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DYNAMICS OF THE GLUCOSE-INSULIN-GLUCAGON SYSTEM

BY

JOSEPH P. HARTMANN

A THESIS

PRESENTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF
THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

0F

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING

AT

NEW JERSEY INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

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ABSTRACT

A computer model for the Dynamics of the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System has been developed for a 17.5 kg canine using the Continuous Systems Modeling Progam (CSMP) for the 360 Computer System. The major body components controlling the glucose dynamics (liver, pancreas, body muscle, blood flow, and body fluid compartments) have been modeled in terms of either their production, absorption, or transport of glucose, and the concentration levels of both the hormones and substrates perfusing the body component. A set of mneumonics has also been developed to label the hundreds of constant and variable terms required to describe a complex system of this magnitude. The dynamic characteristic of the liver's glycogen storage capability has also been modeled in terms of stored glycogen and the blood plasma concentration levels of both glucose and insulin perfusing the liver.

Once the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System had been modeled, it was first tested under basal conditions with three different levels of glycogen stored in the liver to check the dynamics of the liver glycogen storage. As expected, when the stored glycogen was below the equilibrium level, blood glucose was converted to liver glycogen, and when the stored level was greater, glycogen was converted back to glucose and returned to the blood.

The Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model was then tested with an almost instantaneous glucose load of 8.75 grams of glucose, elevat-

ing the glucose concentration level to approximately 3.5 mg of glucose per ml of blood plasma. This high glucose concentration level returned exponentially over the next 120 minutes to the basal concentration level of 100 mg/100 ml, agreeing generally with in vivo test data.

The Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model was then tested by injecting insulin into the model at different rates over an extended period of time and observing the rate at which the glucose concentration fell, its final level, and the rate at which the glucose concentration level returned to the basal concentration level once the insulin load had been removed. Here again, there was generally good agreement with in vivo test data, not only for the glucose concentration dynamics but also for the rate at which glucose was produced by the liver during the period when insulin was being injected into the model.

APPROVAL OF THESIS

DYNAMICS OF THE GLUCOSE-INSULIN-GLUCAGON SYSTEM

BY

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FOR

DEPARTMENT OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING
NEW JERSEY INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

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APPROVED:	

NEWARK, NEW JERSEY
MAY, 1977

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This brief paragraph is to acknowledge the many authors of the research material that made this thesis possible. Also, to give thanks to the New Jersey Institute of Technology for making available the almost unlimited use of their computer facilities.

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SECTION I

INTRODUCTION

Glucose is the primary energy source for the central nervous system (CNS), the principal component of which is the brain. An adequate and stable supply of glucose must be maintained by the body to keep the brain and all the body functions controlled by the CNS operating properly. Should the blood level fall below approximately 50 mg of glucose per 100 ml of blood (50 mg/100 ml) (30), a hypoglycemic condition results and many of the critical body functions are impaired. There is the possibility of convulsions, coma, and even death. When the body is unable to maintain the glucose concentration level below 150 mg/100 ml (29), the disease known as diabetes is indicated. Again, the disease finally affects the central nervous system with death resulting if not treated.

To maintain the blood glucose concentration at its basal level of approximately 100 mg/100 ml (16, 27) for the many varying conditions of stress, exercise, and food ingestion, the body provides many complex systems to control both the metabolism and synthesizing of glucose.

A model of the dynamics of the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System would be very beneficial for education, diagnostic, and research purposes. The many different effects that hormones and gluconeogenic substrates have upon the dynamics of the glucose concentration of the blood, the glycogen storage of the liver and the body muscle, and the

concentration levels of the various gluconeogenic substrates that are used by the liver to synthesize glucose can be studied without having to sacrifice animals or subject human life to the needless danger of in vivo testing.

The great computational power of today's highly sophisticated computer systems and the very abundant quantity of detailed medical research information that is available for each of the major body components, makes possible the modeling of the dynamics of the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System.

Today's digital computer systems permit the many time and function dependent quantities of a biological system of this magnitude to be calculated continuously on an almost instantaneous basis over the time interval of interest and then to be plotted graphically for visual use.

This thesis is an attempt to model the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System of a 17.5 kilogram dog using the medical research data that has been found, and the Continuous systems Modeling Program (CSMP) of the 360 Digital Computer. Once the system has been modeled, it will be exercised with glucose and insulin loads and the results compared with the in vivo canine test data obtained by Stanley M. Finkelstein, et al, (27) and R. C. de Bodo, et al (16).

The approach taken to develop the model for the dynamics of the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System was to determine the major body components (liver, pancreas, and body muscle) involved in controlling

the blood glucose dynamics and how these body components are affected by the concentrations of various hormones (insulin, glucagon, adrenaline, and glucocorticoids) and gluconeogenic substrates (amino acid, lactate, and glycerol) in maintaining the blood glucose concentration at approximately 100 mg/100 ml.

Since glucose is transported through the body by the blood, it was necessary to determine how the blood is distributed throughout the body and at what rates the blood is supplied to the major glucose body components as well as other parts of the body. It was also necessary to determine the pathway by which glucose travelled (blood plasma-interstitial fluid-intravellular fluid) when leaving the blood to be either converted to glycogen, lactate, or fat inside the cell or temporarily stored as glucose in the blood plasma or interstitial fluid. The volumes of blood plasma, interstitial fluid, and intracellular fluid together with estimates of the transport constants (admittances) of the capillary walls and cell membranes were used to establish system time constants which are the primary factors in the short term dynamics of the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System.

Once the major body components of the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System have been modeled, the Continuous System Modeling Program (CSMP) for the IBM System/360 was used to simulate the entire Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System. CSMP provides a convenient format for the simulation of a differential analog system on the IBM 360 System.

To facilitate converting the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System into the CSMP format, a set of mnuemonics was developed to represent the many input and output variables for all of the functions involved in the dynamics of the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System.

After the CSMP model of the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System was developed, it was exercised by providing both glucose and insulin loads and comparing the simulation outputs with in vivo test results.

SECTION II

PHYSIOLOGY

The basal blood glucose concentration level of approximately 100 mg/100 ml for a canine is maintained at this level by a number of biological mechanisms which are capable of either supplying glucose to or taking glucose from the blood. The blood glucose concentration will rarely go above 150 mg/100 ml in healthy systems even after a heavy carbohydrate or protein meal, and will seldom fall below 60 mg/100 ml, even after strenuous physical exercise.

Glucose Sources

Glucose is capable of being supplied to the blood by three major sources:

- 1. Food ingestion; carbohydrates and protein
- 2. Gluconeogenesis
- Glycogenolysis

Both food ingestion and glycogenolysis are capable of increasing the blood glucose concentration level in a matter of minutes (18), but are not capable of sustaining the increased glucose concentration. Gluconeogenesis is the primary source of glucose when no food is being digested, but is not capable of a quick response to blood glucose requirements, usually requiring fifteen to thirty minutes for glucose derived from lactate (24) and one to two hours for the glucose derived from amino acids (62) (see Figures 1, 2, and 3).

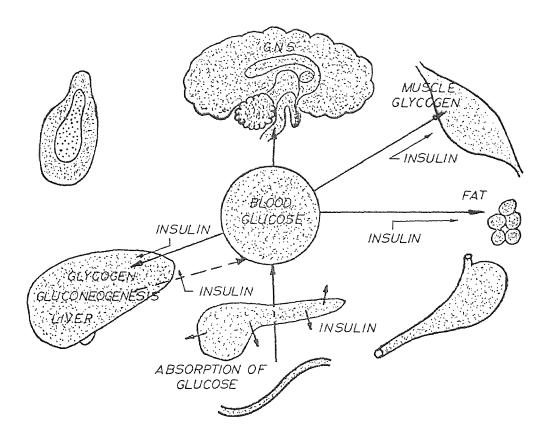


FIGURE 1 ENDOCRINE CONTROL OF GLUCOSE METABOLISM*

FIGURE 1 illustrates metabolism of glucose during periods of dietary intake of excess carbohydrate. The secretion of insulin promotes the snythesis of hepatic and muscle glycogen, the synthesis of fats and depresses hepatic gluconeogenesis. FIGURE 2 depicts the change in the situation at the onst of hypoglycamia. Insulin production declines and muscle and fat tissues are thus deprived of glucose. There is an outpouring of adrenaline from the adrenal medulla which acts at various sits to raise the blood sugar. (a) hepatic phosphorylase is activated; (b) there is a release of lactate from muscle and glycerol from fat tissues which act as raw material for hepatic gluconeogenesis; (c) activates, via the hypothalamus, the secretion of A.C.T.H. by the anterior pituitary gland. There is also secretion of glucagon from the pancreas which reinforces the action of adrenaline on hepatic phosphorylase. FIGURE 3 shows later stages in the response to hypoglycaemia. A.C.T.H. from the anterior pituitary gland activates the adrenal cortex which secretes glucocorticoid hormones. These hormones act in various ways to maintain supplies of glucose for the C.N.S.; (a) they antagonize the uptake of glucose by muscle and fat cells; (b) cause a release of amino acids from muscle which act as raw material for hepatic gluconeogenesis; (c) increase the amounts of those hepatic enzymes concerned in gluconeogenesis.

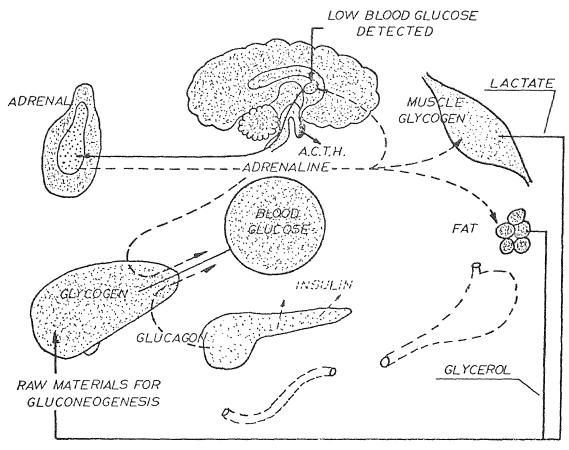


FIGURE 2 ENDOCRINE CONTROL OF GLUCOSE METABOLISM*

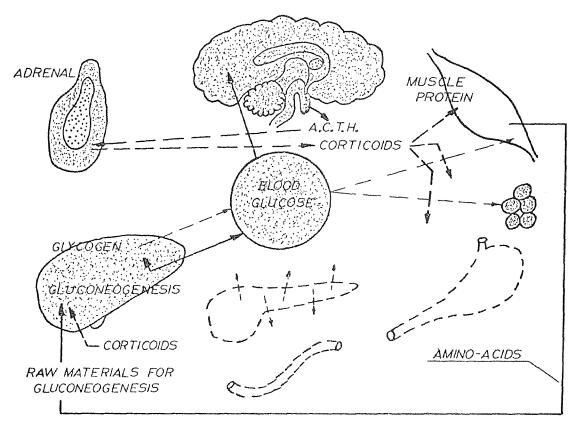


FIGURE 3 ENDOCRINE CONTROL OF GLUCOSE METABOLISM*

^{*}From Clegg & Clegg (13).

Food ingestion. Ingested food carbohydrates are converted directly to glucose by the digestion process and are absorbed by the blood in the alimentary tract. The resulting increased blood glucose concentration is then available for conversion into glycogen in either the liver or body muscle, fat in adipose tissue, or lactate by the red blood cells. All of these conversions are influenced in varying degrees by the insulin concentration level of the blood.

Food protein is digested and converted into amino acids by the alimentary tract. Amino acids, which are one of the major gluco-neogenic substrates, are transported by the blood from the alimentary tract to the liver where they are converted to glucose by gluconeogenesis.

Gluconeogenesis. Gluconeogenesis is the biological mechanism by which the liver is capable of converting the gluconeogenic substrates of lactate, amino acids, and glycerol into glucose. The rate at which glucose is produced from gluconeogenesis is determined by the concentration levels of the hormones: insulin, glucagon, adrenaline, and glucocorticoids. By affecting both the liver and the origin of the gluconeogenic substrates, insulin is capable of inhibiting gluconeogenesis while glucagon, adrenaline, and glucocorticoids all increase the rate of gluconeogenesis.

<u>Glycogenolysis</u>. Glycogenolysis is the biological mechanism whereby the glucose that has been stored as glycogen in the liver and body muscle is converted back to glucose. In the liver, the glycogen

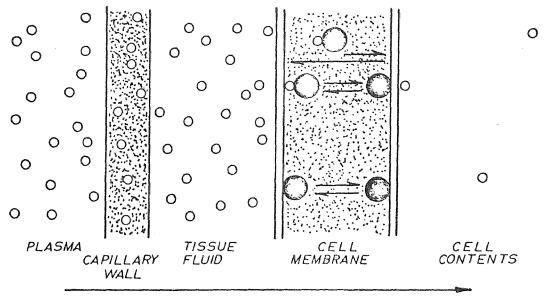
is converted back to glucose under the influence of glucagon while the glycogen stored in the body muscle is first converted to lactate under the influence of adrenaline and then returned to the blood and converted to glucose in the liver by gluconeogenesis.

The glycogen stored in the liver is capable of being very rapidly converted to glucose by the action of the hormone glucagon, approximately 10 gm/hr for a 17.5 kg canine (22, 63). Glycogenolysis in body muscle, release of lactate due to the hormone adrenaline, is a relatively more time-consuming and slower process in the production of glucose due to both the nature of muscle glycogenolysis and the subsequent gluconeogensis in the liver required to convert lactate to glucose (23).

Use of Glucose

The primary uptake of glucose from the blood is by the central nervous system (CNS) with most of the glucose being supplied to the brain. Glucose is supplied to the CNS at an almost constant rate except under the conditions of prolonged fast when body protein is conserved and energy sources other than glucose are made available to the CNS. Glucose is also removed from the blood resulting in synthesis of glycogen in both the liver and body muscle. In body muscle, insulin is involved in an active transport mechanism, (see Figure 4), that carries glucose across the cell membrane from the interstitial fluid into the intracellular fluid of the cell where it is converted to glycogen.

ACTIVE TRANSPORT



GLUCOSE, CONCENTRATION GRADIENT

FIGURE 4*

Body Components

Liver. The liver is the primary body component for maintaining the blood glucose level at approximately 100 mg/100 ml. The liver of a 17.5 kg canine weighs approximately 550 gm (1). It is capable of converting glucose to glycogen at a maximum rate of about 8 gm/hr (18) and can store 19 grams of glycogen (16) which can be converted back to glucose at a near maximum rate of 10 gm/hr (22, 63) when needed to quickly increase the blood glucose concentration.

The supply of blood carrying glucose, gluconeogenic substrates, and hormones to the liver is by way of the portal vein and the

^{*} From Clegg & Clega (13).

hepatic artery (see Figure 5). The portal vein brings blood to the liver at a rate of approximately 532 ml/min from the stomach, intestines, pancreas, and spleen, while the hepatic artery's blood supply of approximately 276 ml/min is directly from the cardiac output by way of the descending aorta.

Under steady state (short term fasting period of twelve to twenty-four hours) the liver produces glucose by means of gluco-neogenesis at a rate of 1.4 gm/hr (see Figure 6). Of this 1.4 gm/hr, 0.4 gm/hr is derived from the gluconeogenic substrate lactate which was produced by the red blood cells from blood glucose in what is known as the "Cori" cycle. The remaining 1.0 gm/hr of liver glucose is derived from the gluconeogenic substrates of amino acids and glycerol at rates of 0.8 gm/hr and 0.2 gm/hr, respectively (8). The kidney glucose contribution is 0.4 gm/hr (20).

The rates of glucose production from both gluconeogenesis and glycogenolysis, and the rate at which glucose is converted to glycogen are controlled by many factors; the primary factors being the blood concentration levels of the gluconeogenic substrates and the hormones insulin and glucagon. Over a short period of time, less than thirty minutes, insulin and glucagon dominate in the control of the blood glucose concentration level, while over longer periods of time, particularly during fasting, these three factors plus the blood concentration levels of adrenaline and glucocorticoid control the rate of glucose production in the liver and; consequently, also the blood glucose concentration level.

