

1 **Using Artificial Intelligence to Improve the Accuracy of a**

2 **Wrist-Worn, Non-Invasive Glucose Monitor: A Pilot Study**

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48 **Abbreviations:** AI, Artificial Intelligence; ARD, Absolute Relative Difference; CGM,
49 Continuous Glucose Monitoring; DRS, Dial Resonating Sensor; MARD, Mean Absolute
50 Relative Difference; MCU, Micro-Controller Unit; MC, Monte Carlo; NIGM, Non-
51 Invasive Glucose Monitoring; PCB, Printed Circuit Board; SD, Standard Deviation; SEG,
52 Surveillance Error Grid; SMBG, Self-Monitoring of Blood Glucose.

53 **Keywords:** Blood glucose self-monitoring; Diabetes mellitus; Microwaves; Non-
54 invasive glucose monitoring; Radio frequency; Wearable electronic devices

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60

61 **Abstract**

62 **Background:**

63 Self-monitoring of glucose is important to the successful management of diabetes;
64 however, existing monitoring methods require a degree of invasive measurement
65 which can be unpleasant for users. This study investigates the accuracy of a non-
66 invasive glucose monitoring system that analyses spectral variations in radio
67 frequency/microwave signals.

68 **Methods:**

69 An open-label, pilot design study was conducted with four cohorts (N = 5/cohort). In
70 each session, a dial-resonating sensor (DRS) attached to the wrist automatically
71 collected data every 60 seconds, with a novel artificial intelligence (AI) model
72 converting signal resonance output to a glucose prediction. Plasma glucose was
73 measured in venous blood samples every 5 minutes for Cohorts 1-3 and every 10
74 minutes for Cohort 4. Accuracy was evaluated by calculating the mean absolute
75 relative difference (MARD) between the DRS and plasma glucose values.

76 **Results:**

77 Accurate plasma glucose predictions were obtained across all four cohorts using a
78 global sampling procedure, with an average MARD of 10.3%. A statistical analysis
79 demonstrates the quality of these predictions, with a Surveillance Error Grid (SEG)
80 plot indicating no data pairs falling into the higher risk zones.

81 **Conclusions:**

82 These findings show that MARD values approaching accuracies comparable to current
83 commercial alternatives can be obtained from a multi-participant pilot study with the
84 application of AI. Microwave biosensors and AI models show promise for improving

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85 the accuracy and convenience of glucose monitoring systems for people with
86 diabetes.

87 **Clinical Trial Number: NCT05023798**

88 **Introduction**

89 Self-monitoring of blood glucose (SMBG) is an important part of managing diabetes
90 (1). However, the invasiveness of standard finger-prick glucose tests, which must be
91 taken several times a day, are a significant barrier to SMBG (2). Systems for continuous
92 glucose monitoring (CGMs) – with wearable glucose sensors that provide continuous
93 glucose readings from the interstitial fluid in the subcutaneous tissue – are therefore
94 increasingly being utilised (3). The continuous data from such CGM systems provide
95 insight into glycaemic patterns throughout the day, improving glycaemic control and
96 increasing patient confidence in managing their diabetes (4). Nevertheless, CGMs
97 require the insertion of a subcutaneous sensor which can compromise skin integrity
98 (5). Interstitial glucose levels lag 5-10 minutes behind blood glucose levels, which may
99 lead to underestimations of changes in glycaemic levels, particularly during activities
100 such as exercise (6). There is thus great interest in the development of accurate, non-
101 invasive, wearable devices for CGM (7) (8).

102 Many non-invasive glucose monitoring (NIGM) systems currently under investigation,
103 such as photoacoustics (9) and near infra-red spectroscopy (10), utilise expensive
104 instrumentation and are subject to error from physiological and environmental
105 variables (11). Other methods such as transdermal or epidermal electrochemical
106 sensors may still involve the use of microneedles (12), or involve monitoring glucose
107 in sweat which can also be problematic (13).

