

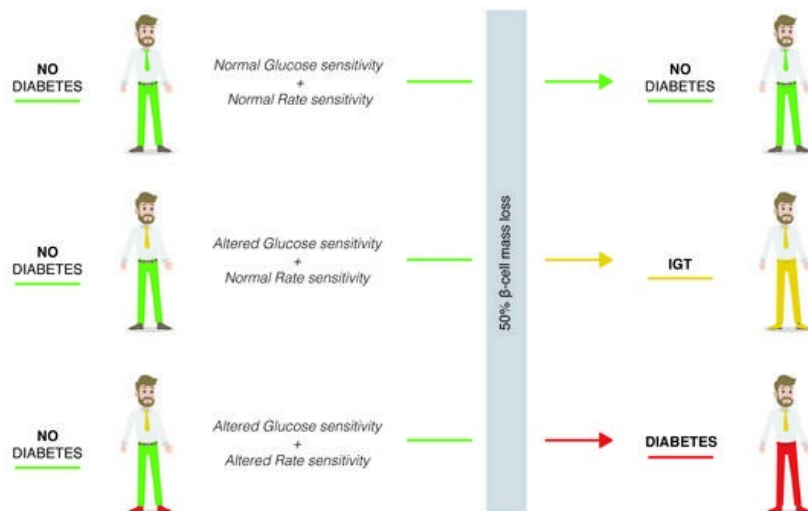
Duodenopancreatectomy as a model to demonstrate the fundamental role of dysfunctional β cell in predicting diabetes

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1 **Duodenopancreatectomy as a model to demonstrate the fundamental role of**
2 **dysfunctional β cell in predicting diabetes**

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33 Abstract

34

35 Background: The appearance of hyperglycemia is due to insulin resistance, functional deficits in the
36 secretion of insulin and a reduction of β -cell mass. There is a long-standing debate as to the relative
37 contribution of these factors to clinically manifest β -cell dysfunction. The aim of this study was to
38 verify the acute effect of one of these factors, the reduction of β -cell mass, on the subsequent
39 development of hyperglycemia.

40 Methods: To pursue this aim, non-diabetic patients, scheduled for identical pancreaticoduodenectomy
41 surgery, underwent oral glucose tolerance tests (OGTT) and hyperglycemic clamps (HC), followed
42 by arginine stimulation before and after surgery. Based on post-surgery OGTT, subjects were divided
43 into 3 groups depending on glucose tolerance: normal (post-NGT), impaired (post-IGT) or diabetic
44 (post-DM).

45 Results: At baseline, the three groups showed similar fasting glucose and insulin levels, however,
46 examining the various parameters, we found that reduced first phase insulin secretion and reduced
47 glucose sensitivity and rate sensitivity were predictors of eventual post-surgery development of
48 impaired glucose tolerance and diabetes.

49 Conclusion: Despite comparable functional mass and fasting glucose and insulin levels at baseline,
50 and the very same 50% mass reduction, only reduced first phase insulin secretion and glucose
51 sensitivity predicted the appearance of hyperglycemia. These functional alterations could be pivotal
52 to the pathogenesis of type 2 diabetes (T2DM).

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56 INTRODUCTION

57 Beta-cell dysfunction and loss of beta-cell mass both contribute to the pathogenesis of hyperglycemia
58 in type 2 diabetes(1). However, while some reports suggest that beta-cell mass loss occurs prior to
59 beta-cell functional impairment, (2-4) others maintain that the decrease in beta-cell mass actually
60 predisposes to impaired glucose homeostasis. (5, 6) Whereas cross-sectional autopsy studies have
61 shown beta-cell loss and increased beta-cell apoptosis in type 2 diabetes, (7) studies examining the
62 timing and relationship between changes in blood glucose, beta-cell morphology, insulin secretion
63 and sensitivity, have identified the functional deficit as dominant and as requisite for the development
64 of hyperglycemia. (8, 9) There is still, therefore, much debate as to whether insulin deficiency and
65 consequent hyperglycemia are the results of compromised beta-cell function, reduced beta-cell mass,
66 and/or a combination of both. (1, 5, 10)

67 Partial pancreatectomy is a standardized surgical procedure, and all patients undergoing
68 pancreaticoduodenectomy receive virtually the same partial (50%) resection, maintaining almost the
69 same remaining portion of the endocrine pancreas. It is well known that beta-cell mass may differ
70 even within normal glucose tolerance (11), however, whatever the preexisting beta-cell mass may be,
71 the surgical procedure always removes ~50% of it.

72 We had previously used this technique to demonstrate the extraordinary plasticity of islet and
73 exocrine cells triggered by insulin resistance in order to maintain euglycemia in the pre-diabetic
74 state(11). Although an increased beta-cell workload (insulin resistance) is a risk factor for
75 hyperglycemia, in most individuals there is an adaptive increase in insulin and proinsulin secretion
76 without apparent beta-cell failure(12). As beta-cell function declines in the presence of insulin
77 resistance,(13) a sudden decrease in beta-cell mass compromises beta-cell function and secretory
78 capacity and viability, leading to a progressive loss of beta-cell number and function. Several studies

79 have examined the metabolic changes occurring following partial pancreatectomy in humans (14, 15)
80 and have suggested that the acute removal of beta-cell mass inevitably accelerates a decline in beta-
81 cell functional capacity, already “stressed” by the attempt to compensate for increasing insulin
82 demand.(7, 16)

83 In the present study we aim to evaluate: (1) the changes in beta-cell secretory capacity, modelled from
84 an oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) and hyperglycemic clamp (HC) in non-diabetic individuals
85 before and after acute beta-cell reduction and (2) whether pre-existing insulin secretory defects can
86 predict glucose disarrangements following a reduction in beta-cell mass.

