

Sistema de Apoyo a la Toma de Decisiones Mejorado por Gemelos Digitales en Diabetes Tipo 1 con Terapia MDI

Carlos Builes, Laura Lema, Hernan Alvarez, and

José García-Tirado

Department of Diabetes, Endocrinology, Nutritional
Science, and Metabolism (UDEM)



jose.garcia@unibe.ch

Thanks

Prof. Jose Omar Silverman- Retana

Internacionalización de la estrategia de investigación del SDCA



midt
regionmidtjylland
**Steno Diabetes
Center Aarhus**



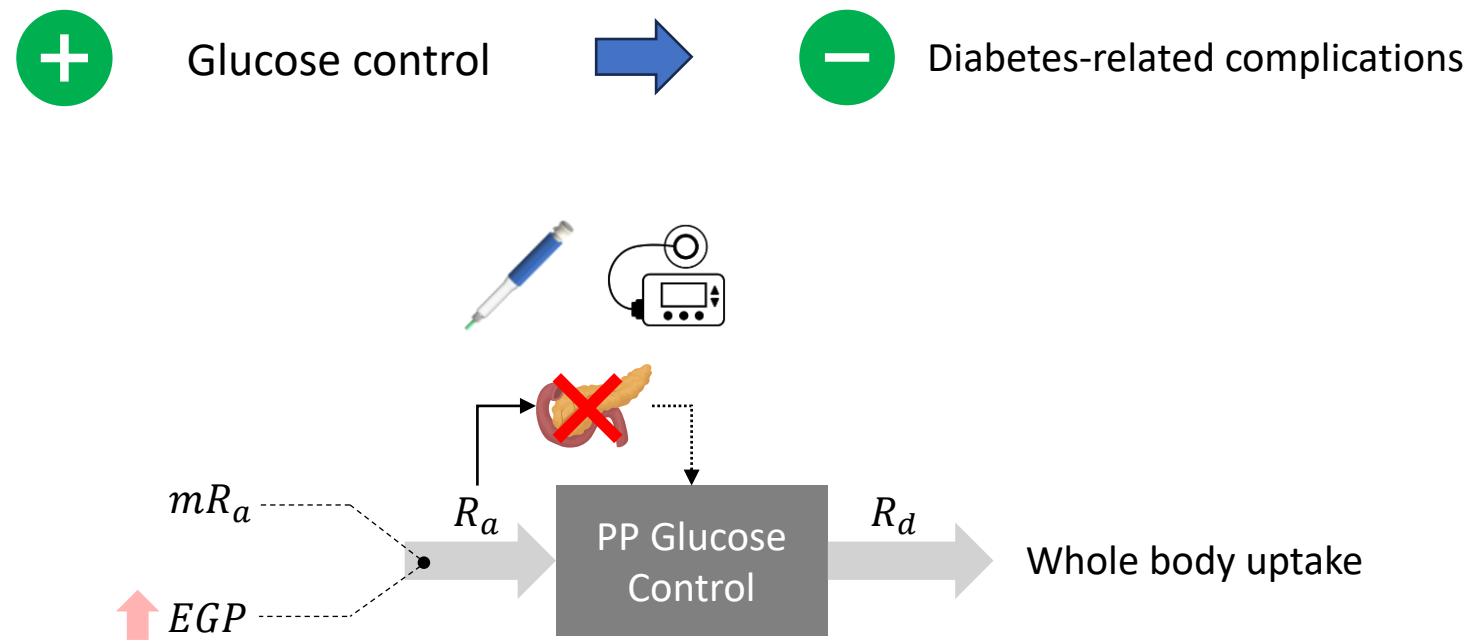
AARHUS
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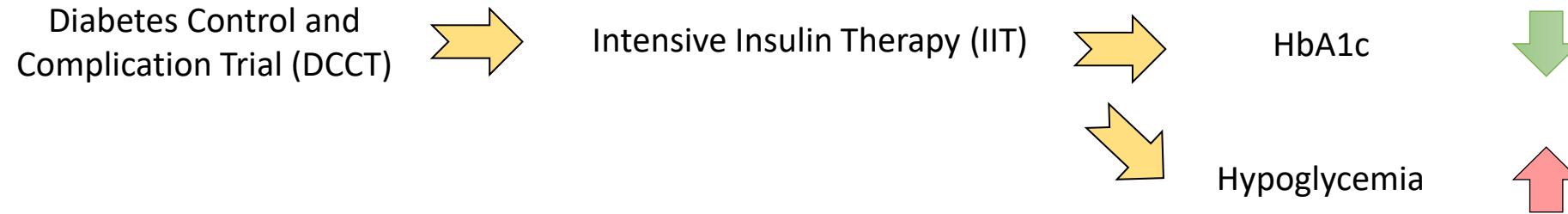
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Background

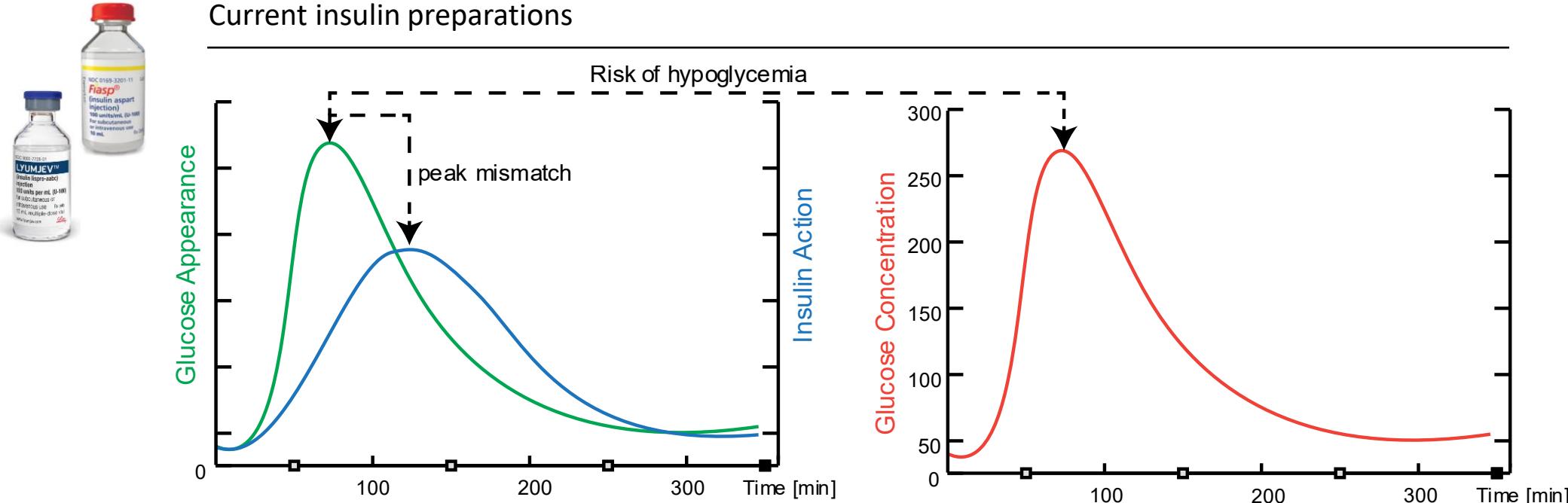
“All models are wrong, but some are useful.” *George P. E. Box*

People with Type 1 Diabetes (PwT1D) need a lifelong insulin replacement (MDI or CSII) to keep glucose levels in the desired range.





