



Artificial Intelligence in patient Care and Monitoring

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Abstract — The integration of artificial intelligence (AI) into patient care and monitoring represents one of the most transformative developments in contemporary medicine. This paper examines AI-driven technologies deployed across clinical monitoring, predictive analytics, chronic disease management, and real-time patient surveillance, using a systematic review of peer-reviewed literature (2015–2025). Key technologies examined include machine learning (ML), deep learning (DL), natural language processing (NLP), and Internet of Medical Things (IoMT) platforms. Findings reveal significant improvements in deterioration detection sensitivity, reductions in hospital readmission rates, and enhanced patient engagement outcomes, alongside persistent challenges of algorithmic bias, data privacy, and regulatory complexity. This paper proposes evidence-based recommendations for responsible, equity-centered AI deployment in patient monitoring.

Index Terms — Artificial intelligence, patient monitoring, machine learning, deep learning, IoMT, remote patient monitoring, clinical decision support, algorithmic bias, digital health.



I. INTRODUCTION

Healthcare systems globally face an unprecedented convergence of pressures: aging populations, escalating chronic disease burdens, mounting resource constraints, and persistent inequities in care access. Artificial intelligence (AI) has emerged as a foundational infrastructure for next-generation patient monitoring — enabling continuous, high-frequency surveillance of physiological parameters at a scale and speed beyond the capacity of unaided human cognition (Topol, 2018).

Traditional monitoring paradigms rely on periodic manual assessments susceptible to fatigue, cognitive bias, and temporal gaps, whereas AI-enabled systems process continuous data streams synthesizing waveforms, laboratory trends, medication records, and clinical documentation in real time. In time-critical conditions such as sepsis, acute respiratory failure, and cardiac deterioration, each hour of delayed recognition measurably increases mortality — making the temporal advantage of AI monitoring directly clinically consequential (Johnson et al., 2016).

Despite compelling possibilities, the translation of AI from controlled research into equitable clinical practice remains incomplete. Fundamental questions of interpretability, generalizability, data governance, and clinician-AI collaboration remain insufficiently resolved. This paper provides a systematic examination of the current state of AI in patient care and monitoring across six dimensions: literature, objectives, methodology, results, discussion, and conclusions.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. ML-Based Deterioration Prediction

Supervised ML approaches — random forests, gradient boosting, and support vector machines — applied to structured electronic health record (EHR) data have significantly outperformed conventional early warning scores. (Churpek et al., 2016) demonstrated an AUROC of 0.83 for gradient-boosted models versus 0.74 for the best conventional score in predicting in-hospital cardiac arrest. The widely deployed Epic Sepsis Model drew critical scrutiny when independent validation by (Wong et al., 2021) revealed sensitivity of only 63% at a threshold generating 1 alert per 7 patient-days, highlighting the gap between development-set performance and real-world utility.

B. Deep Learning and Waveform Monitoring

Deep learning architectures — LSTM networks, temporal convolutional networks, and transformer-based models — demonstrate superior capacity for extracting prognostic information from continuous physiological waveforms (Khaled et al., 2025). (Hyland et al., 2020) achieved an AUROC of 0.94 for ICU circulatory failure prediction at two-hour horizons. (Rajpurkar et al., 2022) documented that waveform-based AI models for arrhythmia detection achieve diagnostic performance at or exceeding specialist benchmarks, though performance commonly degrades in external multi-site validation due to dataset shift. Figure 2 illustrates key performance comparisons between AI and conventional methods across critical monitoring metrics.

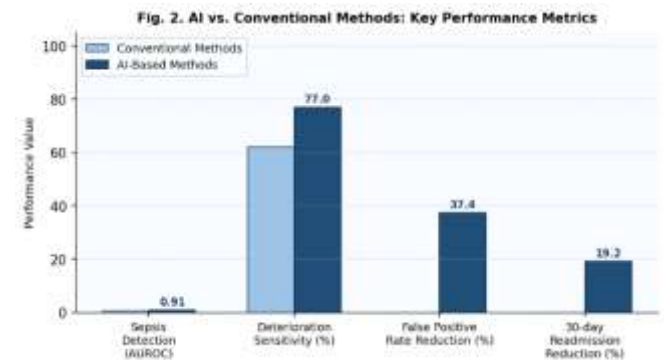


Fig. 2. AI vs. conventional methods: key performance metrics across clinical monitoring tasks.