BLOOD CIRCULATION

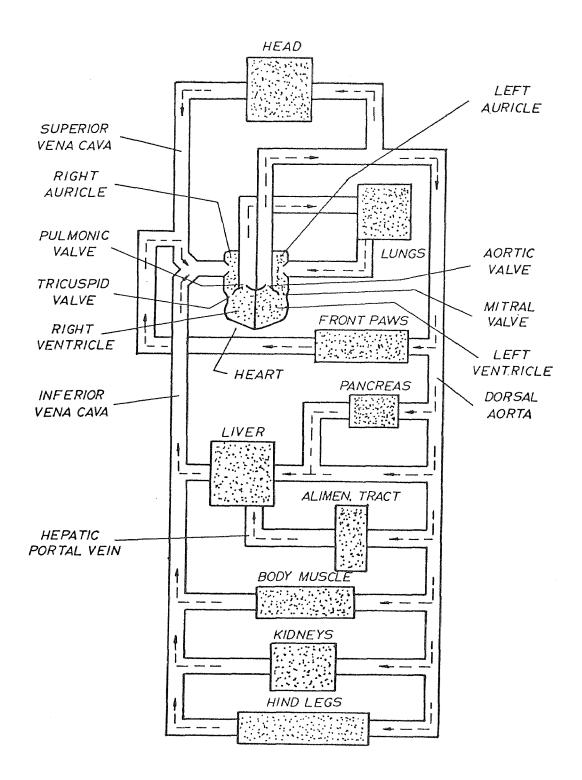


FIGURE 5

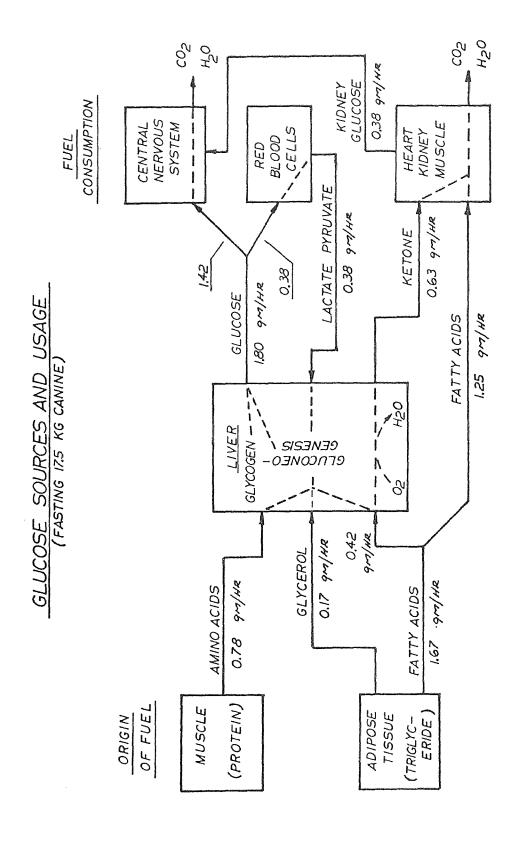


FIGURE 6*

* Extrapolated from Data of Cahill (8).

Pancreas. The function of the pancreas in the regulation of the blood glucose concentration level is to supply the hormones insulin and glucagon to the blood in response to the blood glucose concentration level. High glucose concentration levels will cause increased amounts of insulin and decreased amounts of glucagon to flow from the pancreas into the blood of the portal vein. Low blood glucose concentration levels will have the opposite effect. Insulin output from the pancreas will be decreased and the glucagon output increased.

The pancreas of a 17.5 kg canine weighs approximately 58 grams, has a blood flow through it of approximately 46 ml/min (34) and has basal insulin and glucagon outputs of approximately 170 ng/min and 15 ng/min, respectively, for basal blood concentration levels of 0.5 ng/ml¹ for insulin and 0.06 ng/ml for glucagon. The pancreatic outputs of both insulin and glucagon to a step input of glucose is biphasic, meaning that the initial output response is an overshoot followed by a lower steady state output level that is a more linear function of the glucose concentration level.

High blood insulin concentration levels affect the blood glucose concentration level by reducing the rate of gluconeogenesis in the liver, by increasing the rate at which glucose is taken up in the body muscle to be converted to glycogen, and also by inhibiting the output of the gluconeogenic substrate amino acids. High blood concentration levels of glucagon increase the rates of both gluconeo-

See <u>Derivation of Pancreas Model</u> for details about flow rates and basal blood concentration level for insulin and glucagon.

genesis and glycogenolysis in the liver causing the blood concentration of glucose to also increase.

<u>Body muscle.</u> Body muscle accounts for approximately forty per cent of the total weight of a canine.² The three main functions of body muscle in the dynamics of the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System are:

- 1. Convert glucose, which has entered the muscle cells under the influence of insulin, into glycogen during periods of high glucose concentration levels in the blood. The body muscle is capable of storing approximately 38 grams 3 of glycogen.
- 2. To convert the stored glycogen back to lactate under the influence of adrenaline during periods of low blood concentration levels of glucose, the lactate to be converted to glucose in the liver by gluconeogenesis. Adrenaline is secreted by the adrenal medulla when the CNS senses a low concentration level of glucose in the blood.
- 3. To convert muscle protein to amino acids under the influence of glucocorticoids, again during the periods

²The forty per cent figure for the body muscle of a 17.5 kg dog is based on body muscle comprising forty per cent of the skeleton weight of a 70 kg man. Posefsy, et al, Amino Acid Balance Across Tissue of the Forearm in Postabsorptive Man, Journal of Clinical Investigation, Volume 48, 1969, page 2279

³Thirty-eight grams of body muscle glycogen storage is extrapolated from the 150 grams of body muscle glycogen storage capability for a 70 kg man. Cahill, <u>Starvation in Man</u>, The New England Journal of Medicine, March, 1969, page 669.

of low blood concentration levels of glucose, with the amino acids being converted to glucose in the liver by gluconeogenesis. This is a slow process requiring several hours (62) primarily due to the action of glucocorticoids on muscle protein and the sequence of events that must take place prior to this action (sensing of low blood glucose concentration and release of CRF by the hypothalamus—the secretion of ACTH from the anterior pituitary due to CRF—and then the release of glucocorticoids from the adrenal cortex in response to ACTH). Adrenaline also acts along this same pathway to reinforce the secretion of glucocorticoids from the adrenal cortex (see Figure 7.)

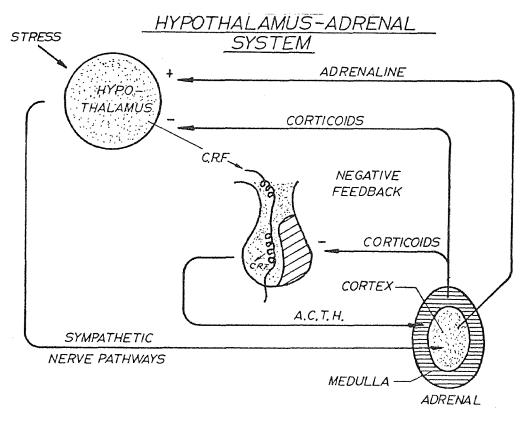


FIGURE 7 *

^{*}From Clegg & Clegg (13).

Substrates

Amino acids. The gluconeogenic substrates—amino acids, lactate, and glycerol—supply the major portion of the raw materials used by the liver to produce glucose. Of the twenty odd amino acids found in the blood, only alanine is significant in gluconeogenesis and the regulation of the blood glucose concentration. Amino acids enter the blood directly from the digestion of protein in the alimentary tract and also from the breakdown of muscle protein. The muscle protein source of amino acid is regulated by both insulin and glucocorticoids. Insulin works to decrease the supply of amino acids from body muscle while glucocorticoids increase the amino acid supply. The effects of insulin requires only thirty to sixty minutes (56) while glucocorticoids require one to two hours (62) and appears to be the primary control of blood glucose concentration levels during short term fasting (less than twenty-four hours).

Lactate. The gluconeogenic substrate lactate also has two sources, the first source being the breakdown of glycogen stored in body muscle under the influence of adrenaline. This is a relatively fast process requiring less than fifteen minutes (26). The second source of lactate is the red blood cells. The red blood cells extract glucose from the blood plasma, convert this glucose to lactate, and then return the lactate to the blood plasma to be converted back to glucose by the liver. This cycle is known as the "Cori" cycle and accounts for approximately twenty per cent of the total steady state output of glucose produced by gluconeogenesis.

Glycerol. The glycerol contribution to the steady state glucose output from the liver is approximately ten per cent. The major source of glycerol is adipose tissue (fat) and is affected by the blood concentration level of adrenaline. The major contribution of glycerol to the production of glucose is during the long term fasting when the normal basal blood concentration level of glycerol is increased by almost a factor of three and becomes one of the major gluconeogenic substrates.

Body Fluids

Blood. Glucose, the gluconeogenic substrates, and the hormones that control all the body functions that regulate the blood glucose concentration level are transported throughout the body by the blood and the circulatory system. The blood volume for a 17.5 kg canine is approximately 1600 ml with the cardiac output being 2200 ml/min. The blood flow to the liver of approximately 800 ml/min is by way of the alimentary tract and the hepatic artery. The alimentary tract provides approximately twenty-five per cent of the cardiac output to the liver, and the hepatic artery twelve per cent. Blood flows out from the liver through the hepatic vein and is returned to the heart by way of the inferior vena cava. The other major body components involved in glucose dynamics are supplied blood from the descending aorta, and the subclavian and carotid arteries. Blood is returned to the heart through the superior and inferior vena cava. The blood circulatory path through the body is shown in Figure 5.

The blood flow rates and the approximate distributed blood vol-

umes for the major body components are shown in Table I.

Interstitial and intracellular fluids. The site of the chemical reactions involved in both the metabolizing and synthesizing of glucose is inside the cell, but before the glucose, gluconeogenic substrates, and hormones involved in the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon dynamics can reach the interior of the cell, they must pass through the capillary walls that separate the blood circulatory system from the body's interstitial fluid, and then pass through the outer membrane of the cell that separates the interstitial fluid from the intracellular fluid of the cell (see Figure 8). The ratio of blood to interstitial fluid to intracellular fluid is approximately 1:2.4:7, respectively, (13, 28) (see Figure 9). These body fluid compartments, or reservoirs, are significant in the short term (thirty minutes to two hours) dynamics of the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System.

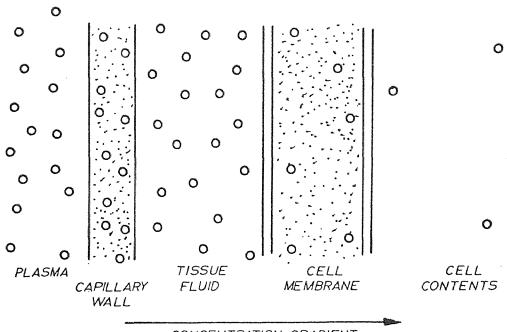
Transport. The transport of glucose, gluconeogenic substrates, and hormones across the capillary walls and cell membranes are for the most part at fixed rates, varying only as a function of body component and substance being transported, with the exception of the transport of glucose across the cell membranes of the body muscle. Insulin which is secreted into the blood by the pancreas during periods of high blood glucose concentration levels causes glucose to be transported across the cell membranes from the interstitial fluid into the intracellular fluid of the cell at an increased rate by what is known as an active transport system (see Figure 4).

BODY PARAMETERS

			 		معترفشورسيس		الاستيم واستدي		مستحميين والشيونييونيين			-	e de la companya de l			
ance	K23	/(()/ml)	429.8	38.3	50.2		93.7	50.2	2.68.3	18.7		17.1	ъ. О	0.101	47.1	
Admittance	K12))/(uim/())	991.8	76.6	116.0	30.4	198.3	116.2	19.2 38.4 4.0 5.6	67.2	فللمتراث والمتراث وا	36.0	12.0	230.3	108.8	
>()	Weight	gm	1575	41	198	23	313	198	33 9 4	<u> </u>		62	50	393	185	
Weight of Rody	Component	шб	17500	366	1750	450	2788	1750	292 583 58 82	1015		550	80	3500	1650	
Intra-	Fluid	m]	2966	204	980	126	1818	086	166 325 33 46	570		305	66	1960	921	rokumin kini maya 44 Million
Inter-	Fluid	mĵ	2840	74	346	48	675	347	53 84 10 17	164		109	35	714	328	
-	Blood Plasma	m	1177	23	132	148	231	133	22 35 4 7	89		41	13	264	124	X
	Blood Volume	Ę	1619	38	180	202	314	180	30 59 9	104		56	18	359	168	
	F10%	m]/min	2187	322	230	2187	2187	69	115 303 46 68	532	276	808	416		231	
Para- geter	3ody Component	Units	Total	Head	Front Paws	Heart	Lungs	Body Mus.	Stomach Intestine Pancreas Spleen	G. I. Tract	Hep. Art.	Liver	Kidneys	Hind Legs	Other	kin kastek ang kata

TABLE I

TRANSPORT



CONCENTRATION GRADIENT

FIGURE 8

BODY FLUIDS

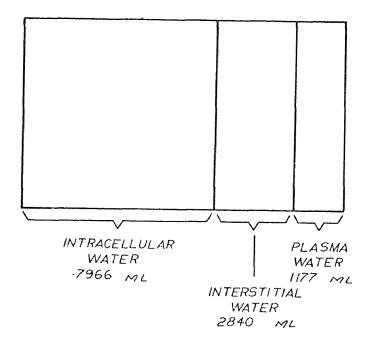


FIGURE 9

Active transport is the process by which a substance is transported across a membrane by another substance. This process involves energy and is capable of transporting substances against high concentration gradients. The potassium-sodium concentration gradient between the red blood cells and blood plasma is an example of active transport in action. The red blood cell contains twenty times more potassium than the blood plasma, while the blood plasma contains twenty times more sodium than the red blood cell.

SECTION III

DEVELOPMENT OF OVERALL BODY MODEL

The Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon dynamics for a 17.5 kg canine involves the transport of glucose, substrates, and hormones to all parts of the body by way of the circulatory system. The circulation through the major body components is shown in Figure 10. The physiological parameters for the blood flow, blood volume, interstitial fluid, intracellular fluid, organ dry weight, and admittance for the major body components and the circulatory system are listed in Table I. These parameters have been derived, for the most part, from data in the following references (1, 8, 14, 20, 30, 34, 57) and by extrapolation of these data with the following assumptions and facts:

- Body fluid (blood, interstitial and intracellular)
 accounts for approximately seventy-one per cent of
 total body weight.
- 2. The ratio of blood, interstitial fluid, and intracellular fluid is approximately 1.0 : 2.4 : 7.0.
- Body muscle accounts for approximately forty per cent of the total body weight.
- 4. Tissue dry weight accounts for approximately nine per cent of the total body weight.
- 5. Skeleton accounts for approximately twenty per cent of the total body weight.