87 RESULTS

88 Seventy-eight patients (41 females; 38 males; mean age 64 ± 12 yrs. \pm SE) undergoing pylorus-
89 preserving pancreatoduodenectomy were recruited from January 2017 to April 2019 at the Digestive
90 Surgery Unit and studied at the Centre for Endocrine and Metabolic Diseases unit (both at the
91 Agostino Gemelli University Hospital, Rome, Italy). Indications for surgery were: periampullary
92 tumors, pancreatic intraductal papillary tumors, mucinous cystic neoplasm of the pancreas, non-
93 functional pancreatic neuroendocrine tumors. None of the patients enrolled had a known history of
94 diabetes. Only patients with normal cardiopulmonary and kidney function, as determined by medical
95 history, physical examination, electrocardiography, estimated glomerular filtration rate, and
96 urinalysis were included. Altered serum lipase and amylase levels prior to surgery, as well as
97 morphologic criteria for pancreatitis, were considered exclusion criteria. Patients with severe obesity
98 (BMI > 40), uncontrolled hypertension and/or hypercholesterolemia were also excluded. Patients
99 underwent both OGTT and HbA1c testing to exclude diabetes, on the basis of the American Diabetes
100 Association criteria and subjects with fasting glucose above 126 mg/dl, or with 2-hour post-load
101 glucose at baseline above 200 mg/dl, or with HbA1c ≥ 48 mmol/mol (6.5%) were excluded from the

102 study. As can be seen in Fig. 1 CONSORT diagram, only 33 of the 78 non-diabetic subjects underwent
103 both an OGTT and a hyperglycemic clamp with arginine stimulation to evaluate insulin secretion
104 (from C-peptide deconvolution), as described below, both before and ~40 days after surgery. The
105 adequacy of the recovery period was determined by the normalization of inflammatory parameters,
106 such as C-reactive protein, erythrocyte sedimentation rate, stability of weight, absence of symptoms
107 of abnormal intestinal motility, or exocrine pancreatic deficiency. Clinical and metabolic
108 characteristics of study subjects are provided in Table 1.

109 *Identical hemipancreatectomy has different results after surgery*

110 All groups displayed similar levels of fasting glucose (Table 1, $p=0.12$) and mean glucose at pre-
111 surgery OGTT (Figure 2A); while post-surgery OGTT showed that fasting and mean glucose levels
112 increased significantly only in subjects who went on to develop diabetes ($p<0.01$ for interaction,
113 Figure 2A), as expected according to classification. Moreover, insulin sensitivity, as assessed by the
114 hyperinsulinemic euglycemic clamp (Table 1), fasting and mean insulin levels at OGTT (Figure 2B)
115 were also similar among groups before surgery. Insulinogenic index (Supplementary figure 2,
116 $p=0.77$) and disposition index (Supplementary figure 3, $p=0.27$) were also comparable among the
117 groups before surgery.

118 Although the Matsuda index was not validated in this model, we observed similar Matsuda indexes
119 in all groups before surgery (Supplementary figure 2A, $p=0.61$) and an increase in Matsuda index in
120 all groups after surgery (Supplementary figure 2A, $p<0.05$), while the insulinogenic index decreased
121 significantly only in IGT and post-DM groups after surgery (Supplementary Figure 2B, $p=0.01$). Post-
122 surgery OGTT showed that insulin and C-peptide levels had decreased significantly for all groups
123 (Figure 2B and 2C). Although 50% pancreatectomy led to decreased insulin and C-peptide levels in
124 the entire cohort, its effect on change over time in glucose, insulin and C-peptide levels across the 3

125 groups was significantly different ($P < 0.01$ for the interaction between pancreatectomy, time and
126 glucose tolerance of glucose, insulin and C-peptide levels) (Figure 2).

127 *Functional defects predict diabetes occurrence after hemipancreatectomy*

128 After surgery, beta-cell glucose sensitivity, as a model-based index of beta-cell function derived from
129 OGTT, was significantly reduced across the three groups (post-NGT: 88.2 ± 22.7 , post-IGT: 32.1 ± 10.4
130 and post-DM: 11.3 ± 2.8 $\text{pmol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{mM}^{-1}$, $p = 0.02$; Figure 3A). The comparison of groups before
131 surgery revealed that beta-cell glucose sensitivity was significantly worse in the post-IGT and post-
132 DM groups compared to the post-NGT group ($p = 0.01$ post-NGT vs post-IGT group; $p < 0.01$ post-
133 NGT vs post-DM group, Figure 3A),

134 We also assessed the model-based rate sensitivity parameter, representing early phase insulin release.
135 We found that rate sensitivity was already reduced before surgery in those subjects who developed
136 diabetes following pancreaticoduodenectomy, (post-NGT: 993 ± 225 , post-IGT: 1111 ± 289 and post-
137 DM: 87.2 ± 48.8 $\text{pmol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{mM}^{-1}$, $p = 0.02$; Figure 3B). Post-surgery rate sensitivity differed
138 significantly among the three groups ($p < 0.01$, Figure 3B). Further, we observed that the post-IGT
139 group showed a greater reduction in rate sensitivity compared to post-NGT and post-DM groups
140 ($p < 0.01$ for rate sensitivity post-surgery adjusted for rate sensitivity pre-surgery), suggesting that
141 acute beta-cell mass reduction had a considerable effect on early insulin release only in the post-IGT
142 group.