108 Studies have shown that employing microwave technology is a promising area of
109 development for such devices. For example, one study has shown that a micro-
110 resonator using a metal-insulator-semiconductor provided a reliable indicator of
111 glucose levels (14). Another reports promising tests of a highly sensitive resonator-
112 based microwave biosensor for real-time blood glucose detection (15). Nevertheless,

113 a recent review concluded that there is a need for increased sensitivity, accuracy and
114 stability in such sensors, some of which could be achieved through AI and machine
115 learning (16).

116 The current study reports on an open-label, pilot design study of a novel, non-invasive,
117 wrist-worn device which analyses resonance shifts in the microwave spectrum using
118 AI. The dial-resonating sensor (DRS) uses a microwave sensor to measure bulk plasma
119 glucose levels in the body, which are then converted to a glucose measurement. This
120 study aims to determine the accuracy of the DRS device by comparing gold standard
121 measures of plasma glucose to algorithmically derived measures of glucose from the
122 DRS device.

123

124 **Methods**

125 Ethics Statement

126 Ethics committee approval was obtained (WoS reC4, 21/WS/0139), with all
127 participants providing written informed consent.

128 Study Design

129 In this open-label, pilot design study, four cohorts (each comprising five participants)
130 attended trials that were ≤ 7 days apart at the Joint Clinical Research Facility (JCRF) in
131 Swansea, Wales. A total of four 2-hour sessions or two 8-hour sessions were organised
132 for each participant from Cohorts 1-3 and Cohort 4, respectively. During each trial,
133 DRS-derived glucose measurements were compared with plasma glucose levels
134 measured using a YSI 2500 laboratory glucose analyser. A Random Forest algorithm
135 applied to and trained on this DRS data was used to estimate the glucose levels on
136 unseen subsets of this dataset. No major changes were made to the protocol during
137 the study.

138 Participants

139 To be included in the study, participants needed to have documented Type 1 diabetes
140 diagnosed before age 29 or have had documented Type 2 diabetes for more than one
141 year with negative glutamic acid decarboxylase antibody test results. They were also
142 required to be aged 18-80 years and to have a body mass index of 18-35 kg/m².
143 Potential participants were then excluded if: they had another active implantable
144 medical device (e.g., a pacemaker); were currently participating in another clinical
145 trial for a pharmaceutical product; had a history of allergies to any materials used in
146 the study; were females who were pregnant or lactating; had clinically significant
147 abnormal values in clinical chemistry; had a concurrent illness or condition that may

148 interfere with blood glucose levels; have had an episode of diabetic ketoacidosis,
149 hyperglycaemic hyperosmolar non-ketotic coma, or severe hypoglycaemia within one
150 month prior; were on pramlintide; had a wrist injury; or, had severe macrovascular
151 disease. As this was a pilot study, a sample size calculation was not performed.
152 Instead, the target was to recruit five participants to each cohort.

153 DRS Device

154 The DRS device comprises a planar split ring resonator fabricated on the top layer of
155 a multi-layered printed circuit board (PCB). Other system components such as the
156 oscillator, coupler, micro-controller unit (MCU) and detector are fabricated on the
157 other side of the PCB to realise the wearable wrist-worn monitor, shown in Figure 1.
158 The DRS is designed to radiate high-frequency, low-power electromagnetic waves into
159 the patient's wrist over a frequency band of 1-10 GHz. The electromagnetic signal
160 transmitted into the wrist is susceptible to glucose induced dielectric changes in the
161 arteries, veins, and interstitial fluid. These dielectric changes result in a shift of the
162 absorption spectrum of the electromagnetic wave in the blood, which can then be
163 algorithmically transformed into a prediction of the change in glucose concentration
164 within blood.

