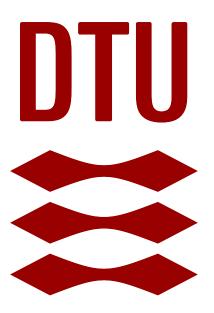
Danmarks Tekniske Universitet

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1 Introduction

Diabetes is a serious chronic disease and a major cause cause of blindness, kidney failure, heart attacks, stroke and lower limb amputation. In 2016, an estimated 1.6 million deaths were directly caused by diabetes. Another 2.2 million deaths were attributable to high blood glucose in 2012. In 1980 it affected 108 million people, in 2014 that number rose to 422 million, all according to WHO [2]. Much is done to prevent more people from suffering from this condition, however there is still a great need for good, efficient treatment for those who do have to suffer. We will in this report focus on type I diabetes, which is a condition where very little or no insulin is produced by the pancreas. Insulin being a hormone required for the body to use blood sugar [4]. We will try to shed light on how to maintain a steady blood sugar level for type 1 diabetics using and PID and the Medtronic Virtual Patient (MVP) Model [1].

2 Methodology

2.1 MVP

The MVP model is a way to model blood sugar level for a diabetic using a system of differential equations. The model is presented quite extensively in the exercise material, we will therefore only briefly go over the key concepts here. The idea is that we can find the blood sugar level (glucose level), G[mg/dL], at a given time, t, as the solution to a system of differential equations, G(t). The solution will be only on the carbohydrate uptake d(t)[gCHO/min] (food), and the insulin infusion u(t)[mU/min], and some parameter p. The system of differential equations is:

$$\begin{split} I_{sc}'(t) &= \frac{u(t)}{\tau_1 C_I} - \frac{I_{sc}}{\tau_1} \\ I_p'(t) &= \frac{I_{sc}(t) - I_p(t)}{\tau_2} \\ I_{eff}'(t) &= -p_2 I_{eff}(t) + p_2 S_I I_p(t) \\ G'(t) &= -(GEZI + I_{eff}(t))G(t) + EGP_0 + \frac{1000D_2(t)}{V_G \tau_m} \\ D_1'(t) &= d(t) - \frac{D_1(t)}{\tau_m} \\ D_2'(t) &= \frac{D_1(t) - D_2(t)}{\tau_m} \end{split}$$

and the parameters, p:

$$\begin{array}{c} \tau_1 = 49min \\ \tau_2 = 47min \\ C_I = 20.1dL/min \\ p_2 = 0.0106min^{-1} \\ S_I = 0.0081\frac{dL/mU}{min} \\ GEZI = 0.0022min^{-1} \\ EGP_0 = 1.33mg/dL/min \\ V_G = 253dL \\ \tau_m = 47min \end{array}$$

In order to maintain elegant notation, we define x(t) such that:

$$x'(t) = f(x(t), u(t), d(t), p)$$

 $x(t) = [I_{sc} \ I_{p} \ I_{eff} \ G \ D_{1} \ D_{2}]$

2.2 PID

Proportional-Integral-Derivative (PID) controller is a controller that is widely used industial control system and other applications that requires continuously modulated control e.g. cruise control in a car [3]. The controller works by continuously assessing the error value e(t), and from this computing the desired output, u(t) given by the standard form:

2.3 Bolus 2 METHODOLOGY

$$u(t) = K_p(e(t) + \frac{1}{T_s} \int_0^t e(\tau)d\tau + T_d \frac{de(t)}{dt})$$

Where K_p , T_i , and T_d are tuning parameter for the proportional, integral and derivative part respectively. There is a whole science to best finding these turning parameter, we will therefore limit ourselves to the following 3 facts:

- 1: The proportional term is used to modulate the response time but can cause overshoot.
- 2: The integral term is used to modulate steady state error, but can also cause overshoot.
- 3: The derivative term is a dampening term, that is used to decrease overshoot, but it can also decrease responsiveness.

We will only work with discrete time steps we will therefore find our terms the following way:

$$e_k = y_k - \bar{y}$$

$$P_k = K_p e_k$$

$$I_k = I_{k-1} + \frac{K_p T_s}{T_i} e_k$$

$$D_k = \frac{K_p T_d}{T_s} e_k$$

Where T_d is the time between each sample.