GLUCOSE -INSULIN-GLUCAGON BLOCK DIAGRAM

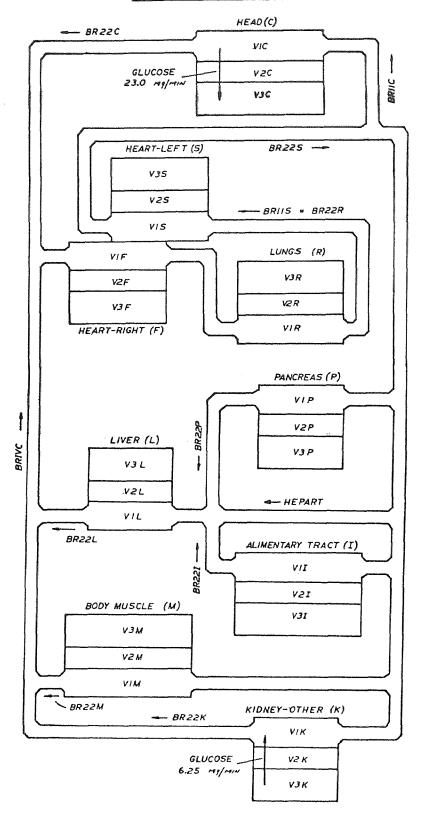


FIGURE 10

- 6. The disappearance rate for both insulin and glucagon is approximately ten per cent per minute.
- 7. Blood hematocrit (ratio of red blood cell volume to the total blood volume) is approximately twentyeight per cent.

The last entry in Table I "Other" has been included to account for the difference between the entry "Total" and the sum of the body component entries.

Figure 10 shows the major body components that have been used to model the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System. In this figure, Body Muscle is meant to also include the front paws and hind legs of the canine, while the body component labeled "Kidney-Other" combined both the "Kidney" and "Other" entries of Table I. The right side of the heart, the lungs, and the left side of the heart have been drawn serially to better visualize the flow of blood through these organs.

Although the interconnecting arteries and veins between the major body components are shown as having volume in the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon Model Block Diagram (Figure 10), the total body blood volume of 1619 ml has been apportioned to the major body components on the basis of organ weight. Adjustment of the blood volume apportionment has been made where data indicated that the body component had either a higher or lower than average blood to weight ratio. Such is the case for the heart. The VI compartment for each of the major body components represents the plasma part of the blood that has

been apportioned to each of the major body components.

Each of the major body components in the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon Model Block Diagram of Figure 10 has been divided into three sections, V1, V2, and V3 to represent the volumes of the plasma, interstitial fluid, and the intracellular fluid, respectively. The values of these volumes are listed in Table I. The line separating V1 from V2 represents the membrane (capillary wall) that separates the plasma from the interstitial fluid. This membrane has a transport constant (admittance) K12 associated with it for each of the substances, glucose, hormones, and substrates, that permeates through this membrane. Likewise, the line separating V2 from V3 represents the cell membrane separating the interstitial fluid from the intracellular fluid of the cell. Associated with this membrane is a transport constant (admittance) K23 for each of the substances that permeates this membrane.

The overall body admittance for glucagon (K12 in series with K23) has been determined from the data of J. L. Chiasson, M.D. and Associates (11), and J. P. Palmer, M.D. and Associates (53). From the data of Chiasson, glucagon input rates of 50, 25, and 15 ng/kg/min resulted in glucagon concentration levels of 5.06, 2.45, and 1.7 ng/ml, respectively. The glucagon admittance was calculated from:

$$Y = AR/AC \tag{1}$$

where:

Y = overall body glucagon admittance (ng/min)/(ng/ml)

AR = glucagon input rate for 17.5 kg canine (ng/min)

AC = glucagon concentration (ng/ml).

For three sets of data from Chiasson:

 $Y - (50 \times 17.5)/5.066 = 172$

 $Y = (25 \times 17.5)/2.45 = 178$

 $Y = (15 \times 17.5)/1.7 = 154$

Average admittance: Y = 168 (ng/min)/(ng/m1).

From the data of Palmer (see Figure 11), where the glucagon dis-

GLUCAGON AND INSULIN DISAPPEARANCE

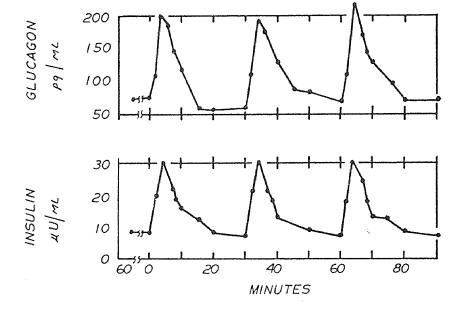
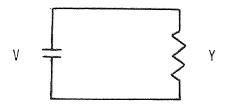


FIGURE 11

appearance time constants (\nearrow) are approximately ten minutes, the electrical analog for glucagon disappearance transient becomes:



$$AW = (AC_{\uparrow}) (V) (e)$$
 (2)

$$\mathcal{T} = V/Y \tag{3}$$

where:

AC₁ = initial glucagon concentration (ng/ml)

AW = total weight of glucagon in volume (V) (ng)

V = total volume of plasma and interstitial fluid in 17.5 kg
 canine (ml)

Y = overall body glucagon admittance (ng/min)/(ng/ml)

 τ = glucagon disappearance time constant (min).

Since:

 $\mathcal{T} = V/Y$

for $V = 4017 \, \text{ml}$, $T = 10 \, \text{min}$

Y = 4017/10 = 402 (ng/min)/(ng/m1).

There is a greater than two to one difference between the overall body glucagon admittances calculated from the data of Chiasson and Palmer, 168 and 402 (ng/min)/(ng/ml), respectively. The probable reason for the two to one difference between the two calculated values

for the overall body glucagon admittances are:

- 1. The data of Chiasson was obtained by administering glucagon, over a substantial period of time at rates which produced glucagon concentrations that were very high compared to physiological levels, thus, reaching a steady state condition and also minimizing the binding effect that glucagon has with tissue.
- 2. For the data of Palmer, glucagon was secreted from the pancreas over a relatively short period of time in response to a pulse of arginine, thus, the binding effect between glucagon and tissue is significant since it lowers the glucagon concentration by removing glucagon from the blood plasma and interstitial fluid. This causes the overall body glucagon admittance (calculated from transient data) to be higher than when calculated from the steady state data of Chaisson.

Since the conditions under which the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon Model will be tested fall somewhere between the high level steady state conditions of Chiasson's data and low level transient conditions of Palmer's data, the average of the two overall body glucagon admittances will be used.

Averaging the glucagon admittances determined from the data of Chiasson and Palmer, the overall body glucagon admittance becomes:

$$Y = (168 + 402)/2 = 285 (ng/min)/(ng/ml)$$

The overall body glucagon admittance is the parallel combination of all the series glucagon admittance (AK12)¹ between the plasma and the interstitial fluid, and the glucagon admittance (AK23) between the interstitial fluid and the intracellular fluid of the cell. Since data was not found which would permit the determination of (AK12 and AK23), and many references (6, 13) have been made to the fact that equilibrium is reached very quickly between the plasma and interstitual fluid concentrations, it has been assumed that the (AK12) admittance was twice as great as the (AK23) admittance. For an overall body glucagon admittance of 285 and (AK12) twice the value of (AK23), then:

From the data of Palmer, the insulin disappearance curves are very similar to the disappearance curves for glucagon; also from the data of Norfleet (51), the basal secretion of insulin was approximately ten times that of glucagon, indicating that the insulin and glucagon overall body admittances are equal since the basal concentration of insulin is approximately ten times that of glucagon, 0.5 ng/ml, 0.06 ng/ml, respectively. For these reasons, and for the lack of additional insulin data, the admittances that were determined for glucagon have been used for the insulin admittances.

¹Explanation of mneumonics appears in Section VII.

Since the major disappearance of glucose from the system is either by way of the brain or body muscle, the glucose admittances (GK23C, GK23M) between the interstitial and intracellular fluids of these organs are the only interstitial to intracellular fluid admittances used. The admittances for the brain have been determined on the basis of 23.0 mg/min of glucose being absorbed in the intracellular fluid (V3C) of the brain at a glucose concentration (GC3C) of 0.0 mg/ml (4, 8, 31) and a glucose concentration (GC2C) of approximately 0.6 mg/ml in the interstitial fluid of the brain. The resulting admittances (GK12C) and (GK23C) have been calculated to be 76.6 and 38.3 (mg/min)/(mg/ml), respectively. The (GK23M) admittance for muscle involves active transport (a function of insulin) and is described in the section on Development of Muscle Model (Section VI). The glucose admittances between the plasma and the interstitial fluid for the other body components was made equal to the corresponding glucagon admittance simply for the lack of data to make a more valid determination.

SECTION IV

DEVELOPMENT OF LIVER MODEL

The liver is the primary body component in controlling the blood glucose concentration. The liver of a 17.5 kg canine weighs approximately 550 gm, has a blood flow through it of approximately 800 ml/min, and is capable of storing approximately 19 gm of glycogen.

During periods of low blood glucose concentration, the liver supplies glucose to the blood by the processes of glycogenolysis (glycogen to glucose) and gluconeogenesis (substrates to glucose). Both of these processes are mediated by the blood concentrations of gluconeogenic substrates and hormones. During basal periods (steady state, short term fasting) gluconeogenesis in the liver is the primary process involved in supplying glucose to the blood and controlling the blood glucose concentration. During periods of high blood glucose concentration, the glucose outputs from both glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis are reduced and the primary function of the liver is to convert blood glucose to glycogen to be stored in the liver for later use in the process of glycogenolysis.

The liver model for the 17.5 kg canine involves developing mathematical models (transfer function) for the following liver function:

- 1. Conversion of glucose to glycogen
- 2. Conversion of glycogen to glucose (glycogenolysis)
- Conversion of amino acids to glucose (gluconeogenesis)
- 4. Conversion of lactate to glucose (gluconeogenesis)

5. Conversion of glycerol to glucose (gluconeogenesis)

These mathematical models describe the rates of liver glucose output and input in terms of the blood concentrations of glucose, gluconeogenic substrates, the hormones insulin and glucagon, and the quantity of glycogen stored in the liver.

The approach taken to develop the mathematical models was to determine which of the above factors were primarily responsible for the control of the rate of liver glucose output and input, and then to describe the basal, maximum, and minimum liver glucose output and input rates as a continuous function of these factors. These continuous functions have been derived directly from applicable data, from extrapolation of comparable data, or intuitively from general physical phenomena. The dependent-independent relationship of the liver mathematical models are in terms of first order effects only, since this is the form of most of the data and to describe a mathematical model of the liver otherwise, would be extremely time-consuming and awkward, if not impossible. Following is a detailed explanation for the derivation of the mathematical models of each of the above-mentioned five liver functions.

Conversion of Glucose to Glycogen

The data used to develop the mathematical model for the conversion of glucose to glycogen is principally contained in references (3, 6, 18, 49). From this data, it has been determined that the rate at which glucose is converted to glycogen in the liver is a function of

the blood glucose, insulin, and glucocorticoids concentrations perfusing the liver and also the quantity of glycogen that is stored in the liver.

SEW3L = (K1) f_1 (GC1L) f_2 (IC1L) f_3 (EW3L) where

SEW3L - is the rate at which glucose is converted to glycogen, (mg/min)

K1 - the maximum rate at which glucose can be converted to glycogen, (mg/min)

GC1L - the glucose concentration in the blood plasma of the liver, (mg/ml)

IC1L - the insulin concentration in the blood plasma of the liver, (ng/ml)

EW3L - the quantity of glycogen that is stored in the intracellular fluid of the liver, (gm).

The glucocorticoid function has not been included because of a lack of data, the overall complexity of the function, and the time delay (approximately two hours) before glucocorticoids are effective.

The mathematical model that has been derived is:

SEW3L =
$$(137.5)(GC1L/4)(1 - e^{-IC1L/2.0})$$
 (4)

$$\times \sqrt{1 - \frac{EW3L/550}{(0.029)(1.5 - 0.5e^{-IC1L/1.56})(\sqrt{GC1L})}}$$

The K1 term has been derived from the data of (6) and (18). The

data of (6) indicates a half maximum rate of 0.5%/hr of liver weight for the conversion of glucose to glycogen at a glucose concentration of 2.0 mg/ml. The data of (18) reports a 1.1%/hr of liver weight conversion at a glucose concentration of 2.5 mg/ml. If it is assumed that the conversion of glucose to glycogen varies linearly as a function of glucose concentration and that this function saturates at a glucose concentration of 4.0 mg/ml, then averaging the maximum rates of (6) and (18) yields a rate of approximately 1.5%/hr of liver weight at a glucose concentration of 4.0 mg/ml. For the 550 gm liver of a 17.5 kg canine, this equates to a maximum conversion rate of glucose to glycogen of 8.25 gm/hr or 137.5 mg/min.

The insulin function

has been determined from the data of (3). This data gives a near maximum conversion of glucose to glycogen of 495 umoles/hr/30 gm of liver, at a glucose concentration of 1.0 mg/ml and an insulin infusion rate of 0.04 - 0.2 units/kg/hr. This level of insulin infusion results in a near maximum physiological insulin concentration in the blood. The rate of 495 umoles/hr/30 gm of liver converts to 1.63 gm/hr for the 550 gm liver of a 17.5 kg canine. Also the data of (3) for the pancreatectomized dog indicates there is no conversion of glucose to glycogen when insulin is not present. The insulin function produces (SEW3L) equal to (0.0, 34.3 mg/min) for no and maximum insulin, respectively, and basal glucose. The insulin function (5) produces a 3:1 increase in the conversion of glucose to glycogen

when the maximum insulin effect is compared to that of the basal insulin concentration (IC1L) of 0.78 ng/ml.

The glycogen storage function

$$1 - \frac{EW3L/550}{(0.029)(1.5 - 0.5 e)} \sqrt{\frac{-1C1L/1.56}{GC1L}}$$
 (6)

has been derived from the data of Mortimore (49) (see Figure 12) and has been incorporated into the mathematical model to account for the dependence of the liver's glycogen storage capacity upon the liver's blood plasma concentrations of both glucose and insulin. This function is designed to allow glucose to be converted to glycogen whenever the maximum storage capability of the liver has not been attained for the instantaneous glucose and insulin concentrations of the liver's

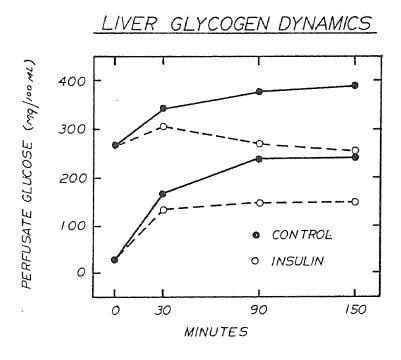


FIGURE 12 *

^{*}From Mortimore (12).

blood plasma. Although this function controls the rate of glucose to glycogen conversion almost in proportion to the difference between the amount of glycogen the liver is capable of storing and the actual amount of glycogen that is stored in the liver, this function has not been designed to simulate actual rate data simply because this data is not available in a form convenient to model. (See Conversion of Glycogen to Glucose for a partial justification for this derivation.)

The ability of the liver to store glycogen as a function of insulin concentration is based on a 2200 gm human liver being able to store 75 gm (3.5% of liver weight) of glycogen, (8) and (49). From the data of (49) (see Figure 12), it was possible to determine the glycogen content of the liver with no insulin (28 mg/gm) and the glycogen content of the liver (42 mg/gm) with the maximum effective physiological concentration of insulin, both glycogen storages being at a glucose concentration of approximately 2.4 mg/ml. The increase in glycogen storage capability is approximately fifty per cent from no insulin to the maximum effective physiological concentration of insulin. Assuming the insulin storage function to be approximately exponential and the minimum, basal, and maximum storage capability to be 2.9, 3.5, 4.4% of liver weight, respectively, the insulin storage function becomes

The glucose concentration storage function is also derived from the data of (49) (see Figure 12). For both no insulin and maximum

effective insulin a sixty per cent increase in the glucose concentration (GClL) resulted in approximately a twenty-two per cent increase in the maximum glycogen storage capability of the liver, so that the glucose concentration storage function becomes

$$\sqrt{GC1L}$$
 (8)

and the combined insulin-glucose concentration storage function becomes

$$(0.029) (1.5 - 0.5e$$
 $- IC1L/1.56$ $\sqrt{GC1L}$. (9)

The actual glycogen storage fraction is

By subtracting the ratio of the actual glycogen storage fraction to insulin-glucose concentration storage function from 1.0, a measure of the difference between the glycogen storage capability of the liver and the actual glycogen stored in the liver is obtained.