143 *Impaired first phase insulin secretion, rather than reduced beta-cell mass, predicts diabetes* 144 *appearance.*

145 To further investigate changes in the different phases of insulin secretion in response to 50%
146 pancreatectomy, we also performed a 2-h hyperglycemic clamp followed by an arginine bolus, which
147 is the gold standard technique to measure insulin secretion, and an indirect measure of beta-cell mass.

148 Comparison among the three groups revealed that pancreatectomy had a significantly different effect
149 on time-dependent change in insulin and C-peptide levels during hyperglycemic clamp ($P < 0.01$ for
150 the interaction between pancreatectomy, time and glucose tolerance of glucose, insulin and C-peptide
151 levels) (Supplementary Figure 4).

152 Further, we also used mathematical modelling to calculate incremental first and second phase of
153 insulin secretion rate and arginine-stimulated insulin secretion. We observed that the first phase
154 insulin secretion rate (ISR) was significantly lower in post-IGT and post-DM group compared to post-
155 NGT, both before surgery (Figure 4A, $p = 0.02$), and after surgery (Figure 4A, $p < 0.01$). Despite
156 different levels of first phase ISR both before and after surgery, all groups experienced a similar rate
157 of reduction following surgery ($p = 0.20$ for first phase ISR post-surgery adjusted for first phase ISR
158 pre-surgery). Second phase ISR was comparable among groups before surgery (Figure 4B), while
159 significant differences were observed after surgery ($p = 0.03$). Further, the post-surgery change in
160 second phase ISR differed significantly among the three groups ($p = 0.05$ for second phase ISR post-
161 surgery adjusted for second phase ISR pre-surgery), suggesting that pancreatectomy had a
162 significantly different impact on the second phase ISR.

163 Despite comparable levels among the three groups before surgery, arginine-stimulated insulin
164 secretion (indirect measure of beta-cell mass) was significantly different among the three groups after
165 surgery (Figure 4C, $p < 0.01$). Further, while all groups experienced a reduction after surgery, a greater
166 decrease was observed in the IGT and DM groups compared to NGT (Figure 4C, $p = 0.01$). Thus, even
167 though subjects had comparable basal levels of arginine-stimulated insulin secretion and the same
168 proportion of surgical beta-cell mass reduction, arginine proxy of beta-cell mass was different after
169 surgery. Impairment of beta-cell function, rather than decrease in beta-cell mass, is the main predictor
170 of insulin deficiency.

171

172 DISCUSSION

173 Our study demonstrates that pre-existing defects in beta-cell function in non-diabetic subjects predict
174 the risk of developing hyperglycemia after partial pancreatectomy, a model of acute beta-cell mass
175 reduction. We found that only subjects with impaired first-phase insulin secretion and reduced beta-
176 cell glucose sensitivity became diabetic or IGT after acute beta-cell mass reduction, and only subjects
177 with impaired rate sensitivity before surgery became diabetic, suggesting that these are the pre-
178 existing functional defects in the beta-cell secretory machinery that lead to hyperglycemia. Our results
179 do not imply that loss of beta-cell mass is less important than beta-cell function. In fact, reduction of
180 beta-cell mass is the trigger that reveals the pivotal role of first phase insulin secretion in predicting
181 the appearance of impaired glucose metabolism after partial pancreatectomy.

182 Our data are in line with previous studies reporting a rate of post-operative diabetes of about 10% to
183 25%, we found that diabetes rate was about 27%, which demonstrates that reduction of beta-cell mass
184 is not the dominant variable determining diabetes occurrence and that pre-existing defects in the
185 functional mass could be responsible for progression to diabetes.

186 Based on the insulin response to acute glucose stimuli before surgery, we observed three functional
187 and clinical trajectories after acute reduction in beta-cell mass. Subjects with the highest beta-cell
188 glucose sensitivity and incremental first phase insulin secretion before surgery remained NGT despite
189 the reduction in beta-cell mass, and reduction of first and second phase insulin secretion (evaluated
190 following intravenous administration of glucose). Subjects who had lower beta-cell glucose
191 sensitivity and incremental first phase insulin secretion developed impaired glucose tolerance or
192 became diabetic after surgery. Only subjects who had lower beta-cell glucose sensitivity and
193 incremental first phase insulin secretion, and more importantly, reduced rate sensitivity (a measure

194 of early phase insulin release) developed diabetes after surgery. This supports the hypothesis that the
195 decrease in early phase insulin release is the key defect leading to hyperglycemia when competent
196 functional islet mass is insufficient.

197 Our study design presents several advantages. Firstly, the only variable modified was that of an acute
198 and significant reduction in beta-cell mass. Secondly, none of our subjects had DM before surgery.
199 Thirdly, before surgery all individuals were evaluated not only through anamnesis and HbA1c but
200 also using the gold standard OGTT thus allowing us to exclude unknown diagnosis of diabetes (see
201 Supplementary Fig. 1). Interestingly, all had comparable glucose and insulin levels during OGTT
202 before surgery; therefore, OGTT per se is not sufficient to truly identify the metabolic and hormonal
203 effects of partial pancreatectomy. Only the mathematical modelling of first phase insulin secretion
204 rate and glucose sensitivity allowed us to trace three different trajectories and to distinguish functional
205 defects in a homogenous group of non-diabetic humans undergoing the same beta-cell mass
206 reduction(7).