165 < Insert Figure 1 about here >

166 Procedures

167 After providing informed consent, screening for eligibility was conducted by a
168 member of the clinical team at least seven days before the first trial visit. Patient

169 details were reviewed by a clinical team member before approval to take part in the
170 study was given. Upon admittance to the study a second visit (Trial 1) was scheduled.
171 Participants attended each session after a minimum four-hour fast to ensure low
172 plasma glucose levels were recorded at the start of each session. Eligibility was re-
173 confirmed at the commencement of each session. At each visit the patient had the
174 DRS device strapped to the same wrist for calibration and a venous cannula inserted
175 into the participants' arm. For a single patient trial, due to difficulty with inserting the
176 cannula, the DRS device was strapped to the other wrist. Device operators were
177 engineers who had been trained in usage of the DRS and on study procedures.
178 Patients remained sitting or reclining on a bed throughout the trial period.
179 Participants drank one 200 mL bottle of Ensure Plus to increase glucose levels (at T90
180 for Cohorts 1 and 2, T30 for Cohort 3, and T120 for Cohort 4), and were permitted
181 comfort breaks as needed. Time was added for comfort breaks to ensure a full trial
182 period was completed for each participant.

183 The first measurement from the DRS device was taken and recorded at time point 0
184 (T0). Within one minute, a blood sample was taken via a venous cannula for plasma
185 glucose measurement. Thereafter, DRS measurements were automatically triggered
186 at 60-second intervals, with blood samples for glucose measurements taken every 5
187 minutes throughout sessions involving Cohorts 1-3 and every 10 minutes for those
188 with Cohort 4. Medical staff remained on hand to assist in case of any adverse
189 reactions. At the end of the trial, participants were offered refreshments and
190 discharged if their plasma glucose levels were acceptable. Trialling of each cohort took
191 place over a period of approximately 5-6 weeks between July 2022 and June 2023.

192 Data Analysis

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193 An AI model was built using the Random Forest algorithm, which was chosen due to
194 its better predictive accuracies and ability to limit overfitting than has been observed
195 from other algorithms (17). A global sampling procedure was applied to the full 4-
196 cohort dataset involving Monte Carlo (MC) resampling with an inner 5-fold cross-
197 validation loop. A total of 50 MC resamples were generated using a 70%/30%
198 train/test split of the full dataset, with the final statistics obtained as an average of all
199 MC resamples. Within each resample, the training set was separated into 5 folds for
200 use in the cross-validation process, with model hyperparameters optimised using a
201 full grid search of all possible parameter combinations.

202 Accuracy of the glucose measurement using the DRS device was calculated by
203 obtaining the MARD (primary outcome) of the DRS device vs venous plasma glucose.
204 The MARD is a commonly used metric for assessing the performance of glucose
205 monitoring systems (18), and refers to the mean absolute relative deviation of the
206 glucose value calculated by the model from the reference glucose levels. Surveillance
207 error grids (SEGs) were used according to the methodology described by Klonoff et al.
208 (19), to display the clinical risk of errors in the DRS generated data.

209

210 **Results**

211 Sample Characteristics

212 Each cohort included five participants, with one participant included in both Cohort 1
213 and Cohort 3 and another in Cohorts 1, 3, and 4. In each cohort, 60.0% of participants
214 had Type 1 diabetes and 40.0% had Type 2 diabetes. Table 1 provides a breakdown of
215 participant demographics across each cohort.

216 In total, there were 63 trials conducted across the 20 participants. Each trial had 31 –
217 50 glucose measurements taken with associated device readings. From a total of
218 2,370 readings across all trials, YSI plasma glucose measurements ranging from 3.2
219 mmol/L to 19.6 mmol/L were obtained, with a mean and median of 9.3 mmol/L and
220 8.8 mmol/L, respectively. Figure 2 gives the distribution of these reference glucose
221 measurements.

222 *< Insert Table 1 and Figure 2 about here >*

223 Accuracy

224 An average MARD of 10.3% was obtained from glucose predictions across all trials for
225 Cohorts 1-4, with individual MARDs of 10.3%, 10.1%, 9%, and 12.1% for Cohorts 1, 2,
226 3, and 4, respectively. Table 2 provides a breakdown of these results alongside the
227 average median ARD and individual cohort median ARD values. The distribution of
228 MARD values across trials is given in Figure 3, which shows a clustering of MARD
229 values below 20% and a long-tailed distribution. A plot of reference glucose values
230 against predictions for all test set data is given in Figure 4. Additional statistical
231 measures of the quality of these predictions are also given in Figure 4: coefficient of
232 determination (R^2), root mean square deviation (RMSD), bias, and standard deviation
233 (SD). These statistics are taken as averages across all 50 MC resamples.