1.0 -
$$\frac{EW3L/550}{- C1L/1.56}$$
(0.029) (1.5 - 0.5e) $\sqrt{GC1L}$.

This function is very nearly proportional to the difference between the glycogen storage capability and the actual glycogen stored.

The computer program describes (SEW3L) in terms of two additional variables (GLYSTO and GLUGLY). These two variables have been introduced as part of a limit function so that the storage function, and likewise (SEW3L), never becomes negative.

Conversion of Glycogen to Glucose

Glycogen is capable of being converted back to glucose at a maximum rate of approximately 10 gm/hr (167 mg/min), (22, 63) by the process of glycogenolysis. From the data of (22, 49, 63), the conversion rate of glycogen to glucose is a function of the quantity of glycogen stored in the liver and the blood concentrations of insulin, glucagon, and glucose perfusing the liver.

$$GR22L1 = (K2) f_1 (EW3L) f_2 (AC1L) f_3 (GC1L, IC1L)$$

where:

GR22Ll - the rate at which glycogen is converted to glucose in the liver (mg/min)

K2 - the maximum rate at which glycogen is converted to glucose (mg/min)

ACIL - the glucagon concentration in the blood plasma of the liver (ng/ml)

Glucocorticoids also affect the rate at which glycogen is converted to glucose, but this function has not been included for the same reasons previously given.

The mathematical model that has been developed for the conversion of glycogen to glucose is:

The maximum conversion rate of 167 mg/min from glycogen to glucose has been verified from the data of (22). This data gives the hourly maximum rates of glucose production (gluconeogenesis) from the livers of fasted rats as a function of the glucagon concentration of the perfusing blood plasma, and also similar data but for the livers of fed rats. By taking the difference between these two sets of data, the glucose produced from glycogen (glycogenolysis) is obtained. The maximum rate of glucose production from glycogen is los umoles/gm-liver/hr. For the glucose molar weight of 180 gm and a 550 gm canine liver, this rate becomes 10.4 gm/hr (173 mg/min).

By plotting the above difference data, it is possible to determine the rate at which glucose is produced from glycogen as a function of glucagon. Although the glucagon concentrations required to produce glucose are higher by nearly a factor of three than the average physiological glucagon concentrations, by considering the fact that the liver rapidly degrades glucagon (2, 64) it is possible to justify using this data to model the glucagon function. Assuming that the basal glucagon concentration (0.09 ng/ml) in the liver blood plasma is capable of producing glucose at one-third its maximum rate, then the mathematical model for the glucagon function becomes:

The mathematical model for the glycogen storage factor:

$$- EW3L/4.5$$
 (1 - e) (14)

has been derived from the data of (63). When glucagon was added to the liver perfusion system to produce near maximum glycogenolysis from a rat liver that had a glycogen storage of ten per cent of maximum, glucose was produced at a rate that was thirty per cent of the maximum conversion rate of glycogen to glucose.

The insulin and glucose term

$$1 - \frac{(GC1L)(3.0 - 2.1)(100)}{(0.9)(0.65 \times EW3L)^{2.4}}$$
(15)

is the complement of the last term (11) derived for the mathematical model for the conversion of glucose to glycogen. This term has been included to cause glycogen to be converted to glucose to maintain the dynamic equilibrium that exists between glycogen storage (EW3L), insulin concentration (IC1L), and glucose concentration (GC1L), as reflected in the data of (49), (see Figure 12). The basis for the derivation of this term is the fact that glycogen is converted to glucose at a rate that is approximately proportional to the difference between the starting glucose concentration level and the equilibrium glucose concentration level when both the initial glycogen storage (EW3L) and insulin concentration (IC1L) levels are equal. For

the control data, the initial rate at which glycogen is converted to glucose for low and high glucose concentration levels is 98 and 42 mg/hr/liver, respectively. The difference between the starting glucose concentration level and the equilibrium glucose concentration level for low and high glucose concentration levels is 200 and 110 mg/100 ml, respectively. On this basis, the mathematical model for this term is derived form the ratio of the difference between the equilibrium and actual glucose concentration levels and the equilibrium glucose concentration level.

The equilibrium glucose concentration term is:

$$\frac{(0.9)(0.65 \times EW3L)}{- IC1L/0.78}$$
(100)(3.0 - 2.1e) (16)

The term is a composite of a glycogen storage term:

$$(0.65 \times EW3L)^2$$
 (17)

and an insulin term:

$$\frac{(0.9)}{- IC1L/0.78}$$
(3.0 - 2.1e) (100). (18)

The glycogen term (17) has been derived from the low and high glucose concentration control data points at 150 minutes, (see Figure 12). The respective glycogen levels are 27.9 and 32.2 mg/gm (13.2, 15.7 gm

for 550 gm canine liver) resulting in glucose concentration levels of 230 and 380 mg/100 ml.

For the insulin data at 150 minutes, a factor of three is required to adjust the glycogen term resulting in the insulin term (18).

When the equilibrium glucose concentration term is substituted into the ratio term, the resulting insulin and glucose term becomes:

The computer program contains two additional terms (Factor and GLGL) which have been included to limit GR22Ll to only positive values.

Conversion of Amino Acids to Glucose

The conversion of amino acids to glucose in the liver is primarily a function of the liver blood plasma concentration of amino acids, (43). The blood plasma concentrations of amino acids are a function of the concentrations of both insulin and glucagon, (10, 56).

From the data of (43), a mathematical model has been developed describing the rate at which glucose is produced from amino acids as a function of the normalized basal amino acid concentration.

$$- (AAN)^3/10$$
GR22L2 = 131 (1 - e) (20)

Where GR22L2, the rate at which glucose is produced from amino acids,

is made to equal the basal glucose production rate of 13.1 mg/min at a normalized basal amino acid concentration (AAN) of 1.0, and 122 mg/min for a normalized amino acid concentration of 3.0.

The regulation of the normalized basal liver blood plasma amino acid concentration is by way of the body muscle blood plasma concentrations of insulin (IClM) and glucagon (AClM). The data of Chiasson (10), shows a near twofold increase in the rate at which the amino acid alanine is converted to glucose when glucagon is administered at near maximum physiological levels. Although Chiasson could not preclude that this doubling rate was not due to an increase in the liver blood plasma amino acid concentration, the data of (43) and the result of other workers has shown that with fixed amino acid concentration levels, glucagon has increased gluconeogenesis minimally. It is thus concluded that glucagon regulates the liver blood plasma amino acid concentrations. The mathematical model for the normalized amino acid glucagon function becomes:

$$- AC1M/0.07$$
 3 (1 - e). (21)

The data of (56) demonstrates that high physiological levels of insulin are capable of reducing the amino acid concentration in the venous forearm blood plasma by a factor of two. The mathematical model for the insulin function of the normalized amino acid concentration becomes:

$$(0.5)(1 + e^{-(LC1M/1.0)^2}).$$
 (22)

Combining both the glucagon and the insulin functions, (21, 22) the mathematical model for the normalized amino acid concentration becomes:

Conversion of Lactate to Glucose

Lactate is converted to glucose in the liver of a 17.5 kg canine, under basal conditions, at a rate of 0.4 gm/hr (6.67 mg/min), extrapolated from the data of (8). The maximum conversion rate appears to be approximately ten times this rate under the conditions of high lactate concentrations (22). In vivo high lactate concentrations would be produced when glycogen stored in body muscle is converted by glycogenolysis to lactate under the influence of adrenaline. Because glucose produced from lactate is only a small part of the total glucose production, the lactate-adrenaline function has not been included. The more direct action of both glucagon and insulin on the liver production of glucose from lactate (21, 22, 49, 54) have been included in the mathematical model for the conversion of lactate to glucose.

From the data of (21), glucagon has caused a three to one increase in the production of glucose from lactate. Although this data was with saturating lactate concentration, the data of (21)

corroborates a three to one variation capability in glucose production from basal to saturating levels of lactate. The mathematical model for the glucagon function becomes:

The data of (49, 54) indicate that there is approximately thirty per cent reduction in the rate at which glucose is produced from lactate from no insulin to a basal insulin concentration. The mathematical model for the insulin function becomes:

$$- IC1L/0.78$$
 (1 + 0.5e) (25)

and the overall mathematical model for the conversion of lactate to glucose becomes:

GR22L3 =
$$6.67 \left[0.5 + 2.5 \left(1 - e \right) - AC1L/0.4 \right] \times \left(1 + 0.5e \right)$$
 (26)

SECTION V

DEVELOPMENT OF PANCREAS MODEL

The pancreas of a 17.5 kg canine weighs approximately 58 grams, has a blood flow through it of approximately 46 ml/min, and secretes both insulin and glucagon in response to the glucose concentration of the blood plasma perfusing it. An increase in the blood plasma glucose concentration will cause a corresponding increase in the secretion of insulin and a decrease in the secretion of glucagon. A mathematical model for the pancreas has been developed using the data of (32, 40, 45), (see Figure 13).

The mathematical model for insulin is:

$$IR = (526) (GC1P) - 384$$
 (27)

where:

- IR is the rate at which insulin is secreted by the canine pancreas (ng/min)
- GCIP is the blood plasma glucose concentration of the pancreas (mg/ml).

This equation for the insulin output is a straight line approximation of the data of (32), (see Figure 13). This equation when limited by the CSMP computer program function LIR will cause no insulin to be secreted from the pancreas for blood plasma glucose concentrations below 0.73 mg/ml, and a maximum insulin secretion of 1300 ng/min for blood plasma glucose concentration above 3.2 mg/ml.

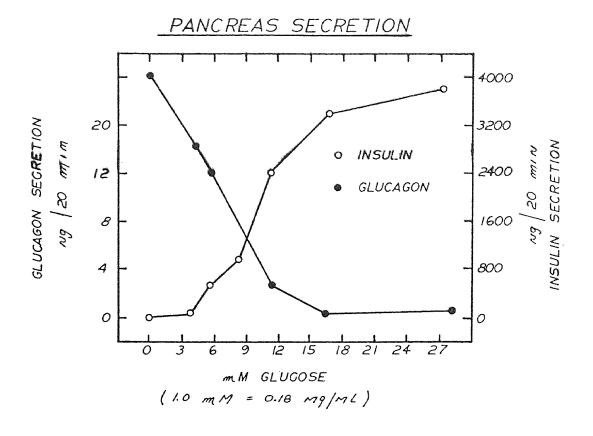


FIGURE 13*

The insulin data of Figure 13 appears to be in error by a factor of ten, since it is in conflict with latter data of (32). The data of Figure 13 when extrapolated for a 17.5 kg canine on the basis of body weight would produce a maximum insulin secretion rate of 14000 ng/min. The insulin secretion rate is much too high for the overall body insulin admittance and would cause extremely high basal blood plasma insulin concentrations. The later data of (32) correlates with the data of (45) and would produce the basal blood plasma insulin concentration of 0.5 ng/ml for the calculated overall body insulin admittance. For this reason, the insulin data of Figure 13 has been scaled down by a factor of ten.

^{*}From Gerich (32).

The mathematical model for the pancreas glucagon function is:

$$AR = 60 \left[1 - 0.72 (GC1P) \right]$$
 (28)

where:

- AR is the rate at which glucagon is secreted from the canine pancreas (ng/min)
- GCIP is the blood plasma glucose concentration of the pancreas (mg/ml).

This equation is also a straight line approximation of the data from Figure 13. The maximum glucagon secretion is 60 ng/min when extrapolated for a 17.5 kg canine. No glucagon is secreted for blood plasma concentration above 1.4 mg/ml. This low limit of zero is produced by the LAR limit function of the CSMP computer program. The basal glucagon secretion is 16.8 ng/min and will cause a basal blood plasma glucagon concentration of 0.06 ng/ml.

SECTION VI

DEVELOPMENT OF MUSCLE MODEL

Body muscle accounts for approximately forty per cent of the total body weight. During periods of high blood plasma glucose concentration, body muscle converts glucose to glycogen in the intracellular fluid where the glycogen is stored. During periods of low blood plasma glucose concentration, the muscle glycogen is converted to lactate and returned to the blood plasma to be converted to glucose by the liver.

The rate at which glucose is converted to glycogen in the intracellular fluid of the body muscle is a function of the insulin concentration of the body muscle blood plasma. Insulin varies the glucose admittance (GK23M) of the cell membrane separating the body muscle's interstitial fluid (V2M) from its intracellular fluid (V3M) by what is known as an active transport system. The mathematical model derived for the glucose admittance between the interstitial and intracellular fluids is:

$$GK23M = \frac{(V1 + V2)(IC2M \times 1.27)}{1000}$$
 (29)

where:

- V1, V2- are the total body blood plasma and interstitial fluid volumes, respectively (ml)

IC2M - is the insulin concentration of the body muscle
 interstitial fluid (ng/ml).

The equation for (GK23M) has been derived from the data of R. C. de Bodo, M.D., et al (16), (see Figures 14 and 15). The in vivo canine data of (16) relates the blood plasma glucose concentration, the outflow of glucose to the tissue, and the inflow of glucose from the liver, for different rates of insulin infusion into the blood of the canine. By assuming that the basal inflow of glucose (145 mg/kg/hr, $3.8 \text{ gm/m}^2/\text{hr}$) from the liver is entirely taken up by the central nervous system (CNS) and that this CNS glucose requirement remains constant, independent of the blood plasma glucose concentration, it is possible to calculate both the glucose disappearance ratio (k, %/min), due to muscle glucose absorption, and the average blood plasma insulin concentration (ng/ml) for three different sets of conditions.

From the data of (16), it is possible to determine the rate at which glucose is being absorbed by the muscle and also the average glucose concentration over the time period of interest. It is also possible to calculate the insulin concentration using input flow rates of insulin and the overall body admittance of 285 (ng/min)/(ng/ml). From t=0 to t=26 min of Figure 14, the average insulin concentration was calculated to be 9.46 ng/ml while the glucose disappearance ratio was 4.6%/min. Over the time interval t=40 to t=140 min of Figure 14, the insulin concentration was calculated to be 6.8 ng/ml and the glucose disappearance ratio 2.1%/min. From Figure 15, for the time interval from t=0 to t=95 min, the insulin concentration was calculated to be 2.74 ng/ml and the glucose disappearance ratio 0.55%/min.

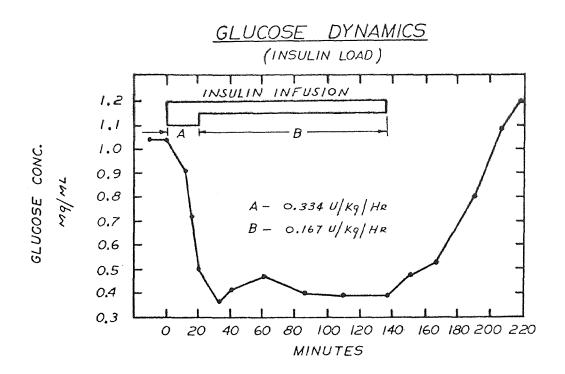


FIGURE 14*

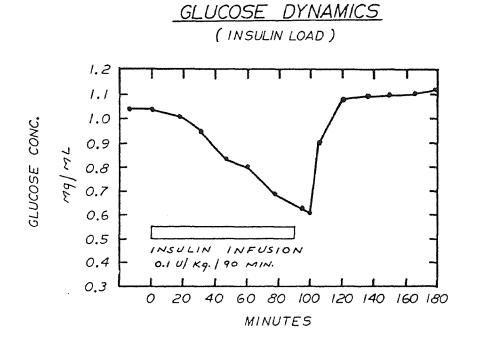


FIGURE 15*

^{*}In Vivo Test Data, de Bodo (16).