2.3 Bolus

The PID-control works well for small changes in the blood glucose level. However, it cannot cope with sudden big disturbances, such as large meals full of carbs. A common way of dealing with that problem is to inject a single large amount of insulin, an insulin bolus. However, it is difficult to estimate the exact amount of insulin needed. A blood sugar that is too low, hypoglycemia, is worse than one to high, hyperglycemia - of cause neither is desirable. In order to prevent hypoglycemia we introduce a Glucose Penalty Function (GPF), given by:

$$\rho(G(t)) = \frac{1}{2}(G - \bar{G})^2 + \frac{\kappa}{2}max((G_{min} - G(t)), 0)^2$$

Where $\kappa = 10^6$, $\bar{G} = 108 \frac{mg}{dL}$, and $G_{min} = 70 \frac{mg}{dL}$, are penalizing parameter, glucose target, and glucose threshold, respectively. We can use this penalizing function to evaluate the performance of the blood sugar level over some time period. We do this by:

$$\phi = \int_{t_0}^{t_0 + T} \rho(G(t)) dt$$

We note that ϕ can be found as a function of x(t), u(t), d(t), and p.

$$\phi = \phi(x(t), u(t), d(t), p)$$

This can be used to find the optimal bolus size, by finding the argmin to this function, where x(t), d(t), and p are known.

$$u_{optimal} = arg \min_{u} \phi(x_0, u, d_0, p_0)$$

In our discrete domain calculus is not an option as such, therefore we will find the discrete integral by:

$$\phi = \sum_{\tau=t_0}^{t_0+T} \rho(G(\tau))$$

3 Results

The MVP model is initially used to model the steady state glucose levels in the blood using parameters p described in methodology, d(t) = 0, $u(t) = 25.04 \frac{mU}{min}$ and initial conditions x0 = [0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0]. The glucose concentration is shown in figure 1, and steady state glucose concentration is found to be $108.1995 \frac{mg}{dL}$.

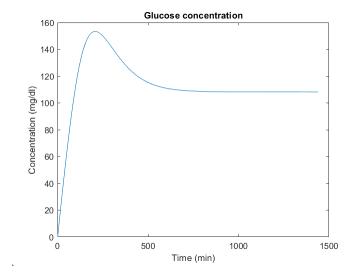


Figure 1: The MVP model simulated under steady state conditions.

The MVP model is expanded to use a PID controller to determine insulin rates to stabilize glucose levels in the blood. To test the PID controller the simulations is run with initial conditions $x_0 = [1.2458, \ 1.2458, \ 0.0101, \ 200, \ 0, \ 0]$. The PID controller was tuned to the parameters $K_p = 0.01, \ K_i = 1000, \ K_d = 1$, and the influence of K_p can be seen in figure 2a.

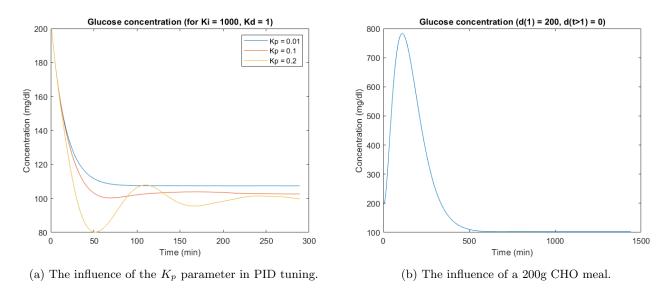


Figure 2: Influences on the PID controller

The PID controller was also tested when gaussian noise was added to the measurements, and it was found that the PID converges to a slightly lower glucose concentration.

From figure 2b it can be seen how high the glucose concentration in the blood reaches due to a large meal. This indicates that the PID controller does not perform well under large disturbances in the blood glucose level. A solution to this could then be to implement an insulin bolus into our model.

Implementing the glucose penalty function (GPF) we can determine the optimal bolus size for a given meal size. In figure 3a the GPF function is shown for d(1) = 200, d(t > 1) = 0. Here the bolus size is in mU and the optimal bolus size can be found at the minimum. We found the optimum to be around 4300 mU.

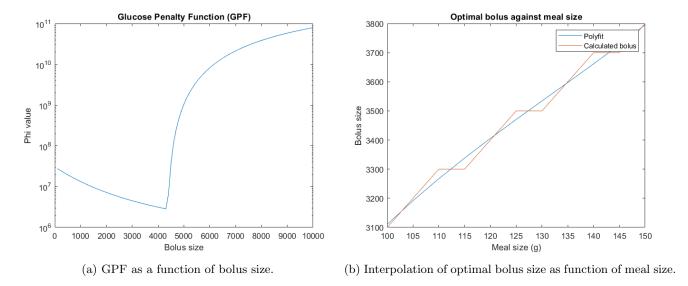


Figure 3: Influences on the PID controller

In figure 3b the same analysis is carried out for different meal sizes in the range 100-150g where d(1) = CHO, d(t > 1) = 0 and bolus sizes in mU. This results in a relation between meal size and the optimal bolus. Interpolating the values in figure 3b yields a fourth degree polynomial describing optimal bolus size as a function of meal size with the coefficients in descending order $1.0e + 08 \cdot [-1.3986, 0.7133, -0.1358, 0.0116, -0.0003]$.