207 The importance of the role of first phase insulin secretion in the pathogenesis of hyperglycemia is
208 well known in both Type 1 and Type 2 diabetes (17, 18). Aging may exert a role in beta-cell
209 dysfunction;(19) and could have contributed to our results, however, there were no differences in age
210 in the three groups studied. Earlier studies have been inconclusive regarding the reduction of first
211 phase insulin release in prediabetes, mainly due to difficulties in defining the 'first phase' during
212 OGTT (20, 21). Only studies performed with intravenous glucose can actually measure first phase
213 insulin secretion, while complex mathematical models are needed to estimate it during OGTT.
214 Interestingly, Ferrannini et al (22) found that rate sensitivity is not significantly reduced in IGT
215 compared to normal individuals, suggesting that rate sensitivity is not the ideal parameter for
216 determining initial loss of glucose tolerance. However, our data show that only subjects with

217 decreased rate sensitivity before surgery became diabetic after surgery, suggesting that loss of rate
218 sensitivity is a marker of worsened glucose tolerance after surgery.

219 It should be noted that preserved first phase insulin secretion after pancreatic duodenectomy could be
220 due to an increase in GLP1. In fact, in a previous study, we demonstrated that circulating GLP1 levels
221 increase after pancreaticoduodenectomy,(23) and several other reports have suggested that the
222 increase in GLP1 following surgery is one of the factors leading to diabetes remission after bariatric
223 surgery.(24) Though the role of GLP1 could be important in maintaining first phase insulin secretion,
224 it should be underlined that all our patients were subjected to the same type of surgery, therefore
225 similar changes in GLP1 would be expected. However, a different incretin effect among the three
226 groups cannot be excluded.

227 Some insights can be derived from the comparison between our model and procedures for diabetes
228 remission, e.g., bariatric surgery and diets. It has been found that even if diabetic patients undergo
229 the very same bariatric surgery, only those with higher first phase insulin secretion experience
230 diabetes remission. (25) Interestingly, in this study, only patients with short diabetes duration had
231 higher first phase insulin secretion, again confirming that preservation of first phase insulin secretion
232 is more important than GLP1. The role of the preservation of first phase insulin secretion has also
233 been confirmed in diabetes remission induced by diet in which the changes in GLP1 secretion induced
234 by bariatric surgery are not present. In addition, the different post-operative diabetes rate could also
235 be influenced by differences in the ability to implement compensatory mechanisms of regeneration
236 and neogenesis in the remaining pancreas. This has been demonstrated in rats after pancreatectomy
237 where beta-cell regeneration and/or appearance of new small islets seem to compensate for decreasing
238 beta-cell mass. Exploring this possibility in humans is, however, unfeasible.

239 An elegant study by Ferrannini et al analyzed the changing parameters of beta-cell function during
240 OGTT to explain the variability of 2-h plasma glucose levels, shedding light on beta-cell dysfunction

241 in the early stages of the natural history of diabetes. They concluded that there is a decrease in beta-
242 cell glucose sensitivity even in the NGT range and that this is associated with rising 2-h plasma
243 glucose concentrations. Being cross-sectional, the study could not distinguish the relative
244 contribution of each of the determinants of glucose tolerance to the risk of diabetes occurrence. On
245 the contrary, our model allows us to establish the relative contribution of beta-cell mass and function
246 to the prediction of diabetes.

247 In this context, trying to identify strategies to restore beta-cell function (namely, first phase insulin
248 secretion), rather than increasing beta-cell mass, could be pivotal in preventing and treating diabetes
249 in a personalized medicine approach.

250 Although surgically induced hyperglycemia cannot be considered a true representation of the
251 pathogenesis of type 2 diabetes, we believe that our study can provide an understanding of the
252 functional defects underlying this disease. Type 2 diabetes is the result of 3 main factors: insulin
253 resistance, functional deficits in the secretion of insulin and a reduction of beta-cell mass. Since
254 changes in these variables are interrelated and change continuously over the course of the disease,
255 studying their time-course adaptation is unlikely to provide a solution to this debate, as we will only
256 observe the variables changing interactively and adapting to new situations in order to maintain
257 euglycemia, also as a response to other variables (ageing, glucose toxicity, genes, etc.). We believe
258 that a possible way to overcome this problem could be to modify only one of these variables to
259 evaluate the effect on the others. With this method, we here demonstrate that beta-mass reduction is
260 not sufficient to invariably determine hyperglycemia. On the contrary, only subjects who already
261 showed changes in first phase insulin secretion developed diabetes. As previously reported, the acute
262 removal of beta-cell mass inevitably accelerates a decline in beta-cell functional capacity, previously
263 “stressed” by an attempt to compensate for increasing insulin demand. Since the surgical procedure
264 is the same in all subjects, but only patients with previous islet remodeling and impaired beta-cell

265 function develop hyperglycemia and diabetes, the true determinant of the appearance of diabetes is
266 the already present ‘pre-diabetic’ functional milieu (i.e., loss of first phase), rather than surgery.

267 In conclusion, beta-cell mass reduction per se is not responsible for the appearance of hyperglycemia.
268 In our study, we found that in non-diabetic humans, beta-cell function and patterns of secretion
269 differed significantly, and that these differences were further amplified following acute beta-cell mass
270 reduction. Therefore, only pre-existing impairments in beta-cell function, i.e., reduced first-phase
271 insulin release, predict impairment in glucose tolerance and diabetes after partial pancreatectomy.

272 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

273 *Oral Glucose Tolerance Test*

274 A standard 75 g oral glucose tolerance test was performed with measurement of glucose, insulin and
275 C-peptide at 0, 30, 60, 90, 120 min after glucose load. Based on the post-surgery OGTT results, we
276 classified the patients as normal glucose tolerant (post-NGT, n.11), impaired glucose tolerant (post-
277 IGT, n. 13), and diabetic (post-DM, n.9).

