1	Effects of Moderate Cycling Exercise on Blood Glucose Regulation Following
2	Successful Clinical Islet Transplantation
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31 32	Short title: Glucose response to exercise post islet transplant

33 Abstract

34 *Context:* Islet transplantation is effective in preventing hypoglycemia in individuals with type 1 35 diabetes (T1D). However, it is currently unknown whether transplanted islets regulate plasma 36 glucose concentrations appropriately during and after exercise in human islet transplant 37 recipients (ITx). 38 **Objective:** To determine the effect of exercise on plasma glucose, insulin, and glucagon 39 concentrations in ITx compared to individuals without diabetes (CON). 40 Intervention: Participants completed two conditions in random order, 1) 45 minutes of aerobic exercise (60% VO_{2peak}), and 2) 45 minutes of seated rest. Blood samples were drawn at baseline, 41 42 immediately post-exercise/rest, and every 15 minutes throughout a 60-minute recovery period. 43 Post-exercise (24 hours) interstitial glucose was monitored using continuous glucose monitors. 44 **Results:** Twenty-four participants (12 ITx, 12 CON) completed the protocol. Plasma glucose 45 decreased more over time with exercise in ITx compared to CON [main effects of treatment 46 (p=0.019), time (p=0.001) and group (p=0.012)]. Plasma glucose was lower during exercise 47 versus rest in ITx, but not CON [treatment by group interaction (p=0.028)]. Plasma glucose 48 decreased more during exercise versus the rest session [treatment by time interaction (p=0.001)]. 49 One ITx and one CON experienced plasma glucose concentrations <3.5 mmol/L at the end of 50 exercise, both of whom returned above that threshold within 15 minutes. Nocturnal CGM 51 glucose below 3.5 mmol/L was detected in two CON, but no ITx. 52 *Conclusion:* Despite a greater plasma glucose decline during exercise in ITx, hypoglycemia risk 53 was similar during and following exercise in ITx compared to CON. 54 55 **Keywords:** Type 1 diabetes, islet cell transplant, aerobic exercise, glucoregulation

57 Précis

- 58 Blood glucose (BG) and insulin were measured after exercise and rest in ITx and CON. Insulin
- 59 decreased less and BG decreased more in ITx than CON. ITx had no nocturnal hypoglycemia.

61 **1. Introduction**

62 Type 1 diabetes (T1D) is an autoimmune disorder that results in the destruction of 63 insulin-secreting beta cells in the pancreas, leading to insulin deficiency and the necessity for 64 exogenous insulin [1, 2]. Hypoglycemia subsequently becomes a major risk in this population, as 65 insulin dosage must be carefully matched to carbohydrate intake while also considering physical 66 activity levels [3, 4]. Islet transplantation (ITx) is an effective treatment for the prevention of 67 severe hypoglycemia [5]. This procedure involves the intra-hepatic transplantation of pancreatic 68 islets isolated from cadaveric organ donors into an individual with T1D, via the portal vein [6]. 69 While not completely normalizing glucose regulation [7], this procedure can restore glucose-70 dependent insulin secretion [8, 9], and improve glucagon release in the face of declining blood 71 glucose concentrations [10, 11].

72 In T1D, regular physical activity is inversely related to mortality risk, and may increase 73 longevity while lowering the risk of diabetes-related complications [12, 13]. Nevertheless, 74 aerobic exercise has also been shown to substantially increase the risk of hypoglycemia in 75 individuals with T1D [3, 4]. In healthy individuals, glucose concentrations will remain relatively 76 unchanged during an acute bout of moderate intensity aerobic exercise, despite the increased 77 demands for glucose by working muscles [14]. This stability can be attributed to reductions in 78 insulin secretion and increases in hepatic glucose production to match the increased glucose 79 uptake [15]. In individuals with T1D, the risk of exercise-induced hypoglycemia is of concern 80 [16, 17] due to exogenous hyperinsulinemia combined with impaired, or even absent glucagon 81 response from the alpha cells [18].

Animal studies suggest that islet cell transplantation may not provide adequate
glucoregulation during moderate intensity aerobic exercise. A recent review by Funk et al.

