

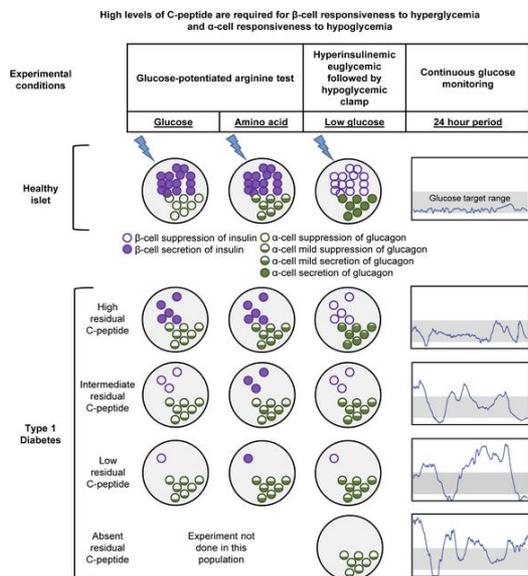
High residual C-peptide likely contributes to glycemic control in type 1 diabetes

Michael R. Rickels, ... , Kellee M. Miller, Carla J. Greenbaum

J Clin Invest. 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI134057>.

Clinical Research and Public Health In-Press Preview Endocrinology

Graphical abstract



Find the latest version:

<https://jci.me/134057/pdf>



1 **High residual C-peptide likely contributes to glycemic control in type 1 diabetes**

2
3 Michael R. Rickels,¹ Carmella Evans-Molina,² Henry T. Bahnson,³ Alyssa Ylescupidez,³ Kristen
4 J. Nadeau,⁴ Wei Hao,³ Mark A. Clements,⁵ Jennifer L. Sherr,⁶ Richard E. Pratley,⁷ Tamara S.
5 Hannon,² Viral N. Shah,⁸ Kellee M. Miller,⁹ and Carla J. Greenbaum³ for the T1D Exchange β -
6 Cell Function Study Group*

7
8 ¹Institute for Diabetes, Obesity & Metabolism, University of Pennsylvania Perelman School of
9 Medicine, Philadelphia, PA, USA.

10 ²Center for Diabetes and Metabolic Disease, Indiana University School of Medicine,
11 Indianapolis, IN, USA.

12 ³Benaroya Research Institute, Seattle, WA, USA.

13 ⁴Children's Hospital Colorado, University of Colorado School of Medicine, Aurora, CO, USA.

14 ⁵Children's Mercy Hospital, Kansas City, MO, USA.

15 ⁶Yale University School of Medicine, New Haven, CN, USA.

16 ⁷AdventHealth Translational Research Institute for Metabolism and Diabetes, Orlando, FL, USA.

17 ⁸Barbara Davis Center for Childhood Diabetes, University of Colorado School of Medicine,
18 Aurora, CO, USA.

19 ⁹Jaeb Center for Health Research, Tampa, FL, USA.

20
21
22 Address correspondence and requests for reprints to: Michael R. Rickels, MD, MS, University of
23 Pennsylvania Perelman School of Medicine, 12-134 Smilow Center for Translational Research,
24 3400 Civic Center Boulevard, Philadelphia, PA 19104-5160, rickels@pennmedicine.upenn.edu;
25 or to: Carla J. Greenbaum, MD, Benaroya Research Institute, 1201 Ninth Avenue, Seattle, WA
26 98101-2795, cjgreen@benaroyaresearch.org.

27
28 *A complete list of participating investigators and coordinators is provided in the Supplementary
29 Material.

30
31
32 The authors have declared that no conflict of interest exists.

33
34 Word Count: 5348

35
36 Tables/Figures: 2/7

37
38 References: 63
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46

47 **Abstract**

48 **BACKGROUND.** Residual C-peptide is detected in many people for years following the diagnosis of
49 type 1 diabetes; however, the physiologic significance of low levels of detectable C-peptide is not known.

50 **METHODS.** We studied sixty-three adults with type 1 diabetes classified by peak mixed-meal tolerance
51 test (MMTT) C-peptide as negative (<0.007 ; $n = 15$), low (0.017 – 0.200 ; $n = 16$), intermediate (>0.200 –
52 0.400 ; $n = 15$), or high (>0.400 pmol/mL; $n = 17$). We compared the groups' glycemia from continuous
53 glucose monitoring (CGM), β -cell secretory responses from a glucose-potentiated arginine (GPA) test,
54 insulin sensitivity from a hyperinsulinemia euglycemic (EU) clamp, and glucose counterregulatory
55 responses from a subsequent hypoglycemic (HYPO) clamp.

56 **RESULTS.** Low and intermediate MMTT C-peptide groups did not exhibit β -cell secretory responses to
57 hyperglycemia, whereas the high C-peptide group showed increases in both C-peptide and proinsulin (P
58 ≤ 0.01). All groups with detectable MMTT C-peptide demonstrated acute C-peptide and proinsulin
59 responses to arginine that were positively correlated with peak MMTT C-peptide ($P < 0.0001$ for both
60 analytes). During the EU-HYPO clamp, C-peptide levels were proportionately suppressed in the low,
61 intermediate, and high C-peptide compared to the negative group ($P \leq 0.0001$), whereas glucagon
62 increased from EU to HYPO only in the high C-peptide group compared to negative ($P = 0.01$). CGM
63 demonstrated lower mean glucose and more time-in-range for the high C-peptide group.

64 **CONCLUSION.** These results indicate that in adults with type 1 diabetes, β -cell responsiveness to
65 hyperglycemia and α -cell responsiveness to hypoglycemia are only observed at high levels of residual C-
66 peptide that likely contribute to glycemic control.

67 **FUNDING.** Funding for this work was provided by the Leona M. and Harry B. Helmsley Charitable
68 Trust; the National Center for Advancing Translational Sciences (NCATS); and the National Institute of
69 Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases (NIDDK).

70

71

72 **Introduction**

73 Type 1 diabetes (T1D) results from autoimmune destruction of the insulin-producing β -cells in
74 the endocrine pancreatic islets of Langerhans. After a subclinical period of months to years of
75 autoimmune destruction, the clinical diagnosis of diabetes occurs when the functional capacity
76 for insulin secretion has been markedly reduced (1, 2), and corresponds to a considerable
77 reduction in β -cell volume (3, 4). Interestingly, there is heterogeneity of the pathology affecting
78 the islets of individuals with T1D, with some pancreatic lobules containing islets without β -cells
79 and others containing islets with a near-normal complement of β -cells (3, 4). With increasing
80 time from diabetes diagnosis it becomes harder to find islets containing β -cells (5), although
81 scattered insulin-positive cells can be found in most individuals with T1D (6). Even amongst
82 those with long standing disease, some individuals may have pancreatic lobules with islet
83 containing β -cells (7). Thus, a portion of individuals with T1D appears to maintain a population
84 of β -cells capable of evading immune detection (8).

85 Consistent with the pathologic description of residual islet containing β -cells, many
86 individuals with T1D will maintain clinically meaningful endogenous insulin secretion, as
87 estimated from levels of mixed-meal stimulated C-peptide >0.200 pmol/mL (>0.60 ng/mL), for
88 up to 5 years from diagnosis (9). In the Diabetes Control and Complications Trial (DCCT), such
89 residual β -cell function measured within 5 years of disease diagnosis was associated with
90 reduced incidence of retinopathy and nephropathy and a decreased prevalence of severe
91 hypoglycemia (10). Conversely, DCCT participants who had “undetectable” C-peptide at
92 enrollment were at the greatest risk for severe hypoglycemia regardless of treatment intensity
93 (11). While the lower limit of detection for the C-peptide assay used in the DCCT was 0.03
94 pmol/mL (0.09 ng/mL) (9, 12), most assays performed poorly at this low concentration. Thus,

95 “negative” has been used across a range from <0.03 – 0.17 pmol/mL (0.10 – 0.50 ng/mL), and
96 stimulated C-peptide levels >0.200 pmol/mL have been considered clinically meaningful.
97 However, a more recent analysis of the DCCT (13) suggests that any level of measurable C-
98 peptide may be associated with better clinical outcomes.

99 With the development and increasing use of improved C-peptide assays, it is now
100 possible to detect residual C-peptide production in the majority of people with T1D during the
101 first 10 years of diabetes, and in a substantial minority of people in their second and third
102 decades with the disease (14-16). These observations have recently been extended to the Joslin
103 Medalist cohort that includes individuals with more than 50 years disease duration (7).
104 However, whether detection of low levels of residual C-peptide has any physiologic significance
105 for affecting the secretory responses of other islet hormones such as glucagon or contributing to
106 glucose control or counterregulation is not known. Moreover, one postulated mechanism for
107 insulin resistance in T1D is peripheral administration of exogenous insulin vs. portal delivery of
108 endogenous insulin that is important for hepatic metabolism (17). Thus, people with intact C-
109 peptide secretion were hypothesized to have higher insulin sensitivity.

110 The present study was designed to investigate the significance of varying levels of
111 residual C-peptide production for evidencing persistent β -cell function as well as α -cell function
112 that is dysregulated in T1D. Additionally, we sought to determine if a minimum threshold of C-
113 peptide was physiologically important based on a comprehensive evaluation of islet cell
114 responsiveness. To accomplish this, residual C-peptide defined by the peak during a mixed meal
115 tolerance test (MMTT) was related to β - and α -cell responsiveness to glucose and arginine derived
116 from glucose-potentiated arginine testing, insulin sensitivity measured during a stable glucose
117 isotope-labeled hyperinsulinemic euglycemic clamp, β - and α -cell responsiveness to hypoglycemia

118 and counterregulatory hormone, symptom and endogenous glucose production (EGP) measured
119 during a stable glucose isotope-labeled hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemic clamp, and to glycemic
120 control derived from continuous glucose monitoring. Participants were grouped by their peak C-
121 peptide during the MMTT as negative (<0.007 pmol/mL [<0.02 ng/mL]), low (0.017–0.200
122 pmol/mL [0.05–0.60 ng/mL]), intermediate (>0.200 – 0.400 pmol/mL [>0.60 – 1.20 ng/mL]), or
123 high (>0.400 pmol/mL [>1.20 ng/mL]) based on previously reported distribution of residual C-
124 peptide production in T1D (16). While these were protocol-specified categories, the
125 relationships between physiologic measures were also evaluated by peak C-peptide as a
126 continuous variable.

127

128 **Results**

129 **Participant characteristics**

130 Between June 2016 and February 2017, 63 participants completed the study protocol (Fig. 1).
131 The participants were balanced across groups of C-peptide production for sex, age, and BMI;
132 however, T1D duration was longer ($P < 0.001$) and insulin requirements were greater ($P = 0.01$)
133 for those in the negative C-peptide group (Table 1).

134

135 **Islet and incretin responses during the mixed-meal tolerance test (MMTT)**

136 As expected from the study design, C-peptide responses during the MMTT increased
137 significantly from no response in the negative group to incrementally greater responses in the
138 low, intermediate, and high C-peptide groups ($P < 0.0001$; Fig. 2A). This relationship was also
139 strongly apparent when evaluated as a continuous variable ($r = 0.99$; $P < 0.0001$; Fig. 2B). There
140 was no relationship between glucagon responses and either categorical (Fig. 2C) or continuous

141 (not shown) C-peptide responses during the MMTT. No differences in GLP-1 responses were
142 seen across the groups or when C-peptide was assessed as a continuous variable (data not
143 shown). In contrast, there was a relationship between peak C-peptide and the GIP response both
144 as a categorical ($P < 0.01$; Fig. 2D) and continuous ($r = 0.48$; $P = 0.0001$) variable.