278 *Hyperinsulinemic euglycemic clamp procedure*

279 The hyperinsulinemic euglycemic clamp test was performed after a 12h overnight fast using insulin
280 $40 \text{ mIU} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ of body surface according to DeFronzo and colleagues.(26) A primed-constant
281 infusion of insulin was administered (Actrapid HM, Novo Nordisk, Copenhagen, Denmark). The
282 constant rate for the insulin infusion was reached within 10 min to achieve steady-state insulin levels;
283 in the meantime, a variable infusion of 20% glucose was started via a separate infusion pump and the
284 rate was adjusted, on the basis of plasma glucose samples drawn every 5 min, to maintain plasma
285 glucose concentration at each participant’s fasting plasma glucose level. During the last 20 min of the
286 clamp procedure, plasma samples from blood drawn at 5–10 min intervals were used to determine

287 glucose and insulin concentrations. Whole-body peripheral glucose utilization was calculated during
288 the last 30 min period of the steady-state insulin infusion and was measured as the mean glucose
289 infusion rate (as $\text{mg} \cdot \text{Kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$).

290 *Hyperglycemic clamp procedure*

291 Plasma glucose was clamped at a stable level of 125 mg/dl above fasting blood glucose concentration.
292 The hyperglycemic clamp was started with a bolus dose of dextrose 200 mg/mL (150 mg/kg)
293 administered into the antecubital vein. Blood was drawn from a cannulated dorsal hand vein on the
294 opposite arm. Every 5 min, venous plasma glucose was analyzed with a glucose analyzer and the
295 infusion of 20% glucose was adjusted to achieve a stable glucose level of 125 mg/dl above the fasting
296 value. Serum samples for insulin, and C-peptide were drawn at 0, 2.5, 5, 7.5, 10, 15, 30, 60, 90, 120,
297 130, 140, and 150 min. At 120 min, a 5g arginine bolus was administered to measure maximum C-
298 peptide secretory capacity at a steady-state blood glucose concentration of 250 mg/dl. Arginine-
299 stimulated beta-cell secretory capacity was calculated as delta of 130 min C-peptide and 120 min C-
300 peptide levels.

301 *Surgical procedures*

302 Pancreatoduodenectomy was performed according to the pylorus preserving technique. Briefly, the
303 pancreatic head, the entire duodenum, common bile duct, and gallbladder were removed en-bloc,
304 leaving a functioning pylorus intact at the gastric outlet. All adjacent lymph nodes were carefully
305 removed. The continuity of the gastrointestinal tract was restored by an end-to-side
306 pancreatojejunostomy. Further downstream, an end-to-side hepaticojejunostomy and an end-to-side
307 pylorojejunostomy were performed. The volume of pancreas removed during the surgery is constant
308 (~50%), as previously reported by Schrader et al.(27)

309 *Calculations*

310 To better define the relation between glucose metabolism after acute islet mass reduction and pre-
311 existing metabolic defects, we divided subjects according to their glucose tolerance after surgery, as
312 determined by post-surgery OGTT. According to the ADA classification, subjects whose 2-h post-
313 load glucose was below 140 mg/dl were defined as normal glucose tolerant (post-NGT), subjects
314 whose 2-h post-load glucose was 140–199 mg/dl were defined as impaired glucose tolerant (post-
315 IGT) and subjects whose 2-h post-load glucose was higher than 200 mg/dl were defined as diabetic
316 (post-DM).

317 During the OGTT and hyperglycemic clamp, insulin secretion was derived from C-peptide levels by
318 deconvolution. Beta-cell Glucose Sensitivity (β CGS), i.e. the slope of the relationship between insulin
319 secretion and glucose concentration, was estimated from the OGTT by modelling, as previously
320 described.(13, 28) Rate sensitivity, also estimated from OGTT modelling, is a beta-cell functional
321 parameter which represents the dependence of the insulin secretion rate on the rate of change in
322 glucose concentration and is related to early insulin release.

323 Matsuda indexes (29) were calculated as indexes of whole body insulin sensitivity based on insulin
324 and glucose values obtained from the OGTT, while beta-cell function was evaluated by calculating
325 the insulinogenic index as the change in insulin over the first 30 min divided by the change in glucose
326 over the first 30 min.

327 Integrated beta-cell function was also measured using the oral disposition index, which provides an
328 assessment of insulin secretion in relation to insulin sensitivity, calculated as the product of the
329 insulinogenic index and the Matsuda index(30).

330 During the hyperglycemic clamp, the first phase insulin secretion response was calculated as the
331 mean incremental insulin secretion between 0 and 5 min, when insulin secretion rate had fallen from
332 the initial peak to a nadir in all subjects. Second phase insulin secretion was calculated as the
333 increment in insulin secretion during the last 20 min of the hyperglycemic clamp above basal insulin
334 secretion.

335 *Statistics*

336 Continuous variables were summarized as mean \pm SEM and categorical variables as frequencies and
337 percentages, unless otherwise indicated. Normality of distribution was assessed by generation of
338 histograms and quantile-quantile plots. Since samples did not deviate significantly from normal,
339 differences in means across groups at baseline were tested by ANOVA. The relationship between
340 variables was derived by linear regression analysis. Variables derived from OGTT and clamp were
341 regressed against glucose tolerance status by using i) pre-pancreatectomy values ii) post-
342 pancreatectomy values iii) post-pancreatectomy values adjusted for pre-pancreatectomy values. For
343 measurement of glucose, insulin, C-peptide, we evaluated third-level interactions by including a
344 product term of time x pancreatectomy x glucose tolerance in the model. We compared the effects of
345 time and pancreatectomy using a linear mixed model for repeated measures, with each parameter as
346 the dependent variable and time (analyzed as a categorical variable), pancreatectomy and the product
347 term of time x pancreatectomy x glucose tolerance to investigate interaction effects. Linear and
348 quadratic fits were used to explore the relationships between insulinogenic index and Matsuda index.
349 A two-tailed p-value <0.05 was considered statistically significant. Analyses were performed using
350 Stata 15.1 (StataCorp, TX, USA).