By plotting the near square law relationship between the glucose disappearance ratio (k, %/min) and the insulin concentration (ng/ml), and then using trial and error, it is possible to derive an equation which describes the glucose disappearance ratio (k, %/min) as a function of the insulin concentration (ng/ml).

$$k = \frac{(Insulin Conc. \times 0.533)^{2.5}}{10}$$
 (30)

To convert the glucose disappearance ratio (k, %/min) to glucose admittance (GK23M) in terms of the insulin concentration (IC2M) of the body muscle blood plasma, it is necessary to multiply the scaling factor (0.533) by (2.38) and (k) by (V1 + V2)/100. The (2.38) factor is required because the insulin concentration was calculated as average overall body value while the insulin concentration (IC2M) of the body muscle interstitial fluid compartment (V2M) is approximately one-half of the calculated average value. The factor (V1 + V2)/100 is required because the disappearance ratio (k) was calculated as a (%/min) of the total glucose contained in the overall body blood plasma and interstitial fluid V1 and V2.

$$k = \frac{\text{(Glucose loss to muscle)/min}}{\text{(Glucose in Vl and V2)}} \times 100$$

or

where

(Glucose in V1 and V2) = (V1 + V2)(Glucose Conc.).

Then

$$SEW3M = \frac{(k)(V1 + V2) \text{ (Glucose Conc.)}}{100} . \tag{31}$$

The term:

$$\frac{(k)(V1 + V2)}{100}$$

represents the glucose admittance (GK23M) between the interstitial and intracellular fluid of body muscle when the average body glucose concentration is approximately equal to the glucose concentration (GC2M) of the interstitial fluid of the body muscle, and is substituted for (Glucose Conc.) in equation (31) for (SEW3M). The mathematical model for the rate at which glucose is converted to glycogen (SEW3M) in the intracellular fluid (V3M) of the body muscle becomes:

$$SEW3M = (GK23M)(GC2M)$$

SEW3M =
$$\frac{(V1 + V2)}{(100)} \times \frac{(IC2M \times 1.27)^{2.5} (GC2M)}{(10)}$$

The conversion of body muscle glycogen to lactate involves the adrenal hormones adrenaline and glucocorticoids. This process is relatively slow compared to action of both insulin and glucagon in the regulation of the glucose concentration and for this reason will not be modeled.

SECTION VII

DEVELOPMENT OF COMPUTER MODEL

The development of the computer model to describe the Dynamics of the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System involves developing equations to define all of the pertinent variables for each of the major body components in terms of the particular body component's physical characteristics and its inputs from the other major body components. The resulting set of equations integrates all of the major body components into the mathematical model.

In developing these equations, it was necessary to use mneumonic terms for the many constants and variables that were both, compatible with the Continuous Systems Modeling Program (CSMP) for the 360 Digital Computer, and would also have logical meaning so that anyone of the many equations could be read without resorting to a glossary for each term.

<u>Development of Mneumonics</u>

The Continuous System Modeling Program (CSMP) requires that all terms describing either constants or variables be defined by a string of not more than six alpha-numeric characters and that the first character be alphabetic. To meet this requirement and to also assign meaning to the many constants and variables, a format was developed which assigned meaning to each of the alpha-numeric characters and its location in the six character alpha-numeric string, (see Table II and Figure 16). Those terms that do not conform to the format of

MNEUMONIC DESCRIPTION

(2)	I - Initial Bl ank		
(9)	A - Front Paws C - Head F - Heart (Right Side)	S - Heart (Left Side) I - Alimentary Tract K - Kidney	L - Liver P - Pancreas R - Lung W - Hind Legs M - Muscle
(4)(2)	1 I I I I	23 - 2 - 3 32 - 3 - 2	1 - Plasma 2 - Interstitial 3 - Intracellular
(3)	C - Concentration ()/ml K - Transport Constant (()/min)/ (()/min)/	R - Rate of flow (ml/min) V - Volume (ml) W - Weight (mg)	
(2)	I - Insulin (ng) G - Glucose (mg) E - Glycogen (mg)	A - Glucagon (ng) B - Blood (ml) P - Plasma (ml) Blank	
(1)	S - First Deriva- tive Blank		

TABLE II

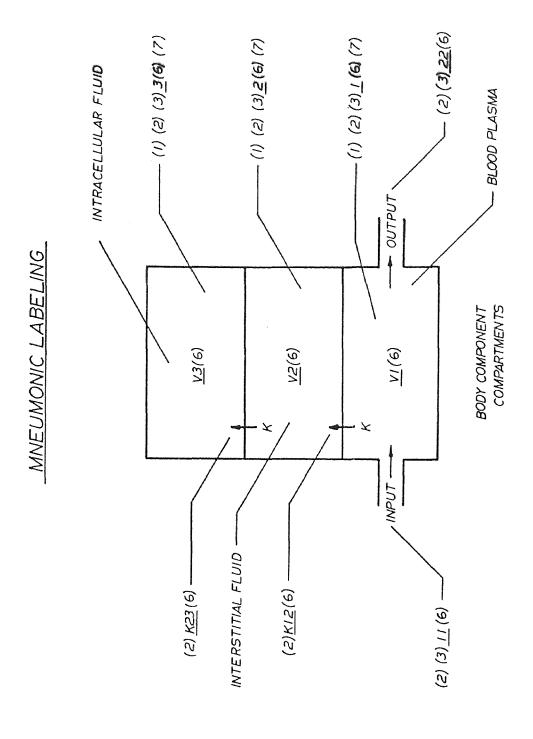


FIGURE 16

Table II are listed and defined in Table III. A brief explanation of the significance of each of the six character positions of the alpha-numeric terms follows:

Character Position (1) - Alpha -

The first character position will contain either the letter "S" or a blank (no letter at all). The letter "S" signifies that the term is a first derivative. A blank signifies a non-derivative term in which case one of the possible characters of position (2) will be the first character of the term.

Character Position (2) - Alpha -

Character Position (2) defines the substance that is being labeled by the term. An example would be "A" for glucagon (ng) or "G" for glucose (mg).

Character Position (3) - Alpha -

Character Position (3) assigns the type of dimension which is applicable to the term. An example would be "C" for concentration, where the glucagon concentration would be measured in (ng/ml) while the glucose concentration would be (mg/ml).

Character Position (4, 5) - Numeric -

Character Position (4, 5) is used to define a location in the major body component being modeled or the place and direction of transport. A single numeric "1, 2, or 3" defines the plasma, the interstitial, or the intracellular fluids, respectively. The double numeric "11" specifies the input, while the "22" specifies the output. All other double numerics are used to define the place and direction of an admittance. The numeric "12" would specify an admittance going from the blood plasma into the interstitial fluid compartment. The dimensions of admittance would be the dimensions of Character Position (2) per unit of concentration per minute. For insulin this would be (ng/min)/(ng/ml)

Character Position (6) - Alpha -

This character position indicates the major body component to which the term applies.

Character Position (7) - Alpha -

Character Position (7) will contain either the letter "I" or be blank (no letter at all). The letter "I" is used to indicate an initial condition. The absence of the letter "I" would make one of the Character Position (5) characters the last character of the term.

Since no (CSMP) term can contain more than six alpha-numeric

characters, it is obvious that either the first and/or the seventh character positions must be blanks. The minimum number of alphanumeric characters making up a formated (CSMP) term is three. This is the case when describing the blood plasma, interstitial, or intracellular fluid volumes for any of the major body components. The (CSMP) term for the interstitial fluid of the head would be (V2C).

Development of Equations

To better understand how the equations which make up the mathematical model for the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System have been developed, the nine equations:

```
SGW1C = ((GC1S)*(BR11C) - (GC1C)*(BR22C))*(HK) - (GC1C - GC2C)*(GK12C)

GW1C = INTGRL(0.0, SGW1C)

GC1C = GC1CI + GW1C/V1C

SGW2C = (GC1C - GC2C)*(GK12C) - (GC2C - GC3C)*(GK23C)

GW2C = INTGRL(0.0, SGW2C)

GC2C = GC2CI + GW2C/V2C

SGW3C = (GC2C - GC3C)*(GK23C) - 23.0

GW3C = INTGRL(0.0, SGW3C)

GC3C = GC3CI + GW3C/V3C
```

which describe the flow of glucose into, out of, and through the fluid compartments of the head will be detailed. These nine equations are divided into three groups with each group of three equations describing the glucose dynamics for the blood plasma compartment, the interstitial fluid compartment, and the intracellular fluid compartments of the head, respectively.

The necessary constants are:

Volume:

V1C = 23.0 ml V2C = 74.0 ml V3C = 204.0 ml

Blood Flow Rate:

BR11C = 322.0 ml/min BR22C = 322.0 ml/min

Glucose Admittance:

GK12C = 76.6 (mg/min)/(mg/ml)GK23C = 38.3 (mg/min)/(mg/ml)

Initial Conditions:

GC1CI = 1.0 mg/ml GC2CI = 1.0 mg/ml GC3CI = 1.0 mg/ml

Plasma Ratio:

HK = 0.727

The first group of three equations describes the glucose dynamics in the blood plasma compartment (VIC) of the head (C). The first equation in this group defines the rate (SGMC) at which the weight (W) of glucose is changing in the blood plasma compartment (VIC).

The first factored term of this equation describes the transport of glucose into and out of the head by the blood flow. The term (GCIS) is the glucose concentration of the blood plasma compartment (VIS) for the heart, and is used to define the glucose concentration

of the blood entering the head. The plasma ratio (HK) is required because the glucose concentration is defined as mg of glucose per ml of plasma, while the blood flow into the head is for whole blood. The second term of this equation describes the transport of glucose, by perfusion, between the blood plasma and interstitial fluid compartments of the head in terms of the glucose concentration in each of these compartments (GC1C, GC2C) and the glucose admittance between the compartments (GK12C). The admittance is assumed to be bidirectional with (GK12C = GK21C).

The second equation of the first group:

$$GW1C = INTGRL (0.0, SGW1C)$$

is a (CSMP) function block used to integrate the first equation (SGW1C) to obtain the change of glucose weight (GW2C) in the blood plasma compartment from time t = 0. The (0.0) term of this equation sets the initial value of (GW1C) equal to (0.0).

The third equation of the first group:

$$GC1C = GC1CI + GW1C/V1C$$

describes the glucose concentration (GClC) in the blood plasma compartment (VlC) of the head in terms of the initial glucose concentration (GClCI), the change of glucose weight (GWlC), and the blood plasma volume (VlC) of the head.

The second group of three equations describes the glucose dynamics in the interstitial fluid compartments (V2C) of the head. The first of these three equations:

SGW2C = (GC1C - GC2C)*(GK12C) -(GC2C - GC3C)*(GK23C)

defines the rate (SGW2C) at which the weight of glucose in this compartment is changing. The first factored term of this equation describes the transport of glucose between the blood plasma and interstitial fluid compartments in terms of the glucose concentrations (GClC, GC2C) in, and the glucose admittance between these compartments. Similarly, the second factored term of this equation describes the transport of glucose between the interstitial fluid compartment (V2C) and the intracellular fluid compartment (V3C).

The second and third equations of the second group:

GW2C = INTGRL(0.0, SGW2C)

GC2C = GC2CI + GW2C/V2C

are similar to the second and third equations of the first group, defining the weight change of glucose (GW2C) and the glucose concentration (GC2C) in the interstitial fluid compartment (V2C) of the head.

The third group of three equations describes the glucose dynamics in the intracellular fluid compartment (V3C) of the head. This group is similar to the second group of equations with the exception of the (23.0) term. This term represents the glucose load of (23.0) mg/min that is supplied to the brain to meet its glucose requirements.

Similar equations have been written to define the dynamics of both insulin and glucagon in the three fluid compartments (V1C, V2C, V3C) of the head, and likewise for the other major body components.

SECTION VIII

RESULTS

The CSMP program to model the dynamics of the Glucose-Insulin Glucagon System is listed in Figures 17a through 17e. The first part of the program lists the constant and initial condition terms, followed by the equations describing the dynamics for each of the major body components. The last part of the program describes the integration method, the time parameters, and the desired outputs and the form for these outputs.

The CSMP model for the Dynamics of the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System was then exercised to determine its response for the following three conditions:

- 1. Basal
- 2. Glucose Load
- 3. Insulin Load

Basal condition data was run for a period of 150 minutes first with all initial conditions very nearly at basal level values (see Figures 18a through 18f). To demonstrate the dynamic equilibrium of the liver glycogen storage (EW3L), similar basal data was run but with three different levels of initial glycogen stored in the liver (EW3LI = 0.0, 10.0, and 19.25 gm), (see Figures 19a through 19c).

The model was then exercised with an almost instantaneous 8.5 gm glucose load in an attempt to duplicate the in vivo test data of Finkelstein, et al (27), (see Figures 20a through 20d and 21a

through 21f. The high initial body glucose concentrations, resulting from the glucose load, were brought back to the basal concentration levels by the many biological mechanisms of the body.

The third set of data was an attempt to duplicate the in vivo test data of de Bodo, et al (16), (see Figures 14 and 15), by injecting insulin into the system at different rates over an extended period of time. The resulting excessively high body insulin concentrations caused the body glucose concentration level to be depressed, (see Figures 22a through 22c, and 23a through 23c). A description for each of the three test conditions for the dynamic model of the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System follows.

Basal Test

Figures 18a through 18f show basal data for the major data points of the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model over a period of 150 minutes. The initial glycogen storage (EW3LI) for the liver was the near equilibrium value of 16 gm. The (6.72 gm/min) rate of glucose production from amino acid (GR22L2) is lower than the normal basal level of (13.0 mg/min) due to the "Cori" cycle lactate glucose load requirement of (6.25 mg/min) not being included in the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model. Had this glucose load been included, the glucose concentration would have been reduced approximately 0.14 mg/ml, increasing the (GR22L2) output by approximately 7.0 gm/min to the basal level of 13.0 gm/min due to the change in (GR22L2) with respect to the change in glucose concentration being -47.8 (mg/min)/(mg/ml).

Figures 19a through 19c show the dynamic equilibrium for the liver glycogen storage (EW3L) for initial glycogen storage (EW3LI) levels of 0.0, 10.0, and 19.25 gm, respectively. This data demonstrates the dynamic characteristic of the liver glycogen storage as revealed in the data of Mortimore (49), (see Figure 12). For glycogen storage (EW3L) levels (0.0, 10.0 gm), below the near equilibrium value of 16 gm, glycogen was produced from glucose (SEW3L) at higher rates (10.7, 5.8 mg/min, @ t = 27) than the rate at which glucose was produced from glycogen (0.0, 0.0 mg/min, 0 t = 27). The (SEW3L) rate varied primarily as a function of the difference between the equilibrium and the actual liver glycogen storage (EW3L). For the condition where the actual liver glycogen storage (EW3L) level (19.25 gm) was greater than the equilibrium glycogen storage level, glucose was produced from glycogen (GR22L1) at a much higher rate (9.6 mg/min, 0 t = 27) than was glycogen produced from glucose (SEW3L) (1.8 mg/min, @ t = 27).

For the test runs of Figures 19a through 19c, a glucose load of 8.75 gm was also injected evenly into blood plasma volume (VIS) of the left side of the heart during the period t = 28.45 to t = 29.95. Over the following 120 minutes, approximately 5.3, 4.3, 2.6 gm of glucose had been converted to glycogen by the liver for initial glycogen storage (EW3LI) levels of 0.0, 10.0, and 19.25 gm, respectively. Over the same period of time 1.4, 1.7, and 2.3 gm of glucose had been converted to glycogen in the muscle (EW3M) for initial liver glycogen levels of 0.0, 10.0, and 19.25, respectively.

Glucose Load Test

A glucose load was applied to the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model so that the glucose dynamics test data obtained from the model could be compared with the in vivo test data obtained by Finkelstein, et al (27), (see Figures 20a through 20d), and the validity of the model determined.