145

146 **Glucose, C-peptide, proinsulin and glucagon during the glucose-potentiated arginine** 147 **(GPA) test**

148 A GPA test was conducted in the groups with detectable C-peptide as the gold-standard
149 assessment of islet hormone secretion since the β -cell response to arginine is preserved after it is
150 lost to glucose (18, 19), and arginine stimulation allows the α -cell response to be simultaneously
151 quantitated and related (20). Fasting glucose was greater in the low and intermediate than in the
152 high C-peptide group (145 ± 30 vs. 148 ± 31 vs. 115 ± 0 mg/dL; $P = 0.02$). Across the low,
153 intermediate, and high C-peptide groups, there was increasing fasting C-peptide (0.03 ± 0.02 vs.
154 0.11 ± 0.03 vs. 0.22 ± 0.13 pmol/mL; $P < 0.0001$; Fig. 3A) and no difference in fasting proinsulin
155 (Fig. 3B). Thus, the fasting proinsulin-to-C-peptide ratio was highest in the low C-peptide group
156 (0.56 ± 0.40 vs. 0.18 ± 0.08 vs. 0.14 ± 0.17 ; $P < 0.0001$). In response to the ~ 230 mg/dL
157 hyperglycemic clamp, while the pre-arginine glucose was similar across groups (236 ± 10 vs.
158 233 ± 9 vs. 239 ± 16 mg/dL), the low and intermediate C-peptide groups did not exhibit a β -cell
159 response to the induction of hyperglycemia, whereas the high C-peptide group showed increases
160 in both C-peptide ($P < 0.001$) and proinsulin ($P = 0.01$). All three groups demonstrated β -cell
161 responses to glucose-potentiated arginine (Fig. 3A, B) with increases across groups in both the
162 acute C-peptide response (0.05 ± 0.03 vs. 0.15 ± 0.04 vs. 0.51 ± 0.26 pmol/mL; $P < 0.0001$) and the
163 acute proinsulin response (0.002 ± 0.001 vs. 0.004 ± 0.002 vs. 0.012 ± 0.012 pmol/mL; $P = 0.0001$).

164 The proinsulin secretory ratio (PISR), a measure of β -cell stress derived from GPA stimulation
165 (21), was not different across groups. The peak C-peptide during the MMTT was highly
166 correlated with the acute C-peptide response to arginine stimulation (ACR_{arg} : $r = 0.96$; $P < 0.0001$;
167 Fig. 3D) and less so with the acute proinsulin response to arginine (APR_{arg} : $r = 0.65$; $P < 0.0001$;
168 Fig. 3E). While the GPA test was not conducted in the group with undetectable stimulated C-
169 peptide during the MMTT, the y-intercept of the regression line relating ACR_{arg} to the MMTT
170 peak C-peptide equaled zero, supporting that undetectable stimulated C-peptide by one test is
171 predictive for a negative response by the other test. The α -cell response to glucose-potentiated
172 arginine (AGR_{arg}) was not different across groups (Fig. 3C) and there was no relationship
173 between the MMTT peak C-peptide and the acute glucagon response (data not shown).

174

175 **Insulin sensitivity during the hyperinsulinemic euglycemic (EU) clamp**

176 A hyperinsulinemic euglycemic (EU) clamp was conducted as a gold standard assessment of
177 insulin sensitivity, with infusion of a stable glucose isotope in order to distinguish hepatic from
178 peripheral insulin action using the isotopic dilution method (22). Insulin administration during
179 the clamp resulted in similar levels of plasma insulin during EU across the negative, low,
180 intermediate, and high C-peptide groups (53.0 ± 24.7 vs. 52.4 ± 18.3 vs. 41.3 ± 15.2 vs. 52.3 ± 16.5
181 $\mu\text{U/mL}$; Fig. 4A), and there was no difference in plasma glucose during the last 30-min of EU
182 across the groups (93 ± 6 vs. 89 ± 4 vs. 94 ± 6 vs. 90 ± 5 mg/dL; Fig. 4B). No differences were seen
183 across the negative, low, intermediate, and high C-peptide groups for total body insulin
184 sensitivity (S_I , 0.100 ± 0.046 vs. 0.112 ± 0.065 vs. 0.136 ± 0.069 vs. $0.127 \pm 0.079 \times 10^2 \text{ dl} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$
185 per $\mu\text{U/mL}$), peripheral insulin sensitivity (S_{IP} , 0.052 ± 0.039 vs. 0.060 ± 0.058 vs. 0.073 ± 0.049 vs.

186 $0.079 \pm 0.048 \times 10^2 \text{ dl} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ per $\mu\text{U}/\text{mL}$), or hepatic insulin sensitivity (S_{IH} , 0.603 ± 0.172 vs.
187 0.660 ± 0.249 vs. 0.675 ± 0.272 vs. 0.659 ± 0.171).

188

189 **Counterregulatory responses during the hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemic (HYPO) clamp**

190 A hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemic (HYPO) clamp was performed as a gold standard assessment
191 of hormonal and glucose counterregulatory responses to insulin-induced hypoglycemia, with the
192 infusion of stable glucose isotope enabling determination of the endogenous glucose production
193 (EGP) response as the ultimate defense against the development of low blood glucose (23, 24).
194 Plasma levels of insulin were not statistically different during HYPO across the negative, low,
195 intermediate, and high C-peptide groups (52.8 ± 29.1 vs. 47.2 ± 14.3 vs. 35.1 ± 10.5 vs. 38.7 ± 13.6
196 $\mu\text{U}/\text{mL}$; Fig. 4A), and there was no difference in plasma glucose during the last 30-min of
197 HYPO across the groups (52 ± 4 vs. 50 ± 4 vs. 54 ± 6 vs. 52 ± 4 mg/dL; Fig. 4B). Suppression of C-
198 peptide from EU to HYPO was incrementally greater for the groups by increasing C-peptide
199 production (0 ± 0 vs. -0.006 ± 0.005 vs. -0.027 ± 0.008 vs. -0.074 ± 0.042 pmol/mL; $P < 0.0001$; Fig.
200 5A). The increase in glucagon from EU to HYPO was significantly different across the groups
201 by increasing C-peptide production (12.9 ± 7.7 vs. 17.4 ± 16.7 vs. 13.0 ± 14.4 vs. 30.1 ± 16.2 pg/mL;
202 $P = 0.007$; Fig. 5B) with a clearly greater increase in glucagon on average in the high C-peptide
203 group and overlap in the intermediate and low C-peptide groups. The peak C-peptide during the
204 MMTT was highly associated with the suppression of C-peptide during HYPO ($r = -0.95$; P
205 < 0.0001 ; Fig. 5C) and weakly correlated with the glucagon response to HYPO ($r = 0.40$; P
206 $= 0.003$; Fig. 5D). No differences were seen across the negative, low, intermediate, and high C-
207 peptide groups in the change from EU to HYPO for EGP (0.19 ± 0.71 vs. 0.33 ± 0.69 vs. 0.78 ± 0.56
208 vs. 0.50 ± 0.60 mg·kg⁻¹·min⁻¹; Fig. 6A), FFAs (0.314 ± 0.267 vs. 0.329 ± 0.315 vs. 0.319 ± 0.242 vs.

209 0.165±0.208 mmol/L; Fig. 6B), epinephrine (380±277 vs. 590±309 vs. 445±203 vs. 451±300
210 pg/mL; Fig. 6C), or autonomic symptoms (7.62±5.61 vs. 9.02±6.39 vs. 7.69±5.44 vs.
211 10.04±4.38; Fig. 6D).

212

213 **Glycemic control as assessed by continuous glucose monitoring (CGM)**

214 Participants from all four groups collected a similar amount of sensor glucose data from the 7-
215 day CGM (Table 2). Mean glucose was lower, time in range 70–180 mg/dL was higher, and
216 time with glucose >180 mg/dL was lower in the group with the highest C-peptide ($P < 0.05$ for
217 all comparisons; Table 2), while statistically significant differences were not seen across groups
218 for glucose CV or time with glucose <70 mg/dL. When evaluated as a continuous relationship
219 with MMTT peak C-peptide, mean glucose was lower ($r = -0.356$; $P = 0.005$), time in range 70–
220 180 mg/dL was higher ($r = 0.456$; $P < 0.001$), time with glucose >180 mg/dL was lower
221 ($r = -0.376$; $P = 0.003$), and glucose CV was lower ($r = -0.258$; $P = 0.046$) with increasing C-
222 peptide, while no relationship was seen for time with glucose <70 mg/dL. No individual with
223 MMTT peak C-peptide >0.400 pmol/mL exhibited less than 50% time in range 70–180 mg/dL
224 (Fig. 7), and so the high C-peptide group appeared protected from experiencing sub-optimal
225 glycemic control (25).

226

227 **Discussion**

228 Our study is the first to comprehensively assess islet cell responsivity in people with T1D using
229 gold-standard methods across the spectrum of detectable C-peptide production. The group with
230 high peak C-peptide (>0.400 pmol/mL) during a MMTT exhibited lower fasting glucose
231 (111±31 mg/dL), HbA_{1c} (6.8±1.0%) and mean glucose (140±25 mg/dL), and greater CGM-

232 derived time in target range ($72\pm 12\%$). Given that the high C-peptide group was considerably
233 less often hyperglycemic based on CGM, the lack of difference in peripheral or hepatic insulin
234 sensitivity across the groups supports that insulin resistance in T1D is not strongly related to
235 hyperglycemia as suggested by others (26). The high C-peptide group was the only group who
236 demonstrated β -cell responsiveness to glucose during the hyperglycemic clamp conducted prior to
237 the GPA test with measurable increases in C-peptide and proinsulin secretion. Furthermore, this
238 group also demonstrated α -cell responsiveness to hypoglycemia with greater increases in glucagon.
239 Evaluation of peak C-peptide as a continuous variable also demonstrated a continuous
240 association with these measures of islet cell responsiveness, suggesting that any selected threshold
241 remains somewhat arbitrary. Thus, while the group comparisons suggest that a MMTT peak C-
242 peptide of >0.400 pmol/mL represents a minimum threshold of physiologic importance, the
243 threshold of peak C-peptide >0.200 pmol/mL established by the DCCT as clinically meaningful
244 may be explained by some degree of preserved islet cell responsiveness in the intermediate C-
245 peptide group, while lower levels are unlikely to contribute any meaningful benefit for glycemic
246 control in T1D.

247 Our results support the concept that classification of residual C-peptide by peak MMTT
248 response is consistent with the underlying β -cell secretory capacity as demonstrated here using
249 the GPA test. Functional β -cell mass is most accurately determined *in vivo* from the β -cell
250 secretory capacity (27). The β -cell secretory capacity is derived from glucose-potential of
251 insulin or C-peptide release in response to injection of a non-glucose insulin secretagogue, such
252 as arginine or glucagon. Glucose-potential serves to prime the β -cells by inducing
253 recruitment of secretory granules to a readily releasable pool that is subsequently released in
254 response to membrane depolarization induced by arginine or glucagon (28). Because differences

255 in glucose concentration affect the priming of β -cells to acute stimulation by arginine, and the
256 repeatability of the measured responses is superior with arginine compared to glucagon (29), we
257 employed a hyperglycemic clamp to create the same degree of glucose-potential (~230 mg/dl
258 [12.8 mmol/l]) of arginine-induced insulin secretion in all participants for the most accurate
259 quantification of remaining functional β -cell mass. The MMTT peak C-peptide being highly
260 associated with the acute C-peptide response to GPA ($r=0.96$; $P<0.0001$; Fig. 3D) indicates that
261 mixed-meal stimulation may serve as a reasonable correlate to estimate functional β -cell mass in
262 T1D.

