diabetes disease classification models.	Lack of translatability to different datasets due to different underlying features and characteristics of diabetes disease.
Bavkar & Shinde, 2021	2021	One advantage of Machine learning algorithms for diabetes prediction and neural network method for blood glucose measurement is their ability to analyze vast amounts of data and identify patterns that may not be easily detected by humans.	One limitation is that the accuracy of the prediction depends heavily on the quality and quantity of input data.
Pahuja & Kumar, 2024	2024	Improved accuracy and efficiency in identifying potential outbreaks and implementing preventive measures for timely and effective response.	The effectiveness of the biosensor prediction may be affected by changes in the virus and its transmission patterns.
Xu et al., 2022	2022	Increased accuracy of diagnosis due to the ability to detect subtle changes in biomarkers using data-driven algorithms.	Lack of interpretability due to complex algorithms and black-box nature of machine learning models used in the sensor array.
Parab et al., 2021	2021	Backpropagation allows for efficient training and continuous updating of weights, improving accuracy and performance in prediction for CKD patients.	High computational cost and potential overfitting in cases of limited training data and complex input features.
Rasool et al., 2023	2023	Reduced burden on healthcare professionals, allowing them to focus on more critical tasks and improve patient care.	It may only be feasible for those who have access to reliable internet and technology infrastructure.
Srivastava et al., 2023	2023	Improved accuracy and sensitivity in detecting multiple biomarkers compared to traditional methods, leading to more accurate diagnoses and treatment decisions.	Difficulty in accounting for variability and error in data due to complex systems and interactions between biomarkers and components of device.

Cano-Garcia et al., 2021	2021	Improved accuracy allows for better management of diabetes and reduces the need for invasive glucose monitoring techniques.	Limited to only aqueous solutions, may not be effective in other types of substances or bodily fluids.
Venkatachalam et al., 2022	2022	DNNs can effectively learn complex patterns from large and diverse datasets, improving accuracy and reliability of diabetes monitoring in real-time edge environments.	Limited ability to handle complex or non-linear relationships between data due to restricted depth and number of layers.
Chowdhury et al., 2023	2023	Ability to accurately detect and identify multiple biomarkers simultaneously, improving diagnostic accuracy and efficiency in medical and scientific applications.	The deep learning prediction approach requires prior knowledge and training data, making it less applicable to novel or emerging biosensing applications.
Xiao et al., 2024	2024	The combination of functionalized carbon quantum dots and machine learning enables fast and accurate identification of foodborne pathogens.	Limited applicability due to specificity to foodborne pathogens and machine learning algorithm training.

- Over-calibration and excessive calibration frequency of the device. Too much reliance is placed on the accurate calibration of the devices for the accuracy of glucose detection. Incorrect calibration can result in false measurements, and frequent recalibration is often required, which is inconvenient and time-consuming for individuals with diabetes.
- External interference: Environmental factors, such as temperature and humidity, as well as certain medications, may interfere with glucose detection, leading to inaccurate test results.
- Lack of standard units of measurement: The glucose-detecting devices may display different units of measurement for patients, which can cause confusion and lead to an incorrect interpretation of the result.

This technique utilizes sensor technology and deep learning methods to ensure optimal performance and accuracy. The new algorithm leverages cameras, microphones, and accelerometers to capture real-time sensor data, which is then used to train deep-learning models. This effectively eliminates the need for handcrafted feature engineering and its capability to adapt quickly to changes in sensory inputs. Performance Optimization is also involved in combining complex optimization approaches, including genetic optimization or particle swarm optimization, with the entire deep learning model. By pushing the technological innovation level to a state of depth-hardened development, the specificity of the algorithm can be significantly improved, and the speed and efficiency of sensor-based deep learning applications are also substantially increased, representing a significant step forward in sensor-based deep learning.

3 Proposed Model

A. Construction Diagram

- **Variation in the Level of Glucose in the Blood**

It is a complex physiological process involving multiple steps and control mechanisms to regulate blood glucose concentration. There is a specific level of blood glucose that the body needs, and any deviation from this can be detrimental to one's health.

The aim of fitness and solution abstention is achieved through an objective function that minimizes RMSE, where the output of each RNN is considered as a fitness and solution vector. The definition of the objective function:

$$\arg \min_{\omega} Obj(m) = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{m=1}^y (n_m - \hat{n}_m)^2}{y}} \quad (1)$$

$$\hat{n}_m = \sum_{j=1}^x \frac{u_j E_j^{(m)}}{x} \quad (2)$$

Where x is the model count, and y is the data. The form of the equation is similar to the RMSE. However, the expected value is computed by an equation.