A glucose load of 8.75 gm was injected into the blood plasma volume (VIS) of the left side of the heart during the period t = 28.45 to t = 29.95 minutes. To simulate the glycogen stored in the liver of a fasted canine, the initial liver glycogen storage (EW3LI) level was set at 10.0 gm. To simulate the test conditions of Finkelstein, the gastro-intestinal tract blood flow (BR11I, BR22I) was reduced from 532 ml/min to 229 ml/min and where necessary the blood flow was increased by approximately seventeen per cent to maintain the cardiac output at 2187 ml/min.

The Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model test results are shown in Figures 21a through 21f. The initial blood glucose concentration of approximately 3.5 mg/ml resulting from the glucose load of 8.75 gm, decays almost exponentially ($\mathcal{T}=50$ min) to the basal concentration values of t = 27 over a 120 minute period. Approximately 4.2 gm of glucose have been converted to glycogen (EW3L) by the liver.

The data of Finkelstein (see Figures 20a through 20d) indicates a damped oscillatory type response to the glucose load for the glucose concentrations, particularly in the arterial flow, while all the glucose

concentration data for the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model is nearly exponential.

For the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon model the peak pancreatic insulin concentration output (IC22P), (see Figure 2ld), is 36 ng/ml occurring approximately three minutes after the 8.75 gm glucose load, while for the data of Finkelstein, (see Figure 20c), the peak pancreatic insulin output concentration is approximately 48 ng/ml, occurring approximately 30 minutes after the glucose load. The magnitude of the insulin concentrations throughout the body for both the model and the in vivo test data are in close agreement, peaking at values between 2.5 to 3.0 ng/ml. Where there is disagreement is the time at which the peak insulin concentration occurs, usually being approximately 30 minutes after the glucose load for the in vivo test data of Finkelstein and 12 to 15 minutes for the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model. The arterial insulin concentration for the in vivo test data of Finkelstein, (see Figure 20b), peaks at approximately 15 minutes but has a magnitude of 3.5 ng/ml.

Insulin Load Test

The first insulin load test of the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model was performed to simulate the test data of de Bodo, et al (16), (see Figure 14). An insulin load of 3900 ng/min was injected into the blood plasma volume (VIS) of the left side of the heart from t = 29.95 to t = 49.95, and then an insulin load of 1950 ng/min from t = 49.95 to t = 164.95. The response of the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model to this insulin load is shown in

Figures 22a through 22c. There is good agreement between the in vivo test data of de Bodo and the test data for the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model. The glucose concentration from t=49.95 to t=164.95 for the model is between 0.35 and 0.45 mg/ml while the in vivo test data has level of approximately 0.4 mg/ml. The falling and rising transition times for the model are 35 and 95 minutes, respectively, while for the in vivo data these transition times are 25 and 70 minutes. The waveshape for the muscle glucose concentration (GC1M), (see Figure 22c), is of a damped oscillatory nature, resembling the in vivo test data waveshape of de Bodo, (see Figure 14).

The liver glucose production at t=140 increased by a factor of almost three from a basal level of 16.3 mg/min to 43.1 mg/min. The in vivo data showed an increase of approximately two.

The second insulin load test was an attempt to simulate the in vivo test data of de Bodo, et al (16), (see Figure 15). An insulin load of 778 ng/min was injected into the blood plasma volume (VIS) of the left side of the heart in the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model from t=29.95 to t=119.95 period. The response for the glucose concentration level of the model is shown in Figures 23a through 23c. For the in vivo test data of de Bodo (see Figure 15), the glucose concentration changed at a rate of approximately -5.0×10^{-3} (mg/ml)/min during the period of time when insulin was being injected into the canine, while for the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model the glucose concentration rate changed at a rate of approximately -3.0×10^{-3} (mg/ml)/min.

The recovery transition time back to basal glucose concentration levels once the insulin load had been stopped was approximately 45 minutes for the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model and 30 minutes for the in vivo test data of de Bodo. The glucose concentration for the in vivo test did not return to the original basal level but was higher by approximately 0.05 mg/ml.

The liver glucose production throughout the period of the insulin load (778 ng/min) remained constant for the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model which is in good agreement with the in vivo test data of de Bodo.

SECTION IX

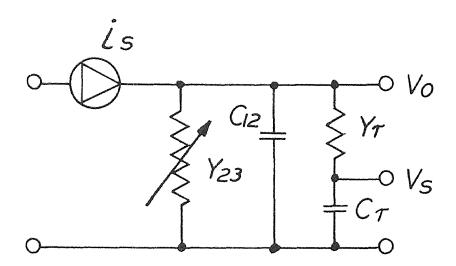
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The Basal Test results for the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model demonstrates the dynamic equilibrium that exists between the level of glycogen stored (EW3L) in the liver, the glucose (GC1L), and insulin (IC1L) concentrations of the blood plasma perfusing the liver. For the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model the equilibrium glycogen storate (EW3L) of the liver is approximately 16 gm, as a result of a stable supply of glucose substrates from the many body sources. Had the long term body functions involved in the glucose dynamics also been modeled, as these glucose substrate sources depleted with time, the blood plasma glucose and insulin concentrations would also have diminished, causing the liver glycogen storage equilibrium level to also be reduced.

For the Glucose Load Test the glucose concentration response of the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model to a 8.75 gm glucose load was basically exponential back to the original basal glucose concentration level of 1.0 mg/ml, (see Figures 21a through 21f). The response for the in vivo test data of Finkelstein, (see Figures 20a through 20d), for a glucose load was also exponential throughout most of the canine with the exception for the data of the arterial flow; here a damped oscillation was observed. The damped oscillation for the arterial flow of the in vivo data is probably caused by either the insulin caused, delayed modulation of the 23.0 mg/min glucose load requirement of the head, or a glucose load requirement

for the lungs modulated by a delayed insulin response. (This type response has been observed for the muscle glucose concentration (GCIM) for the Insulin Load Test, see Figure 22c.) For the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model, the 23.0 gm/min glucose load requirement for the head remained nearly fixed for all levels of both glucose and insulin concentration perfusing the head, while there was no glucose requirement for the lungs other than the glucose needed to bring the blood plasma (VIR) and the interstitial fluid (V2R) of the lungs into equilibrium with the rest of the system.

A possible mode of action for the damped oscillatory response of the arterial flow for the in vivo data, would be the delayed response for the insulin controlled active transport of glucose into the intracellular fluid of either the head or the lungs (V3C, V3R). An electrical analog is shown below of a non-linear



system which duplicates many of the characteristics of the active transport glucose dynamics. The response of this electical analog to a step input of glucose (\angle s) is a damped oscillation, where the magnitude of the first overshoot is controlled by the time constant ($T = C_T/\gamma_T$). The voltage Vs controls the glucose admittance (Y23) between the interstitial fluid and the intracellular fluid. The capacitor C_{12} represents the sum of the blood plasma and interstitial volumes.

One aspect of blood flow throughout the circulatory system that has not been modeled is the Laminar flow through the arteries, capillaries, and veins. The Laminar flow, together with the higher concentration of red blood cells in the center of the flow (31), would cause the blood concentrates to be distributed throughout the body at a slower effective rate, and for the Laminar flow of blood to exhibit the characteristics of a dynamic reservoir.

For the two tests in the Insulin Load Test there is generally good agreement between the in vivo test data of de Bodo (see Figures 14 and 15), and the data from the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System Model. Had the 6.25 mg/min lactate glucose load requirement (Cori cycle) been included in the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model, the test data for the model would have been in closer agreement with the in vivo test data.

The inclusion of the 6.25 mg/min lactate glucose load to the liver glucose production would have meant a near two-fold increase

in the liver glucose production (22.6 mg/min to 49.4 mg/min) between the basal and 1950 ng/min insulin load periods, and lowered the depressed glucose concentration level below 9.45 mg/ml, thus being in closer agreement with the in vivo test data.

The inclusion of the 6.25 mg/min lactate glucose load requirement would also have increased the rate $(-3.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ (mg/ml)/min at})$ which the glucose concentration was changing due to the 778 ng/min insulin load bringing this rate closer to the $(-5.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ (mg/ml)/min})$ min) rate for the in vivo test data. (The $-3.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ (mg/ml/min})$ figure is probably more of a result of the muscle model causing glucose to be absorbed by the muscle at 0.27%/min rather than the 0.55%/min that was calculated from the data of (16).)

The 6.25 mg/min lactate glucose load requirement will have little effect on the transition response during the 3900 ng/min insulin load, but will further degrade the recovery response by approximately 20%.

The fact that for the in vivo test data of de Bodo, (see Figures 14 and 15), the recovery, after removing the insulin load, of the glucose concentration was to levels higher than the original basal glucose concentration indicates that either new glucose sources have been made available to the system or that the canine's glucose load requirment has been reduced as a result of the high insulin concentration, and that these insulin caused effects have not recovered to their basal levels.

Major improvements to the Glucose-Insulin-Glucagon System model could be made by incorporating into the model features that would account for the damped oscillatory response observed in the in vivo test data of Finkelstein, (see Figures 20a through 20d) for the glucose concentration of the arterial blood flow, and also the elevated glucose concentration for the arterial blood flow as compared to the rest of the canine.

Modeling the adrenal and the effects that both adrenaline and glucocorticoids have on the gluconeogenic substrates and the liver production of glucose would also make the model more accurate and complete.

OCOPRIBLEM INPUT STATEMENTSOOD	
3LEH INPUT STATEMENTS#	
3LEH INPUT STATEMENTS#	
3LEH INPUT STATEMENTS#	
3L E.#	500
3L E.#	MPUT
3L E.#	

	OCOPRUBLEM INPUT STATEMENTSOOO
	CCNSTANT E=2.719201928
170	-2840.0 + V3=7966. 3822P=46.0 + BA22 BEIIR=2107. + BR
P	GR22F=21EF.3, GSIIN=647.0, GRII(=322.0, BRIIN=40.0, BRIII=486.0, BRIIN=410.0,
	ALICE 75.5, GC28C33.3 ALICE 75.6, GC28C33.3 ALICE 75.6, AK25C = 10.5 GCIC 1 = 1.6, GC2C = 1.0, GC3C = 1.0 GCIC 1 = 1.6, GC2C = 1.0, GC3C = 1.0
	4(15)=1.0, 5(25)=1.0, 6(25)=1.0,
	ARIZZEJ96.3, ARZ3RE93.7; G[14] = 1.0, G(ZK1=1.3), G(ZR1=1.0), L[17] = 0.5, [(ZR1=0.5, 1] = 0.06, AC3R1=0.06, AC3R1=0.0
	A(191=0.06, A(201=0.06, A(301=0.06, a(301=0.06, a(301=0.06), a(301=0.0
d description	C(111=10.5) (C(211=0.5), IC311=0.5) A(111=0.05, A(211=0.05, A(311=0.06,) A(111=0.05, A(311=0.06,) A(111=0.06,) A(111=0.06, A(311=0.06,) A(111=0.06,) A(111=0.06, A(311=0.06,) A(111=0.06,
	i
	C PH ad

FIGURE 17a

COMPUTER PROGRAM

IMIZM=200.0, IK23M=400.0, AKIZM=2005.0, AK23M=400.0, GCIMI=1.0, GCZMI=1.0, GCZMI=1.0, ICIMI=0.5, ICZMI=0.5, ICZMI=0.5, ACIMI=0.5, ICZMI=0.5, ICZMI=0.56, VINE 150, VKK 3853.0, V3K=1020.0,	11 (3K1= 1C3K1= 1C3K1	V1F=74.3.V2F=24.0, V3F=63.02 UK12F=15.2.: IK12F=15.2.: IK12F=15.2.: AK12F=15.2.: AK12F=15.2.	GNIF = ((GC11F) = (BR11F) - (GC1F) NIF = INTGKL(G.0, SGATF) C.FF = GC1F + (GATF) + (VATF) CA.FF = (SC1F - GC2F) = (GN12F)	CASE = CASE VACAPI CASE = CASE VACAPI SINIF = CASE VACAPI SINIF = CASE VACAPI CASE VACAPIC VAC			01	A 23 FILLS F	SANLN = (ACIN-AC28) o(AX12R) - (AC2R) o(AX23R) ANL = IN IGRL(0.5, SAR2R) ACAS = IN IGRL(0.5, SAR2R) ICAS = 2950.60 = 0.1 yEC18 INJECT = A-0.5 og = 0.5 oc A = STEP (29.95) 5 = STEP (49.95) C = STEP (164.95)
	- compression -							on the state of th	

FIGURE 17b

COMPUTER PROGRAM

\$GWIS=[(GCIR]=(BRIIS]-(GCIS)=(BR22S))=(HK]-(GCIS-GC2S)=(GKI2S]+GLDAD GWIS=[NI]GL[0,0,5GAIS] GCIS=GCIS[+(GAIS)/(AIS) \$GWIS=(GCIS-GCAS)=(GKI2S)	1.TGRL(0.0,56425)	ن ا	 A N 15 = 1.1 GFL (0.10,5 A N 15) A N 15 = 1.4 GFL (0.10,5 A N 15) S N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N	251 425)			GCTVC = ((GCZZL) = (BAZZL) + (GCIM) = (BRZZM) + (GCIM) = (BRZZK))/BRIVC ICIVC = ((ICIL) > (BRZZL) + (ICIM) = (BRZZM) + (BRZZM)	80 10	CAIC=141CAL(0.50+55A1C) CCIC=6(1C1+6A1C/V1C	681(=16C15=5C1C1+(5411C) (6.2.C=1.C1)(2.2.2.1a)(2.2.2.C2)(2.2.C2)(2.2.C2)	C 2 / 2 C 2 C 2 C 2 C 2 C 2 C 2 C 2 C 2	. حبر عاد	SINIC=[((S)> GRIC)-(CIC)=(BR22C)]=(HK)-(CIC- C2C)=(IKI2C) NIC= R CR (D,C) SINIC) SINIC= R CR (D,C) SINIC	J . 4	14.2 (= 17.1 (= 17.2	.: 4	SARZC = (AC2C) = (AC2	A \(\ceps_C \		CKIP=(CK_(0,10,5Ck_P) / (KIP)	\$u.2P= (4C12P) 9(5C12P)	6(2P=18.1C+L(C.0.5) V(V2P)		R=(60.0)0(1.0-0.720	LAR=LI411(0.3,50.4,AR) SIMIP=((1(15)0-(5R110)-(1C1P)0(BR22P))0(HK)-(IC1P-IC2P)0(IK12P) FINDEINICH (0.6,010)	######################################
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FIGURE 17c

