# Physiology-Guided Blood Glucose Predictive Model Using Minimal Blood Glucose Dynamics

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Abstract: Modelling blood glucose and insulin dynamics using mathematical equations requires a deep understanding of individual physiology and relying on numerous predefined parameters necessitating extensive clinical and personal data, making direct use of these models for blood glucose prediction computationally intensive and inaccurate. Though data-driven models are more efficient and require no individual physiology, they produce predictions that are inconsistent with known glucose-insulin interactions. Thus, this study aims to investigate the potentiality of physiological models integrated with data-driven approach for predicting blood glucose level. It intends to extract simple physiological dynamics of blood glucose kinetics and incorporate them into a data-driven model, with less reliance on detailed individual data. The result demonstrated that the model integrating physiological modelling of insulin and meal absorption significantly improved the performance particularly in larger window size that enabled the model to better capture longer-term trends and temporal dependencies.

# **1** INTRODUCTION

Type 1 Diabetes is a chronic metabolic condition characterized by disrupted blood glucose homeostasis due to the lack of endogenous insulin production (Georga et al., 2012). As a result, subjects with type 1 diabetes must rely on exogenous insulin to compensate for this deficiency (Oviedo et al., 2017). To maintain blood glucose levels within the desired range and to reduce the risk of complications such as hypoglycaemia or hyperglycaemia, one must follow a dietary guideline, administer insulin in right amount, and proper exercise regimen (Zhu et al., 2022). One promising technology for managing blood glucose is continuous glucose monitoring (CGM), which tracks glucose levels in real time and is often integrated into automated insulin delivery systems (Della Cioppa et al., 2023). These automated systems, known as closed-loop control systems or artificial pancreas, use predictive models to forecast future blood glucose levels and adjust insulin delivery accordingly.

Thus, accurate prediction of blood glucose levels is vital for management of blood glucose. The use of

mathematical equations that represent the body's blood glucose dynamics to make accurate predictions require detailed knowledge of individual physiology, such as a person's glucose absorption rates, insulin sensitivity, and how their body handles glucose during activities like eating or fasting (Oviedo et al., 2017) (Woldaregay et al., 2019). They also depend on a large number of pre-set parameters, requiring extensive clinical and personal data about the individual. On the other hand, data-driven models focus more on self-monitored historical data such as past glucose levels, insulin doses, and food intake and not require as much detailed physiological information (Woldaregay et al., 2019). While this approach is easier to implement as it requires less knowledge about the individual's specific physiology, it has limitations. These models are often less consistent with actual physiological processes and are of a black box nature. Also, many tend to lose accuracy over longer timeframes (Ghimire et al., 2024).

Previous study (Pawar et al., 2021) suggests that combining simplified physics-based models with neural network architecture can lead to improved

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predictive accuracy and reduced uncertainty. In line with this principle, this paper investigates a hybrid modelling paradigm. The hybrid model integrates the subcutaneous insulin absorption kinetics and the meal absorption dynamics within the predictive model for blood glucose levels, as opposed to relying on complex and data intensive full mathematical models. It combines the strengths of physiological models (which reflect real glucose dynamics) with machine learning (ML) techniques (which can handle large amounts of historical data). The primary aim is to obtain more accurate blood glucose predictions that remain consistent with physiological principles and can be interpreted. Additionally, it intends to provide a better understanding of its potential strength for future expansion.

The remainder of this article is organized as follows. The existing works are discussed in section 2. The description of the proposed method is presented in section 3. Section 4 covers the data sets used, data processing, and experiments setup, including the evaluation metrics. In Section 5, experimental results and analysis are provided. Finally, the article is concluded in Section 6.