263 An increased proinsulin-to-C-peptide ratio was observed under fasting conditions in the
264 low C-peptide group. This may be explained by greater exposure to hyperglycemia in this group
265 since studies in isolated human islets have shown that hyperglycemia decreases β -cell insulin
266 content and increases β -cell secretion of proinsulin (30). Alternatively, this finding may
267 represent transition within this group to becoming C-peptide negative, where proinsulin secretion
268 may be detected in the absence of C-peptide (31, 32). However, there was no difference in the
269 PISR when hyperglycemia was matched across groups during the hyperglycemic clamp,
270 suggesting that proinsulin processing is not dependent on differences in low residual mass of
271 functioning β -cells. In addition, measures of insulin sensitivity at both the skeletal muscle and
272 liver were not different across groups with residual C-peptide production compared to the
273 negative group, and therefore differences within such low levels of β -cell function do not seem to
274 affect the insulin resistance of T1D (33).

275 We also show that residual β -cell function does not affect the paradoxical increase in
276 glucagon secretion during meal ingestion in T1D since individuals across all levels of peak C-
277 peptide response had the same post-prandial glucagon levels as those with undetectable C-

278 peptide, findings that confirm a recent smaller study (34, 35). Consistent with this result, there
279 was also no difference in the acute glucagon response to GPA across groups of increasing
280 residual C-peptide, and prior work demonstrated impaired suppression of glucagon secretion
281 during a MMTT in youth with T1D within the first 2-years of diagnosis (36). Impaired glucagon
282 suppression to hyperglycemia is also seen in individuals with early, asymptomatic T1D
283 manifested by normal fasting but “diabetic” range post-prandial values (1). Moreover, each of
284 these asymptomatic individuals with T1D also had markedly impaired functional β -cell mass,
285 with the acute insulin response to GPA ~25% of normal. In contrast, despite markedly impaired
286 first phase insulin secretion, antibody positive relatives with non-diabetic OGTTs suppress
287 glucagon appropriately in response to IV glucose. We recently reported that multiple antibody
288 positive individuals prior to clinical diagnosis have a wide range of functional β -cell mass (37).
289 Thus, while clearly a continuum, the data to-date suggest a model whereby loss of functional β -
290 cell mass associated with impaired glucagon suppression to hyperglycemia underlies the
291 transition from pre- to post-clinical diagnosis. Then, as currently demonstrated, regardless of
292 residual C-peptide secretion, once a diagnosis of T1D is established, the reduced functional β -
293 cell mass is no longer capable of exerting reciprocal regulation of glucagon secretion as occurs in
294 nondiabetic individuals (38).

295 Curiously, there was a positive relationship between the peak C-peptide response and the
296 GIP response during the MMTT. While higher levels of GIP would be expected to augment β -
297 cell function and might contribute to the higher C-peptide, the much more robust relationship
298 between the peak C-peptide response and the β -cell secretory capacity evidences that in the low
299 or negative C-peptide group the low/absent C-peptide is a result of β -cell loss, not lack of
300 incretin augmentation. A possible explanation for the correlation of peak C-peptide to the GIP

301 response during the MMTT is the presence of mild pancreatic exocrine insufficiency in subjects
302 with lower levels of C-peptide that could affect intestinal nutrient sensing and GIP secretion.
303 Endogenous insulin exerts paracrine trophic effect on the exocrine pancreas via an insuloacinar
304 portal circulation (39), and several studies have demonstrated loss of pancreatic exocrine tissue
305 volume in T1D (40, 41). Consistent with this, a positive relationship between residual C-peptide
306 production and pancreatic exocrine function has been reported in T1D (42), although we did not
307 measure pancreatic exocrine function in the present study.

308 Whereas α -cell responsiveness to nutrient stimulation such as by amino acids remains
309 intact as shown in the present study by MMTT and arginine administration, T1D is associated
310 with the development of a selective defect in α -cell glucagon secretion in response to
311 hypoglycemia (43). This defect in α -cell responsivity to low blood glucose may also be
312 explained by the loss of the reciprocal regulation of glucagon secretion by neighboring β -cells
313 turning off insulin secretion (38). While the glucagon response to hypoglycemia is already
314 markedly impaired at the onset of T1D (44, 45), islets containing β -cells might retain
315 responsiveness of their α -cells to hypoglycemia and contribute to the better glycemic control and
316 avoidance of hypoglycemia associated with increasing amounts of residual C-peptide production.
317 Prior studies examining this relationship have generated conflicting results, some finding a
318 correlation between stimulated C-peptide levels and the glucagon response to insulin-induced
319 hypoglycemia (46-48), and others finding no relationship (49, 50). Our results demonstrate a
320 weak association of peak C-peptide from the MMTT and the glucagon response to insulin-
321 induced hypoglycemia, supporting that a relationship does exist, but again is most significant
322 with high levels of residual C-peptide. We did not, however, see any difference in the EGP
323 response to hypoglycemia across groups of increasing C-peptide when compared to the negative

324 C-peptide group, a result consistent with other studies reporting no difference in recovery from
325 hypoglycemia in those with or without residual C-peptide (47), while another study did see
326 modestly greater EGP during hypoglycemia in C-peptide positive when compared to negative
327 T1D (48). In this latter study, the epinephrine response was less in the C-peptide negative versus
328 the C-peptide positive group (48), which likely accounts for the lower EGP response that
329 becomes dependent on epinephrine when the glucagon response is impaired (51). Consistent
330 with this premise, the present study identified no difference in the EGP response, while another
331 study identified no difference in the rate of recovery from hypoglycemia (47) when epinephrine
332 responses to hypoglycemia remained intact. Because the epinephrine response is intact at the
333 onset of T1D (44, 45), the maintenance of the EGP response to defend against the development
334 of low blood glucose appears most dependent on preservation of epinephrine and not low levels
335 of glucagon secretion during hypoglycemia.

336 These results are important to inform the consideration of potential treatment targets for
337 interventions such as immune modulation aimed at preserving or restoring β -cell function in
338 T1D. Studies that evidenced an association between less hypoglycemia and microvascular
339 complications in people with T1D who had mixed-meal stimulated C-peptide in the range of our
340 low C-peptide group (13) involved cohorts with hundreds of people, and the associations, while
341 statistically significant, were very weak. Others have shown that children 3-6 years after
342 diagnosis with stimulated C-peptide >0.040 pmol/mL had significantly less severe hypoglycemic
343 events and lower HbA_{1c} than those with less or no residual secretion (52). Earlier work has
344 shown a benefit of low levels of residual C-peptide in protecting individuals from the
345 development of ketoacidosis in the setting of insulin deprivation when compared to those with
346 negative C-peptide (53). In an analysis of T1D recipients of islet transplantation selected for

347 experiencing severe hypoglycemia and having undetectable stimulated C-peptide before
348 transplantation, low levels (<0.200 pmol/mL) of mixed-meal stimulated C-peptide following
349 transplantation were associated with poor glycemic control and excessive glucose variability that
350 improved significantly and in a continuous fashion with C-peptide ≥ 0.200 pmol/mL until insulin-
351 independence was observed with C-peptide >1.000 pmol/mL (54). Consensus guidelines
352 recommend considering β -cell replacement therapy (currently available as islet or pancreas
353 transplantation) in people with either negative or low C-peptide who are experiencing severe
354 episodes of hypoglycemia complicated by hypoglycemia unawareness or marked glycemic
355 lability (55). Such people are clearly not protected by the presence of low levels of residual C-
356 peptide production, and so the goal of intervention is to restore β -cell function with a C-peptide
357 level of at least 0.200 pmol/mL (55). In the present study, while we were unable to pinpoint a
358 threshold level of C-peptide as being physiologically distinct, the low C-peptide group did not
359 behave any differently than the negative group. Clinically, significantly better glycemic control
360 evidenced by CGM was observed in the group with high (>0.400 pmol/mL) mixed-meal
361 stimulated C-peptide. Thus, our data are consistent with the idea that interventions targeting
362 preservation or restoration of β -cell function in T1D should aim for more than “low” levels of C-
363 peptide production.

364 In conclusion, classification of residual C-peptide production by the peak value obtained
365 during the MMTT is consistent with the underlying β -cell secretory capacity. While a MMTT
366 peak C-peptide >0.4 pmol/mL may indicate a threshold of physiologic importance for β -cell
367 responsivity to hyperglycemia and α -cell responsivity to hypoglycemia, no amount of residual C-
368 peptide in T1D tested in this study is associated with appropriate suppression of glucagon
369 secretion during hyperglycemia. Importantly, even individuals with no residual C-peptide are

370 capable of maintaining glucose counterregulation in defense against the development of low
371 blood glucose as long as the epinephrine response to hypoglycemia is intact. Because our study
372 was cross sectional, we cannot determine whether the duration of sustained residual C-peptide
373 production may affect these results. We are not able to comment on the mechanisms by which
374 residual insulin secretion contributed to islet cell and counterregulatory responsiveness in the
375 maintenance of glycemic control. Notwithstanding these limitations, the continuous relationship
376 of MMTT peak C-peptide with measures of β - and α -cell function reported here preclude
377 specification of a discrete level warranting further consideration as a potential requirement or
378 treatment target for interventions aimed at preserving or restoring β -cell function in T1D.

379

380 **Methods**

381 *Participants.* Participants were recruited at seven sites in the T1D Exchange Clinic Network.
382 Eligible participants were age 18–65 years, had been diagnosed with T1D between 6 months and
383 46 years and had a disease duration of at least 2 years. Additional inclusion and exclusion
384 criteria are provided in the Supplementary Material.

385

386 *Design.* Participants were grouped by C-peptide such that negative (<0.007 pmol/mL [<0.02
387 ng/mL]) would have undetectable stimulated C-peptide by the most sensitive assay available and
388 low (0.017 – 0.200 pmol/mL [0.05 – 0.60 ng/mL]) would have detectable C-peptide by current
389 standard assays but below the cut-off deemed clinically meaningful by the Diabetes Control and
390 Complications Trial (DCCT) (10). The intermediate (>0.200 – 0.400 pmol/mL [>0.60 – 1.20
391 ng/mL]) and high (>0.400 pmol/mL [>1.20 ng/mL]) groups were assigned to understand the
392 relevance of stimulated C-peptide above the DCCT threshold of 0.200 pmol/ml, and twice that

393 level, respectively, to assure that we sampled across the distribution of C-peptide values based on
394 approximately 5% of individuals with similar disease duration having random C-peptide levels
395 >0.400 pmol/mL (16). Because the non-fasting C-peptide is predictive of the peak C-peptide
396 during the MMTT (16), participants were selected to proceed with the MMTT based on their
397 screening level of non-fasting C-peptide with the goal of enrolling ~16 participants per group.
398 Participant grouping for analysis was ultimately determined by the peak C-peptide during the
399 MMTT. All metabolic testing was completed within a 30-day period.

400

401 *Mixed-meal tolerance test (MMTT)*. Following a 10-hour overnight fast, an antecubital or
402 forearm vein catheter was placed for blood sampling. After baseline blood sampling at $t = -10$
403 and -1 min, at $t = 0$, a standardized liquid meal (Boost High Protein, 6 mL/kg up to 360 mL) was
404 consumed over a 5 min period. Additional blood samples were taken at 30, 60, 90, and 120 min
405 from the start of the meal (16).