Current insulin preparations



u^b

Background

Current Landscape

YPSOMED
SELF CARE SOLUTIONS



CamAPS/FX

diabeloop



DBLG1

TIDEPOOL



APP

βeta βionics



iLet (insulin-only)

Medtronic



670G, 770G, 780G

TANDEM[®]
DIABETES CARE



Control-IQ

Insulet[™]



Omnipod 5

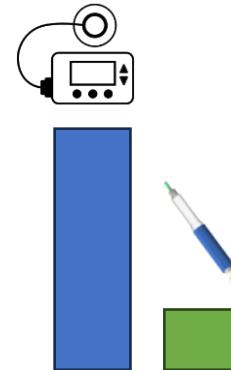
Background

Current Landscape

While developed countries are reaching high levels of technology adoption, countries in development are lagging behind:

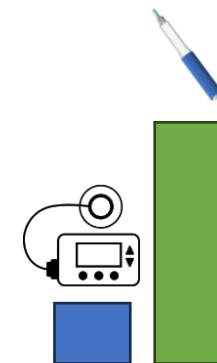
(US and Europe)

50-70%



LATAM, Asia, Africa

10-20%



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Mathematical Models and the Medical Digital Twin Technology

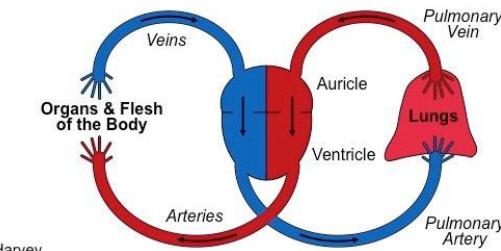
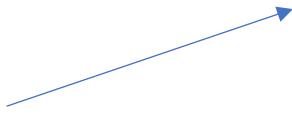
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What is a Model?

“A model is an imitation of reality; a representation of a system, entity, phenomenon, or process” [a]

Subclasses, according to Batzel et al. [b]:

a. Conceptual models

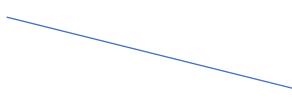


Harvey's circulation model (1628) [c]

b. Physical models



c. Mathematical models



$$\Sigma: \begin{cases} \dot{x} = f(x, u, d, \theta, t) \\ y = g(x, u) \end{cases}$$

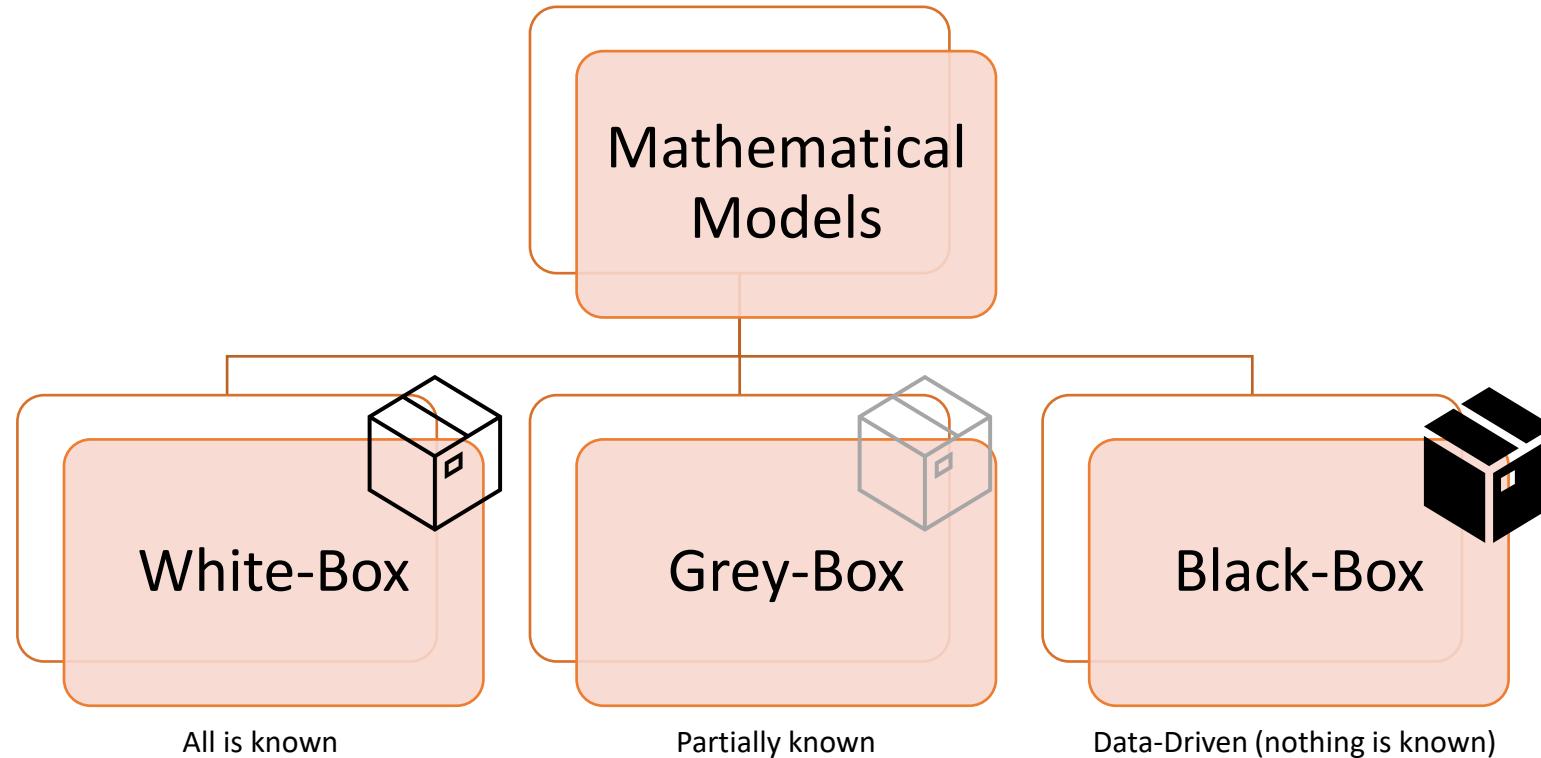
[a] Kaizer JS, Heller AK, Oberkampf WL. 2015. Scientific computer simulation review. *Reliab. Eng. Syst. Saf.* 138:210–18

[b] Batzel J, Bachar M, Karemaker JM, Kappel F. 2012. Merging mathematical and physiological knowledge: dimensions and challenges.