## 2 RELATED WORKS

Several studies (Bertachi et al., 2018; Contreras et al., 2018; Contreras et al., 2017; Erdős et al., 2023; Georga et al., 2012; Mougiakakou et al., 2006; Sun et al., 2020) have developed models, integrating mathematical models of blood glucose dynamics with data-driven models. Study (Georga et al., 2012) enhanced performance of the Support Vector Regression (SVR) model by incorporating additional features such as the rate of glucose appearance from meal intake (Ra), plasma insulin levels (Ip), and cumulative glucose appearance over a specific period (SRa). These features, obtained from meal and insulin models of blood glucose dynamics, serve as inputs, provide a straightforward way to incorporate domain knowledge into learning models. In a similar approach, study (Mougiakakou et al., 2006) included plasma insulin and glucose appearance rate from meals as input features through insulin kinetics and meal models, respectively. Additional features such as insulin on board i.e., the remaining active insulin, carbohydrates on board i.e., remaining carbs yet to be converted to glucose, glucose appearance rate from carbs, rate of glucose appearance in the blood from guts, and activity on board were employed in studies (Bertachi et al., 2018; Contreras et al., 2018; Contreras et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2020) to refine ML models. Additionally, study

(Erdős et al., 2023) proposed a hybrid method that sequentially combines predictions from both mathematical and ML models, where the ML model predicts residuals based on phenotypic features, which are then subtracted from the predictions made by mathematical model. The results demonstrated that the personalized physiological models consistently outperformed the data-driven and the hybrid model approaches. Personalized physiological models may inherently capture individualized critical processes and features that data-driven models struggle to individualize or interpret effectively. Although these studies have shown improvements in performance through the integration of various physiological knowledge, they fail to analyse the potential of integration across different contexts, a gap that is addressed in this study.

## **3 PROPOSED METHOD**

To explore the potential of the physiological inputs, a straightforward model architecture was designed, consisting of two Long short-term memory (LSTM) layers with 64 units each, followed by a fully connected layer with 64 neurons as the final layer, as illustrated in Figure 1. LSTM networks are a specialized type of recurrent neural networks (RNNs) designed to effectively capture long-term temporal dependencies in sequential data (Aliberti et al., 2019), comprising memory cells, input, forget, and output gates that dynamically manages information flow, preserving the essential patterns and insights over long sequences, enhancing their effectiveness for time series prediction (Afsaneh et al., 2022).

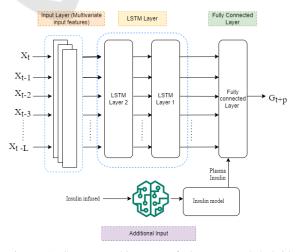


Figure 1: System architecture of the proposed hybrid model.

Different configurations of this model are used to assess their potential performance. Predictive model incorporating physiological inputs (insulin plasma (IP) and carb on board (COB) including glucose (G)) is labelled as PM, while the model without physiological input is referred to as W-PM, that includes bolus (Bo), basal (B), and carb (C) including G. The models are further divided into input mode and output mode: in input mode, the final layer receives no additional inputs, while in output mode, an additional input feature, IP, is included in the final layer.

When bolus insulin is administered, it doesn't instantly lower blood glucose; rather, it enters the bloodstream, peaks after a certain time, and gradually dissipates (Lehmann & Deutsch, 1992). Based on similar physiology, the assumption is that if ML model incorporates insulin dynamics that provides a temporal representation of insulin's effect, reflecting how insulin concentration changes over time as is seen in the body's physiological process, it allows for a more nuanced understanding of how blood glucose will respond. For a simple bolus-only ML model that considers only the dose and the timing of insulin administration, however, is challenging to capture how insulin gradually influences blood glucose. Figure 2 depicts the bolus administered dose (Marling & Bunescu, 2020) and its timing curve along with the insulin dynamics following the insulin dose, where administered bolus is observed at a specific time step, while the insulin dynamics profile exhibits a gradual decay of insulin over time. It illustrates how insulin levels rise and fall, giving a clear indication of how glucose levels might influence. Additionally, giving a second bolus dose before the previous dose has fully dissipated results in cumulative insulin effects in the bloodstream. By modelling plasma insulin, it is possible to track these overlapping, enabling precise predictions with increased insulin activity.