406

407 *Glucose-potentiated arginine (GPA) test*. Following a 10-hour overnight fast, one catheter was
408 placed in an antecubital vein for infusions, and another catheter was placed in a distal forearm or
409 hand vein for blood sampling, with the hand placed in a heating pad to promote arterialization of
410 the venous blood. After baseline blood sampling at $t = -5$ and -1 min, at $t = 0$, a hyperglycemic
411 clamp (56) using a variable rate infusion of 20% dextrose was performed to achieve a plasma
412 glucose concentration of ~ 230 mg/dL. Blood samples were taken every 5 min, centrifuged, and
413 measured at bedside with an automated glucose analyzer (YSI 2300; Yellow Springs
414 Instruments, Yellow Springs, OH) to adjust the infusion rate and achieve the desired plasma
415 glucose concentration. At $t = 40$ and 44 min, blood samples were collected prior to the bolus

416 infusion of 5 g of 10% arginine over 1-min starting at $t = 45$. Additional blood samples were
417 collected at $t = 47, 48, 49,$ and 50 min (corresponding to 2, 3, 4, and 5 min after the infusion of
418 arginine). Participants who were C-peptide negative did not undergo GPA testing.
419
420 *Hyperinsulinemic euglycemic-hypoglycemic clamp.* Participants either spent the night or arrived
421 early in the morning following a 10-hour overnight fast to the clinical research center. One
422 catheter was placed in an antecubital vein for infusions, and another catheter was placed in a
423 distal forearm or hand vein for blood sampling, with the hand placed in a heating pad to promote
424 arterialization of the venous blood. Participants were converted from subcutaneous insulin to a
425 low-dose intravenous insulin infusion protocol to target a blood glucose of 81–115 mg/dL prior
426 to testing. A baseline blood sample was collected for determination of the background
427 enrichment of 6,6-²H₂-glucose. At $t = -120$ min, a primed (5 mg/kg · fasting plasma glucose in
428 mg/dL/90 given over 5 min) continuous (0.05 mg·kg⁻¹·min⁻¹ for 355 min) infusion of 6,6-²H₂-
429 glucose (99% enriched; Cambridge Isotopes Laboratories, Andover, MA) was administered to
430 assess EGP before and during the induction of hyperinsulinemia. After blood sampling at $t = -15$
431 and -1 min, at $t = 0$ min a primed (1.6 mU·kg⁻¹·min⁻¹ given over 10 min) continuous (0.8 mU·kg⁻¹·
432 min⁻¹ for 230 min) infusion of insulin was administered to produce hyperinsulinemia (57).
433 Subsequently, a variable rate infusion of 20% glucose enriched to ~2.0% with 6,6-²H₂-glucose
434 was administered according to the glycemic clamp technique to achieve a plasma glucose ~90
435 mg/dL by ~60 min and maintained until ~120 min, after which the plasma glucose was allowed
436 to fall to ~50 mg/dL by ~180 min and maintained until 240 min. Blood samples were taken
437 every 5 min, centrifuged, and measured at the bedside with an automated glucose analyzer (YSI
438 2300) to adjust the glucose infusion rate and achieve the desired plasma glucose concentration.

439 Additional blood samples were collected at $t = 30, 60, 90, 105, 120, 150, 180, 210, 225,$ and 240
440 min for biochemical analysis. A questionnaire was administered every 30 min during the study
441 to quantitate autonomic symptoms as the sum of scores ranging from 0 (none) to 5 (severe) for
442 each of the following symptoms: anxiety, palpitations, sweating, tremor, hunger, and tingling
443 (58).

444

445 *Biochemical analysis.* Blood samples were collected into serum separator tubes (for glucose, free
446 fatty acids, insulin, C-peptide, and proinsulin) and on ice into EDTA containing tubes (for 6,6-
447 $^2\text{H}_2$ -glucose and epinephrine) with protease inhibitor cocktail containing dipeptidyl peptidase 4
448 inhibitor (for glucagon, glucagon-like peptide-1 [GLP-1], and glucose-dependent insulinotropic
449 polypeptide [GIP]), centrifuged at 4 °C, separated, and frozen at -80 °C for subsequent analysis.
450 Glucose was determined by the hexokinase enzymatic method and free fatty acids by enzymatic
451 colorimetrics (Roche Modular P auto-analyzer; Roche Diagnostics, Indianapolis, IN). Insulin
452 and C-peptide levels were measured by two-site immuno-enzymometric assays (Tosoh 2000
453 auto-analyzer; Tosoh Bioscience, San Francisco, CA). The C-peptide assay has a sensitivity
454 level of detection at 0.007 pmol/mL (0.02 ng/mL), and the inter-assay coefficient of variation for
455 low-level C-peptide controls is 3.2%. Proinsulin and glucagon were determined by double-
456 antibody radioimmunoassays (Millipore, Billerica, MA). Total GLP-1 and total GIP were
457 measured by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (Millipore). Plasma epinephrine was
458 measured by high-performance liquid chromatography with electrochemical detection.
459 Enrichment of 6,6- $^2\text{H}_2$ -glucose was measured by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry.

460

461 *Continuous glucose monitoring (CGM).* CGM was performed blinded as a validated assessment
462 of glycemic control during the month of metabolic study. The CGM device (Dexcom G4
463 Platinum with 505 software; Dexcom, San Diego, CA) measures interstitial glucose every five
464 minutes from a subcutaneously inserted sensor in the range of 40–400 mg/dL. Participants wore
465 CGMs for up to 7 days, during which they were instructed to monitor their blood glucose at least
466 3 times daily and calibrate the CGM device at least every 12 hours.

467
468 *Calculations.* Incremental responses from the MMTT for C-peptide, glucagon, GLP-1, and GIP
469 were calculated as peak minus baseline values.

470 Acute C-peptide, proinsulin, and glucagon responses to arginine during the 230 mg/dL
471 glucose clamp (ACR_{arg} , APR_{arg} , and AGR_{arg} , respectively) were calculated as the peak of the 2-,
472 3-, 4-, and 5-min values minus the mean of the pre-arginine values (56). The fasting proinsulin-
473 to-C-peptide ratio was calculated as the molar concentration of proinsulin divided by the molar
474 concentration of C-peptide (59). We also examined the proinsulin secretory ratio (PISR)
475 calculated as the molar concentration of the acute proinsulin response to arginine divided by the
476 acute C-peptide response to arginine (59, 60).

477 The rates of appearance (R_a) and disposal (R_d) of glucose during the hyperinsulinemic
478 euglycemic-hypoglycemia clamp were calculated using Steele's non-steady state equation
479 modified for the use of stable isotopes, as previously described (22). EGP was calculated from
480 the difference between the R_a of glucose in the plasma and the infusion rate of exogenous
481 glucose. Total body (S_I) and peripheral (S_{IP}) insulin sensitivity were calculated from the last 30
482 min of EU as previously described (61, 62). Hepatic insulin sensitivity was determined from the
483 percent suppression of EGP as $S_{IH} = 1 - (EGP_2/EGP_1)$ where EGP_1 and EGP_2 are the endogenous

484 glucose production at baseline and during the last 30 min, respectively. The magnitude of each
485 hormonal, incremental symptom, and EGP response to hypoglycemia was assessed as the change
486 in values from the last 30 min of euglycemia to the last 30 min of hypoglycemia.

487 CGM variables were calculated for all participants with a minimum of 72 hours of
488 daytime (0800–2200) and 24 hours of nighttime (2200–0800) data. Interstitial glucose data were
489 summarized to provide mean glucose, glucose standard deviation (SD), coefficient of variation
490 (CV) and percent (%) time with glucose in range 70–180 mg/dL, <70 mg/dL, and >180 mg/dL
491 (63). CV for glucose was calculated from the glucose SD divided by the mean glucose.

492
493 *Statistical analysis.* Data are given as means±SD except where otherwise noted. Comparison of
494 results across the C-peptide groups was performed with the Kruskal Wallis test and when
495 significant differences at $P \leq 0.05$ were found, pairwise comparisons between groups were
496 performed using the Mann-Whitney U test. Linear regression, analysis of covariance, and
497 Spearman’s rank correlations were used to evaluate continuous relationships among the different
498 measures of islet function and glucose counterregulation.

499
500 *Study approval.* The institutional review boards of each participating site approved the study, and
501 all participants provided written informed consent to participate.

502

503

504

505

506

507 **Author contributions**

508 MRR, CEM and CJG designed the study, researched data, contributed to the statistical analyses,
509 and wrote and edited the manuscript. HTB and AY researched data, contributed to the statistical
510 analyses, and wrote and edited the manuscript. WH, KJN, MAC, JLS, TH, REP, and VNS
511 contributed to the study design, researched data, and reviewed and edited the manuscript. KMM
512 researched data, and reviewed and edited the manuscript. MRR and CJG are the guarantors of
513 this work, and as such, had full access to all the data in the study and take responsibility for the
514 integrity of the data and accuracy of the data analysis.

515

516 **Acknowledgments**

517 We thank Dr. Asa Davis who was instrumental to the operations of this study under the auspices
518 of the T1D Exchange Biobank. We are indebted to Dr. Santica Marcovina of the University of
519 Washington Northwest Lipid Metabolism and Diabetes Research Laboratories for performance
520 of the biochemical and immunoassays, to Dr. Heather Collins of the University of Pennsylvania
521 Diabetes Research Center Radioimmunoassay & Biomarkers Core for performance of the high
522 performance liquid chromatography, and to Dr. John Millar and Huong-Lan Nguyen of the
523 University of Pennsylvania Institute for Diabetes, Obesity & Metabolism Metabolic Tracer
524 Resource for performance of the gas chromatography-mass spectrometry. A full list of
525 participating study sites and investigators is provided in the supplemental online material. This
526 work was supported by a grant from the Leona M. and Harry B. Helmsley Charitable Trust, and
527 by Public Health Service research grants UL1 TR001878 (University of Pennsylvania Center for
528 Human Phenomic Science), and P30 DK19525 (University of Pennsylvania Diabetes Research
529 Center).

530 **References**

531 1. Greenbaum CJ, Prigeon RL, and D'Alessio DA. Impaired beta-cell function, incretin effect, and
532 glucagon suppression in patients with type 1 diabetes who have normal fasting glucose.
533 *Diabetes*. 2002;51(4):951-7.

534 2. Keymeulen B, Vandemeulebroucke E, Ziegler AG, Mathieu C, Kaufman L, Hale G, et al. Insulin
535 needs after CD3-antibody therapy in new-onset type 1 diabetes. *N Engl J Med*.
536 2005;352(25):2598-608.

537 3. Kloppel G, Lohr M, Habich K, Oberholzer M, and Heitz PU. Islet pathology and the pathogenesis
538 of type 1 and type 2 diabetes mellitus revisited. *Surv Synth Pathol Res*. 1985;4(2):110-25.

539 4. Butler AE, Galasso R, Meier JJ, Basu R, Rizza RA, and Butler PC. Modestly increased beta cell
540 apoptosis but no increased beta cell replication in recent-onset type 1 diabetic patients who
541 died of diabetic ketoacidosis. *Diabetologia*. 2007;50(11):2323-31.

542 5. Lohr M, and Kloppel G. Residual insulin positivity and pancreatic atrophy in relation to duration
543 of chronic type 1 (insulin-dependent) diabetes mellitus and microangiopathy. *Diabetologia*.
544 1987;30(10):757-62.