The LR model provides the 0/1 probability prediction for the given data instance of the class. This can be put into use for many reasons related to forecasting. The definition of the LR standard function,

$$g\theta(m) = \frac{1}{1 + p^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 m)}} \quad (3)$$

K should be declared as a positive value. Different measurements of the object are typically measured using Euclidean distance. Manhattan distance and Euclidean distance are further calculated using the following formulations:

$$Euclidean = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^s (a_j - b_j)^2} \quad (4)$$

$$Manhattan = \sum_{j=1}^s |a_j - b_j| \quad (5)$$

It estimates the Manhattan and Euclidean distances of the KNN using the and data by the same variables up to I variables, according to the above equations.

The glucose is taken into the blood and carried to the body's cells by the blood vessels. Insulin and glucagon are the two pancreatic hormones that control blood sugar. When blood glucose levels are high (such as after a meal), the pancreas releases insulin. It sends a signal to cells, allowing us to take up glucose from the blood and use it for energy or store it for later use.

- **Changing of the Blood Stream Parameters**

The bloodstream carries oxygen and nutrients to the cells and removes waste products as they circulate throughout the body. Certain blood parameters are connected with the normal status of bodily activities, e.g., blood pressure, heart lung pulse, blood composition, etc., a variation of which can directly influence health globally and thus necessitate undergoing remedies necessary. The parameters of blood flow can be altered by medication, lifestyle, or treatment measures. The construction diagram has shown in the following Figure 1.

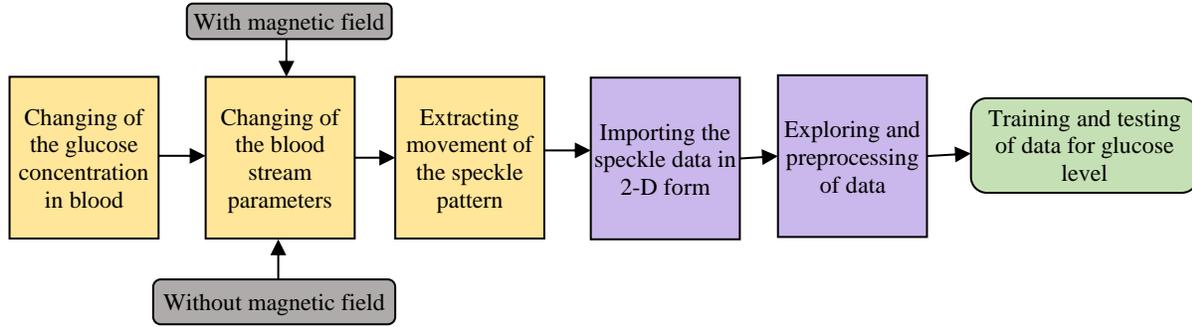


Figure 1: Construction Diagram

High blood pressure, or hypertension, can injure the blood vessels and cause life-threatening conditions such as heart attack and stroke.

- **With Magnetic Field**

Applying a magnetic field is a fundamental operation in physics and engineering. It has been utilized in various settings, ranging from particle accelerators and medical imaging to speakers and hard drives. In the next section, we discuss the operation "with magnetic field" in the literature, where this operation and its materials impact diverse systems. We need to be clear on the meaning of a magnetic field "gang". The hyperplane separates the space into two distinct regions. The kinds of data that will be coming from that domain will be alike. The following equation can express the decision state of the support vector machine:

$$\|N\| = \sqrt{n_1^2 + n_2^2 + \dots + n_n^2} \quad (6)$$

DT is one of the ways to proof-test an algorithm written with conditional control structures only. The DTs are a family of popular supervised classification methods.

It contains the nodes N_1, N_2, \dots, N_n , and the edges indicate the dependence of variables on one another. The equation proposes the joint distribution for a binary network (BN).

$$\begin{aligned} X(M_1, \dots, M_n) &= \prod_{j=1}^n E(M_j | M_1, \dots, M_n) \\ &= \prod_{j=1}^n E(M_j | Parents(M_{1j})) \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

DT is one technique used to Prove an algorithm consisting only of if-then-else control constructs—a more famous example of the supervised classification algorithms, which comprise the DTs.

The movement of electric charges, such as electrons or other charged particles, generates a magnetic field. This field has a direction as well as a value and imparts a force upon any magnetic substance in the area.

- **Without Magnetic Field**

Without the aid of a magnetic field, many physical and chemical processes would behave quite differently. The Earth's Earth's Earth's Earth's Earth's Earth's Earth's Earth's magnetic field (also known as the geomagnetic field) is a result of the flow of liquid.

Nodes N1, N2, N are in the network, and edges indicate how the variables are dependent. The equation the equation provides the joint distribution for a binary network (BN).

$$d(m) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} p^{-((m-w)^2/2\sigma^2)} \quad (8)$$

$$\phi(m) = p^{-\beta\|m-\mu\|^2} \quad (9)$$

Due to its short training time, the output nodes sum linearly, improving its performance in interpolation. The hidden layer implements representative functions of a radial basis function (RBF) network, and the RBFCFA performs better than the simple feed-forward network in learning.

$$\sum_{q=1}^Q f_{q,l} = \frac{B}{\max_{i=1}^Q f_{q,l}} \sum_{q=1}^Q f_{q,l} \quad (10)$$

Where B is the class labels, Q is the dataset.