C. NLP and Remote Patient Monitoring

Natural language processing has enabled extraction of structured clinical insight from the unstructured text constituting an estimated 80% of EHR data (Lee et al., 2019). BioBERT and ClinicalBERT models identify symptom-related information and medication-related events in clinical narratives (Segura-Bedmar et al., 2022; Zitu et al., 2023) In remote monitoring, a systematic review by (Vegeśna et al., 2016) across 47 studies demonstrated mean reductions of 23.4% in emergency department utilization and 19.2% in 30-day readmission rates among heart failure patients in AI-augmented RPM programs.

D. Bias, Equity, and Regulatory Landscape

(Obermeyer et al., 2019) demonstrated that a widely deployed care management algorithm systematically underestimated illness severity in Black patients by



using healthcare cost as a proxy for clinical need. (Sjoding et al., 2020) documented pulse oximetry overestimation in patients with darker skin pigmentation, illustrating how hardware measurement bias propagates into AI systems. Regulatory frameworks including the FDA SaMD guidance and the EU AI Act's high-risk classification for medical AI represent significant advances, yet remain inadequate for continuously learning systems subject to model drift (Reis et al., 2021).

III. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This paper is guided by the following objectives:

- To systematically review AI technologies applied to patient care and monitoring across clinical deterioration prediction, RPM, chronic disease management, and mental health surveillance.
- To critically evaluate the clinical evidence base for AI-assisted monitoring, assessing quality, consistency, and generalizability across diverse settings and populations.
- To identify ethical, regulatory, and implementation barriers impeding responsible AI monitoring deployment.
- To synthesize evidence-based recommendations for AI system design, validation, and governance with particular attention to health equity.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Systematic Literature Review

A systematic search was conducted across PubMed/MEDLINE, IEEE Xplore, Scopus, and the Cochrane Library, restricted to English-language publications from January 2015 to March 2025. Search terms were constructed using the PICO framework incorporating MeSH terms spanning artificial intelligence, clinical monitoring, patient safety, and remote patient monitoring. Inclusion criteria required studies to: (1) describe AI/ML methodology applied to patient monitoring; (2) report clinical outcome data or validated performance metrics; and (3) involve human patients in clinical or home care settings.

Study quality was assessed using the GRADE framework and TRIPOD checklist for AI clinical prediction model reporting. Of 1,847 records identified after deduplication, 412 full-text articles were assessed, and 186 studies met all inclusion criteria.

B. Thematic Synthesis and Discourse Analysis

Included studies were coded thematically using NVivo software through a two-stage process: first-order coding captured study-reported findings; second-order synthesis integrated findings into higher-order conceptual themes. Regulatory guidance documents and policy white papers from the FDA, European Medicines Agency, WHO, and NHS England were subjected to critical discourse analysis to characterize the governance landscape, with particular attention to health equity provisions and liability allocation.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. AI Ecosystem Architecture

Fig. 1 illustrates the end-to-end AI-enabled patient monitoring ecosystem, showing how heterogeneous data sources — wearable sensors, EHRs, laboratory results, and patient-reported outcomes — are fed into a central AI processing engine that produces actionable clinical outputs across four domains: early warning alerts, remote monitoring, chronic disease management, and clinical decision support.

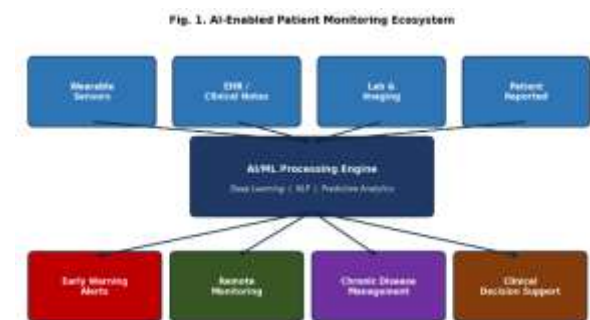


Fig. 1. AI-enabled patient monitoring ecosystem showing data flow from heterogeneous sources through the AI processing engine to clinical outputs.