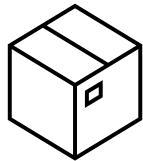
[c] Schultz SG. 2002. William Harvey and the circulation of the blood: the birth of a scientific revolution and modern physiology. *News Physiol. Sci.* 17:175–80

What is a Model?

According to where the equations come from:

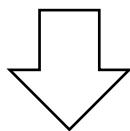


White-Box Models

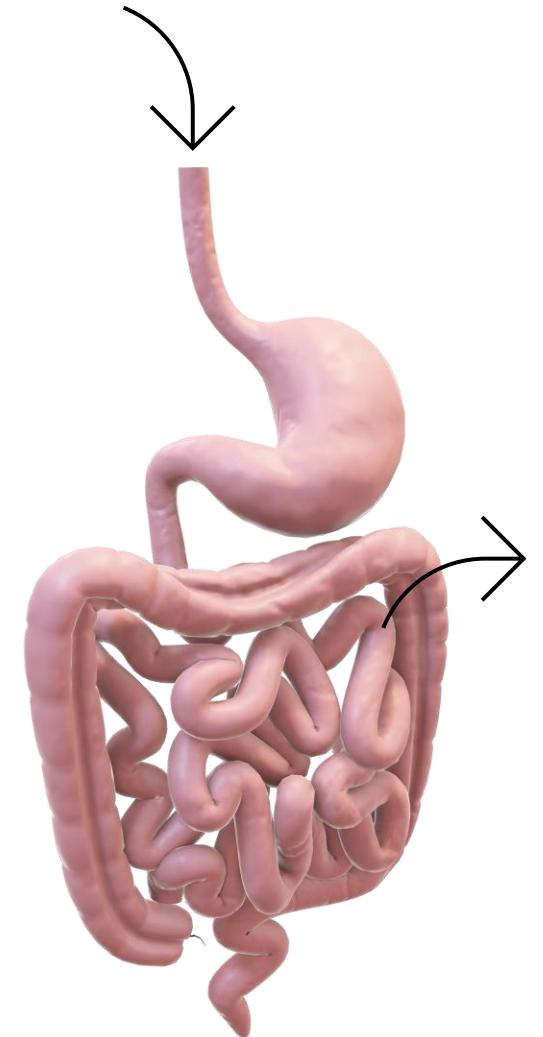


mechanistic – phenomenological – first principles

Their basic derivation comes from system phenomena or mechanisms such as mass, energy, and momentum transfer.



$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{net change} \\ \text{of quantity in time} \end{array} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{flow in} \\ \text{through boundary} \end{array} \right\} - \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{flow out} \\ \text{through boundary} \end{array} \right\} \\ + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{net} \\ \text{generation} \end{array} \right\} - \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{net} \\ \text{consumption} \end{array} \right\}.$$