545 6. Meier JJ, Bhushan A, Butler AE, Rizza RA, and Butler PC. Sustained beta cell apoptosis in patients
546 with long-standing type 1 diabetes: indirect evidence for islet regeneration? *Diabetologia*.
547 2005;48(11):2221-8.

548 7. Yu MG, Keenan HA, Shah HS, Frodsham SG, Pober D, He Z, et al. Residual beta cell function and
549 monogenic variants in long-duration type 1 diabetes patients. *J Clin Invest*. 2019;128(8):3252-63.

550 8. Coppieters KT, Dotta F, Amirian N, Campbell PD, Kay TW, Atkinson MA, et al. Demonstration of
551 islet-autoreactive CD8 T cells in insulinitic lesions from recent onset and long-term type 1 diabetes
552 patients. *J Exp Med*. 2012;209(1):51-60.

553 9. Effects of age, duration and treatment of insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus on residual beta-
554 cell function: observations during eligibility testing for the Diabetes Control and Complications
555 Trial (DCCT). The DCCT Research Group. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 1987;65(1):30-6.

556 10. Steffes MW, Sibley S, Jackson M, and Thomas W. beta-cell function and the development of
557 diabetes-related complications in the diabetes control and complications trial. *Diabetes Care*.
558 2003;26(3):832-6.

559 11. [Anon]. Hypoglycemia in the diabetes control and complications trial. *Diabetes*. 1997;46(2):271-
560 86.

561 12. Effect of intensive therapy on residual beta-cell function in patients with type 1 diabetes in the
562 diabetes control and complications trial. A randomized, controlled trial. The Diabetes Control
563 and Complications Trial Research Group. *Ann Intern Med*. 1998;128(7):517-23.

564 13. Lachin JM, McGee P, Palmer JP, and Group DER. Impact of C-peptide preservation on metabolic
565 and clinical outcomes in the Diabetes Control and Complications Trial. *Diabetes*. 2014;63(2):739-
566 48.

567 14. Wang L, Lovejoy NF, and Faustman DL. Persistence of prolonged C-peptide production in type 1
568 diabetes as measured with an ultrasensitive C-peptide assay. *Diabetes Care*. 2012;35(3):465-70.

569 15. Oram RA, Jones AG, Besser RE, Knight BA, Shields BM, Brown RJ, et al. The majority of patients
570 with long-duration type 1 diabetes are insulin microsecretors and have functioning beta cells.
571 *Diabetologia*. 2014;57(1):187-91.

572 16. Davis AK, DuBose SN, Haller MJ, Miller KM, DiMeglio LA, Bethin KE, et al. Prevalence of
573 detectable C-Peptide according to age at diagnosis and duration of type 1 diabetes. *Diabetes*
574 *Care*. 2015;38(3):476-81.

- 575 17. Rickels MR, Kong SM, Fuller C, Dalton-Bakes C, Ferguson JF, Reilly MP, et al. Improvement in
576 insulin sensitivity after human islet transplantation for type 1 diabetes. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.*
577 2013;98(11):E1780-E5.
- 578 18. Ganda OP, Srikanta S, Brink SJ, Morris MA, Gleason RE, Soeldner JS, et al. Differential sensitivity
579 to beta-cell secretagogues in early, type-1 diabetes-mellitus. *Diabetes.* 1984;33(6):516-21.
- 580 19. Rickels MR, Naji A, and Teff KL. Acute insulin responses to glucose and arginine as predictors of
581 beta-cell secretory capacity in human islet transplantation. *Transplantation.* 2007;84(10):1357-
582 60.
- 583 20. Rickels MR, Mueller R, Teff KL, and Naji A. Beta-cell secretory capacity and demand in recipients
584 of islet, pancreas, and kidney transplants. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2010;95(3):1238-46.
- 585 21. Sheikh S, Gudipaty L, De Leon DD, Hadjiliadis D, Kubrak C, Rosenfeld NK, et al. Reduced beta-cell
586 secretory capacity in pancreatic-insufficient, but not pancreatic-sufficient, cystic fibrosis despite
587 normal glucose tolerance. *Diabetes.* 2017;66(1):134-44.
- 588 22. Rickels MR, Kong SM, Fuller C, Dalton-Bakes C, Ferguson JF, Reilly MP, et al. Insulin sensitivity
589 index in type 1 diabetes and following human islet transplantation: comparison of the minimal
590 model to euglycemic clamp measures. *Am J Physiol-Endocrinol Metab.* 2014;306(10):E1217-E24.
- 591 23. Bernroider E, Brehm A, Krssak M, Anderwald C, Trajanoski Z, Cline G, et al. The role of
592 intramyocellular lipids during hypoglycemia in patients with intensively treated type 1 diabetes.
593 *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2005;90(10):5559-65.
- 594 24. Rickels MR, Fuller C, Dalton-Bakes C, Markmann E, Palanjian M, Cullison K, et al. Restoration of
595 glucose counterregulation by islet transplantation in long-standing type 1 diabetes. *Diabetes.*
596 2015;64(5):1713-8.
- 597 25. Battelino T, Danne T, Bergenstal RM, Amiel SA, Beck R, Biester T, et al. Clinical targets for
598 continuous glucose monitoring data interpretation: recommendations from the international
599 consensus on time in range. *Diabetes Care.* 2019;42(8):1593-603.
- 600 26. Bergman BC, Howard D, Schauer IE, Maahs DM, Snell-Bergeon JK, Eckel RH, et al. Features of
601 hepatic and skeletal muscle insulin resistance unique to type 1 diabetes. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.*
602 2012;97(5):1663-72.
- 603 27. Robertson RP, Bogachus LD, Oseid E, Parazzoli S, Patti ME, Rickels MR, et al. Assessment of beta-
604 cell mass and alpha- and beta-cell survival and function by arginine stimulation in human
605 autologous islet recipients. *Diabetes.* 2015;64(2):565-72.
- 606 28. Henquin JC. The dual control of insulin secretion by glucose involves triggering and amplifying
607 pathways in beta-cells. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract.* 2011;93 Suppl 1:S27-31.
- 608 29. Robertson RP, Raymond RH, Lee DS, Calle RA, Ghosh A, Savage PJ, et al. Arginine is preferred to
609 glucagon for stimulation testing of beta-cell function. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab.*
610 2014;307(8):E720-7.
- 611 30. Hostens K, Ling ZD, Van Schravendijk C, and Pipeleers D. Prolonged exposure of human beta-
612 cells to high glucose increases their release of proinsulin during acute stimulation with glucose
613 or arginine. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 1999;84(4):1386-90.
- 614 31. Steenkamp DW, Cacicedo JM, Sahin-Efe A, Sullivan C, and Sternthal E. Preserved proinsulin
615 secretion in long-standing type 1 diabetes. *Endocr Pract.* 2017;23(12):1387-93.
- 616 32. Sims EK, Bahnson HT, Nyalwidhe J, Haataja L, Davis AK, Speake C, et al. Proinsulin secretion is a
617 persistent feature of type 1 diabetes. *Diabetes Care.* 2019;42(2):258-64.
- 618 33. Greenbaum CJ. Insulin resistance in type 1 diabetes. *Diabetes Metab Res Rev.* 2002;18(3):192-
619 200.
- 620 34. Thivolet C, Marchand L, and Chikh K. Inappropriate glucagon and GLP-1 secretion in individuals
621 with long-standing type 1 diabetes: effects of residual C-peptide. *Diabetologia.* 2019;62(4):593-
622 7.

- 623 35. Sherr JL, Ghazi T, Wurtz A, Rink L, and Herold KC. Characterization of residual beta cell function
624 in long-standing type 1 diabetes. *Diabetes Metab Res Rev*. 2014;30(2):154-62.
- 625 36. Sherr J, Tsalikian E, Fox L, Buckingham B, Weinzimer S, Tamborlane WV, et al. Evolution of
626 abnormal plasma glucagon responses to mixed-meal feedings in youth with type 1 diabetes
627 during the first 2 years after diagnosis. *Diabetes Care*. 2014;37(6):1741-4.
- 628 37. Hao W, Woodwyk A, Beam C, Bahnson HT, Palmer JP, and Greenbaum CJ. Assessment of beta
629 cell mass and function by AIRmax and intravenous glucose in high-risk subjects for type 1
630 diabetes. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2017;102(12):4428-34.
- 631 38. Cooperberg BA, and Cryer PE. Insulin reciprocally regulates glucagon secretion in humans.
632 *Diabetes*. 2010;59(11):2936-40.
- 633 39. Williams JA, and Goldfine ID. The insulin-pancreatic acinar axis. *Diabetes*. 1985;34(10):980-6.
- 634 40. Campbell-Thompson M, Rodriguez-Calvo T, and Battaglia M. Abnormalities of the Exocrine
635 Pancreas in Type 1 Diabetes. *Curr Diab Rep*. 2015;15(10):79.
- 636 41. Augustine P, Gent R, Louise J, Taranto M, Penno M, Linke R, et al. Pancreas size and exocrine
637 function is decreased in young children with recent-onset Type 1 diabetes. *Diabet Med*. 2019; in
638 press.
- 639 42. Cavalot F, Bonomo K, Perna P, Bacillo E, Salacone P, Gallo M, et al. Pancreatic elastase-1 in
640 stools, a marker of exocrine pancreas function, correlates with both residual beta-cell secretion
641 and metabolic control in type 1 diabetic subjects. *Diabetes Care*. 2004;27(8):2052-4.
- 642 43. Gerich JE, Langlois M, Noacco C, Karam JH, and Forsham PH. Lack of glucagon response to
643 hypoglycemia in diabetes - evidence for an intrinsic pancreatic alpha cell defect. *Science*.
644 1973;182(4108):171-3.
- 645 44. Arbelaez AM, Xing D, Cryer PE, Kollman C, Beck RW, Sherr J, et al. Blunted glucagon but not
646 epinephrine responses to hypoglycemia occurs in youth with less than 1 yr duration of type 1
647 diabetes mellitus. *Pediatr Diabetes*. 2014;15(2):127-34.
- 648 45. Siafarikas A, Johnston RJ, Bulsara MK, O'Leary P, Jones TW, and Davis EA. Early loss of the
649 glucagon response to hypoglycemia in adolescents with type 1 diabetes. *Diabetes Care*.
650 2012;35(8):1757-62.
- 651 46. Fukuda M, Tanaka A, Tahara Y, Ikegami H, Yamamoto Y, Kumahara Y, et al. Correlation between
652 minimal secretory capacity of pancreatic beta-cells and stability of diabetic control. *Diabetes*.
653 1988;37(1):81-8.
- 654 47. Madsbad S, Hilsted J, Krarup T, Sestoft L, Christensen NJ, Faber OK, et al. Hormonal, metabolic
655 and cardiovascular responses to hypoglycaemia in Type 1 (insulin-dependent) diabetes with and
656 without residual B cell function. *Diabetologia*. 1982;23(6):499-503.
- 657 48. Zenz S, Mader JK, Regittnig W, Brunner M, Korsatko S, Boulgaropoulos B, et al. Impact of C-
658 peptide status on the response of glucagon and endogenous glucose production to induced
659 hypoglycemia in T1DM. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2018;103(4):1408-17.
- 660 49. Sjoberg S, Ahren B, and Bolinder J. Residual insulin secretion is not coupled to a maintained
661 glucagon response to hypoglycaemia in long-term type 1 diabetes. *J Intern Med*.
662 2002;252(4):342-51.
- 663 50. Sherr J, Xing D, Ruedy KJ, Beck RW, Kollman C, Buckingham B, et al. Lack of association between
664 residual insulin production and glucagon response to hypoglycemia in youth with short duration
665 of type 1 diabetes. *Diabetes Care*. 2013;36(6):1470-6.
- 666 51. Rizza RA, Cryer PE, and Gerich JE. Role of glucagon, catecholamines, and growth-hormone in
667 human glucose counter-regulation - effects of somatostatin and combined alpha-adrenergic and
668 beta-adrenergic-blockade on plasma-glucose recovery and glucose flux rates after insulin-
669 induced hypoglycemia. *J Clin Invest*. 1979;64(1):62-71.