4 Discussion

In the steady state solution of the MVP model, our formulated mathematical model was tested under the assumption that the patient was not eating. The steady state blood level was found to be $108.1995 \frac{mg}{dL}$. Normal blood sugar levels during fasting should be below $100 \frac{mg}{dL}$, and before a meal can be expected in the range $70 - 130 \frac{mg}{dL}$. This tells us that our model is operating in the correct range, and can be used to run simulations to analyze blood level behaviors. Implementing a PID controller allows us to regulate insulin levels around our determined steady state blood sugar level. For a diabetic blood sugar levels after a meal are expected to reach at max $180 \frac{mg}{dL}$. As shown in figure 2b, when we allow the PID controller to determine insulin rates the blood sugar level spikes to values between $700 - 800 \frac{mg}{dL}$ after a meal. This indicates that a PID controller is not a suitable method for determining insulin rate in the case where a patient is eating. To handle the large spike in blood sugar after a meal, an insulin bolus is suggested and implemented in the model.

5 Conclusion

We wanted to shed light on how to maintain a steady blood sugar level for type 1 diabetics using and PID and the Medtronic Virtual Patient Model. We found that the model reached a steady state at $108.2 \frac{mg}{dL}$ with an insulin

¹https://www.webmd.com/diabetes/guide/normal-blood-sugar-levels-chart-adults

infusion rate at $25.04 \frac{mU}{min}$. We used a PID to moderate the infusion rate, and we manually found good tuning parameters as $K_p = 0.01$, $K_i = 1000$, $K_d = 1$. We plotted the influence of 200g CHO meal and found that the PID alone was not able to deal with such events. We were in turn forced to look at a bolus approach. We implemented a penalizing function and used this to find the optimal bolus size for a given CHO intake, e.g. we found the optimal bolus size of 4300 mU for a meal size of 100g. We can use this fit to predict the size of the bolus a person needs for a given meal. This together with the PID should be able to maintain a stable glucose level and thus prevent numerous risks related to this.

6 References

References

- [1] Dimitri Boiroux et al. "Model Identification using Continuous Glucose Monitoring Data for Type 1 Diabetes". In: IFAC-PapersOnLine 49.7 (2016). 11th IFAC Symposium on Dynamics and Control of Process SystemsIncluding Biosystems DYCOPS-CAB 2016, pp. 759-764. ISSN: 2405-8963. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ifacol.2016.07.279. URL: http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2405896316304864.
- [2] WHO. Fact-sheet regarding diabetes. URL: https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/diabetes. (accessed: 27.02.2020).
- [3] Wikipedia contributors. *PID controller Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia*. [Online; accessed 27-February-2020]. 2020. URL: https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=PID_controller&oldid=942657155.
- [4] Wikipedia contributors. Type 1 diabetes Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia. [Online; accessed 27-February-2020]. 2020. URL: https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Type_1_diabetes&oldid=940227030.