244 **Discussion**

245 This study compared the accuracy of a non-invasive, wearable glucose measurement
246 system using microwave resonance technology, to standard plasma glucose
247 monitoring. Several prior studies have established the possibility for detecting plasma
248 glucose levels (14) (16) (20) (21). The most recent of these studies demonstrated that
249 a MARD of 28% could be obtained from trial-specific multiple regression models
250 trained on DRS device measurements (21). Here, it has been shown that the accuracy
251 of the DRS device has been improved upon with a decline in MARD from 28% to the
252 10.3% obtained from this study. This improvement in MARD suggests the use of a
253 more complex algorithm, combined with a global sampling procedure, offers superior
254 results to previous device tests. Results also suggest that the DRS device under
255 consideration here is approaching a level of accuracy comparable to commercially
256 available glucose monitoring systems when applied within a controlled environment.
257 In general, a system with a MARD < 10% is regarded to have good analytical
258 performance (22). Other commercially available CGM systems such as the Freestyle
259 Libre (Abbott Diabetes Care, Witney, UK), Minimed Enlite (Medtronic, Dublin,
260 Ireland), and Dexcom (Dexcom Inc., California, USA) have published MARDs of 11.4%
261 (23), 13.6% (24) and 9.3% (25) respectively.

262 Results also showed that no data pairs were in the higher risk categories of clinical
263 error in SEG. The DRS device considered herein has the advantage of being non-
264 invasive, which can be assumed to improve patient adherence to self-monitoring
265 procedures (2), thus leading to better health outcomes (26).

266 A current limitation of this approach is that the AI model was built after all trial data
267 had been collected, and not generated as data collection was occurring. It is expected
268 that additional clinical trials involving a wider range of participants and longer test

269 periods will result in valuable data with which to support the development of AI
270 models capable of real time predictions.

271 The study is limited by the fact that accuracy of the device was assessed under the
272 hands of trained engineers within a controlled environment, and so may not reflect
273 any settling period observed for an individual user with diabetes under daily life
274 conditions. Nevertheless, the controlled, lab-based nature of the study adds to the
275 body of evidence supporting the use of AI and machine learning to improve the
276 accuracy of NIGM systems. The development of NIGM wearable systems that provide
277 an accurate and sensitive glucose measurement are of great relevance given the
278 increasing popularity of CGM systems which are frequently replacing SMBG in a
279 variety of therapeutic situations (18).

280 **Conclusions**

281 This study demonstrates that a novel, non-invasive, wearable DRS device could
282 estimate glucose levels in the body with reasonable accuracy compared with venous
283 plasma glucose measurements. Future studies will continue to test the accuracy of
284 subsequent iterations of the device as well as provide further data to improve the AI
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- 388

389 *Table 1 – Patient demographics for Cohorts 1, 2, 3, and 4.*

Demographics	Cohort 1	Cohort 2	Cohort 3	Cohort 4
Male/Female Ratio	3/2	4/1	2/3	(1)4/1
Age - Mean	54.4	58.8	58.6	45.4
Age - Standard Deviation	7.5	20.8	14.6	23.4
Age - Range	42 - 62	33 - 79	42 - 75	21 - 72

390

391 *Table 2 – Mean ARD and median ARDs for Cohorts 1, 2, 3, and 4.*

Accuracy	Average	Cohort 1	Cohort 2	Cohort 3	Cohort 4
Mean ARD	10.3%	10.3%	10.1%	9.0%	12.1%
Median ARD	7.4%	9.0%	8.8%	7.7%	10.0%