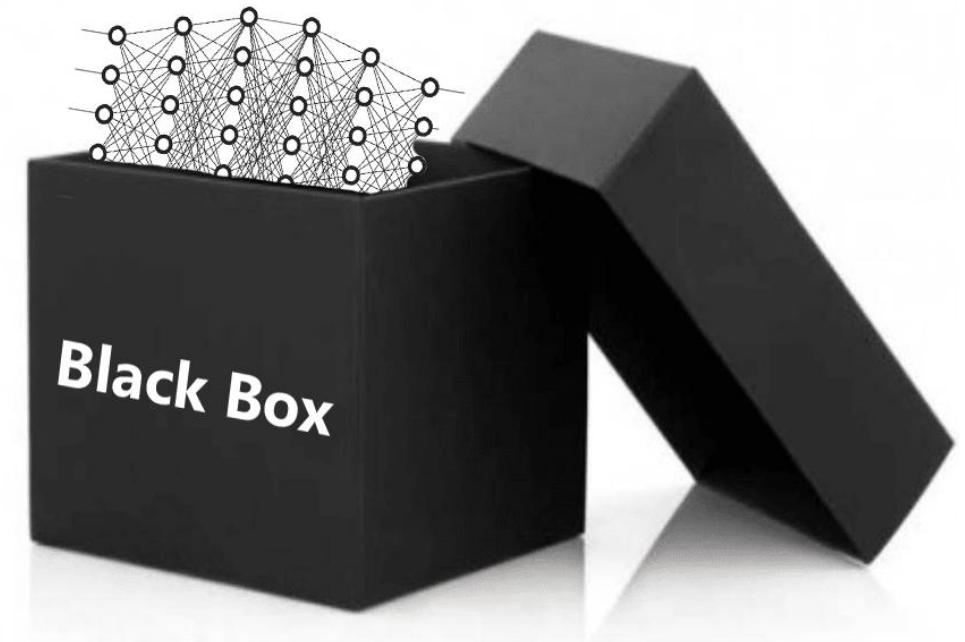




empirical – input/output

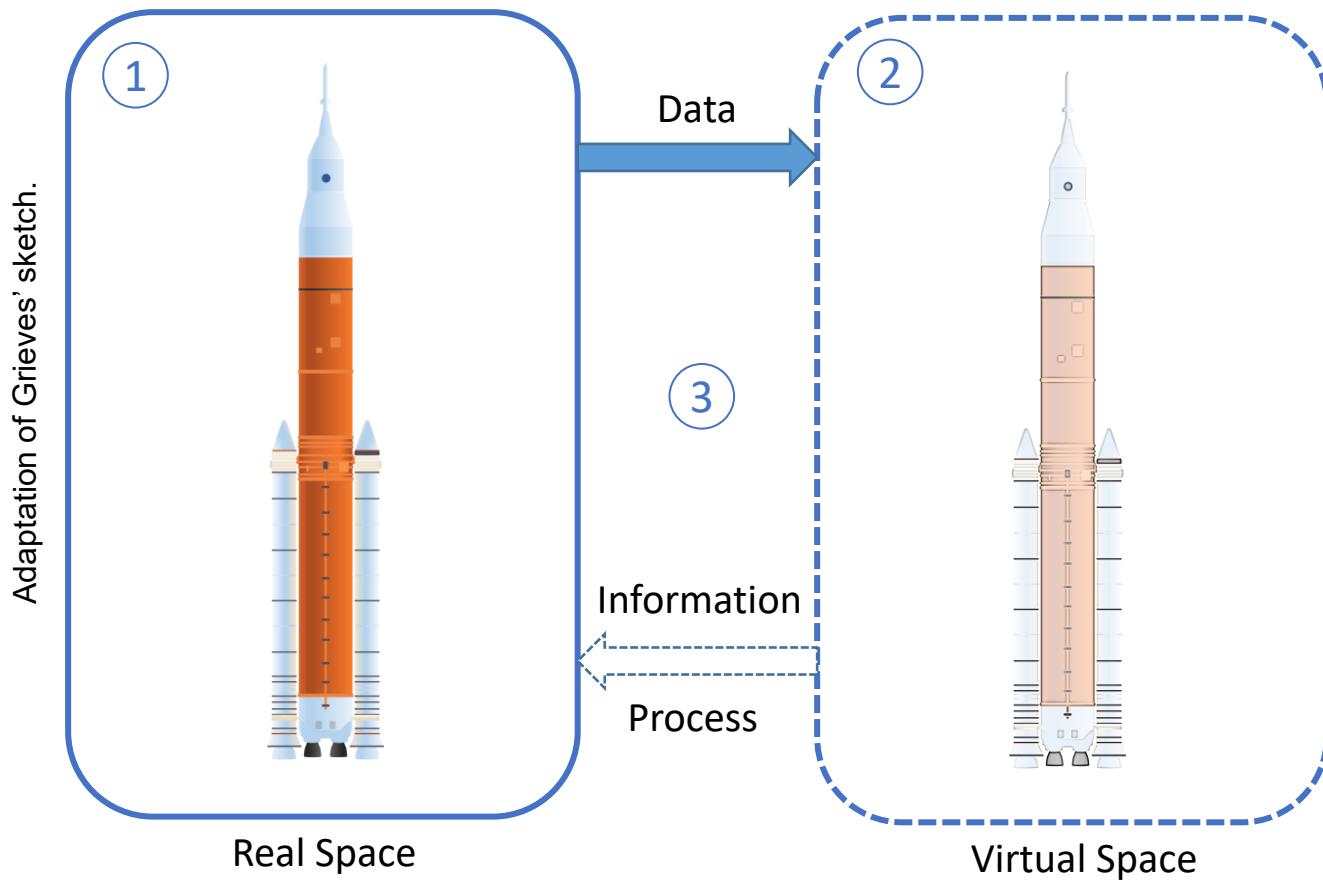
Are the result of experiment and observation (equation fitting where the parameters have little or no physical meaning)

- Time series (lots of...)
- Neural networks
- Transfer functions
- Deep Learning
- Machine Learning
- Recommendation engines
- Predictive analytics
- NLP / Text mining
- Natural language generation
- Etc...



The Digital Twin

The concept of a virtual, digital equivalent to a physical product, or the Digital Twin (DT) was introduced by M. Grieves in 2003 at the University of Michigan (in a lecture).



In the following two decades, there has been a tremendous progress in

1. Amount, richness, and quality of the information.
2. Computational capacity.



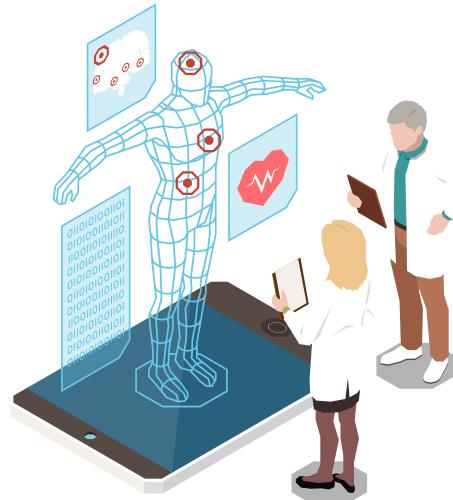
Key enablers of
Precision Medicine

The Digital Twin (Medicine)

DTs can be defined as (physical and/or virtual) machines or computer-based models that are *simulating, emulating, mirroring, or “twinning”* the life of a physical entity, which may be an object, a process, a human, or a human-related feature [d].

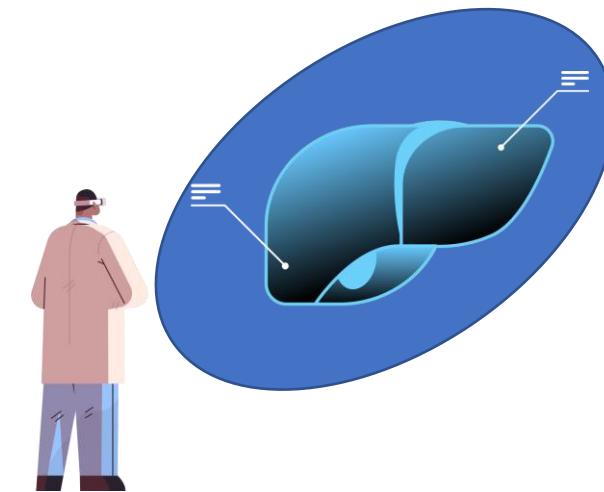
As such, DT in Medicine does not need to be a virtual copy of the entire individual

Whole body



VS

Part of the body



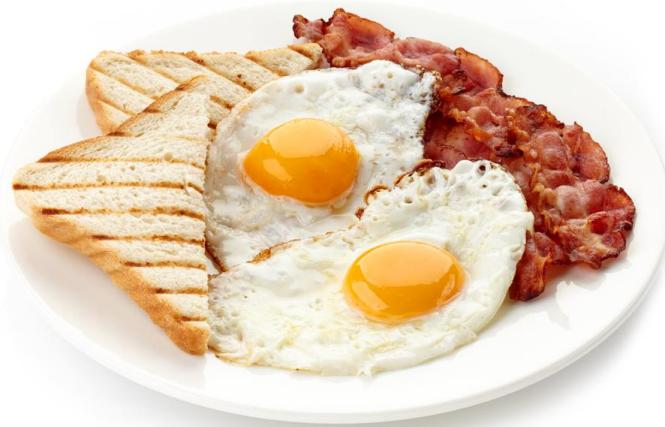
[d] Barricelli, B. et al A Survey on DT: Definitions, Characteristics, Applications, and Design Implications.