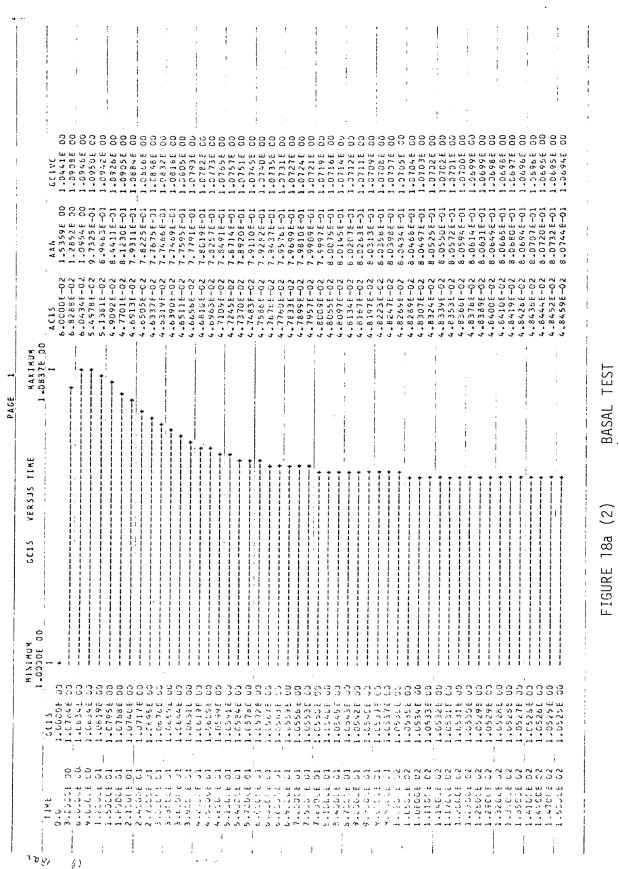
FIGURE 17d COMPUTER PROGRAM

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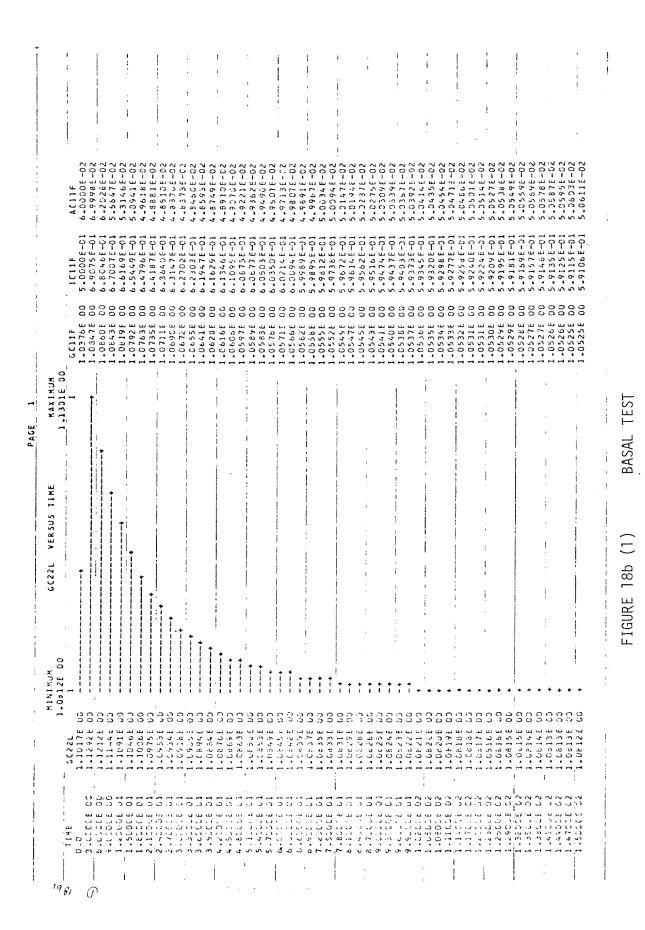
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.E.C.C.E. C	434	1	.0309E	4.5361	2.5172E 0	, met -
1.7.7. n	6.869		.9712E	4-5548	2.8044E 0	
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.3725.6.03	717.6	!	5.79196-0	4.4968	3-04495	
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		+ 1	5.6366E-	4.57918	3-13498	
3 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12	, C O Y C	***************************************	5.6200E-C	4.59135	3.1402E	
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3 17 17 5	5. 32	•)-35255-5	4.6124	3.1477	
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3 33375.	57.78	Andrews and the state of the st	5.5618E-C	4.6306	3.15408	
500000	8070	+ ;	5.5539£-(4.6430E	3.1555	·
13.13.	56.95	The state of the s	5.54668-1	4.54876	3-1566E	
0 1001	3336	÷ i	5 5406E-C	4-65338	3.15756	
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7.000	5663	TO CONTROL OF THE STATE OF THE	5-5256F-C	4-6660	3.15.45.6	and the contract of the contra
0 40000.	1,007	• •	5-5216E-C	4-6693	3.1601E	
10 m	17.53	A STATE OF THE PARTY OF T	5.51816-6	4-5722	3.1625E	
0 3010K	5557	•	7-34410-7	4.6/48	3.10365	
C 4 1777	5564		5 - 5094E - C	3116-4	3-10116	
	5532	The same of the sa	5-50706-0	4-66126	3.1516E	Maryon in the coupling
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3 7 7	5656	. •	* 50118	4-6861	3.1621E	
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۰ د ،	35479E	The same of the same property of the same property of the same same same same same same same sam	4965	7584-4	3.1524	
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7 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11	0-34694	THE RESERVE THE PROPERTY OF TH	-4939	4-6920	3.1626	
	01126676	+ 4	1265	4.69308	3-1626E	
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Je1162	.5442 E-U	THE REAL PROPERTY OF THE PARTY	00001	22760 * 7	3-1627E	
9 300***	54371-0	•	7.4884.7	19669** 1	3-16286	
0	5432E-0	*	46776	3 + 0 + 0 + 0 + 1	3.10205	
				7		

FIGURE 18a (1)
*To correct, multiply by HK, (0.727).

BASAL TEST



18a FIGURE



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i I	20110		-11.	5.4873	E-01	-3279E	
, .,	35.610			5-4611	6-01	36156-	
^	1 a f -0			5.6171		37076	
· .	20.6-0	The second of th		5.3989	E-01	.3625E	:
י הו	27F-C		.0720E	5.3627	E-01 4	36435	
'n.	J - 17 - 1 - 17 - 17 - 17 - 17 - 17 - 17	ŧ	111	5.3654	E-01 6	31505°	
				5-3558	E-01	-4148E	
	1 m 12 10	į		7 + 244 /		-4235E	
, ,	0-3 e c	The state of the s	3569	5 - 325)		16.26.27	•
'n.	52E-U		30690	5.3183	7	*44500	
٠	J E-0	THE CAME ASSESS OF THE PARTY CONTRACT AND	0687E	5.3115	E-01	.4501E	
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, v			0672E	5.2834	10-3	37565	The state of the s
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'n	, S			5.2707	7 5	17887	
. 5	3.5			5.2668	E-01	30585*	
٠.	٠. ر د د		1.0665E	5.2671	£31	.4864E	1
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ή • 4	۱۰ به پ ر			5-2640	E-01	306e	:
, ,	2010			5-2626	9	31065°	
	100			5.2613	ក្ត	4.4911E-02	
. 5	575-0	THE STATE OF THE S	06616	5.2590	7 6	31264	special designation and the property of the contract of the co
'n	15 8-0		0661E	5.2579	5 5	36664	
'n	35 E-C		30990	5.2569	-01	3355	
'n	0-3 57	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	OCCOE	5.25	0	-4956E	
	06.15E	-	36590	5.255	E-01	36967	
	0 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1	AMERICAN PARTER AND	659E	5-2	E-01	-4970E	
'n	7 2 2 4 6 5		6586	5 - 253	E-01	-31164-	

FIGURE 18b (2) BASAL TEST

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.15c.E UI	.6619			5 C	4975		
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.7367	-5167			0	.6536€	00	
53 C	いかいがく			60718 0	.05385	C=0	
, iii ii i	41.44.			6075F 0	020E	0.0	
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- 4100E	4365.		1	6592E 0	-9859E	0.0	
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. ASCOR .	14234		!	0 35809	.5188E	0.0	
. ZECSE G	3.38.5		1	0 38809	.5200E	0.0	
0.30067	. 2379	- 4		2.E 0	.5206	0.0	
. 320'E	. 2373			6081E 0	.52118	0.0	
٠ . ا ا ا ا	46.409			6080E 0	.5410E	0.0	
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5 410 F4	1922.			0 35L	.5202E	0.0	
	.2354		· 我是 李章·李章·李章 医 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	1.6078E 01	2.5195 € 30	0.0	
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FIGURE 18c (1) BASAL TEST

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FIGURE 18c (2) BASAL TEST

FIGURE 18d (1) BASAL TEST

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FIGURE 18d (2) BASAL TEST

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FIGURE 18e (1) BASAL TEST

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FIGURE 19c (1)

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J 40004	3.00.0	+	3695€	3.00576	2.7917
	14114.	•	.3765E	3.05356	2-30+0
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2470CE 5	.0629	**************************************		2.4725	1525-9
0 3000	.8445E D	+	.323yE	2.3590	6.3640

.BASAL TEST (DYNAMIC EQUILIBRIUM)

FIGURE 19c (2)

GLUCOSE DYNAMICS FLOW DIAGRAM GLUCOSE LOAD

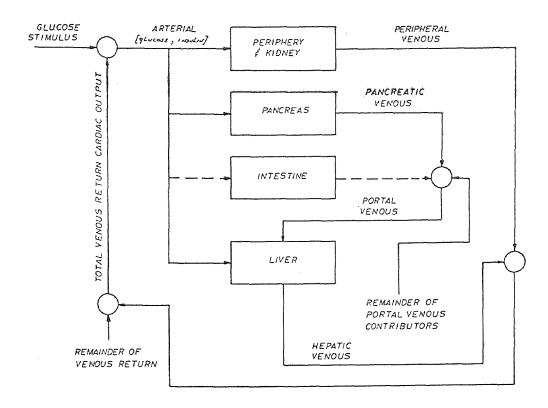


FIGURE 20a*

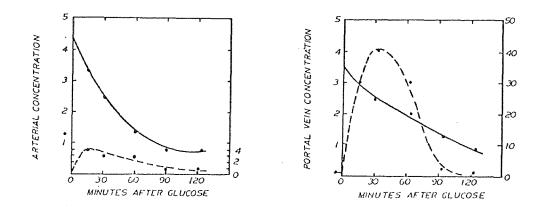


FIGURE 20b*

^{*}In Vivo Test Data, Finkelstein (27).

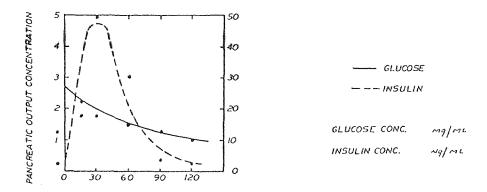


Figure 20c*

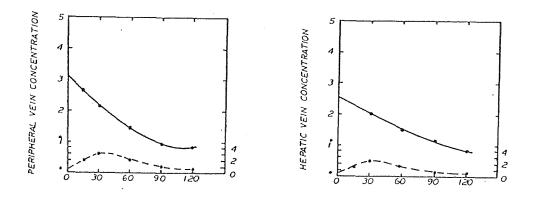


Figure 20d*

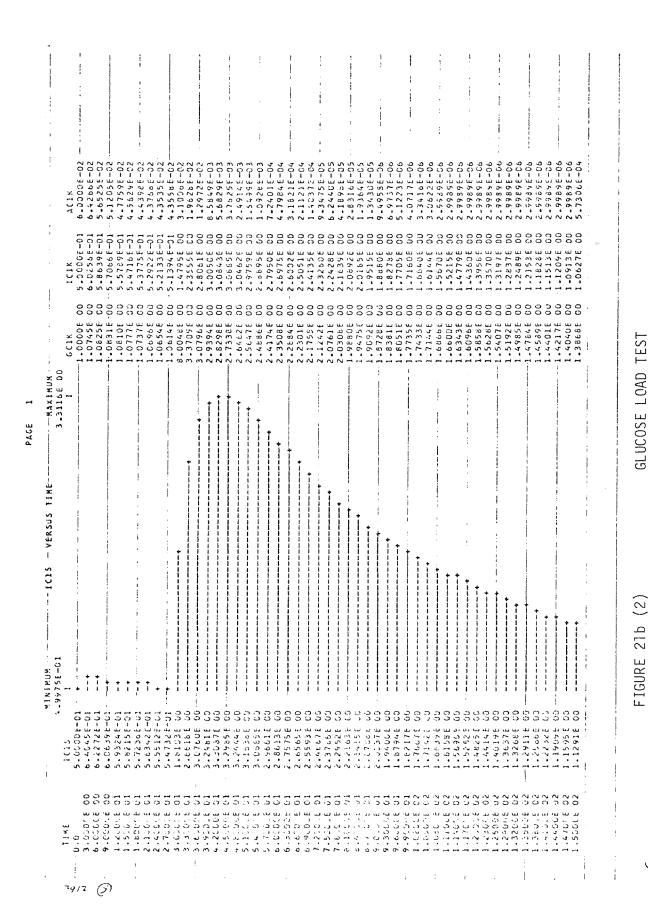
^{*}In Vivo Test Data, Finkelstein (27).

*To correct, multiply by HK, (0.727)

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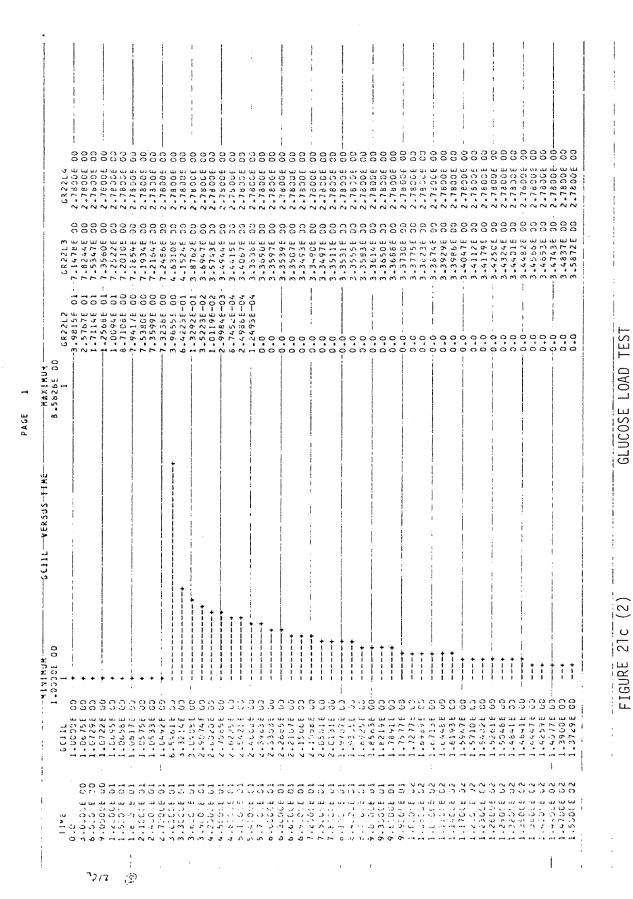
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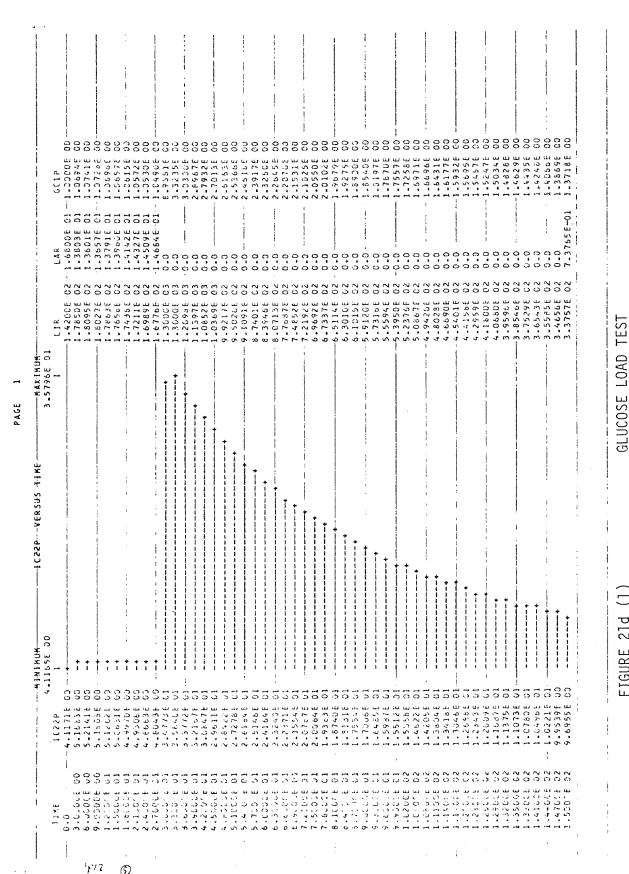
FIGURE 21b (1)