351 *Study approval*

352 The study protocol (ClinicalTrials.gov Identifier: NCT02175459 - Fig S1) was approved by the local
353 ethics committee (P/656/CE2010 and 22573/14) (Rome, Italy) and all participants provided written
354 informed consent, which was followed by a comprehensive medical evaluation.

355

356

357 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION

358 T.M. generated the data and wrote the manuscript. P.M.F. performed statistical analysis. A.M., S.A.
359 and A.G. reviewed/edited manuscript. U.C., G.Q., S.M., F.C., F.I. and A.P. contributed to discussion,
360 reviewed/edited manuscript. C.M.A.C., G.Q. and G.D.G. researched data, A.M. generated data. T.M.
361 and A.G. are guarantors of this work and, as such, had full access to all the data in the study and take
362 responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of data analyses.

363

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374

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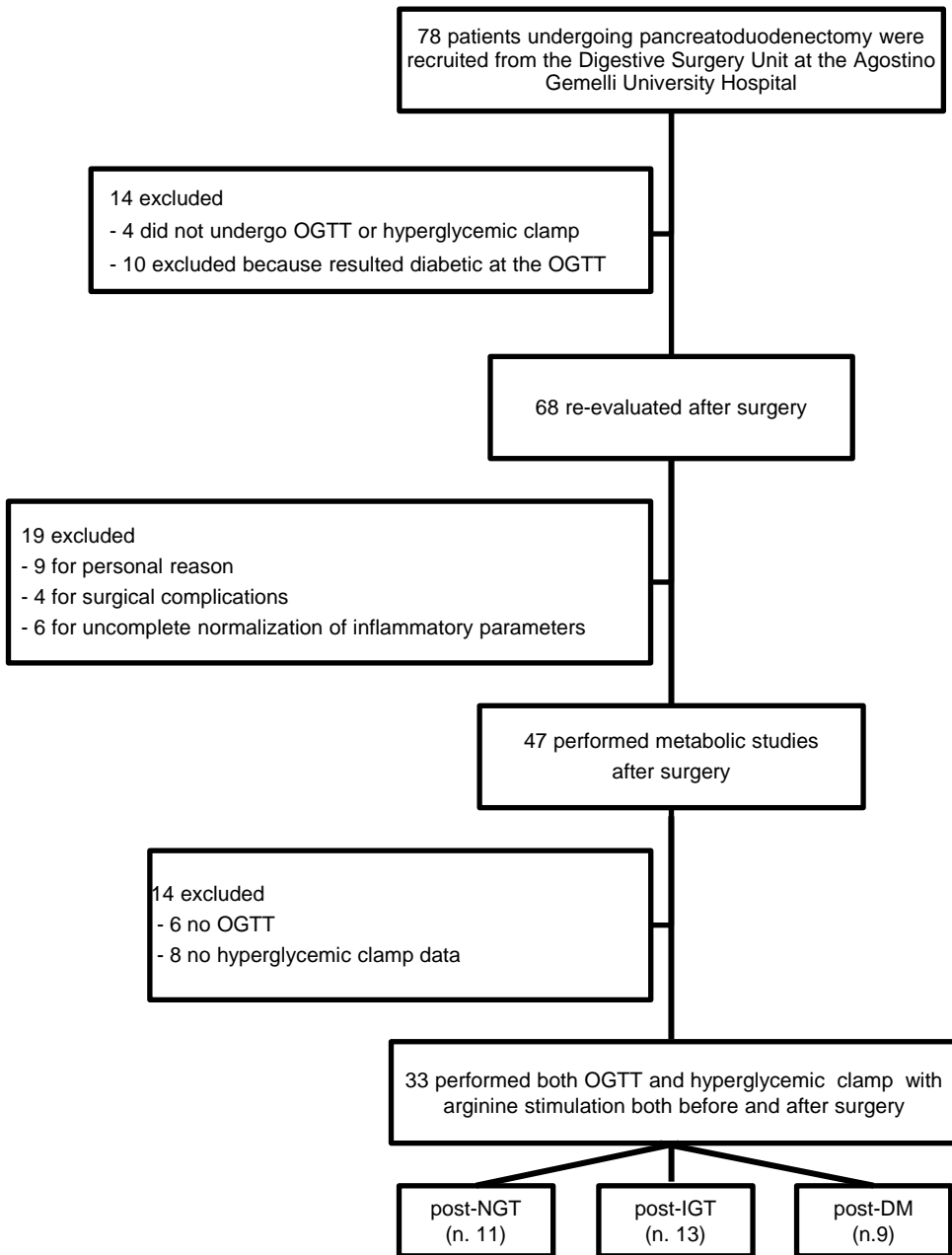