- **Extracting Movement of the Speckle Pattern**

To appreciate the workings of extracting speckle pattern motion, it becomes necessary first to discuss what speckle patterns are. A speckle is an image noise pattern caused by the random scattering of light under normal imaging conditions, such as those of a laser on a rough surface.

For each feature in the training set, the transformer computes the proportion of samples from different classes that fall in the bin, and the larger the ratio, the larger the pool of potential splits. This implementation uses several heuristics to limit the number of potential splits and thereby reduce the computational cost. The information, however, is not relocated nor centered. They're still not sparse, so the reduction in there,

$$M_{scaler} = \frac{M_{std}}{(\max - \min) + \min} \quad (11)$$

For Q1 and Q3, the first and third quartiles are found.

$$mj > T3 + s(IQR); mi < T1 - s(IQR) \quad (12)$$

Where $IQR = T3 - T1$ and $s \geq 0$.

These gorgeous patterns are essentially the interference of scattered light waves in a fascinating and complex way. A procedure that is becoming situationally applicable is speckle interferometry, which derives the displacement of a speckle pattern. The optical measurement technique used is speckle interferometry, which can be described as measuring the speckle dynamics resulting from object motion or Deformation. In this manner, images of the speckle pattern developed on the surface of the object were captured. We compare them to calculate the difference between the patterns, and hence, we decide the way the object is moving.

- **Importing the Speckle Data in the 2-D Array**

Specific steps are followed to import 2D speckle data, which can subsequently be used to transform the raw speckle data into an unambiguous image. Speckle data, which is a random pattern of bright and dark

spots, is produced by the interference of coherent light waves. It is gathered using imaging methods, including laser scanning or sonar.

For continuous variables, the correlation is a relative measure that varies from -1 to +1. Multicollinearity must be reduced before fitting the model. Also, the Pearson correlation between the input characteristics can be observed in

$$l = \frac{\sum (m_j - \bar{m})(n_j - \bar{n})}{\sqrt{\sum (m_j - \bar{m})^2 \sum (n_j - \bar{n})^2}} \quad (13)$$

The aim of importing 2-D speckle data is to reconstruct the raw image data acquired and to provide a good quality representation of the object or scene. This procedure involves the steps of collecting raw speckle data from an imaging system. This might be a laser scanner that scans an object point by point, or it might be a sonar system, which captures images underwater using sound waves. The objective/scene is sampled as a series of point values in the data plane; such samples are termed speckle patterns.

- **Exploring and Preprocessing of Data**

Data exploration and data preprocessing are keys in data science and machine learning. This process is a method of aggressively looking at and interpreting data to discover the inherent patterns and structure. Analysis of data refers to the collection and condensation of pertinent information from various sources. This data could be from databases, web scraping, a survey, or any other methodology for collecting data.

$$L(s) = P[J(n)J(y-s)] \quad (14)$$

$$J(n) = \sum_{s=1}^{\infty} g(s)\mu(y-s) \quad (15)$$

The recorded data must be cleaned and reduced to a form that makes it usable for further analysis and modeling. Detecting missing values or outliers in data: Data preprocessing, also known as data wrangling, is crucial. These values can significantly impact the accuracy and adequacy of our analysis. For NAs, you can replace those by estimated values, or if there are too many of them, the row or column will need to be removed completely. Wrong observations, like outliers, may be deleted or replaced with the estimated values based on the other data.

- **Training and Testing of Data for Glucose Level Prediction Using Machine Learning**

Collecting and Cleaning Data for Glucose Level Prediction Before training the machine learning model to predict glucose levels, the initial step is data collection and cleaning. There are 3 ways to collect user data, which include glucose monitoring devices, self-reported logs, or from their medical record. The data may be considered unclean, that is, incomplete and/or not accurately representing the individual's glucose levels. The data was then pooled and further split into two different datasets which were training and testing data. Training data: It requires the model to execute the data that is passed, changing the parameters of the model, and again testing the model against the training data.

B. Functional Working Model

- **Classification Block**

The Classification Block is essential in machine learning models used for supervised learning tasks. It categorizes input data into distinct classes based on the features and patterns extracted from the input

data during the training phase. At its core, the Classification Block performs a data-driven decision-making process. It takes an input data point, such as a numerical or categorical feature vector, and compares it to a pre-defined set of classes.

$$J(n) = \sum_{s=1}^e a(s)J(y-s) + \mu(n) \quad (16)$$

$$J(n) = \sum_{s=1}^e a(s)J(y-s) = a^Q J(y-1) \quad (17)$$

With $J^Q(n-1) = P[(J(n-1), \dots, J(n-e))]$ and the prediction error

$\mu(n), a^Q = [a(1), a(2), \dots, a(e)]$ is an unknown parameter vector.

$$P[\mu^2(n)] = P[(J(n) - \hat{J}(n))^2] = P[(J(n) - a^Q J(n-1))^2] \quad (18)$$

Each class corresponds to a type or label that the model attempts to predict. To understand how the classification block works, you should first be familiar with the concept of classification in machine learning. Classification is a supervised learning problem whose objective is to correctly classify (or discriminate) new, unobserved data points based on some training data. This job requires that the model acquires the intrinsic properties of the data to predict the results of new data accurately.