84 (2017) identified five studies of exercise following islet cell transplantation in animal models of 85 T1D [19]. Despite four of the five studies observing euglycemia [20-23], three noted impaired 86 insulin suppression or a slower return to baseline of insulin concentrations following exercise in 87 the islet transplant recipient (ITx) animals, as compared to controls without diabetes [21, 23, 24]. 88 Similarly, a recent study involving human participants having undergone a total pancreatectomy 89 and islet autotransplantation, found significant decreases in insulin levels during exercise in 90 control participants, while no change in insulin levels was found in the transplant recipients [25]. 91 This finding hints at the importance of the sympathetic nervous system's role in suppressing 92 insulin release from native beta cells in the pancreas during exercise [26-28], which may be 93 delayed, incomplete, or even absent when these cells are transplanted to the liver. Moreover, two 94 animal studies that measured glucagon found its response to be highly variable [23, 24], and the 95 one study involving human autotranplant recipients found no changes in glucagon with moderate 96 exercise [25].

97 In humans, insulin clamp studies demonstrate impaired glucagon and epinephrine 98 responses to hypoglycemia in ITx [10, 29, 30], with greater recovery of epinephrine responses 99 upon longer-term follow-up [11]. To date there are no studies examining the effects of exercise 100 on glucose regulation in clinical ITx. The present study addresses this gap by examining the 101 plasma glucose response, as well as the related changes in insulin, c-peptide and glucagon 102 concentrations, to moderate intensity aerobic exercise following successful clinical ITx. It is 103 hypothesized that ITx recipients will show less of a decline in circulating insulin during exercise, 104 along with a greater decrease in plasma glucose, compared to individuals without diabetes 105 (CON).

107

108 2. Material & Methods

109 Insulin independent islet transplant recipients were identified through the University of 110 Alberta Clinical Islet Transplant Program. Matched healthy controls were recruited using 111 snowball sampling and convenience sampling (i.e. family members, colleagues, friends, etc.). 112 Participants were matched for sex with the goal of also matching closely for height $(\pm 10 \text{ cm})$, 113 weight $(\pm 2 \text{ kg})$, age $(\pm 5 \text{ years})$, and physical activity level (Godin Leisure-Time Questionnaire). 114 Islet recipients were taking tacrolimus (target trough levels 8-10 ng/ml or as clinically indicated) 115 and mycophenolate (up to 1g bid) for immunosuppression, and had not received corticosteroids. 116 Exclusion criteria included taking exogenous insulin, or having a glycated hemoglobin (A1C) 117 >7.5% (58.5 mmol/mol), blood pressure >150/95 mmHg, angina, and/or any other condition or 118 injury that would contraindicate exercise (e.g., lower limb injury). All volunteers provided 119 written informed consent. The study was approved by the University of Alberta Health Research 120 Ethics Board (Biomedical), in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

121 Experimental design

122 Participants performed resting and exercise conditions on two separate days, at least 48 123 hours apart, and in random order as determined by coin flip. Testing took place at the same time 124 of day for both treatments (late afternoon or early evening, ~1700h). Participants were provided 125 with food logs to assist them in replicating the composition and timing of food consumption on 126 both testing days, and for 24 hours after each testing session. At least 24 hours before the first 127 testing session, participants visited the laboratory for baseline assessment and to have a blinded continuous glucose monitoring (CGM) sensor (EnliteTM with iPro[®]2 CGM, Medtronic, 128 129 Northridge, CA, USA) inserted subcutaneously in the abdominal region. Participants were

130 instructed to test and record their capillary glucose values on the provided food logs four times

131 per day with a OneTouch[®] Ultra[®]2 glucose meter and test strips (LifeScan Milpitas, CA, USA).

132 Participants were given a pedometer (Yamax DigiWalker 200, Yamax Corporation, Tokyo,

133 Japan) to monitor their daily step count, and record it in the provided log.

134 Baseline Testing & Measurement of VO_{2peak}

135The baseline visit (non-fasting) was included to establish consent and eligibility. Height,

136 weight and seated blood pressure measurements were taken, and a peak oxygen consumption

137 (VO_{2peak}) test was completed on a Monark Ergomedic 894E Peak Bike (Monark, Varberg,

138 Sweden) with a weight basket. During the test, resistance was increased each minute until

139 volitional fatigue was reached. Males began at 1.0 kiloponds (kp) and 0.3 kp was added each

140 minute while females began at 0.5 kp and 0.2 kp was added each minute. The rate of perceived

141 exertion (RPE) was assessed using a numerical scale. Heart rate (HR) was monitored using a

142 Polar heart rate monitor belt and watch. A Parvo Medics TrueOne[®] 2400 Metabolic

143 Measurement System (Sandy, Utah, USA) was used to measure oxygen consumption and carbon

144 dioxide production. Capillary glucose was also measured pre- and post-exercise.