Figure 1. flow diagram of study participants

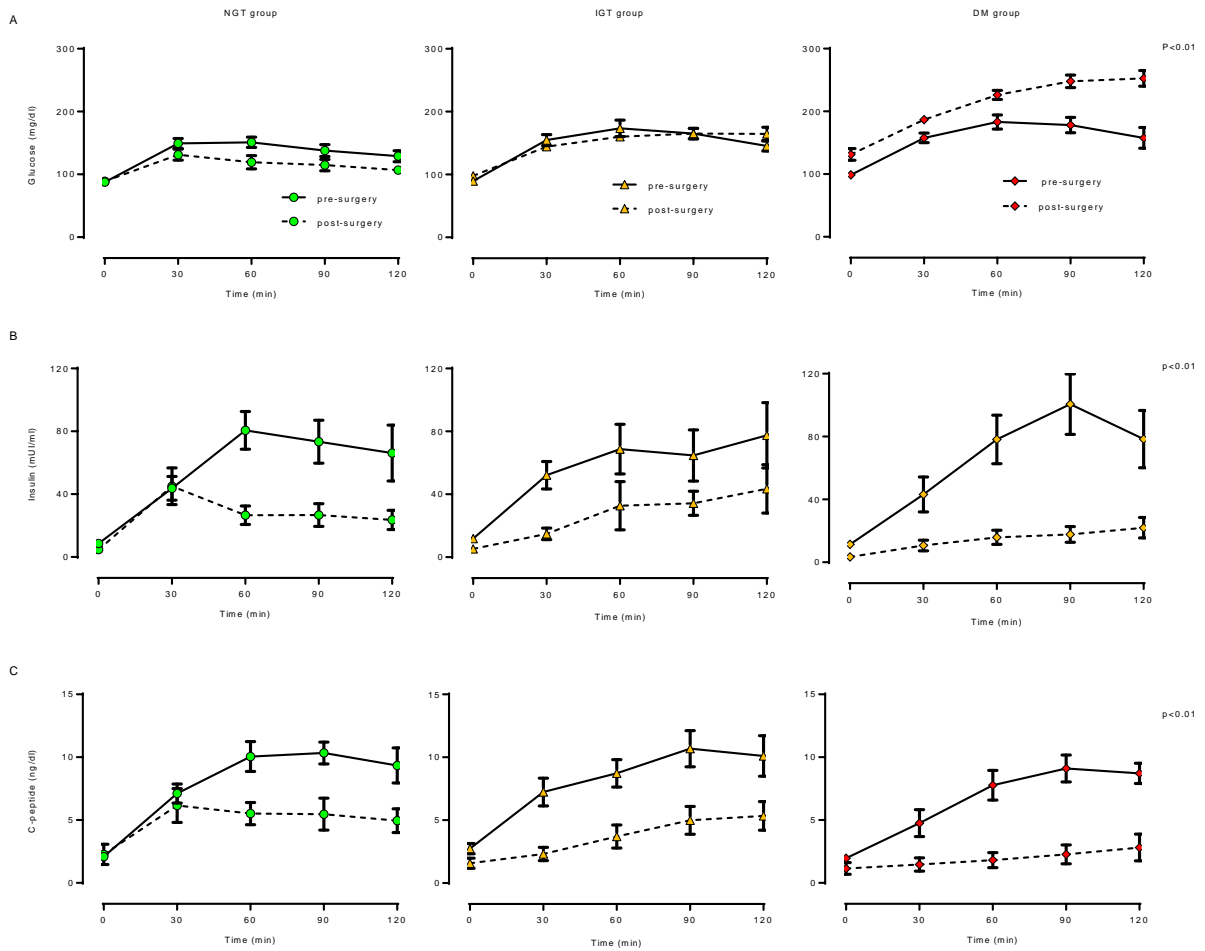
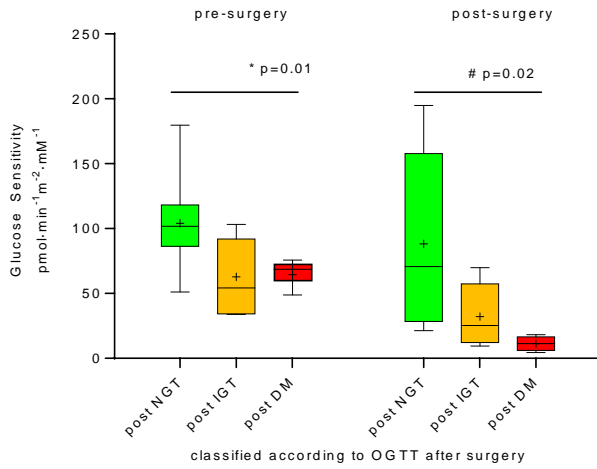


Figure 2. Glucose (A), insulin (B) C-peptide (C) levels during OGTT before (solid lines) and after (dotted lines) partial pancreatectomy in NGT (first column – green circle), IGT (second column – orange triangle), DM (third column – red diamonds). p -value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant for glucose, insulin and c-peptide levels for third-level interactions by including a product term of time \times pancreatectomy \times glucose tolerance in the model.

A



B



Figure 3: OGTT-derived glucose sensitivity (A) and rate sensitivity (B) before and after partial pancreatectomy in normal glucose tolerant (green box), impaired glucose tolerant (orange box) and diabetic subjects (red box). The relationship between variables was derived by linear regression analysis. Variables were regressed against glucose tolerance status by using i) pre-pancreatectomy values ii) post-pancreatectomy values iii) post-pancreatectomy values adjusted for pre-pancreatectomy values. * p<0.05 pre-surgery, # p<0.05 post-surgery and § p<0.05 pre-surgery adjusted for post-surgery. Box plots indicate median and interquartile range and whiskers indicate 2.5th - 97.5th percentile, + = mean value.