Appendices

${f A}$ ${f APPENDIX} \ {f 1}$

A.1 Appendix 1.1: Matlab implementations

```
2 %% Clear all
  clear all
   %% Set up ODE's (no PID, no eating)
   % [Problem 1 & 2] %
  parm = [49, 47, 20.1, 0.0106, 0.0081, 0.0022, 1.33, 253, 47];
  x0 = [0,0,0,0,0,0];
11 t = linspace(0,24\star60, 24\star60);
us = 25.04;
  d = 0;
13
14
  % Solve ODE %
  dxdt = @mvpfun;
16
   % Simulate %
17
   [T,X] = ode15s(dxdt,t,x0,[],us,d, parm);
  %% Plot for ODE solution
  % [Problem 1 & 2] %
21
```

```
^{23} % We want to plot in hours and previously we have units in minutes %
24 % It takes him approx 10 hours to reach \neg 108 %
25 % This shows that we can simulate for all 24 hours %
27 figure
28 plot(X(:,4))
29 title('Glucose concentration')
30 xlabel('Time (min)')
31 ylabel('Concentration (mg/dl)')
32
33 %% Exercises with PID Implementation
34 % [Problem 4 5] %
_{36}\, % We want to change the insulin concentration every 5 min %
37 % Measure glucose conc -> compute u -> simulate \Delta(t) ahead in time %
39 % PID parameters %
40 Kp = 0.01;
41 Ti = 1000;
42 Td = 1;
43
44 % Initializations %
x0 = [1.2458 \ 1.2458 \ 0.0101 \ 200 \ 0 \ 0];
46 r = 108;
47 \text{ us} = 25.04;
48 Ts = 5;
49 I = 0;
50
51 % Results init %
52 \text{ vecT} = [0:5:24*60];
uu = zeros(length(vecT),1);
54 Xi = zeros(length(vecT),6);
55 \text{ Xi}(1,:) = x0;
56 yprev = Xi(1,4);
58 % Test with meal %
  d0 = zeros(length(vecT),1);
60\, % 50 is the size of the meal we divided by 1000 because TA told us
d0(1) = 200/1000;
62
63
   for i=1:(length(vecT)-1)
64
       % Set y % we add some noise, the PID hits lower than expected
       y = Xi(i,4) + abs(normrnd(0,10));
65
66
       % Calc PID
67
        [u,I] = PID(I, r, y, yprev, us, Kp, Ti, Td, Ts);
68
69
       if u<0
           u = 0;
70
71
       uu(i) = u;
72
73
74
       % Solve ODE
       dxdt = @mvpfun;
75
       [T,X] = ode15s(dxdt, [vecT(i) vecT(i+1)], Xi(i,:),[], u, d0(i)/Ts, parm);
76
77
        % Assign previous y
78
79
       if (i > 1)
           yprev = Xi(i-1,4);
80
81
       else
82
            yprev = Xi(i,4);
       end
83
84
        % Save results
85
       Xi(i+1,:) = X(end,:);
87
  end
```

```
88
89 % Plot concentrations
90 figure
91 plot(vecT, Xi(:,4))
92 title('Glucose concentration (d(1) = 200, d(t>1) = 0)')
93 xlabel('Time (min)')
94 ylabel('Concentration (mg/dl)')
   % For this part we still get very high concentrations %
96
97
98 %% Used for PID plot
99 G = cell(3,1)
100 %% Used for PID plot
101 G{3} = Xi(:,4)
102
103 figure
104 plot(G{1})
105 hold on
106 plot(G{2})
107 hold on
108 plot(G{3})
109 title('Glucose concentration (for Ki = 1000, Kd = 1)')
110 xlabel('Time (min)')
ylabel('Concentration (mg/dl)')
legend('Kp = 0.01', 'Kp = 0.1', 'Kp = 0.2')
113
114 %% Minimize phi as a function of bolus
115
   % [Problem 7] %
116
x0 = [1.2458 \ 1.2458 \ 0.0101 \ 108.2115 \ 0 \ 0];
u0 = zeros(length(vecT),1);
119
   d0 = zeros(length(vecT),1);
120 d0(1) = 200/1000;
121 phi = zeros(100,1);
122 bol_size = [1:1:100] *100;
123
124
    % test phi function over bol sizes %
   for i = bol_size/100
125
        u0(1) = i/10;
126
127
        phi(i) = phifun(x0, u0, d0, parm);
   end
128
129
_{\rm 130} % we determine minimum and optimal bolus size %
phi_min = phi(find(phi == min(phi)));
optimal_bol = find(phi == min(phi)) *100;
133
134 figure
135 semilogy(bol_size, phi)
136 xlabel('Bolus size')
137 ylabel('Phi value')
138
   title('Glucose Penalty Function (GPF)')
139
140 %% Optimal bolus size for different meals (takes long time to run)
141 % [Problem 8 9] %
142
x0 = [1.2458 \ 1.2458 \ 0.0101 \ 108.2115 \ 0 \ 0];
u0 = zeros(length(vecT),1);
d0 = zeros(length(vecT), 1);
146 phi_min = [];
147 optimal_bol = [];
   bol_size = [1:1:100] *100;
148
149 meal_size = [100:5:150]/1000;
150
152 % loop over meal sizes %
```

```
for j = meal_size*1000
153
154
    d0(1) = j/1000;
155
    phi = zeros(100,1);
156
157