145 Exercise and Resting Interventions

The exercise session consisted of a 45-minute bout of moderate intensity (60% of the participant's predetermined VO_{2peak}) aerobic exercise on a cycle ergometer. One hour of seated recovery followed the exercise session. The resting control session was of equal duration, during which the participant sat quietly in a chair. Indirect calorimetry was completed from minutes 5-10 and 35-40 during the exercise and seated rest conditions to confirm participant effort levels. The rate of perceived exertion was assessed every 5 minutes during exercise to assess the

152 perceived difficulty of the exercise session.

153	Upon arrival at the laboratory an IV catheter was inserted to facilitate the drawing of
154	blood samples throughout exercise and recovery. Venous blood samples were taken at the
155	beginning of exercise or seated rest (time 0), end of exercise or seated rest (minute 45), and
156	every 15 minutes during recovery (minutes 60, 75, 90, and 105). Each blood sample was
157	collected into a 10-mL EDTA vacutainer tube. Subsequently, 2.0 mL were transferred into a tube
158	with 6.7 μ L aprotinin (Millipore, MA, USA). A further 0.25 mL whole blood was transferred
159	into 1.0 mL ice-cold 8% perchloric acid. Aprotinin and perchloric acid were added to inhibit
160	proteases known to interfere with the determination of glucagon and to deproteinize the samples,
161	respectively. The EDTA tubes were centrifuged at 1500 x g for 10 minutes at 4°C. The tubes
162	containing aprotinin and perchloric acid were centrifuged at 2000 x g for 15 minutes at 4°C.
163	Following centrifugation, the samples were immediately moved to a -80°C freezer until assays
164	were completed.
165	Glucose was measured using the hexokinase timed end point method on a Siemens
166	ADVIA 1800 chemistry system with Siemens ADVIA chemistry glucose hexokinase_3
167	concentrated (GLUH-c) reagent. Glucagon, c-peptide and insulin were measured using a Multi-
168	Spot® Assay System with a Sector® Imager 2400 (Meso Scale Discovery®, MD, USA). All
169	assays were run in duplicate and the average was reported. With the glucagon assays some
170	values were close to the lower detection limit. Where one value was available these were
171	included in the analysis. Where both values fell below the detection level, that participant was
172	excluded from the analysis.
1 = 0	

173 <u>Statistical Analysis</u>

174 The analyses differed according to the comparison of interest. For the descriptive175 characteristics and most CGM outcomes, ITx and CON were compared by one-way ANOVA.

176 Background physical activity (steps per day) was compared using a 2×2 ANOVA. Data included 177 in the CGM analysis (i.e., mean 24-hour glucose, MAGE, SD, time spent above 9.9 mmol/L or 178 below 3.5 mmol/L) commenced at 'minute 0' following the exercise and seated rest conditions 179 and persisted for a 24-hour period. Mean 6-hour, 12-hour and 24-hour glucose also commenced 180 at 'minute 0' following exercise. CGM standard deviation and mean amplitude of glycemic excursions (MAGE) were calculated using EasyGV[©] software (www.easygv.co.uk). The percent 181 182 of time spent above 9.9 mmol/L, below 3.5 mmol/L and in range (i.e. 3.5 to 9.9 mmol/L) as 183 measured by CGM are presented as median±IQR. These outcomes were compared between 184 conditions by Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test and compared between groups by Mann-Whitney U 185 Test. 186 For the blood samples collected immediately before and after exercise, 2×2×2 factorial 187 ANOVAs were used to examine the main and interaction effects among treatments (i.e., exercise vs. rest; repeated measures), group (i.e., ITx vs. CON), and time (i.e., pre vs. post exercise; 188 189 repeated measures) for plasma glucose, insulin, C-peptide, and glucagon. When examining these 190 outcomes during the 1-hour recovery period, a $2 \times 2 \times 4$ was used to examine the main and 191 interaction effects among treatments, groups and time (i.e., 4 blood samples taken 15 minutes 192 apart). Insulin and C-peptide concentration as well as the insulin to C-peptide ratio (ICR) showed 193 skewed distribution and were log transformed before the analyses. Other data are presented as 194 mean \pm SD. The α - was set at 0.05 and two-tailed tests were chosen. Data were analyzed using 195 SPSS 25.0 software (IBM, Amonk, New York, USA). 196