- 670 52. Sorensen JS, Johannesen J, Pociot F, Kristensen K, Thomsen J, Hertel NT, et al. Residual beta-Cell
671 function 3-6 years after onset of type 1 diabetes reduces risk of severe hypoglycemia in children
672 and adolescents. *Diabetes Care*. 2013;36(11):3454-9.
- 673 53. Madsbad S, Faber OK, Kurtz A, Krarup T, Regeur L, Tronier B, et al. The significance of the portal
674 insulin secretion in insulin dependent patients with residual beta-cell function: a safeguard
675 against hormonal and metabolic derangement. *Clin Endocrinol (Oxf)*. 1982;16(6):605-13.
- 676 54. Brooks AM, Oram R, Home P, Steen N, and Shaw JAM. Demonstration of an intrinsic relationship
677 between endogenous C-peptide concentration and determinants of glycemic control in type 1
678 diabetes following islet transplantation. *Diabetes Care*. 2015;38(1):105-12.
- 679 55. Rickels MR, Stock PG, de Koning EJP, Piemonti L, Pratschke J, Alejandro R, et al. Defining
680 outcomes for beta-cell replacement therapy in the treatment of diabetes: a consensus report on
681 the IGLs criteria From the IPITA/EPITA Opinion Leaders Workshop. *Transplantation*.
682 2018;102(9):1479-86.
- 683 56. Ward WK, Halter JB, Beard JC, and Porte D, Jr. Adaptation of B and A cell function during
684 prolonged glucose infusion in human subjects. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab*. 1984;246(5 Pt
685 1):E405-11.
- 686 57. Ang M, Meyer C, Brendel MD, Bretzel RG, and Linn T. Magnitude and mechanisms of glucose
687 counterregulation following islet transplantation in patients with type 1 diabetes suffering from
688 severe hypoglycaemic episodes. *Diabetologia*. 2014;57(3):623-32.
- 689 58. Towler DA, Havlin CE, Craft S, and Cryer P. Mechanism of awareness of hypoglycemia -
690 perception of neurogenic (predominantly cholinergic) rather than neuroglycopenic symptoms.
691 *Diabetes*. 1993;42(12):1791-8.
- 692 59. Loopstra-Masters RC, Haffner SM, Lorenzo C, Wagenknecht LE, and Hanley AJ. Proinsulin-to-C-
693 peptide ratio versus proinsulin-to-insulin ratio in the prediction of incident diabetes: the Insulin
694 Resistance Atherosclerosis Study (IRAS). *Diabetologia*. 2011;54(12):3047-54.
- 695 60. Guldstrand M, Ahren B, and Adamson U. Improved beta-cell function after standardized weight
696 reduction in severely obese subjects. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab*. 2003;284(3):E557-65.
- 697 61. Beard JC, Bergman RN, Ward WK, and Porte D. The insulin sensitivity index in nondiabetic man -
698 correlation between clamp-derived and IVGTT-derived values. *Diabetes*. 1986;35(3):362-9.
- 699 62. Bergman RN, Prager R, Volund A, and Olefsky JM. Equivalence of the insulin sensitivity index in
700 man derived by the minimal model method and the euglycemic glucose clamp. *J Clin Invest*.
701 1987;79(3):790-800.
- 702 63. Danne T, Nimri R, Battelino T, Bergenstal RM, Close KL, DeVries JH, et al. International consensus
703 on use of continuous glucose monitoring. *Diabetes Care*. 2017;40(12):1631-40.

704

705

706

707

708

709

710

711 **Table 1. Participant characteristics**
 712

Characteristic	C-peptide group				P-value
	Negative (n = 15)	Low (n = 16)	Intermediate (n = 15)	High (n = 17)	
Sex (% female)	47	44	60	59	
Age (years)	26 ± 11	29 ± 8	27 ± 9	29 ± 9	0.39
BMI (kg/m ²)	25 ± 3	24 ± 3	24 ± 3	24 ± 3	0.45
T1D duration (years)	13 ± 9	7 ± 4	5 ± 2	5 ± 5	<0.001
Insulin use (U·kg ⁻¹ ·d ⁻¹)	0.7 ± 0.2	0.6 ± 0.2	0.5 ± 0.2	0.5 ± 0.3	0.01
HbA _{1c} (%) ^a	7.6 ± 0.7	6.9 ± 1.0	7.2 ± 0.8	6.8 ± 1.0	0.08

713 Data are means±SD.

714 ^aTo convert to mmol/mol, multiply by 10.93 and subtract 23.50.

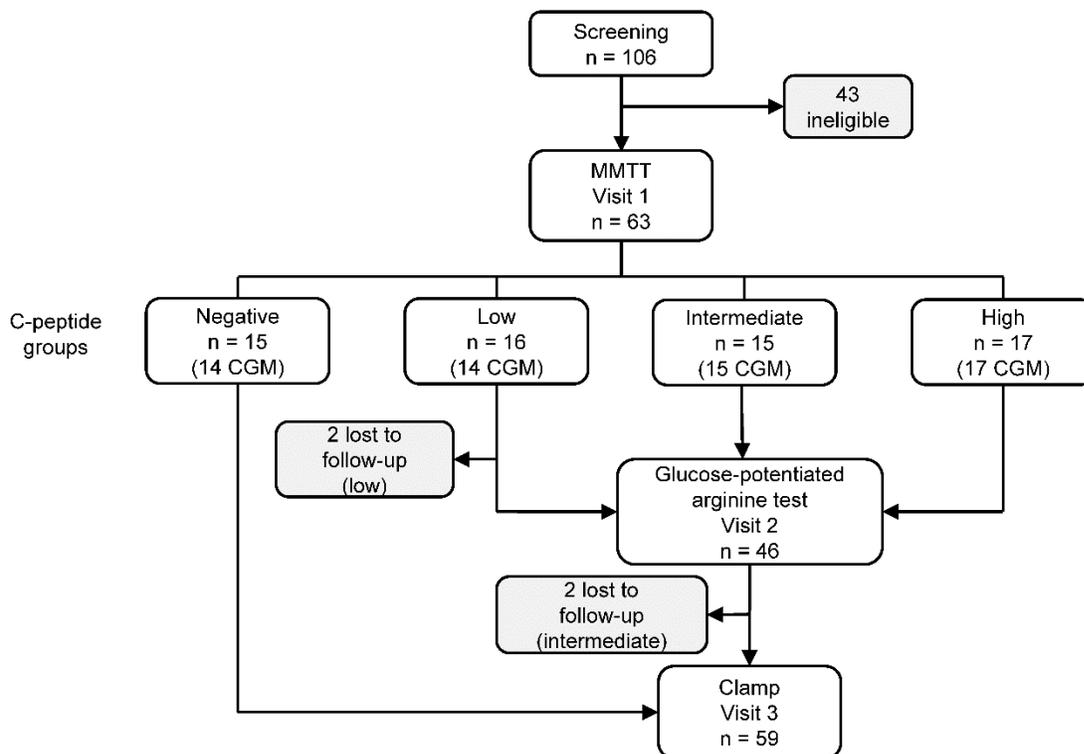
715
716
717
718
719
720
721
722
723
724
725
726
727
728
729
730
731
732
733
734
735
736
737
738
739
740
741
742
743
744
745
746
747
748
749
750
751
752

753 **Table 2. Continuous glucose monitoring (CGM)**
 754

Variable	C-peptide group				P-value
	Negative* (n = 14)	Low* (n = 14)	Intermediate (n = 15)	High (n = 17)	
CGM duration (hours)	152 ± 78	165 ± 59	139 ± 26	148 ± 53	0.55
Mean glucose (mg/dL)	161 ± 36	177 ± 29	162 ± 32	140 ± 25	0.02
Time with glucose 70–180 mg/dL (%)	58 ± 15	52 ± 16	59 ± 13	72 ± 12	<0.01
Time with glucose >180 mg/dL (%)	35 ± 18	43 ± 17	34 ± 16	22 ± 13	0.01
Time with glucose <70 mg/dL (%)	7 ± 10	5 ± 4	6 ± 7	7 ± 5	0.79
CV (%)	39 ± 8	41 ± 7	39 ± 7	38 ± 9	0.57

755 Data are means±SD. CV, coefficient of variation calculated from the glucose SD divided by the mean
 756 glucose. *Three participants (1 negative C-peptide, 2 low C-peptide) did not complete continuous glucose
 757 monitoring.
 758

759
 760
 761
 762
 763
 764
 765
 766
 767
 768
 769
 770
 771



772

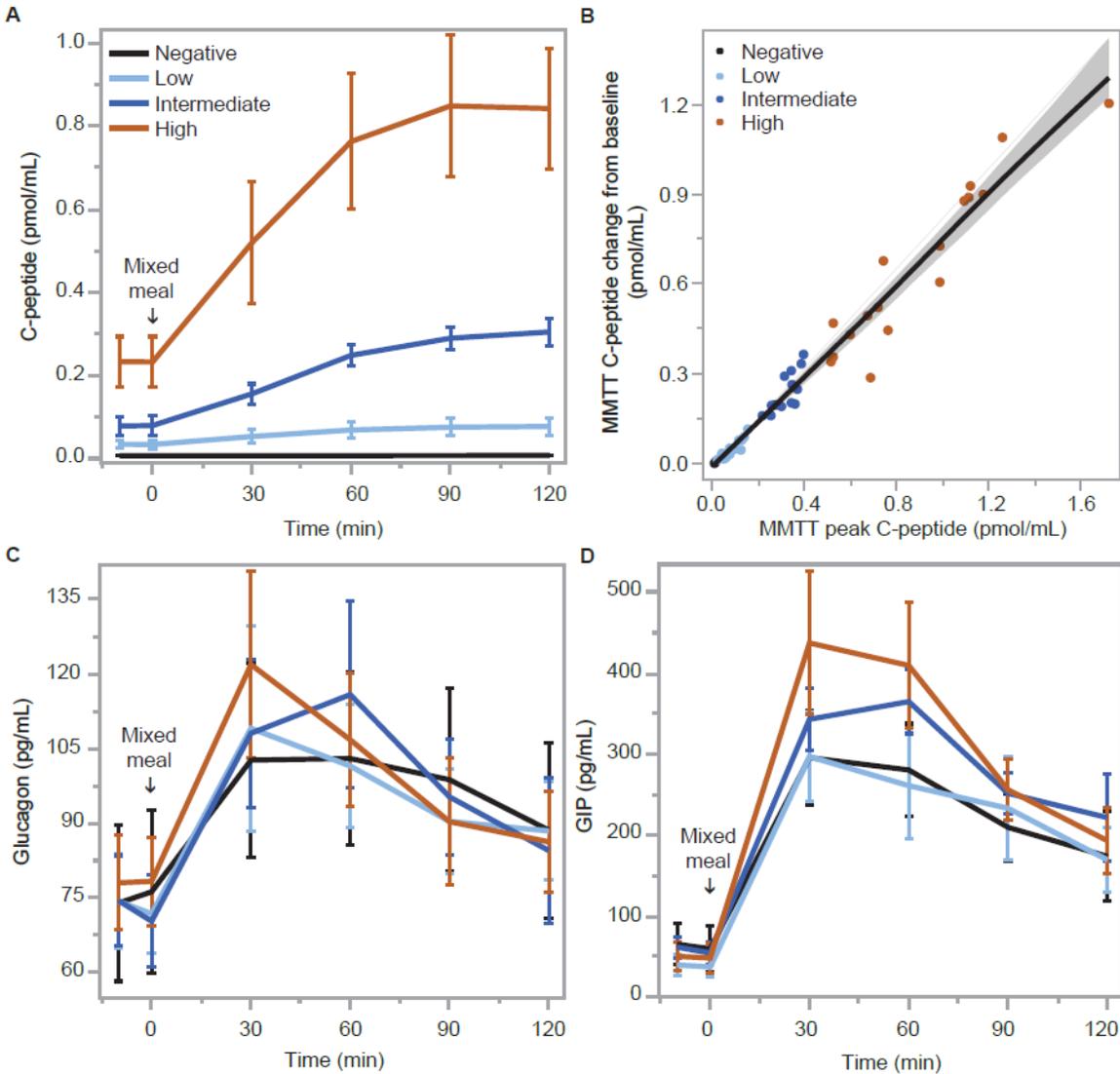
773 **Figure 1. Study design.** Eligibility was determined at a screening visit where measurement of
 774 non-fasting C-peptide was used to balance recruitment of participants to C-peptide groups. C-
 775 peptide group was ultimately determined from the mixed-meal tolerance test (MMTT) peak C-
 776 peptide measured at Visit 1. Participants in the detectable (low, intermediate, and high) C-
 777 peptide groups underwent a glucose-potentiated arginine test at Visit 2, and participants in the
 778 undetectable (negative) and detectable C-peptide groups underwent a hyperinsulinemic
 779 euglycemic followed by hypoglycemic clamp at Visit 3, as well as continuous glucose
 780 monitoring (CGM).