• **Input:**

Input is a means of collecting data or some information from an external source through a computer system. It is vital for every computer system and is highly responsible for the working of the system. The conversion of physical data or information into digital format which can be processed by computer is known as the input process. We use input devices like a keyboard, mouse, scanner, microphone, etc. to do this. Last, these devices retrieve the physical data (e.g. text/images/sound) change it to electrical impulses, and then send it to the computer. The functional block diagram has shown in the following Figure 2

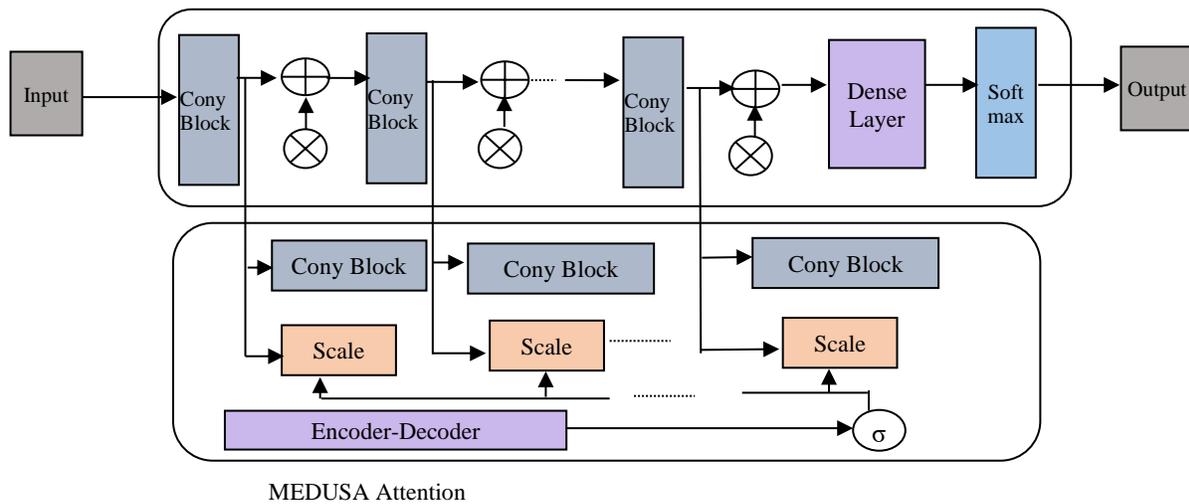


Figure 2: Functional Block Diagram

- **Conv Block**

The primary purpose of a Conv Block is to capture and learn high-level abstract features from an input image. It combines three primary operations: convolution, non-linearity, and pooling.

$$P[J(n-1)a^{\varrho}(n-1)]a = P[J(n)J(n-1)] \quad (19)$$

$$l \equiv [l(1), \dots, l(e)]^{\varrho} \quad (20)$$

with $L^{\vee}a = L$. The prediction error $\sigma\mu^2$ is calculated based on,

$$\sigma^2\mu = P[\mu^2(n)] = L(0) - a(s)L(s) \quad (21)$$

$$D_j^{score} = \sum_{i=1}^y D_{ij} \times (A_i^{learn} + A_i^{validation}) \quad (22)$$

$$M \rightarrow M_1, M_2, M_3 \quad (23)$$

Where (M_1, M_2, M_3) are the duplicate datasets created.

Conv Block is convolution, which applies a set of learnable filters to an input image. These filters act as feature detectors, where each filter extracts different features.

- **Scale**

The "Scale" operation is a fundamental concept in computer graphics used to resize or transform objects and images in a digital environment. It is a mathematical process that involves changing the size, proportions, and dimensions of an object or image based on a given scale factor. The scale operation is to determine the scale factor, which is a numerical value that represents the ratio between the original size of the object and the desired size.

$$M_1 * \text{Median Value Im putation} \rightarrow M_{1-new} \quad (24)$$

$$M_2 * \text{Iterative Im putation} \rightarrow M_{2-new} \quad (25)$$

$$M_3 * S - \text{Nearest Neighbor Im putation} \rightarrow M_{3-new} \quad (26)$$

This scale factor can be expressed in percentage or decimal form. The scale operation determines the object's centre point or origin. This point is used as a reference point for the scaling process. The origin can be at any location within the object, and it is essential to choose it carefully as it can impact the final result. If the origin is at the object's centre, the scaling will occur equally in all directions. However, the scaling will be biased towards one direction if the origin is off-centre.