392 Abbreviations: ARD, Absolute Relative Difference

393

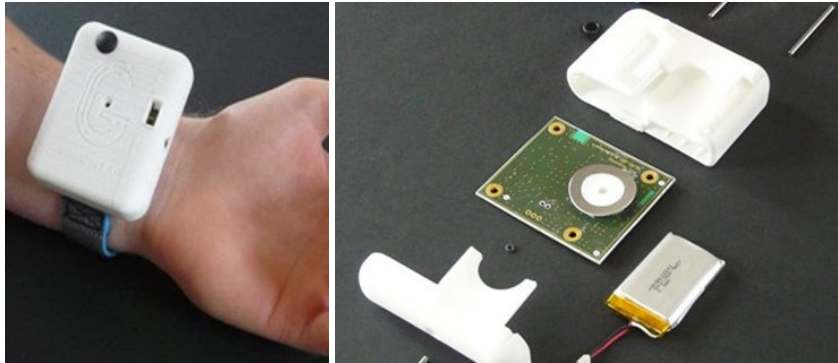
394 *Table 3 – Percentage of Pairs in each Risk Grade from SEG plot*

Risk Grade	Cohorts 1-4	Risk Factor
None	89.4%	0 – 0.5
Slight	10.3%	>0.5 - 1.5
Moderate	0.2%	>1.5 – 2.5
High	N/A	>2.5 – 3.5
Extreme	N/A	>3.5