781

782

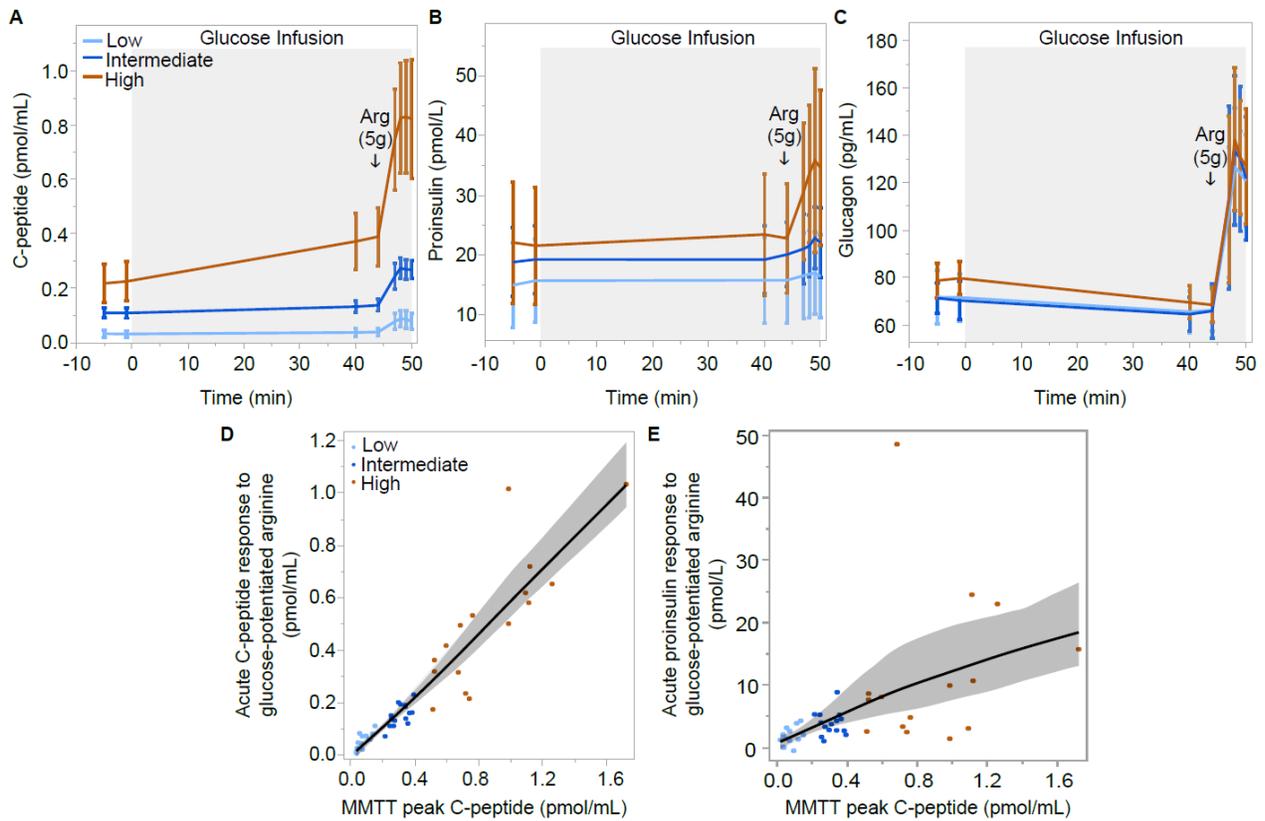
783

784



785

786 **Figure 2. Mixed-meal tolerance test (MMTT).** (A, B) Serum C-peptide response to ingestion
 787 of a standardized liquid meal was different by group based on peak C-peptide level (negative,
 788 <0.007 pmol/mL [<0.02 ng/mL]; low, 0.007–0.200 pmol/mL [0.05–0.60 ng/mL]; intermediate,
 789 >0.200–0.400 pmol/mL [>0.60 –1.20 ng/mL]; high, >0.400 pmol/mL [>1.20 ng/mL]), and by
 790 continuous relationship to peak C-peptide. (C, D) Plasma glucagon response was not different
 791 while plasma glucose-dependent insulinotropic polypeptide (GIP) response was different to meal
 792 ingestion by peak C-peptide level group. Data are means with error bars denoting 95%
 793 confidence intervals.



794

795 **Figure 3. Glucose-potentiated arginine (GPA) test. (A, B)** Serum C-peptide and proinsulin

796 responses to an approximately 230 mg/dL hyperglycemic clamp and to the injection of arginine

797 after 45 min of glucose infusion were different by group based on MMTT peak C-peptide level.

798 (C) Plasma glucagon responses to glucose-potentiated arginine were not different by group. (D,

799 E) Relationship between the acute C-peptide and proinsulin responses to glucose-potentiated

800 arginine and MMTT peak C-peptide. Data are means with error bars denoting 95% confidence

801 intervals.

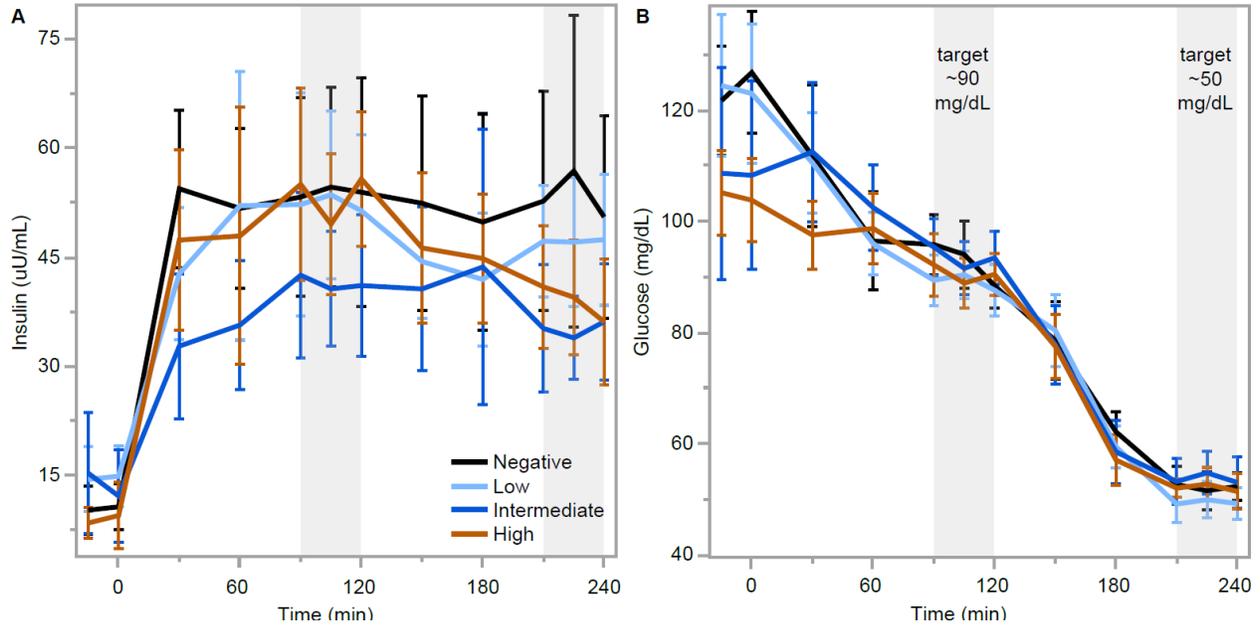
802

803

804

805

806



807

808 **Figure 4. Hyperinsulinemic euglycemic (EU) followed by hypoglycemic (HYPO) clamp. (A)**

809 Serum insulin levels were not statistically different across groups based on MMTT peak C-

810 peptide levels during the EU or HYPO phases of testing. **(B)** Serum glucose levels were well

811 matched across groups during the EU (~90 mg/dL) and HYPO (~50 mg/dL) phases of testing.