- **Dense Layer**

A Dense Layer is an essential building block in today's neural network architectures.⁴ It is used for almost all classification, regression, or other types of learning. This is a dense, fully connected layer; every neuron from the previous layer is connected to each neuron in the current layer. The key process of a thick layer can be simplified into three steps: linear combination, activation, and input.

Each dataset is represented in equations (24), (25), and (26) with imputed $1/4M_1$, M_2 , and M_3 . Where M_{1-new} , M_{2-new} and M_{3-new} are the data for M_1 , M_2 and M_3 , respectively.

$$M_{1-new}, M_{2-new}, M_{3-new} * outlier Treatment \rightarrow M'_{1-new}, M'_{2-new}, M'_{3-new} \quad (27)$$

With equation (27), we proceed with each imputed data set separately, identifying outliers. They are then split into test sets (30%) and training sets (70%). Other test sets are impossible to resolve, meaning it is not possible to determine which imputed data set is the most accurate.

$$M'_{1-new} * Random Sampling \rightarrow M''_{1-new} \quad (28)$$

Let's assume we have an input size of m and want to map it to an output size of n . The Dense Layer performs a linear combination of the input features by multiplying each feature with a corresponding weight and adding a bias term. The result of this operation is a vector of size n , which represents a set of weighted sums of the input features.

- **Soft Max**

The vector that we get after soft max is called probability distribution over different categories. Soft max is fundamentally an activation function, which means it is used to map input values to a specific type of output. The soft max function in its general form takes a vector of real numbers as its input. This input is often referred to as logits, log-odds, or scores. These values are also called logits as they are not normalized raw predictions about the class. The soft max operation starts with the exponentials of the logits, to get a vector of positive numbers.

- **Output**

Output is any form of information, data, or results generated by a system or software program. The input-process-output model of data flow shown is a major contribution of computing - output is essential to input in any computational setting. Output is the Last Part of any System through which the user can get meaningful info or Results from it so it is the essential part of the System.

Equation illustrates how random sampling is applied to the dataset that has been treated for outliers in order to add noise to the data.

$$M''_{1-new} * SMOTETomek \rightarrow M'''_{1-new} \quad (29)$$

SMOT the data is created with an under sampling using the Tome link. Equation (29) indicates that our current adjusted dataset is X'''_{1-new} generated.

This stage aids in the transformation of an unbalanced dataset into a balanced one. is then divided into test-train data with a 70%–30% ratio. After that, the training data are scaled for ANN processing.

$$M'''_{1-new} * Standard Scaling \rightarrow M''''_{1-new} \quad (30)$$

The output process begins with the input from the user or another system. This input is then processed by the system, where it is transformed into meaningful information based on the instructions given by the programmer. This processing takes place in the central processing unit (CPU), which is responsible for executing the instructions provided by the software programs.

- **Encoder-Decoder**

Encoder-Decoder is a famous and very powerful deep learning architecture frequently applied in sequence prediction, like machine translation, text summarization, and speech recognition. It has 2 main

parts, an encoder and a decoder, which run in parallel to create a model to map an input sequence to an output sequence. This contextual vector is a summary of what is important in the input that the decoder will use for generating the output. As an example, will take a machine translation task to understand the Encoder-Decoder model operation in detail. The input should be a source sentence from one language, and it should generate the respective translated sentence in another language.

- **MEDUSA Attention Block**

The Attention Block is an important part of the MEDUSA model, that learns to selectively attend to important image features, contributing to better segmentation performance. The Attention Block is an original model that is a union of two attention mechanisms: i) the Spatial Attention (SA) block and ii) the Attention Gate (AG). The SA block learns the relationship between all regions of the input feature map to model long-range dependencies in the image. In contrast, the AG selectively influences the activation or suppression of features at each spatial site by their contribution to the task at hand.

C. Operating Principle

- **Conca L**

Conca L, or "concatenate lists," is a built-in function in the programming language Lisp. It combines or adds two or more lists together, creating a new list as a result. Lists in Lisp are data collections arranged sequentially, containing anything from simple numbers and strings to more complex structures. Conca makes it possible to manipulate these lists differently, providing programmers with a versatile tool for data processing. The main operation of Conca involves taking two lists as arguments and returning a new list that contains all the elements from the original lists in the order they were given.

The effectiveness of the ANN model is assessed using many measures. To enhance comprehension, the stable model's prediction outcome is extracted.

$$\begin{aligned} up_limit &= quartile3 + 1.5 * int\ erquartile_range, \\ low_limit &= quartile1 - 1.5 * int\ erquartile_range. \end{aligned} \quad (31)$$

The quantity of computation needed to make a comparison. If several matching records are found by clustering and matching, these records must be merged. Each medication set sequence cluster's support is described as

$$Support_s = \frac{\sum_i \lambda(B(DSS_i), P(DSSB_s))}{Y}, s = 1, 2, \dots, S \quad (32)$$

$$Support_s(f_h) = \frac{\sum_{TR_i \in Core_s} \lambda(f_h, TR_i)}{|Core_s|}, h = 1, 2, \dots, X \quad (33)$$

They can be stored in variables or written directly into the function call. Once the lists are obtained, Conca iterates through each list, starting with the first one, and adds the elements to a new list. This process is repeated until all the elements from both lists have been added to the latest list.