395

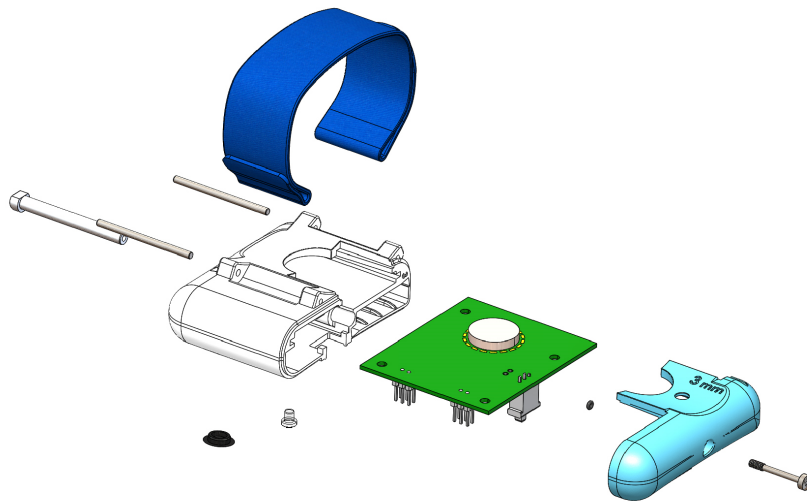
396 *Figure 1 – DRS Device*

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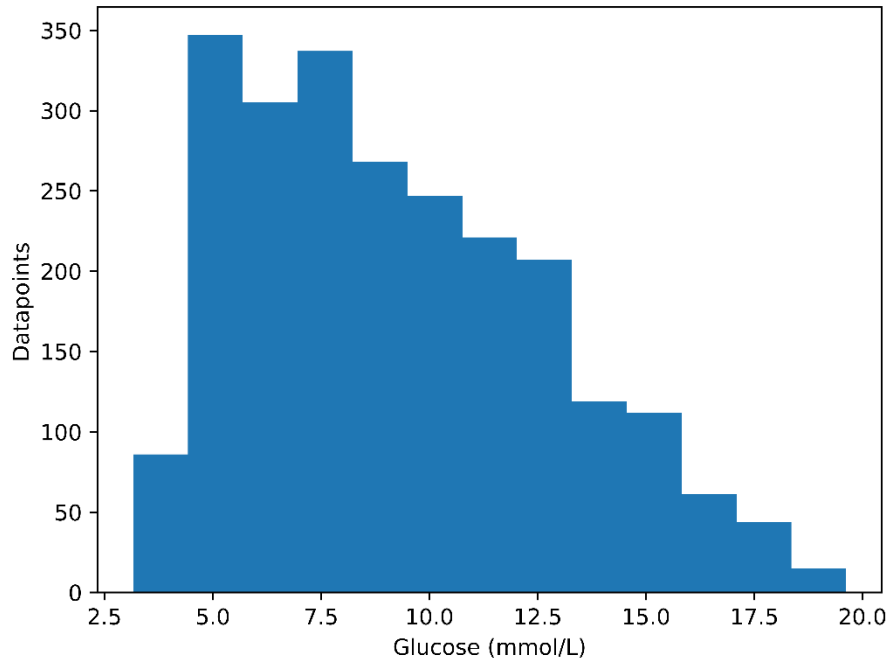
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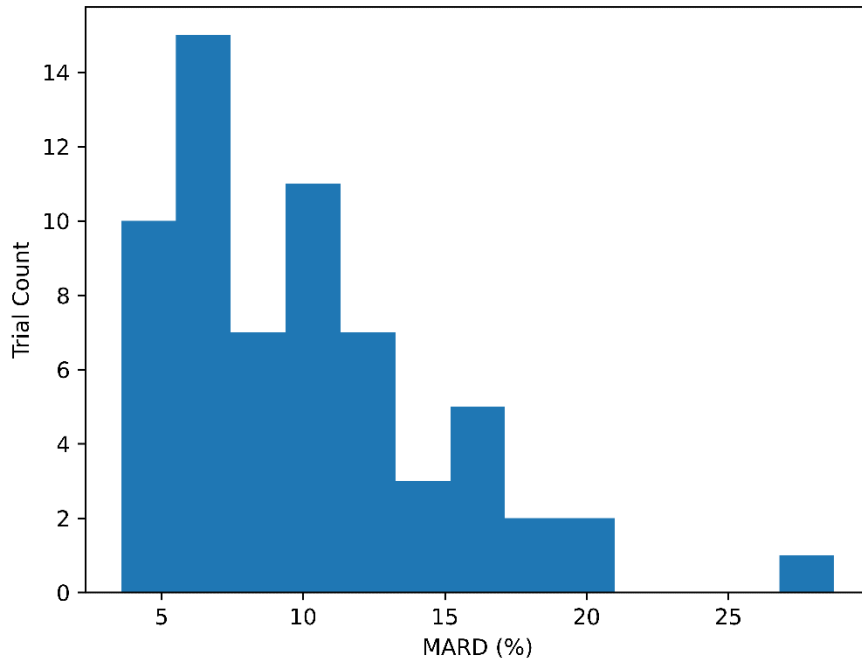
401 *Wearable device (left) and exploded view (right)*

402 *Figure 2 – Distribution of reference glucose values measured using a YSI 2500*
403 *laboratory glucose analyser.*



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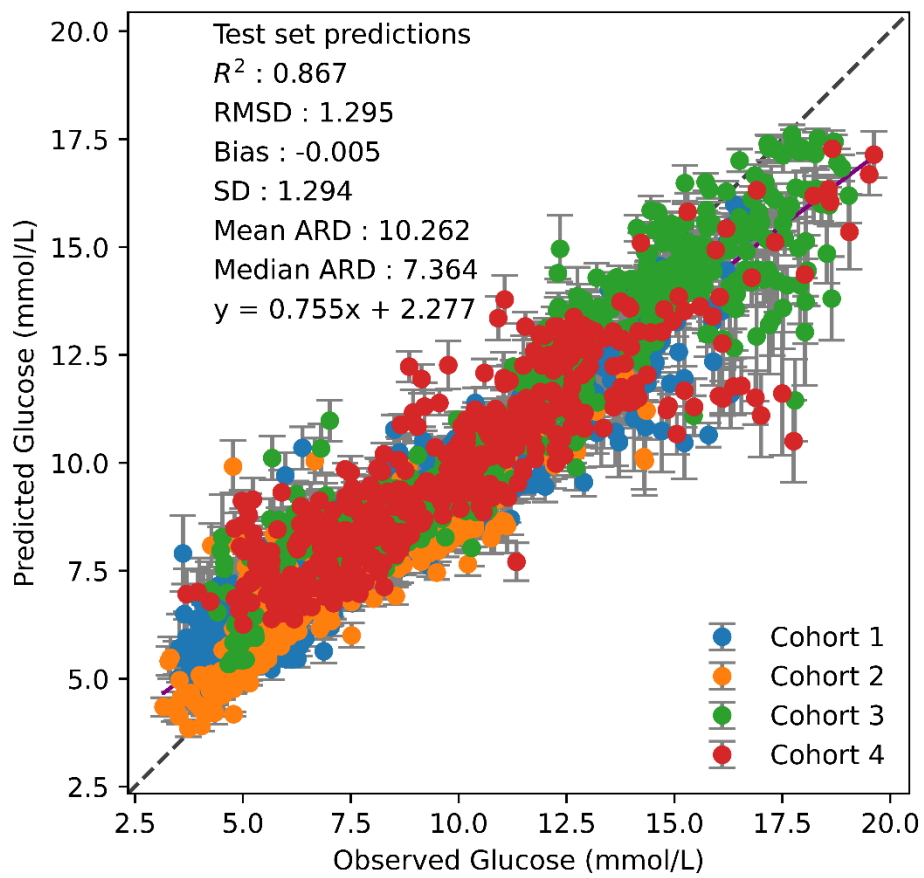
405 *Figure 3 – Distribution of MARD values.*