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1.4312F 01 0.0 25 0.2 1.2377F 01+ 25 0.2 1.277F 01+ 35 0.0 1.4389F 01 0.0 35 0.2 1.225F 01+ 36 0.2 1.273F 01+ 37 0.0 0 37 0.0 0 38 0.0	1.4312F 01 0.0 1.3349F 01 + 1.4312F 01 0.0 1.4424F 01 0.0 1.	.33~3c 01+	0.	
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FOLE 080 : 1000110		1000110		

FIGURE 21c (1)





21d FIGURE

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) U () () ()	14011-0		344 E	.1376E	-286CE	
	D=36767.	of the first and an extractional and the imparts and the contract of the first and the contract of the contract of the first and the contract of the	* 0 5 0 4 E	-0642E	2844E	
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. 9000E	32855-0	•	.9585E	92158	37230	
.2565	.5316E-U	•	3 5668	.0181E	35610	
.50006 0	. 50 22 8-0	the designation of the state of	-7390F	.0339E	37985	
0 4 5 %	0-46575.	•	.6491E	35656-	.5297E	
() .	5	•	.56635	.9347	.7482E	
	0-30200.	The contract of the contract o	3263b.	.3523E	.1579E	1
0 40001	0-37957	•	-4171E	.7607E	95CL9.	
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ر د د د د د د د	. 7344 E-0	+	348E	.3347	.74938	
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J 47074.	. 73-4 8	•	951E	.07716	7493	
Cucia						

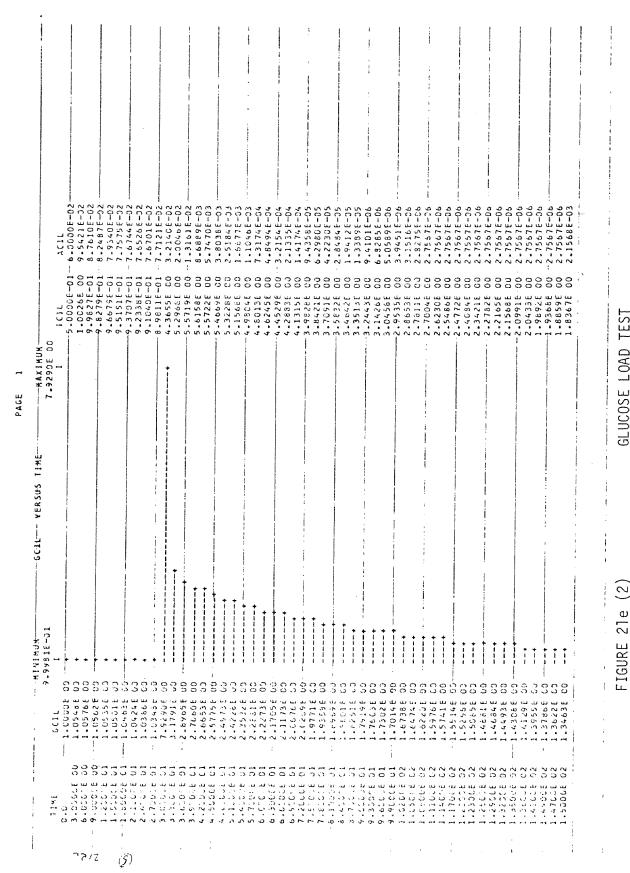
FIGURE 21d (2)

GLUCOSE LOAD TEST

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	.0125	The state of the s	. 0	1.29076	3000	Course camps companies in the
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ر ا ا	1 1 2 1 2 1 2 1	1	1416 0	4.5210E	.2553E	
	101.17	1	3376E G	4.1765E	39768.	
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0.6.0	.7620E	+	8357E 0	1.2488	9366	

FIGURE 21e (1)



(7)FIGURE

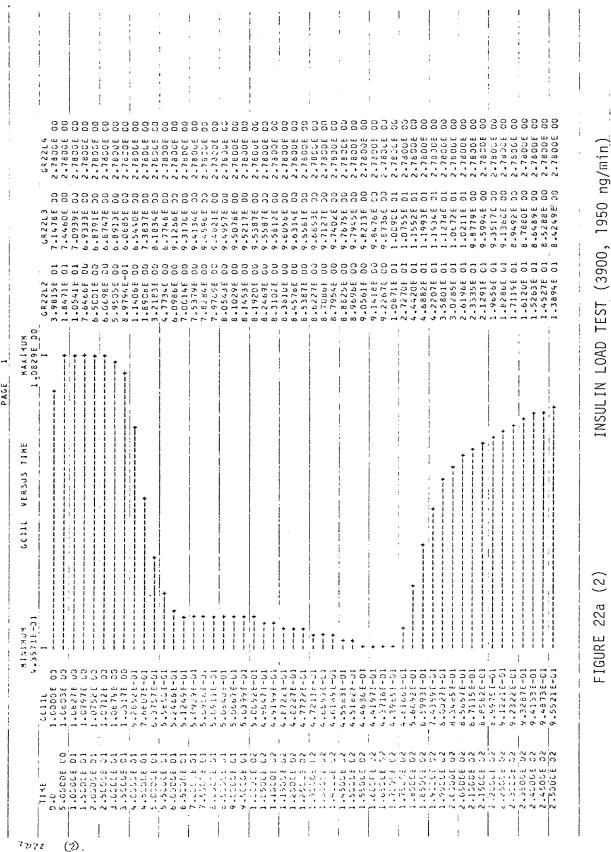
1000 1000		
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2,5446 to 2,4446 7396E-03 - 2	18.50	
2.47196 60 2.40376 00 2.4	.8147E-03 2	335
1.00 1.00	.2621E-33 2	356
1,5536 00 5.7526 00	2 40-34236	3769
1.5026 00 3.4966	27528-04 2	3250
2.750 0.1 0.	49645-04 2	368
1,256 1, 2,259 1	.3187E-04 2	74E
1.25086 0.102306	.5340E-04 2	305
1.2556 0.0 6.81478 0.0 6	.02306-04 2	305
1.2501E 0.2.079E 0.2.079E 0.2.0501E 0.2.0501	.8147E-05 2	30E
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1.10 1.10	.0618E-05 2	436
1,12456 03 1,47199 1,97545 03 1,47199 1,5556 03 1,47199 1,	.0668E-05 2	367E
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.55016 UZ 1.47048 CJ .41508 GZ 1.45138 CJ .41608 GZ1.43268 CJ	-2054E-06]	3508 0
.4.15tE G2	.2054E-05 1	351E 0
	.2054E-06	0 3159
	.2054E-96]	0 3695
1.4125 U2 1.4125 U3	.2C54E-06	287E
.s.t. u2 1.3970	.6379E-04	109E 0

FIGURE 21f (1)

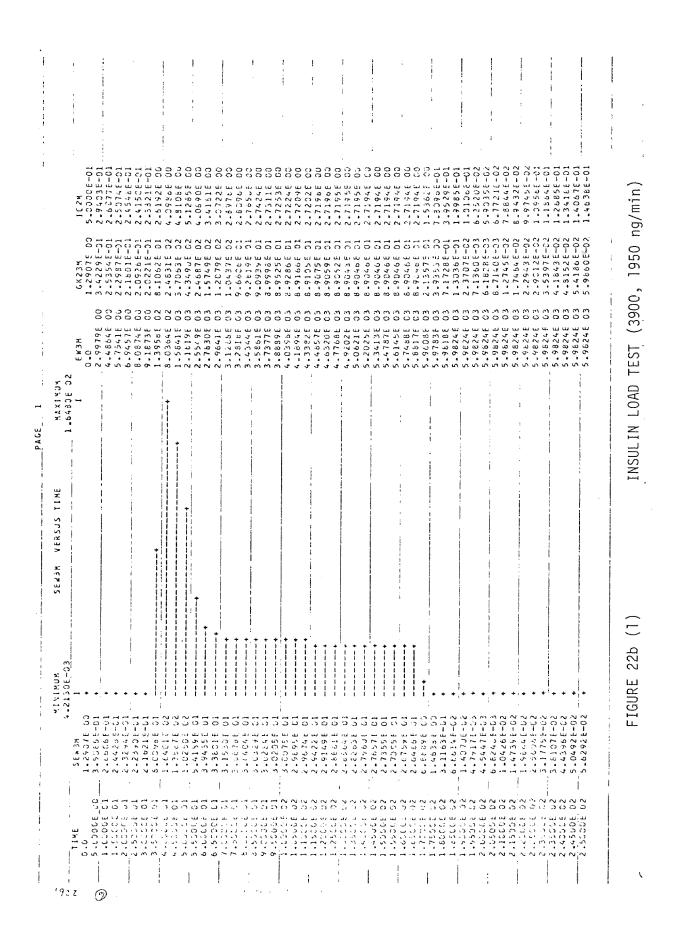
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. ESSSE	-1.4185	1111111	.8553E 01 3.0372	1 - 1.07296	
.200 E 0	-3.8245E	**************************************	.6376E 01 3.0201	1.06936	
1.5.00E 01	-5.(955E	1	2.4942E 01 3.0637E	01 1.5653E 0	20
C :	145.72-		.4157E 01 - 2.9081	1 1-051UE	
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. Beece c	-9.57145		.3825E G1 1.0954	3.22968	
. Cotte u	-1.0406E	. ,	.3039E 01 -1,1710	2 2.9873E	0
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2.5.7.	-9.1725		2399E 01 1.0412	2 2.38196	0
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3.1.25.	-3.0495F	1	25848 01 - 9.2877	1 2.2559E	i
	-7.5499E	***	2331f 01 8.7875	1 2.1939E	0
	3.55.60*/-	1 1 1	2379E 01 8.3319	1 2-1456E	0
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FIGURE 21f (2)

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.4500E 62 9.2849F-01 3.1535E-02 9.2199E- .4510E 52 9.3750E-01 3.0896E-02 9.3182E- .500CE 02 9.4537E-C1 3.0336E-02 9.4039E-	.4000 02 9.2849F-01 3.1535E-02 9.2899E-01 3.0896E-02 9.2899E-02 9.2899E-02 9.2800E 02 9.2800E 02 9.2899E-03 9.2800E 02 9.4537E-01 3.0336E-02 9.4039E-03 9.	1.6198E-01 3.1535E-02 9.249F-01 3.0336E-02 9.2199E-02 9.2199E-03 9	.4500E 62 9.2849F-01 3.1535E-02 9.3199E-01 3.0336E-02 9.4039E-01 3.0336E-02 9.4039E-01 3.0336E-02 9.4039E-02 9.4039E-02 9.4039E-03 9	32 4.1314
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FIGURE 22c (1)

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FIGURE 22c (2)

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23a (I)

INSULIN LOAD TEST (778 ng/min)

FIGURE 23a (1)

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FIGURE 23a (2) INSULIN LOAD TEST (778 ng/min)	J	0000	-	170101	12/5/11	מסטפר ר	5 C	
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FIGURE 23a (2) INSULIN LOAD TEST (778 ng/min)	. 51. J. E. G	1610		10000	30000	700000	.	
FIGURE 23a (2) INSULIN LOAD TEST (778 mg/min)	ر. د. د.	6752	+ + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +	1004.	17676	30001-2	.	
FIGURE 23a (2) INSULIN LOAD TEST (778 mg/min)	0.000	21.0		33590	0 + E 74 / E	2-1500t	ر	
FIGURE 23a (2) INSULIN LOAD TEST (778 mg/min)	4	75	The second control of the second control of	9505E	6.39.58	2.7.00 €	0	
FIGURE 23a (2) INSULIN LOAD TEST (778 mg/min)) ; ; ;			5817F	47711.9	7.78308	C	
FIGURE 23a (2) INSULIN LOAD TEST (778 ng/min)	21.0	0		00000	2 6 2 6 7	7000		
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FIGURE 23a (2) FIGURE 23a (2) FIGURE 23a (2) FIGURE 23a (2) FIGURE 23a (2) FIGURE 23a (2) FIGURE 23a (2) FIGURE 23a (2) FIGURE 23a (2) FIGURE 25a (2)		75.00	to the state of th	.7649E	6.50118	2.7830E	0	
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FIGURE 23a (2) INSULIN LOAD TEST (778 ng/min)	2 2 2 4 2 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	5		3				1
FIGURE 23a (2) INSULIN LOAD TEST (7778 ng/min)	0 4 5 0	6653	The state of the s	37377	0 - 0 - 0	30001-7	, c	
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FIGURE 23a (2) INSULIN LOAD TEST (778 ng/min)		1,40	\$ 00 to 00 t	1171F	7.21325	2.75.0E	S	
FIGURE 23a (2) INSULIN LOAD TEST (778 ng/min)	3	2	•	2 4 7 4 4	30030	20000	0	-
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FIGURE 23a (2) INSULIN LOAD TEST (7778 ng/min)		1	*: : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	.2270F	7.5c67E	2.78CJF	ċ	
FIGURE 23a (2) FIGURE 23a (2)			The second secon	はかがくない	7.54316	-2.783GF	- A	
FIGURE 23a (2) INSULIN LOAD TEST (778 ng/min)		1		10000	7 71636	30026	ı Ç	
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FIGURE 23a (2) INSULIN LOAD TEST (778 ng/min)	7.2.2.	20	* 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	1000			2 5	
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FIGURE 23a (2) INSULIN LOAD TEST (778 ng/min))			9 0 1 1 2	36672 0	40000		
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FIGURE 23a (2) INSULIN LOAD TEST (778 ng/min)	2.7.3.	40.00		.1477E	7.85015	2 - 180CE	0.0	
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FIGURE 23a (2) FIGURE 23a (2) FIGURE 23a (2) FIGURE 23a (2)		, C. v		* 2000	31700"/	27001*7		
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FIGURE 23b (1)

INSULIN LOAD TEST (778 ng/min)

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INSULIN LOAD TEST (778 ng/min)

FIGURE 23c (1)

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Table III

Non-Conforming Mneumonic Terms

TERM

DESCRIPTION

A, B, C Step functions used to generate INJECT timing waveshape AAN Normalized amino acid concentration in the liver AR Rate of glucagon secretion from pancreas (ng/min) BRIVC Blood flow in inferior vena cava (ml/min) Ε Base of natural logarithm Quantity of glycogen that has been produced from EWM glucose in the muscle FACTOR Factor of the variable (GR22L1) which is limited by the function (GLGL) GLGL Limit function of the term (FACTOR) GLOAD Glucose load (mg/min) **GLUGLY** Limit function of the factored term (GLYSTO) for the variable (SEW3L) **GLYSTO** Factor of variable (SEW3L) which is limited to produce (GLUGLY) GRDELT Net rate at which the glucose in the blood is changing (mg/min) GRIN Total rate at which glucose is being put into the blood (mg/min) GROUT Total rate at which glucose is being removed from the

blood system (mg/min)

Table III (Continued)

Non-Conforming Mneumonic Terms

TERM	DESCRIPTION
GR1C	Rate at which blood is transporting glucose into the blood plasma volume (VIC) of the head.
GR22L1	Rate at which glycogen is converted to glucose by the liver (mg/min)
GR22L2	Rate at which glucose is produced from amino acids by the liver (mg/min)
GR22L3	Rate of glucose production from lactate in the liver (mg/min)
GR22L4	Rate of glucose production from glycerol in the liver (mg/min) $\label{eq:mgmin}$
GW22L1	Quantity of glucose produced from glycogen by the liver (mg)
HEPART	Blood flow in hepatic artery
НК	Plasma ratio, ratio of blood plasma to whole blood, = 100 - Hematocrit 100
ILOAD	Insulin load (ng/min)
INJECT	Timing waveshape used to control injection of either glucose or insulin into model
IR	Rate of insulin secretion from pancreas (ng/min)
LAR	Limit function for (AR) term
LIR	Limit function for (IR) term

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