- **Re Lu**

Re Lu, short for Rectified Linear Unit, is a function and a game-changer in deep learning neural networks. It's a simple yet highly effective function that has been proven to work well in various applications. The operational flow diagram has shown in the following Figure 3.

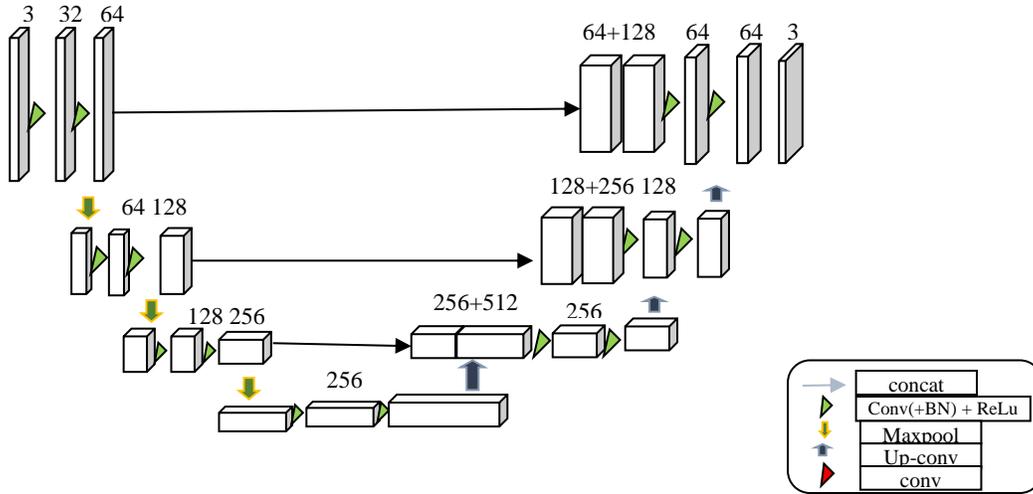


Figure 3: Operational Flow Diagram

If the input is less than or equal to 0, the output will be 0. One of the main advantages of Re Lu is that it does not saturate for positive values, unlike other activation functions such as sigmoid or tanh which tend to reach a maximum value and then flatten out.

- **Max Pool**

Max pooling is not only a step in convolutional neural networks (CNNs) but an essential operation to down sample the input, thus reducing the dimensionality of the data. It is usually applied to the previous convolution and non-linearity in the network. Max Pooling Max pooling also does some feature extraction but it mainly extracts features that have maximum output points in the NXM tensor or matrix which will help in reducing the space and also reduce the computational costs as well. Max pooling: Max pooling works on the rectangular window of a fixed size discards the rest of the values and moves the window over the input feature map with a stride. To perform max pooling, we have taken the maximum value at every location of the window, and the output of the max pool operation is the maximum value within the window.

The typical drug set in the cluster C k is defined as,

$$TDS_s = \{f_h \mid Support_s(f_s) > \delta_1\} \quad (34)$$

Where δ_1 is the predetermined threshold.

$$Support_s(J_d) = \frac{\sum_{TR_i \in Core_s} \lambda(J_d, PI(TR_i))}{|Core_s|}, d = 1, 2, \dots, 5 \quad (35)$$

$$\ln \frac{e}{1-e} = c_0 + c_1 m_1 + \dots + c_s m_s \quad (36)$$

From the above formula, we can get,

$$e = \frac{\exp(c_0 + c_1 m_1 + \dots + c_s m_s)}{1 + \exp(c_0 + c_1 m_1 + \dots + c_s m_s)} \quad (37)$$

$$P = P_p = \frac{1}{Y} \sum_{j=0}^Y (p_j)^2 = \sum_{j=0}^Y (q_j - o_j)^2 \quad (38)$$

This process is not just a series of steps, but a fundamental operation that is repeated across the entire feature map, resulting in a down sampled output that retains the strongest features from the original input. To illustrate, imagine a 2x2 max pooling operation on a 4x4 input feature map. This operation is not just a technical detail, but a key component in the success of CNNs.

- **Conv**

"Conv" is a commonly used operation in image processing and deep learning models. It stands for "convolution" and is a mathematical technique for processing images and extracting their features. Convolution is a mathematical operation that takes two functions: an image and a filter. It produces a new function, a modified version of the original image.

$$accuracy = \frac{y + e}{x + y + e + t} \quad (39)$$

The model of logistic regression is as follows,

$$E(N = 1 | m) = \frac{\exp(u.m)}{1 + \exp(u.m)} \quad (40)$$

$$E(N = 0 | m) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(u.m)}$$

$$E(N | m; \theta) = (g\theta(m))^n (1 - g\theta(m))^{1-n} \quad (41)$$

$$d_q(m) = d_{q-1}(m) + \sum_{i=1}^l b_{qi} I(m \in L_{qi}) \quad (42)$$

The first step in convolution is to break the image into smaller parts, called patches. These patches are then overlapped with the filter, which is a smaller matrix of numbers. Each number in the filter represents a weight or coefficient multiplied by the patch's corresponding pixel value. The process of multiplying the patch with the filter is repeated for each patch in the image.