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Decision Support System (DSS) to Assist PwT1D with Meal Bolusing

3

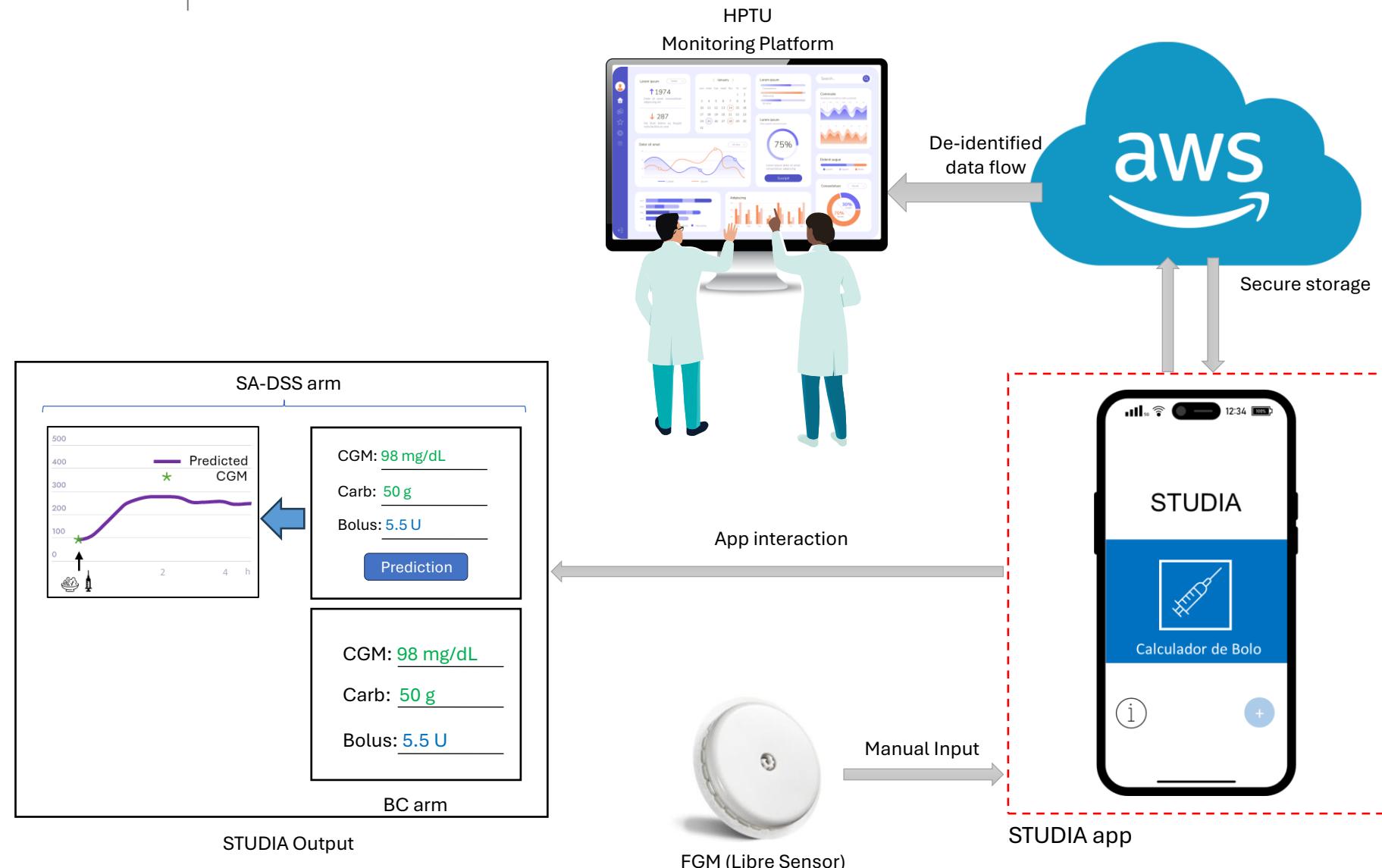
Several times per day, in the mind of a PwT1D:



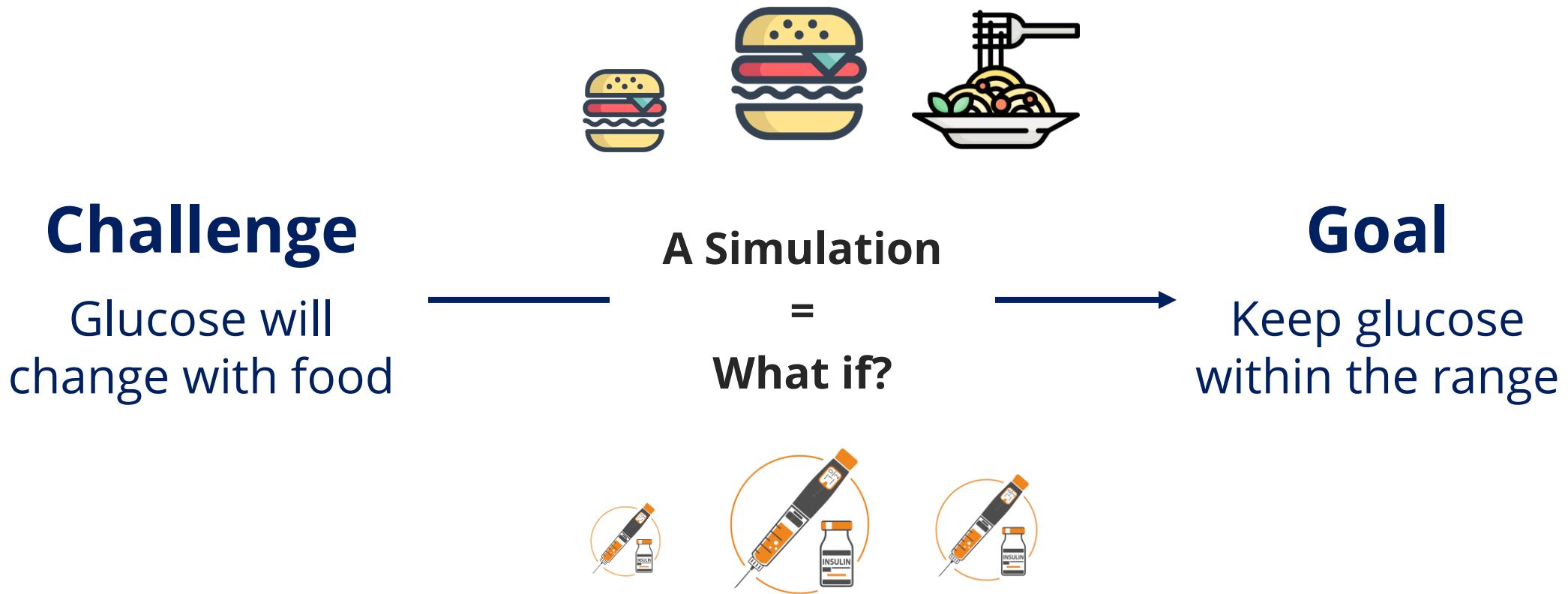
1. Decide what to eat
2. Monitor the BG level
3. Estimate the carb content
4. Inject insulin as a function of
2. (CF) and 3. (CR)