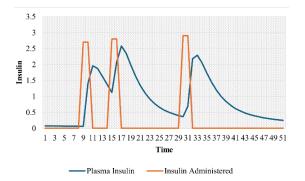


Figure 2: Insulin decay curve given by the physiological insulin model.

Thus, based on this physiology, the proposed model architecture incorporates the insulin dynamics to provide a temporal representation of insulin's effect on how insulin concentration changes over time, where we utilized the Lehmann model (Lehmann & Deutsch, 1992) that aligns with the physiological process of insulin absorption dynamics as given in equation (1):

$$\frac{dI(t)}{dt} = \frac{\frac{s.t^{s}T_{50}^{s}D}{tT_{50}^{s}+t^{s}]^{2}}}{V_{i}} - k_{e}I(t)$$
(1)

where, I(t) is plasma insulin concentration,  $k_e$  is the first-order rate constant of insulin elimination, and  $V_i$  is the volume of insulin distribution, t is the time elapsed from the injection,  $T_{50}^s$  is the time at which 50% of the dose, D, has been absorbed and s is a preparation-specific parameter defining the insulin absorption pattern of the different types of insulin. The insulin dynamics that give plasma insulin is based on rapid-acting insulin, which is known to have an immediate effect on reducing blood glucose levels with fast absorption and action. This makes it particularly relevant for scenarios where quick glucose adjustments are needed after a meal.

In addition to this, instead of using the discrete carbohydrate data into the model, the carbohydrate on board based on the meal intake is estimated to convert it to a time action profile of absorption, similar to the insulin dynamics as given by (2) (Dave et al., 2021). It estimates the amount of carbs not yet appeared in blood glucose. The curves in Figures 3 show how the carbs decay over time.

$$COB_T = MAX(0, C - R_{COB} * (t - t_C - \Delta_{COB})) \quad (2)$$

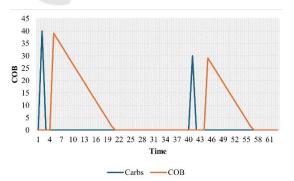


Figure 3: The carbohydrate decay curve is given by the physiological meal model.

Here,  $t_C$  denote the time at which *C* amount of carbohydrates taken.  $R_{COB}$  is the carbohydrate absorption rate, which is 0.5g/min after initial delay ( $\Delta_{COB}$ ) of 15min and *t* is the current time. These time action profiles of insulin and carbs are fed into the PM model as additional inputs along with glucose in initial or final layer as shown in Figure 1. The plasma insulin in the output mode is included in the final layer of the model as shown in Figure 1, to act as a corrective mechanism for the model to correct the prediction at the last minute. This architecture implies that the model first makes the prediction using input features and then applies correction based on the amount of insulin present or absorbed.

## **4 EXPERIMENTS**

#### 4.1 Datasets

The models were trained and tested using OhioT1DM (Marling & Bunescu, 2020) dataset that encompasses eight weeks of data from twelve patients with type-I diabetes. It involves seven males and five females within the age range of 20 to 80 years. The dataset contains blood glucose measurements recorded every five minutes, comprising total 166532 samples, using Medtronic Enlite CGM sensors, along with bolus and basal insulin administered via Medtronic 530G insulin pumps at regular intervals. Also, the dataset is supplemented by other daily events such as meal and exercise info reported by the patients via a smartphone app or fitness band. The proposed study explores the data on blood glucose levels, insulin and carbohydrate intake. The OhioT1DM dataset was originally provided with separate training and testing data for each of the 12 patients, which were directly used for model training and evaluation. The training data was further divided into an 80% training subset and a 20% validation subset. The model, trained on the training subset, was evaluated on the test set, which consisted of new, unseen data.