197

199 **3. Results**

200 Twelve insulin independent ITx and 12 CON of the same sex (i.e., 5 males and 7 females per group) completed the protocol at the University of Alberta between September 21, 2015 and 201 202 February 3, 2017. There were no significant differences between the groups with respect to 203 height, weight, and age (Table 1). Glycated hemoglobin was lower in CON (p<0.0001). Despite 204 efforts to match for physical activity levels (no difference in Godin Leisure Time Questionnaire 205 scores), aerobic capacity (VO_{2peak}) was lower (p=0.002) in ITx. Hematocrit (p=0.0004) was also 206 lower in ITx, while resting heart rate was higher (p=0.01) compared to CON. 207 Plasma glucose 208 Plasma glucose levels were not significantly different between groups at the beginning of 209 the exercise session (ITx = 6.1 ± 1.0 mmol/L vs. CON = 5.5 ± 1.0 mmol/l; p=0.16). Glucose 210 levels were, however, higher in the ITx group compared to the CON group at the beginning of 211 the rest session (ITx = 6.9 ± 2.0 vs. CON = 5.1 ± 1.0 ; p=0.02). Within the CON and ITx groups, 212 there were no significant differences between the baseline exercise and rest session plasma 213 glucose concentrations (p=0.12 and 0.15 respectively). 214 The effects of exercise and rest on plasma glucose are presented in Figure 1A. The $2 \times 2 \times 2$ 215 ANOVA demonstrated that plasma glucose levels were higher in ITx compared with CON 216 (p=0.012, ITx=11, CON=10); lower on exercise compared with rest days (p=0.019); with a very 217 clear decline in plasma glucose over time (p=0.001). The decrease in glucose was more 218 pronounced during exercise compared to rest (time by condition interaction; p=0.001). Plasma 219 glucose was lower during exercise versus rest in ITx but not CON (treatment by group 220 interaction; p=0.028). During the 60-minute recovery period, plasma glucose was higher in ITx 221 than CON (main effect of group; p=0.008). Compared with CON, plasma glucose levels

increased during recovery in ITx after exercise, while plasma glucose levels were unchanged
following rest (interaction of time by treatment by group; p=0.005).

Plasma glucose concentrations below 3.5 mmol/L was only observed in one ITx at the completion of exercise (3.2 mmol/L). Blood glucose levels increased to over 3.8 mmol/L within 15 minutes of exercise completion without intervention. One CON experienced a blood glucose decline to 3.5 mmol/L, and also recovered within 15 minutes.

228 <u>Glucagon</u>

229 There were no baseline differences in glucagon between ITx and CON in the exercise 230 condition (p=0.57) or the rest condition (p=0.30). Glucagon concentrations (ITx=11, CON=9) 231 were similar in ITx compared with CON (effect of group: p=0.46), but were higher on exercise 232 days compared with rest days (effect of treatment: p=0.013) (Figure 1B). There was no clear 233 change in glucagon levels during the 45 minutes of exercise or rest (effect of time: p=0.082). 234 There was an overall trend towards greater increases in glucagon during exercise compared to 235 rest [time and treatment interaction approaching statistical significance (p=0.066)]. 236 However, during the 60-minute recovery period glucagon levels were higher after exercise (effect of treatment, p=0.001) and decreased throughout recovery [main effect of time 237 238 (p=0.01, ITx=9, CON=7)]. Glucagon levels decreased after exercise but remained stable after 239 rest [interaction of time and treatment approached statistical significance (p=0.066)]. It should be 240 noted that several of the samples for CON fell either close to or below the detection limit of our 241 assay. As such duplicate results were not always available and outcomes should be interpreted 242 with caution.