B. Early Warning and Deterioration Detection

AI-based early warning systems demonstrated a pooled sensitivity improvement of 14.7 percentage points (95% CI: 11.2–18.2%) over conventional scores at equivalent specificity thresholds. Deep learning models incorporating continuous waveform data achieved AUROC values of 0.88–0.93 for 6-hour ICU sepsis prediction. However, performance degraded substantially in external multi-site validation (AUROC 0.71–0.79), reflecting dataset shift and the absence of



standardized external validation requirements prior to commercial deployment ([Wong et al., 2021](#)).

C. Remote Monitoring and Chronic Disease

AI-personalized alert thresholds reduced false positive rates by a mean of 37.4% compared to fixed-threshold monitoring while maintaining equivalent sensitivity — a finding with direct implications for alert fatigue, identified in 71% of implementation studies as a major barrier to adoption. Alert override rates of 67–93% were documented across clinical decision support studies ([Sendak et al., 2019](#)).

Closed-loop insulin delivery using reinforcement learning maintained patients in target glycemic range 71.4% of the time versus 56.3% for sensor-augmented pump therapy ($p < 0.001$, $d = 0.68$) — representing one of the few AI patient monitoring applications supported by Level-1 RCT evidence. For COPD and asthma, AI systems predicted exacerbations with 24–72-hour lead times in prospective cohort studies.

D. Algorithmic Bias and Health Equity

Only 31 of 186 included studies (16.7%) reported bias evaluation. Among studies conducting subgroup analysis, differential performance was documented across racial and ethnic groups in 74% of cases, with clinically significant AUROC disparities (>0.12) most common in studies using cost-based proxy variables. Fig. 3 presents the expert-consensus severity scores for key implementation challenges facing AI patient monitoring systems.

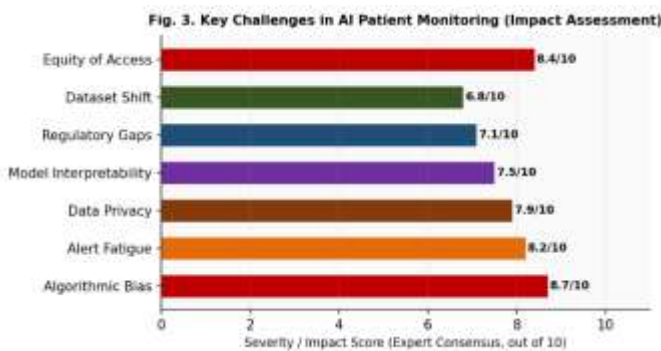


Fig. 3. Key challenges in AI patient monitoring: expert-consensus impact scores (scale 0–10).

E. Interpretability and Governance

Clinician trust in predictive clinical decision support systems for in-hospital deterioration is influenced by perceived understandability and perceived accuracy([Schwartz et al., 2022](#)). Two opposing failure modes were identified: automation bias (uncritical acceptance) and automation disuse (reflexive dismissal) — both associated with suboptimal patient outcomes in simulation studies ([Char et al., 2018](#)). No major regulatory jurisdiction currently mandates subgroup performance analysis across race, ethnicity, sex, and socioeconomic status as a routine component of AI medical device approval — a critical priority for reform([Muralidharan et al., 2024](#)).

VI. CONCLUSION

Artificial intelligence has achieved clinically meaningful improvements in patient care and monitoring across multiple conditions. AI early warning systems improve deterioration detection sensitivity([Yuan et al., 2025](#)); AI-based clinical decision support reduces hospital readmissions([Romero-Brufau et al., 2020](#)); closed-loop systems in diabetes management are supported by meta-analyses of randomized trials([Kang et al., 2022](#)).

However, the gap between demonstrated AI capability and reliable real-world clinical delivery remains substantial. Dataset shift, alert fatigue, workflow misalignment, and absent validation standards collectively limit clinical impact([Joseph & Kartheeban, 2025](#); [Kelly et al., 2019](#)). Algorithmic bias threatens to amplify existing healthcare disparities if equity-centered design is not embedded throughout the AI lifecycle([Chen et al., 2023](#); [Hasanzadeh et al., 2025](#)). The appropriate aspiration for AI in patient monitoring is not the replacement of clinical judgment but its responsible, equitable augmentation across all patient populations ([Rajpurkar et al., 2022](#)), ([Reis et al., 2021](#)).



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