812 Data are means with error bars denoting 95% confidence intervals.

813

814

815

816

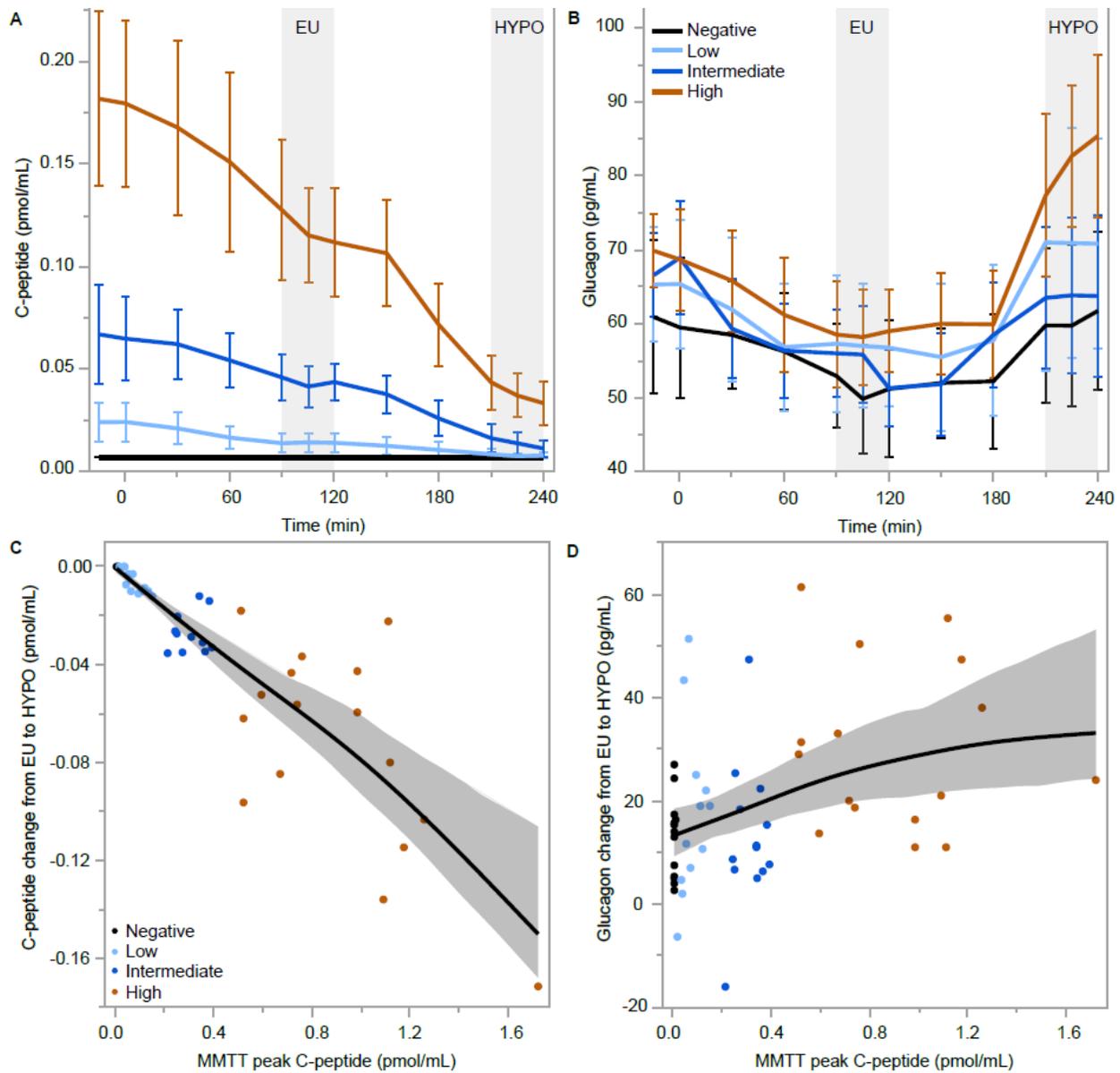
817

818

819

820

821



822

823 **Figure 5. β - and α -cell responses from the euglycemic (EU) to hypoglycemic (HYPO) clamp**

824 **condition. (A, B)** Suppression of C-peptide and increase in glucagon were greater by group

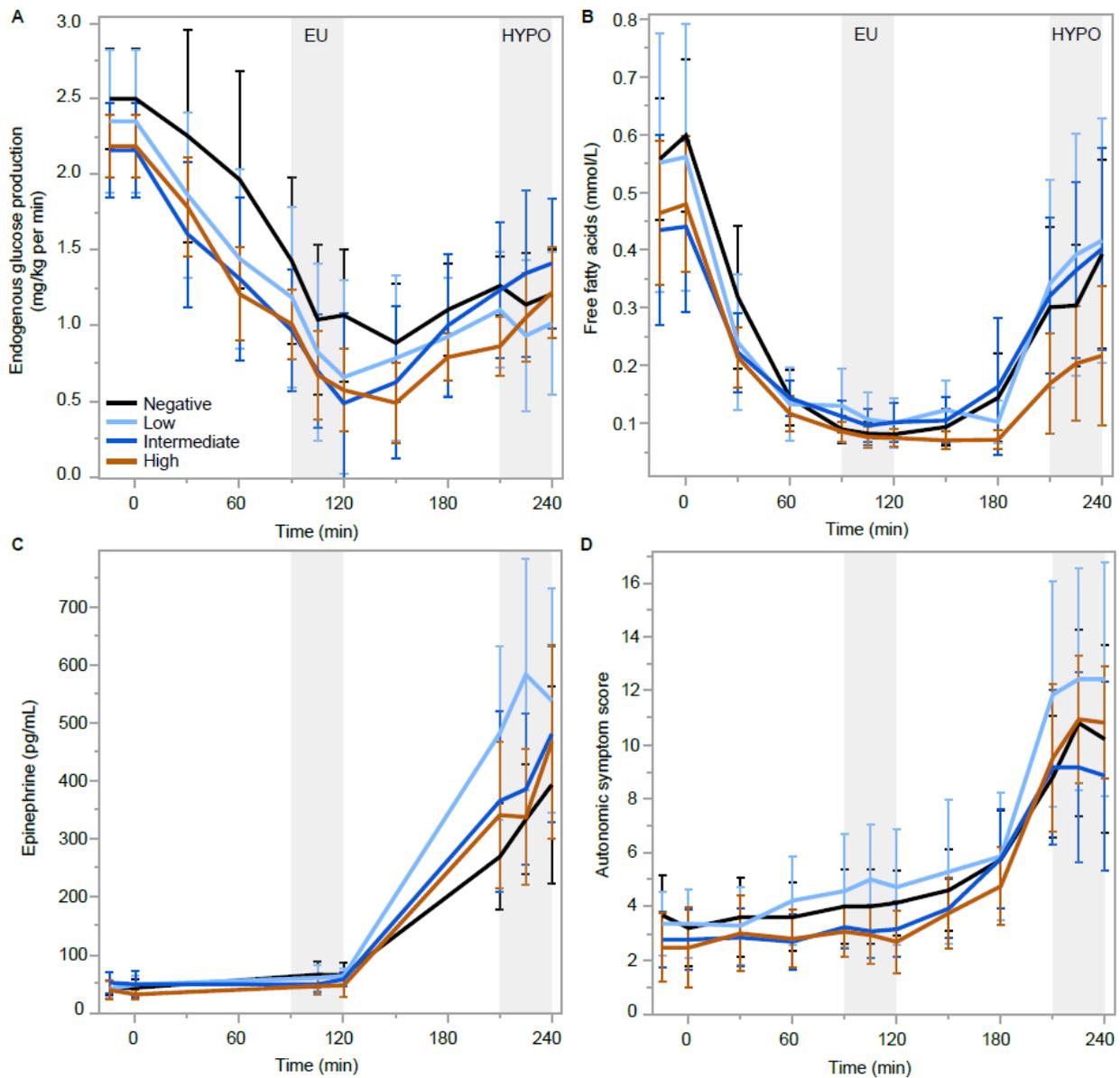
825 based on MMTT peak C-peptide level. (C, D) Relationships of the change in C-peptide and

826 glucagon levels between the EU and HYPO conditions to MMTT peak C-peptide. Data are

827 means with error bars denoting 95% confidence intervals.

828

829



830

831 **Figure 6. Glucose counterregulatory responses from the euglycemic (EU) to hypoglycemic**

832 **(HYPO) clamp condition.** No differences were seen across groups based on MMTT peak C-

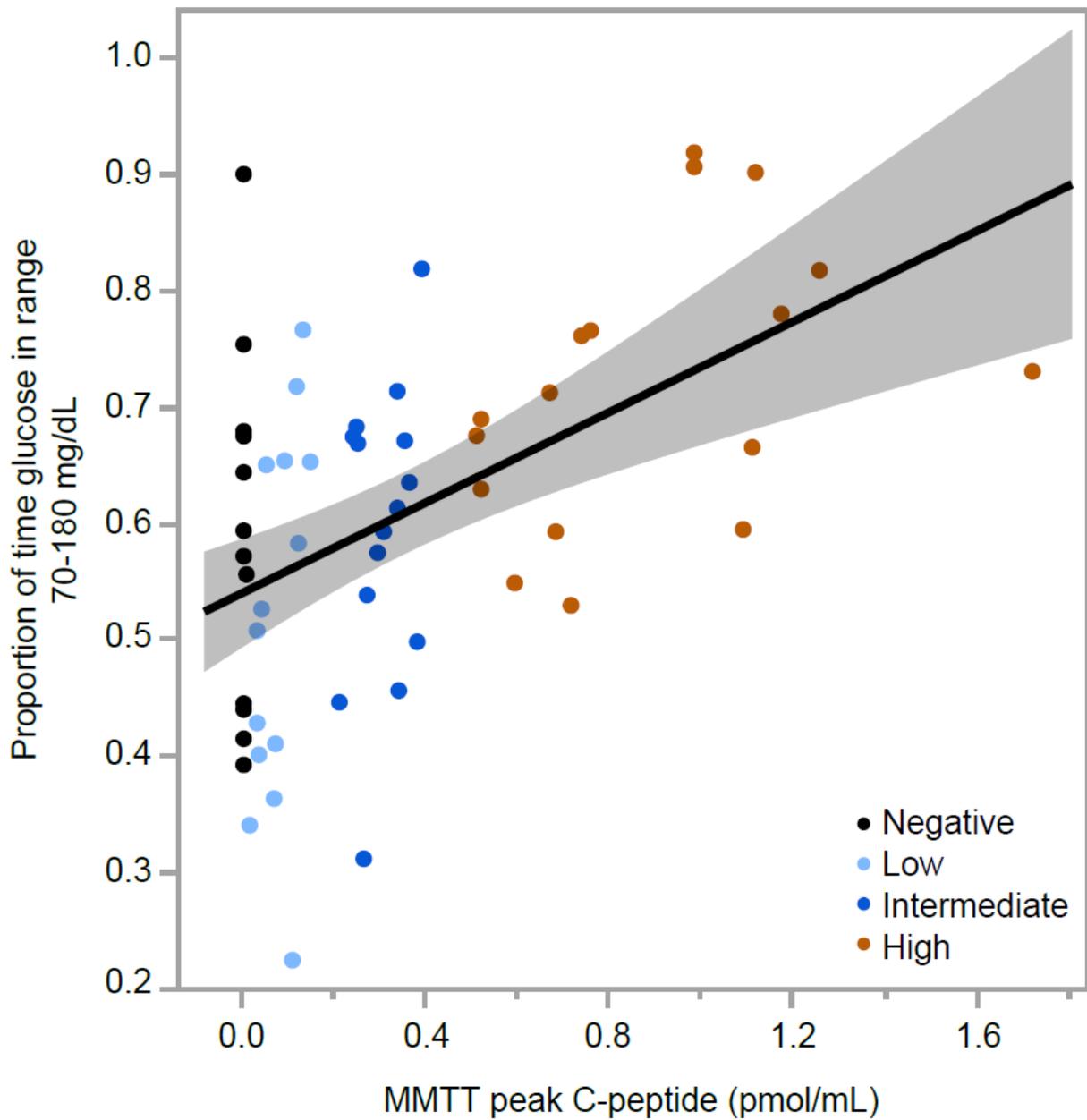
833 peptide level for responses of counterregulatory endogenous glucose production (A), serum free

834 fatty acids (B), plasma epinephrine (C), or autonomic symptom generation (D). Data are means

835 with error bars denoting 95% confidence intervals.

836

837



838

839 **Figure 7. Glucose time in range by MMTT peak C-peptide.** Relationship between proportion
 840 of glucose time in range of 70–180 mg/dL by continuous glucose monitoring (CGM) and MMTT
 841 peak C-peptide. All individuals in the high C-peptide group (MMTT peak C-peptide >0.400
 842 pmol/mL) maintained greater than 50% time in the target glucose range.