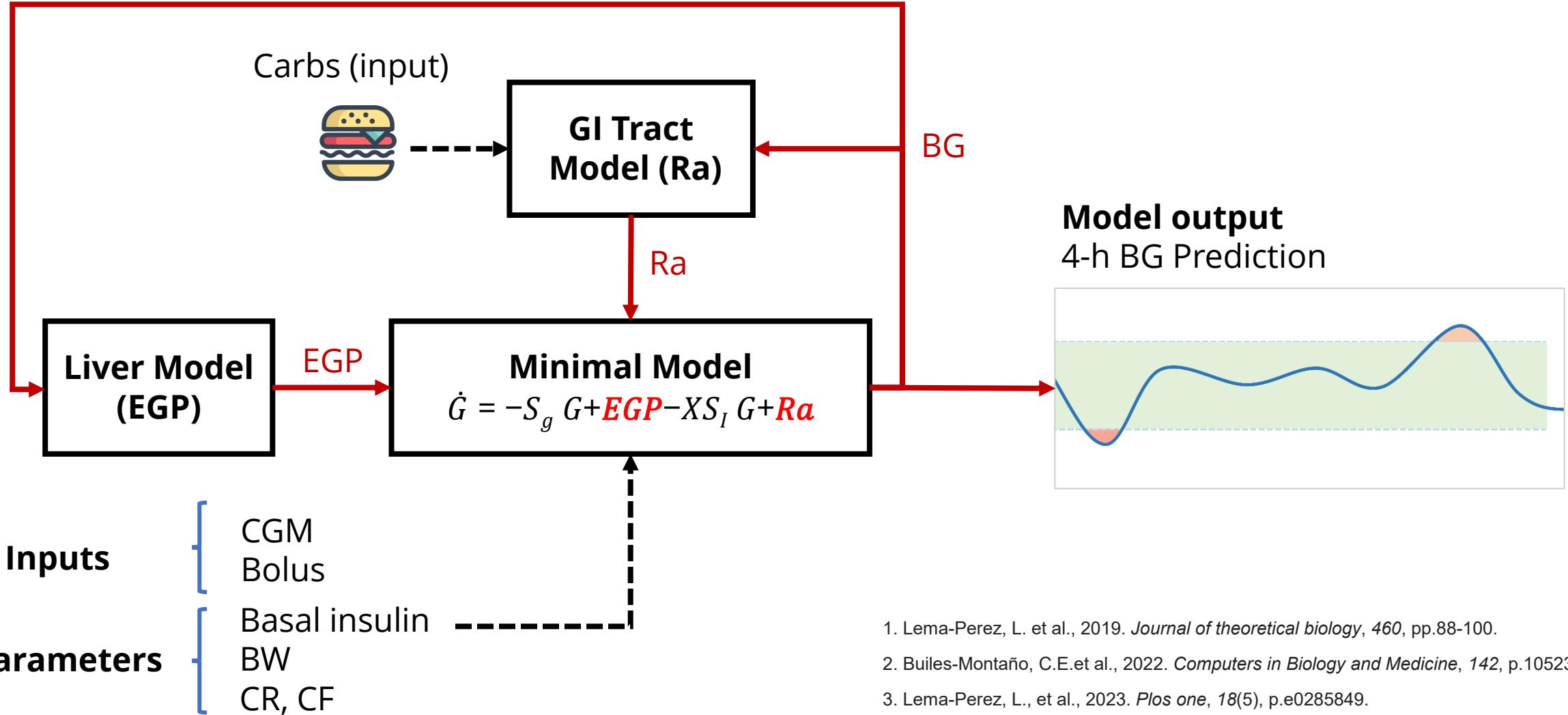


Some studies have shown systematic estimation errors ~ 20%



Carb counting as a decision-making process





The Study

ClinicalTrials.gov: NCT05181917

Randomized parallel-arm clinical trial

- age 18 – 70 years old, with T1D >1yr
- User of CGM

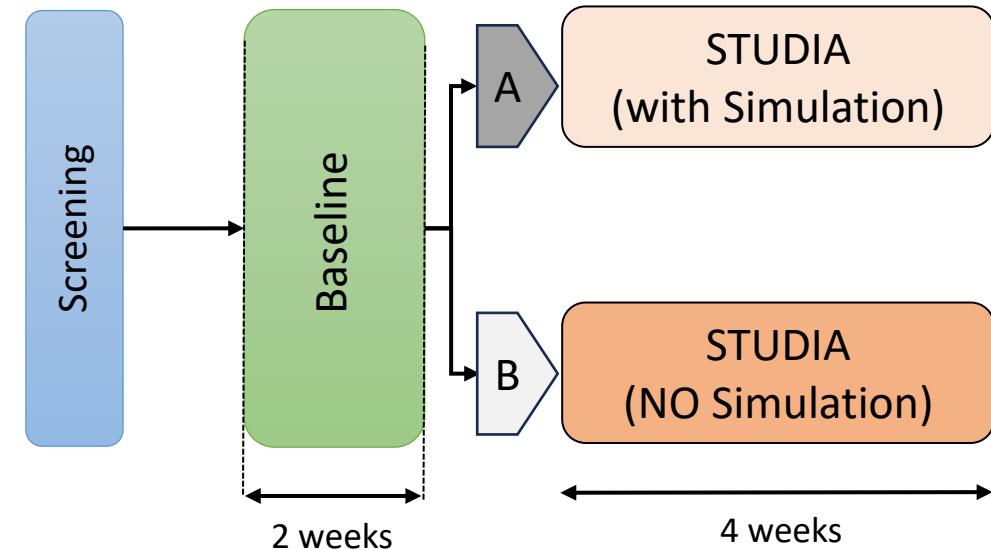
4 weeks data collection (home)

- CGM, insulin, carb estimation

Home portion (four weeks)

At every meal:

- Scan the sensor
- Enter the BG into the app
- Estimate carbs
- Run



Baseline characteristics

	Control (N=14)	STUDIA (N=14)
Age	26.0 (23.0 - 42.5)	39.5 (32.3 - 54.8)
Sex		
Female	8 (57.1)	6 (42.9)
Male	6 (42.9)	8 (57.1)
Timen in range	59.9 (20.8)	63.4 (23.7)
Time counting carbohydrates		
Less than a year	1 (7.1%)	2 (14.3%)
More than a year	13 (92.9%)	12 (85.7%)
Education		
Secondary	5 (35.7%)	3 (21.4%)
Post-Secondary	9 (64.3%)	11 (78.6%)
Insulin pump users	2 (14.28%)	1 (7.14%)
Glycated hemoglobin	7.29 (1.00)	7.27 (0.873)
Coefficient of variation	36.4 (32.8, 40.2)	33.6 (28.4, 36.8)
DTSQ	28.5 (26.3, 29.8)	28.5 (23.3, 31.5)

Recruitment

Phase	# participants
Assessed	68
Withdrew (before)	32
Screen fail	8
Randomized	28
Dropped-off	0
Finished	28

Results

Table 2. Primary and secondary outcomes*

Outcome	Control (N=14)	STUDIA (N=14)	Estimated Adjusted Difference (95%CI)	P Value
Change in TIR	-3.71±12	7.93±11.3	6.95 (3.51 to 10.39)	<0.001
Change in TBR level 1	1.93±2.89	-1.64±2.10	-1.10 (-2.20 to -0.20)	0.022
Change in TBR level 2	0.71±0.80	-0.28±0.56	-0.11 (-0.39 to 0.17)	0.422
Change in TAR level 1	1.43±13.3	-3.93±13.6	-3.21 (-7.67 to 1.25)	0.396
Change in TAR level 2	2.61±2.5	1.78±1.68	-1.01 (-3.03 to 1.0)	0.303
Change in CV	-1.09±3.4	0.0357±7.7	0.38 (-2.41 to 3.17)	0.787

*Metrics are computed using all data from the scans.

Results

We assessed the prediction ability of the model within the control group (the ones who were not ‘persuaded’ by simulations)

$$RMSE_j = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\{y_i\}_j - \{\hat{y}_i\}_j)^2}{n}}$$

y_i : i -th CGM measurement

\hat{y}_i : i -th element of the model prediction

14 participants (**Control Group**)

Total: 277 meals  ~ 20 meals per person per 30 days  ~ 22% of the expected use

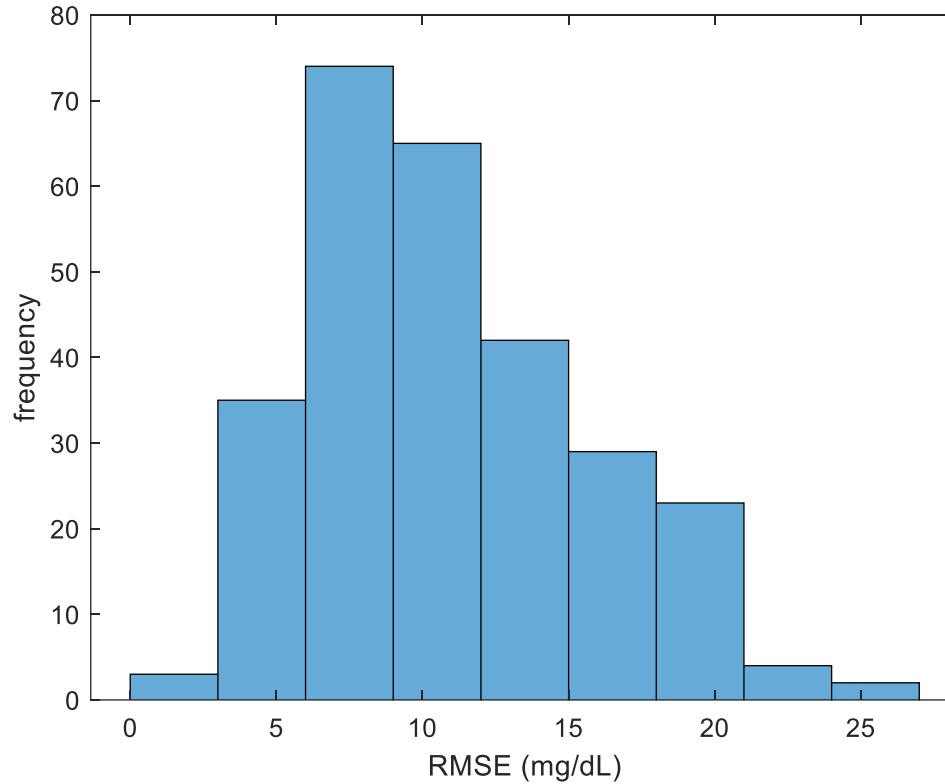
We selected for the analysis 10 participants: >50% of the expected use

Results

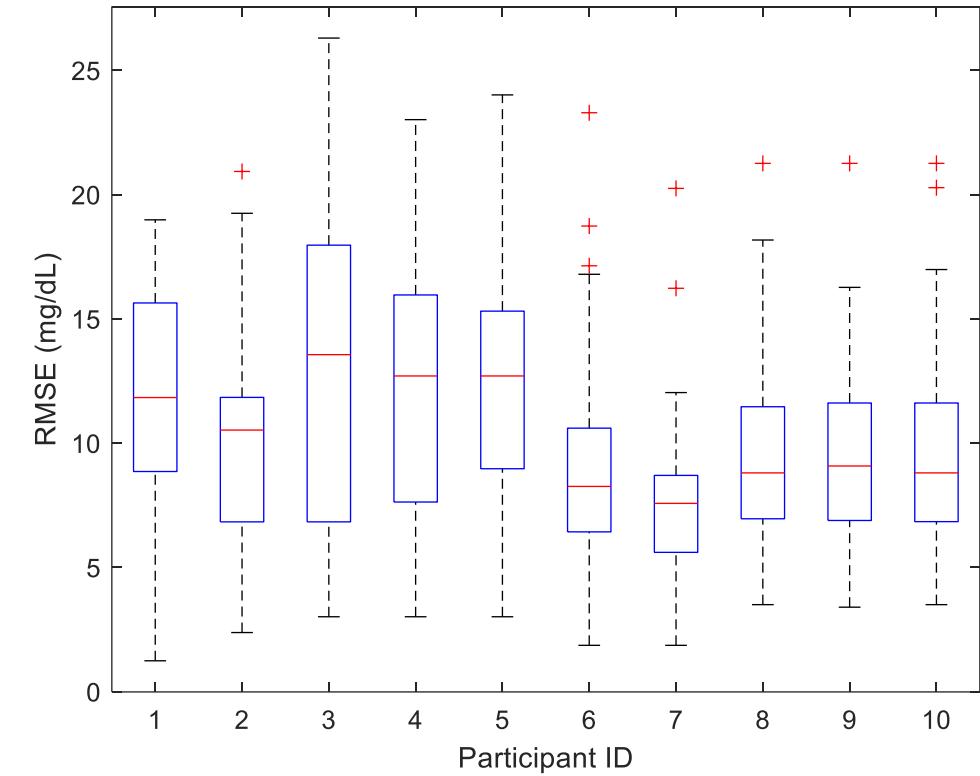
$\min(\text{RMSE}) = 1.24 \text{ mg/dL}$