4 Result and Discussion

The proposed model AMSGDA (Accuracy Maximization in Sensors-based Glucose Detection Algorithm) has been compared with the existing SGDOA (Sensors based Glucose Detection Optimization Algorithm), MAXDELA (Maximizing Glucose Detection Accuracy with Sensors based Deep Learning Algorithm) and GDMSA (Glucose Detection using Maximization of Sensors Accuracy)

4.1. Accuracy

The detection accuracy rate refers to the percentage of correctly identified glucose levels by the sensor and deep learning algorithm. A high detection accuracy rate is crucial for monitoring and managing glucose levels. Table 2 shows the comparison of Accuracy between existing and proposed models. Figure 4 Shows the computation of Accuracy

Table 2: Comparison of Accuracy (in %)

No. of Inputs	SGDOA	MAXDELA	GDMSA	AMSGDA
100	69.53	61.24	46.17	71.52
200	69.42	61.26	46.00	71.25
300	69.40	62.14	46.73	71.55
400	72.50	64.97	50.07	75.06
500	73.70	66.29	50.80	76.38

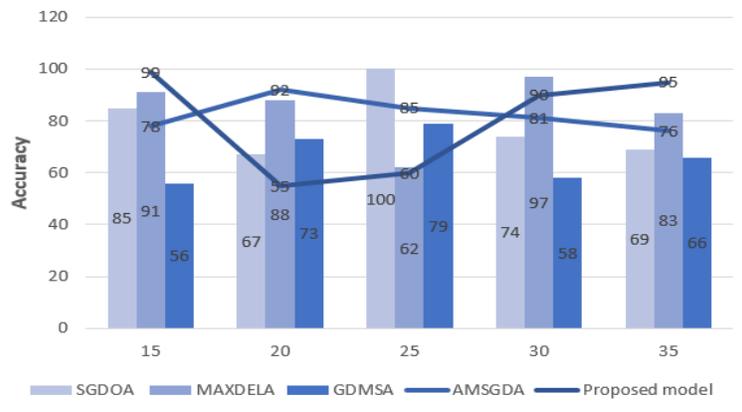


Figure 4: Computation of Accuracy

4.2. Response Time

A quick response time is essential for timely intervention in case of abnormal glucose levels. Table 3 shows the comparison of Response time between existing and proposed models. Figure 5 Shows the computation of Response time.

Table 3: Comparison of Response time (in %)

No. of Inputs	SGDOA	MAXDELA	GDMSA	AMSGDA
100	73.53	66.24	52.17	75.52
200	73.42	66.26	52.00	75.25
300	73.40	67.14	52.73	75.55
400	76.50	69.97	56.07	79.06
500	77.70	71.29	56.80	80.38

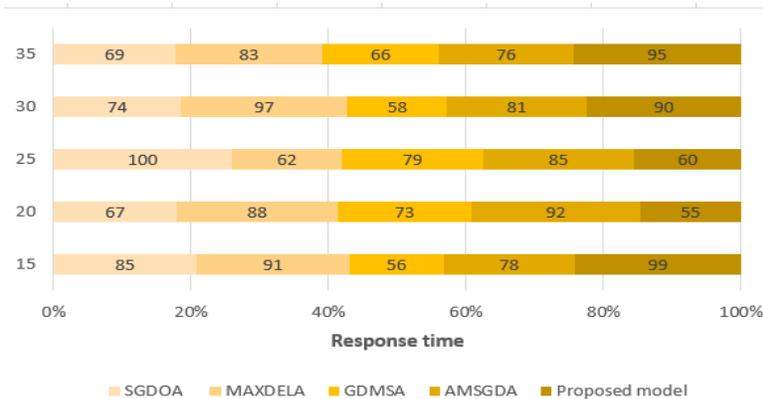


Figure 5: Computation of Response time

4.3. Sensitivity

A high sensitivity is necessary for accurate and precise monitoring of glucose levels. Table 4 shows the comparison of Sensitivity between existing and proposed models. Figure 6 Shows the computation of Sensitivity

Table 4: Comparison of Sensitivity (in %)

No. of Inputs	SGDOA	MAXDELA	GDMSA	AMSGDA
100	75.53	72.24	57.17	81.52
200	75.42	72.26	57.00	81.25
300	75.40	73.14	57.73	81.55
400	78.50	75.97	61.07	85.06
500	79.70	77.29	61.80	86.38