#### 4.2 Experimental Setup

To address missing data and standardize it, resampling and normalization were applied. The dataset was resampled to align all signals to a uniform 5-minute sampling grid. Data with consecutive gaps exceeding 30 minutes were excluded to prevent inaccuracies in prediction trajectories. Missing values were imputed using linear interpolation; however, no imputation was performed on the test set. Standardized normalization was applied to scale the data to a mean of zero and a standard deviation of one.

Additionally, to investigate the relationship between blood glucose levels and their prior values and to find the right window size, the autocorrelation function (ACF) (Semmlow, 2012) was utilized. As ACF describes how well a signal correlates with adjacent part of itself, the plot of the ACF on blood glucose levels revealed a strong correlation between the current glucose levels and glucose levels from the previous day as shown in Figure 4. Based on this analysis, a sliding window of 24 hours was used instead of a 2-hour historical data window to predict blood glucose levels 30 minutes in advance, as opposed to the literatures (Cui et al., 2021; Ghimire et al., 2024; Oviedo et al., 2017). The model was trained for 100 epochs with 10 repetitive runs using Huber loss (Tong, 2023) as the cost function. The adaptive moment estimation (Adam) optimizer was employed to minimize the loss function. Optimization parameters included a learning rate decay of 0.1, a decay patience of 10, and early stopping patience of 30.

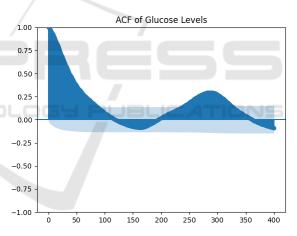


Figure 4: Auto-correlation function of blood glucose with its previous values of 24hrs.

#### 4.3 Evaluation Metrics

Model performance was assessed using the root mean square error (RMSE), a standard metric that quantifies the similarity between predicted and actual blood glucose levels, defined as follows:

RMSE = 
$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^{N} (G(t + PH) - \hat{G}(t + PH))^2}$$
 (3)

Here, *N* represents the number of test samples, *G* denotes the actual blood glucose levels,  $\hat{G}$  is the predicted glucose level, and PH stands for the

prediction horizon—the time frame for which blood glucose levels are forecasted. A lower RMSE value indicates better model performance in glucose prediction. For validation, we employed a 30-minute prediction horizon (PH), implies that the model predicts blood glucose levels 30 minutes ahead.

## 5 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 presents the results for the proposed model with a 30-minute PH across various input feature combinations, both with and without a physiological model. The results indicate that the PM model attained a lower RMSE than the W-PM model, demonstrating the significance of the use of physiological inputs. While adding insulin plasma in the final layer did not reduce RMSE in either approach, it enhanced the prediction certainty compared to models without plasma insulin, as is also illustrated in Figures 5 and 6 with highlights. No significant difference in RMSE was observed between input and output modes within the PM incorporating physiological model. Overall, dynamics led to a performance improvement of over 10%, and adding physiological dynamics in the final layer contributed further to prediction certainty.

Table 1: Summary of the RMSE(Std) result for different	
combinations of input features.	

Predictive		
Models	Input Mode (in features)	RMSE(Std)
W-PM	Output (G, BO, C, B) (IP)	20.154 (1.32)
(24hrs)	Input (G, BO, C, B)	20.142 (2.08)
PM (24hrs)	Output (G, CO) (IP)	17.606 (0.13)
	Input (G, CO, IP)	17.526 (0.159)
W-PM (2hrs)		19.235 (0.135)
	Input (G, BO, C, B)	
PM (2hrs)		19.437 (0.233)
	Input (G, CO, IP)	

PM: Physiological Model, W-PM: Without Physiological Model, G: Glucose level, BO: Bolus insulin, C: Carbohydrate, B: Basal insulin, CO: Carbohydrate on Board and IP: Plasma Insulin