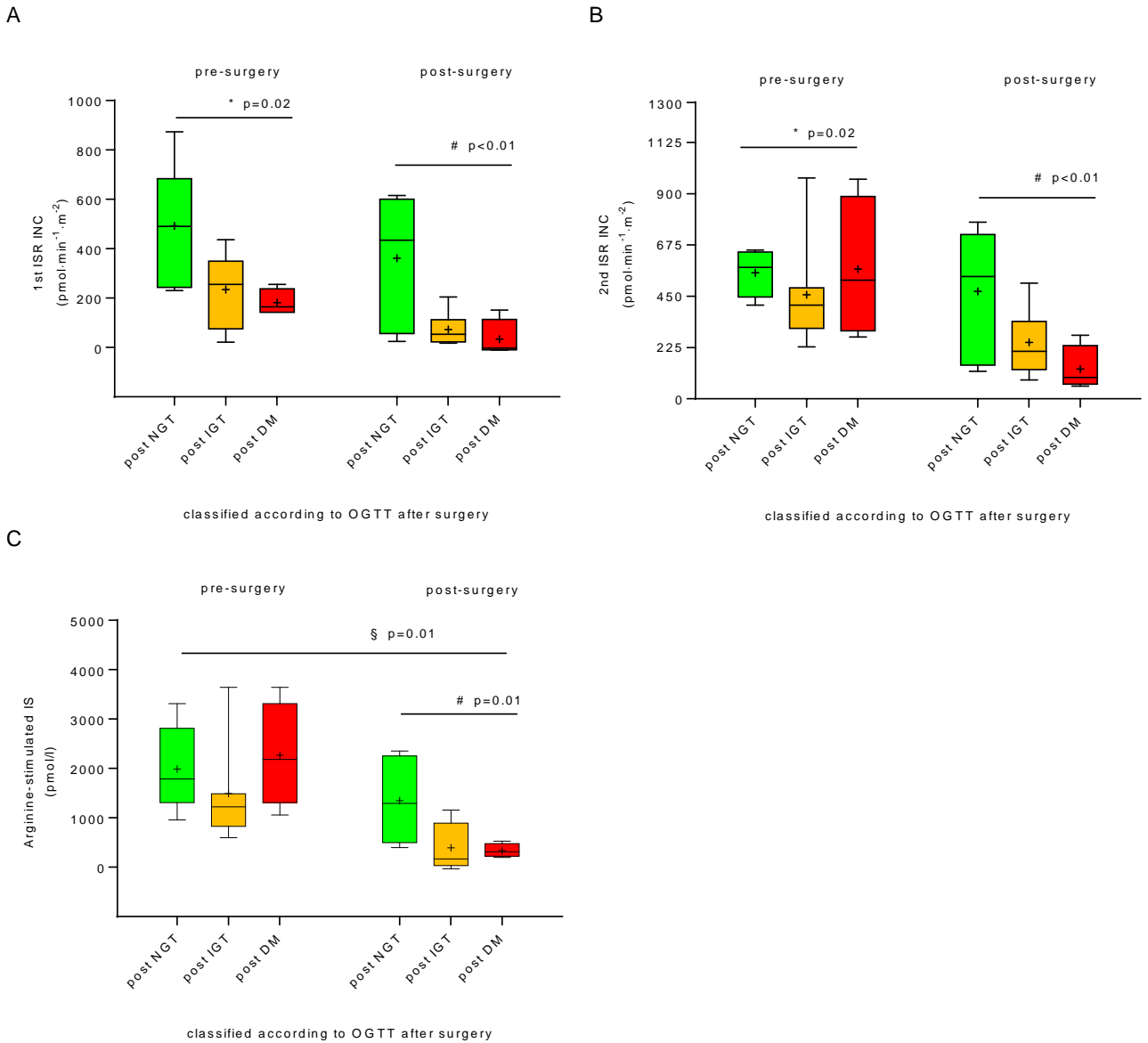


Figure 4: clamp-derived first phase insulin secretion (A), second phase insulin secretion (B) and arginine stimulated insulin secretion (C) before and after partial pancreatectomy in normal glucose tolerant (green box), impaired glucose tolerant (orange box) and diabetic subjects (red box). The relationship between variables was derived by linear regression analysis. Variables were regressed against glucose tolerance status by using i) pre-pancreatectomy values ii) post-pancreatectomy values iii) post-pancreatectomy values adjusted for pre-pancreatectomy values. * p<0.05 pre-surgery, # p<0.05 post-surgery and § p<0.05 pre-surgery adjusted for post-surgery. Box plots indicate median and interquartile range and whiskers indicate 2.5th -97.5th percentile, + = mean value.

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504 **Table 1**

Subject characteristics	Post NGT (n. 11)	Post IGT (n. 13)	Post DM (n. 9)	P Value
Mean age (y)	57.6 ± 5.17	65.6 ± 3.62	61.6 ± 4.07	—
Gender (female/male)	7/4	9/4	4/5	—
Glucose uptake (mg·Kg ⁻¹ ·min ⁻¹)	5.79±0.79	4.92±0.59	4.21±0.74	0.22
Fasting glucose (mg/dl)	87.6 ± 3.70	89.6 ± 3.78	98.8 ± 3.42	0.12
Fasting insulin (μIU/ml)	8.57 ± 1.21	11.8 ± 2.62	11.3 ± 1.66	0.38
Fasting C-peptide (ng/ml)	2.09 ± 0.24	2.74 ± 0.45	1.97 ± 0.23	0.21
HbA1c (%)	37.0±2.12	31.5±4.93	38.0±5.66	0.46

505

506 Table 1. Clinical and metabolic characteristics of non-diabetic subjects before surgery, classified
507 according to glucose tolerance after surgery into normal glucose tolerant, impaired glucose tolerant
508 and diabetic. Data are means ± SE, * P- value <0.05 is considered statistically significant.

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