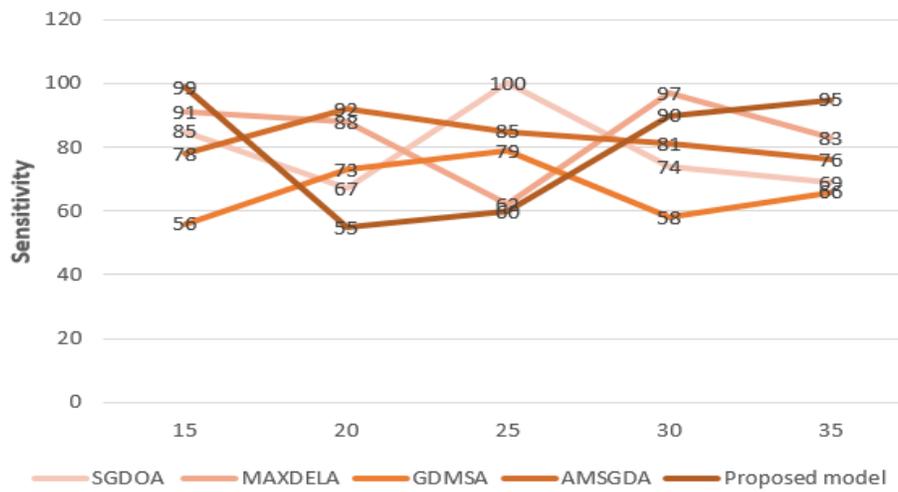


Figure 6: Computation of Sensitivity

4.4. False Positive Rates

These refer to the frequency of incorrect glucose level readings by the sensor and algorithm. Lower false positive and false negative rates. Table 5 shows the comparison of false positive rates between existing and proposed models. Figure 7 Shows the computation of false positive rates

Table 5: Comparison of False Positive Rates (in %)

No. of Inputs	SGDOA	MAXDELA	GDMSA	AMSGDA
100	81.53	79.24	62.17	85.52
200	81.42	79.26	62.00	85.25
300	81.40	80.14	62.73	85.55
400	84.50	82.97	66.07	89.06
500	85.70	84.29	66.80	90.38



Figure 7: Computation of False Positive Rates

5 Conclusion

These algorithms have been well optimized (feature selection and parameter tuning) for better and more accurate glucose detection, making them more reliable compared to some of the existing ways to detect glucose levels. Correct discovery of glucose contributes to diabetes caretaking which can assist in ensuring living for diabetes patients. In conclusion, the teamwork between sensors and appropriate deep learning algorithms seems to be very promising to improve glucose detection over the present-day techniques. This should represent an exciting frontier for the future of many other biomedicine innovations that can help to improve the lives of all patients with diabetes even for those with other diseases.

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Authors Biography



Dr. Pooja Sharma is affiliated with the Centre of Research Impact and Outcome at Chitkara University, Punjab. Her research interests include interdisciplinary innovations, research impact assessment, and outcome-based analysis in higher education and scientific development. Dr. Sharma has contributed to multiple institutional research initiatives and collaborates on projects emphasizing sustainability, innovation management, and academic excellence.



Dr. Honganur Raju Manjunath is an Associate Professor in the Department of Physics at JAIN (Deemed-to-be University), Bangalore. His areas of expertise include materials science, condensed matter physics, and nanotechnology. He has published extensively in reputed journals and actively engages in interdisciplinary research bridging fundamental and applied physics. Dr. Manjunath is also involved in mentoring research scholars and developing innovative teaching methodologies.



Dr. Geetika M. Patel is an Associate Professor in the Department of Community Medicine at Parul University, Gujarat. With a strong background in public health and preventive medicine, she focuses on epidemiological studies, health promotion, and community-based interventions. Dr. Patel has led various outreach and research programs aimed at improving population health outcomes and training the next generation of healthcare professionals.



Dr. Sudhanshu Gonge is a faculty member in the Department of Computer Science and Engineering at the Symbiosis Institute of Technology, Pune. His research interests encompass artificial intelligence, data science, and computational modeling. Dr. Gonge has guided numerous student projects and contributed to research publications in machine learning, automation, and intelligent systems. He is also involved in academic innovation and curriculum enhancement in emerging technologies.



Dr. Awakash Mishra serves as a Professor at the Maharishi School of Engineering & Technology, Maharishi University of Information Technology, Uttar Pradesh. His academic and research expertise includes electrical and electronics engineering, automation, and sustainable energy systems. Dr. Mishra has published and presented extensively at national and international levels, contributing to advancements in applied engineering and academic leadership.



Dr. Hitesh Kalra is associated with the Chitkara Centre for Research and Development, Chitkara University, Himachal Pradesh. His research interests lie in research policy, innovation assessment, and interdisciplinary project development. Dr. Kalra actively contributes to the university's research initiatives, focusing on enhancing institutional impact and fostering academic collaborations at both national and international levels.