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407

408 *Figure 4 – Reference glucose values against predictions.*



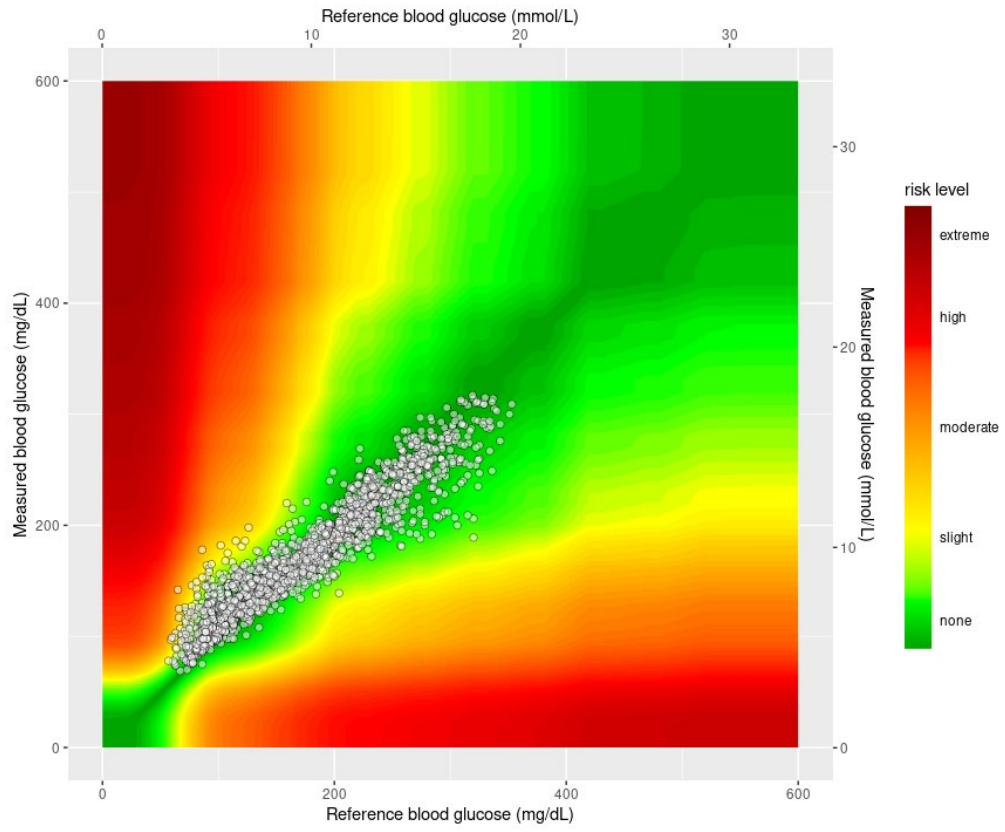
409

410 *Abbreviations: R^2 , Coefficient of determination; RMSD, Root Mean Square Deviation;*

411 *SD, Standard Deviation; ARD, Absolute Relative Difference*

412

413 *Figure 5 – SEG for Cohorts 1-4.*



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