$\max(\text{RMSE}) = 26.29 \text{ mg/dL}$

All the participants

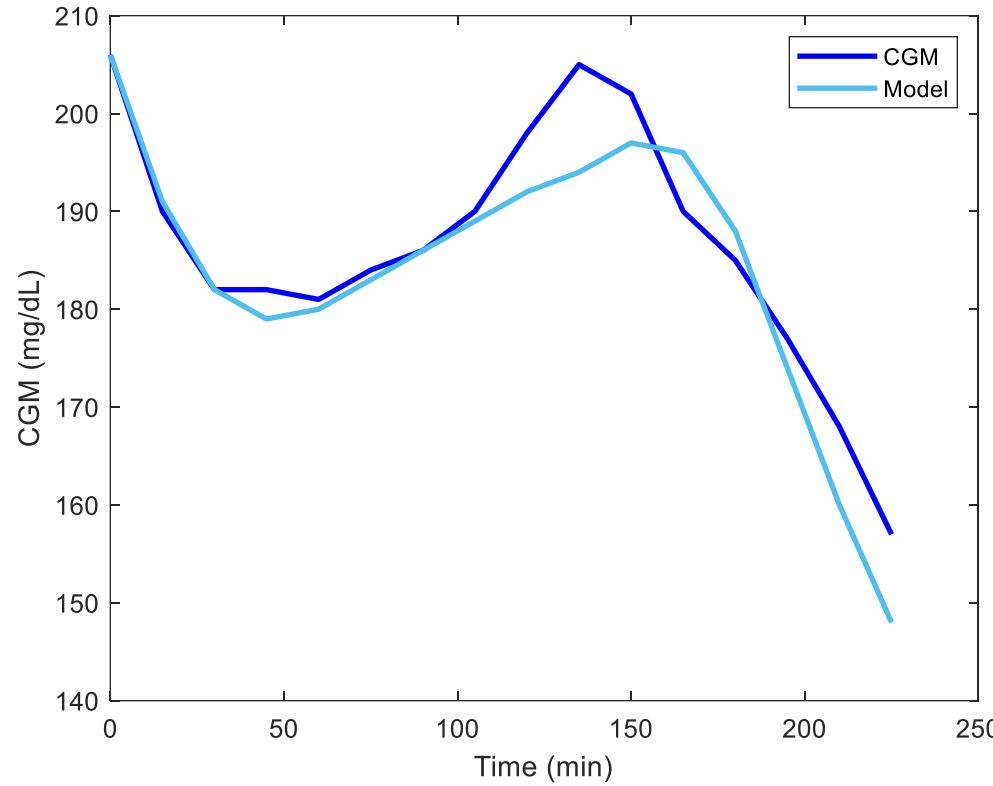


RMSE's Per Participant



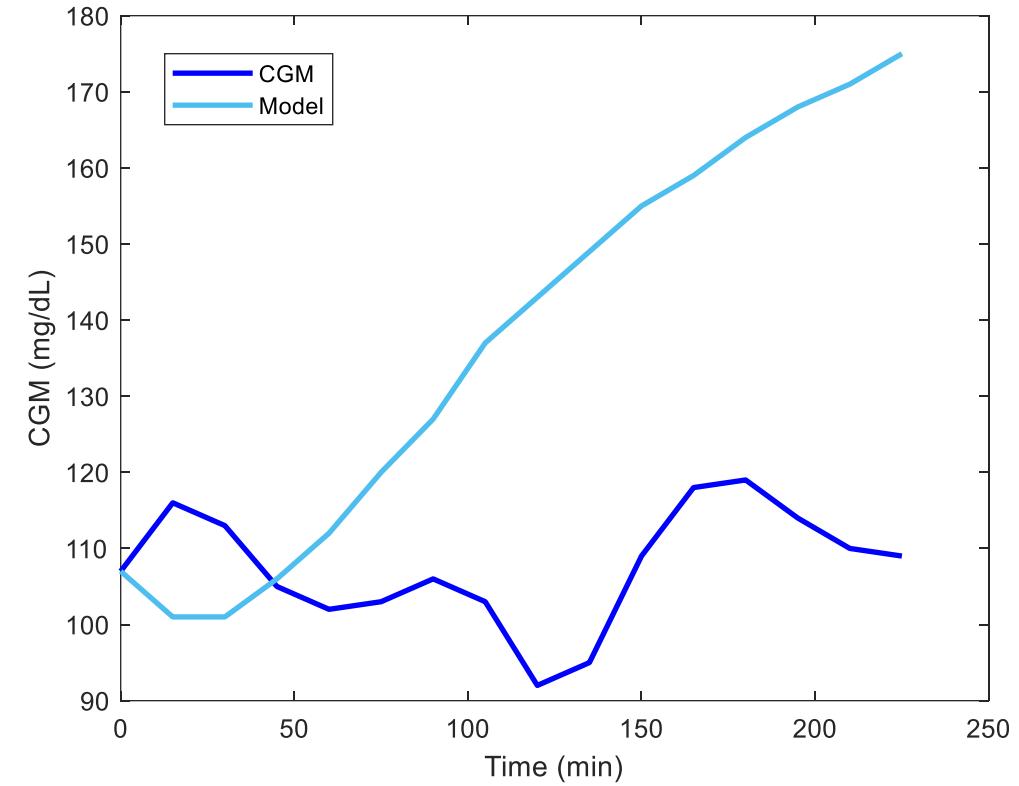
Results

Best RMSE = 1.24 mg/dL



Participant 1

Worst RMSE: 26.29 mg/dL



Participant 3

Discussion

- Simulation of meal scenarios appears as a promising tool for conscious decision-making
- Although most CTs using decision-support systems in T1D have shown marginal benefits, our approach reached a clinically significant increase in TIR in a suboptimally controlled population.
- Although simulation accuracy may seem not indispensable in this context, it has the potential to impact user trust
- We achieved an overall median RMSE of 10.5 mg/dL in 277 4-h predictions, which is on the lower side of what's typically observed from the literature 15-30 mg/dL (~2h predictions).
- Future work will include studies with rtCGM and a more established methodology for model calibration/validation

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Thanks!

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Laura Lema, PhD.

Hernan Alvarez, PhD.

Asociación Colombiana de Endocrinología (ACE)

The participants