From the results, it is evident that using physiological models offers no significant improvement when a shorter 2-hour window is employed. The potential reason for this is the continuous data sampled at 5-minute intervals using physiological modelling for insulin and meal,

successfully created smoother transitions between data points, allowing the models to see gradual changes rather than abrupt shifts. With a 24-hour window, this continuous representation enabled the model to better capture longer-term trends and temporal dependencies. In contrast, for the discrete insulin and carbs data, model struggled to identify patterns over longer windows due to the limited number of data points within each window, which constrained the model's ability to learn these trends effectively. However, with a 2-hour window, the difference between the continuous and discrete is minimal and there is enough overlap between the neighbouring data points within the window, making the abrupt changes in the discrete insulin and carbs data less impactful on model performance.

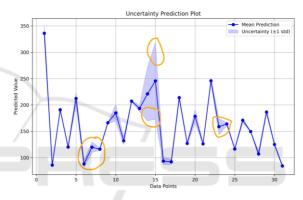


Figure 5: Uncertainty prediction plot of input mode of W-PM model.

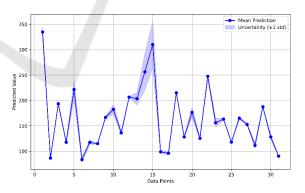


Figure 6: Uncertainty prediction plot of output mode of PM model.

To further explain the output of the predictive model, Shapley additive explanation (SHAP), a model agnostic explainability approach is utilized. SHAP plots as shown in Figures 7 and 8 for both models highlight that blood glucose is the most influential feature in driving the model's decisions, with carbs (or COB in the case of the PM model) being the second most important. Bolus and basal have a minimal to no impact on the output predictions, though bolus shows a slightly higher influence. A higher SHAP value for COB compared to carbs indicates that the PM model assigns significant importance to COB in predicting future blood glucose levels. This also suggests that COB has a notable positive effect on predictions, aligning with the physiological process where an increase in COB leads to an increase in future blood glucose levels, demonstrating the prediction to be consistent with the physiology. This observation supports the superior performance of the PM model, which benefits from the inclusion of physiological inputs compared to the W-PM model.

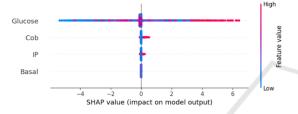


Figure 7: Summary plot of SHAP analysis of PM model.

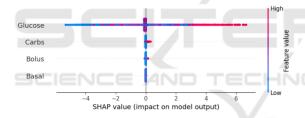


Figure 8: Summary plot of SHAP analysis of W-PM model.

## **6** LIMITATIONS

Despite potential results, this study has some limitations. The study modelled the physiological process using only bolus insulin, excluding basal insulin, which plays a crucial role in blood glucose regulation. Also, as the study focused on a simplified physiological model, incorporating more complex physiological processes could provide deeper insights and improve prediction accuracy. In addition, the SHAP analysis highlighted which input features contribute most to the model's predictions, revealing associations identified by the model, but cannot provide the underlying causal mechanisms. Therefore, for drawing causal conclusions additional analysis such as counterfactual analysis can potentially be beneficial.

### 7 CONCLUSIONS

This study introduced a straightforward integration of a physiological model with a data-driven approach for predicting blood glucose levels. The findings demonstrated that this hybrid model, incorporating a simple physiological model, has the potential to enhance predictive performance, also increase certainty when integrated into the final layer. Moreover, the analysis highlights that incorporating the physiological process of gradual change demonstrates its significance with larger window sizes. This inclusion notably improved model performance by preserving temporal dynamics that would otherwise be lost in discrete data lacking a physiological basis. Additionally, blood glucose is identified as the most influential contributor for prediction output, followed by COB, demonstrating the importance of physiological dynamics.

Given the study's demonstrated potential for physiological integration, future work could focus on incorporating complex physiological modelling into the model to enhance its representation of physiological processes, predictive accuracy and explainability.

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