         % test phi function %
         for i = bol_size/100
159
             u0(1) = i/10;
 160
             phi(i) = phifun(x0, u0, d0, parm);
161
         end
162
163
    % we determine minimum and optimal bolus size %
164
    phi_min = [phi_min phi(find(phi == min(phi)))];
    optimal_bol = [optimal_bol find(phi == min(phi))*100];
166
167
168
    end
169
170
    %% Interpolation
171
    pval = polyfit(meal_size, optimal_bol, 4)
172
173
    %% Function for PID
174
175
    % [Problem 3] %
    function [u, I_new] = PID(I,r,y,y_prev, us, Kp, Ti, Td, Ts)
176
177
178
    e = y - r;
179
180 Pk = Kp*e;
181 Ki = (Kp*Ts)/Ti;
182 Kd = (Kp*Td)/Ts;
183 Dk = Kd*(y-y\_prev);
184
185 % I_new is the integral we supply %
186 I_new = I+Ki*e;
187 u = us + Pk + I + Dk;
188
189
190
    %% Function for MVP
191
192
    % [Problem 1 2] %
    function dxdt = mvpfun(t,x,u,d,parm)
193
194
    dxdt = [u/(parm(1)*parm(3)) - x(1)/parm(1);
195
             (x(1)-x(2))/parm(2);
196
197
             -parm(4) *x(3) + parm(4) *parm(5) *x(2);
             -(parm(6)+x(3))*x(4)+parm(7)+(1000*x(6))/parm(8)*parm(9);
198
199
             d-x(5)/parm(9);
             (x(5)-x(6))/parm(9);
200
201
202
    end
203
204
    %% Function for Rho
    % [Problem 6] %
205
206
    function rho = rhofun(G, G_bar, G_min, Kappa)
207
208
    temp1 = G - G_bar;
209
    temp2 = max(G_min - G, 0);
210
    rho = 0.5*temp1.^2 + 0.5*Kappa*temp2.^2;
212
213
214
215 %% Function for Integral
216 % [Problem 6] %
217
```

```
218
   function Int = EulerInt(T, Y)
219
    dT = T(2:end) - T(1:end-1);
220
221
    Int = sum(Y(1:end-1).*dT);
222
223
224
   %% Phi Function
225
226 % [Problem 6] %
227
228
   function [phi, rho, G] = phifun(x0, u0, dmeal, parm)
229
230
   % PID parameters %
_{231} Kp = 0.01;
232 Ti = 1000;
233 Td = 1;
234
235 % Initializations %
236 %x0 = [1.2458 1.2458 0.0101 200 0 0];
237 r = 108;
238 us = 25.04;
239 u = us;
240 \text{ Ts} = 5;
241 I = 0;
243 % Results init %
244 \text{ vecT} = [0:5:24*60];
245 uu = zeros(length(vecT),1);
246 Xi = zeros(length(vecT),6);
247 \text{ Xi}(1,:) = x0;
   yprev = Xi(1,4);
248
249
250
    for i=1:(length(vecT)-1)
         % We only give meals on i = 1 in this project
251
252
         % For i = 1 we only give in bolus 'u0' and not PID 'u'
        if (i == 1)
253
254
             % Set y % we add some noise, the PID hits lower than expected
             y = Xi(i,4) + abs(normrnd(0,10));
255
256
257
             % Solve ODE
             dxdt = @mvpfun;
258
             [T,X] = ode15s(dxdt, [vecT(i) vecT(i+1)], Xi(i,:),[], u0(i)*1000, dmeal(i)/Ts, parm);
259
260
             % Assign previous y
261
262
             if (i > 1)
                yprev = Xi(i-1,4);
263
264
                 yprev = Xi(i,4);
265
266
267
268
             % Save results
269
             Xi(i+1,:) = X(end,:);
270
             \mbox{\$} Set y \mbox{\$} we add some noise, the PID hits lower than expected
             y = Xi(i,4) + abs(normrnd(0,10));
272
273
             % Calc PID
274
             [u,I] = PID(I, r, y, yprev, us, Kp, Ti, Td, Ts);
275
276
             if u<0
277
                 u = 0;
             end
278
             uu(i) = u;
279
280
             % Solve ODE
282
             dxdt = @mvpfun;
```

```
283
            [T,X] = odel5s(dxdt, [vecT(i) vecT(i+1)], Xi(i,:),[], u, dmeal(i)/Ts, parm);
284
285
            % Assign previous y
            if (i > 1)
286
                yprev = Xi(i-1,4);
287
            else
               yprev = Xi(i, 4);
289
290
            end
291
            % Save results
292
293
            Xi(i+1,:) = X(end,:);
294
        end
295
   end
296
297 % Calculate penalty function %
298 G = Xi(:,4);
299 G_bar = 108;
   G_{\min} = 70;
300
301 Kappa = 10^6;
302
   rho = rhofun(G, G_bar, G_min, Kappa);
303
304
   % Integrate to find phi %
305
306
   phi = EulerInt(vecT', rho); %vecT or T from ODE
307
308
309 end
```