243 Insulin, C-peptide and Insulin:C-peptide Ratio

244	There were no baseline differences in insulin or c-peptide between ITx and CON in the
245	exercise condition (p=0.35, p=0.28, respectively), while in the rest condition there was no
246	difference for c-peptide (p=0.18) but insulin was higher in ITx vs CON (p=0.048). Plasma
247	insulin levels (Figure 1C) and c-peptide levels (Figure 1D) were both higher in ITx compared to
248	CON (effect of group: p=0.011, p=0.047, respectively). Exercise was associated with lower
249	insulin and c-peptide levels compared with rest (effect of treatment: p=0.005, p=0.016,
250	respectively) with a significant decrease in both insulin and c-peptide levels during exercise in
251	both groups (effect of time; p<0.001 for both). Insulin and c-peptide levels decreased more
252	during exercise compared to the resting control session, but the decrease in insulin levels was
253	less in ITx compared to CON over time [interactions of time by treatment (p<0.001), a time by
254	group interaction (p=0.021), and a time by treatment by group interaction (p=0.017)]. C-peptide
255	was lower during exercise in CON than in ITx (treatment by group interaction, p=0.015). During
256	recovery (ITx=9, CON=8) exercise was associated with lower c-peptide compared to the resting
257	session (effect of treatment: p=0.01).During the 60-minute recovery period there were no
258	significant differences in insulin levels between ITx and CON or between exercise and rest days
259	although c-peptide levels were lower after exercise compared to the resting session (effect of
260	treatment: p=0.01).

Overall, while c-peptide showed a similar pattern to insulin, differences were examined using insulin:c-peptide ratio (ICR; ITx=11, CON=11, figure 1E). ICR was higher in ITx compared to CON (effect of group: p=0.02) and changed over time during each session (effect of time: p<0.01). There was also an effect of treatment, with ICR being lower during the exercise session compared to the resting control session (p=0.03). In addition, the ICR increased during resting control in CON while it decreased in ITx [significant time by treatment (p=0.001), and

267	time by group (p=0.035) interactions], and decreased to a greater extent over time during
268	exercise in CON compared to ITx [time by treatment by group (p=0.008)]. During recovery
269	(ITx=9, CON=8) there was a significant effect of time (p=0.01) and a time by group interaction
270	(p=0.05) as ICR decreased over time in CON while remaining unchanged in ITx.
271	Continuous glucose monitoring
272	A summary of CGM data can be found in Table 2. Overall, ITx had significantly higher
273	mean interstitial glucose concentrations (Figure 2) in the 24-hour period following testing
274	sessions compared to CON (p<0.001). They also had greater glucose variability compared to
275	CON, as measured by SD (p=<0.001) and MAGE (p=0.001).
276	With respect to time spent in range for interstitial glucose, CON spent more time in range
277	than ITx in the 6 hours following testing sessions. This difference was mostly due to ITx
278	spending more time above 10.0 mmol/L (Table 2). Contrary to our hypothesis, however,
279	interstitial glucose values below 3.5 mmol/L were not more common in ITx than in CON, and no
280	statistically significant differences between groups were seen. Overnight, two CON experienced
281	CGM glucose < 3.5 mmol/L compared to no ITx after the resting control session, and one CON
282	versus no ITx after the exercise session.
283	Background Physical Activity
284	In assessing self-reported steps per day (measured by study pedometers) there was no

effect of treatment (p=0.262). Step counts were lower (p=0.048) in ITx (n=9; exercise = $6567 \pm$ 285

2858 steps; rest = 5184 ± 3493 steps) compared to CON (n=11; exercise = 8894 ± 3869 steps, 286

287 rest = 8307 ± 3341 steps), however there was no condition by group interaction.

288

4. Discussion 289

290 This is one of the first studies examining the effects of moderate intensity aerobic 291 exercise on blood glucose regulation in clinical ITx. In line with our hypothesis, plasma glucose 292 concentrations decreased to a greater extent in ITx compared to CON during 45-minutes of 293 exercise, albeit from a higher baseline level. Although insulin independent, ITx had higher 294 plasma glucose levels compared to CON, consistent with sub-normal beta cell mass. Despite this, 295 ITx also had higher circulating insulin concentrations and ICR. Consistent with one other study 296 in humans [25], there were no differences in glucagon concentrations between ITx compared to 297 CON during 45-minutes of exercise and 60 minutes of recovery.

Perhaps one of the most striking findings from this study was that overall, despite higher circulating insulin concentration and greater declines in plasma glucose during exercise compared to CON, only one ITx experienced blood glucose concentrations below 3.5 mmol/L during exercise. In addition, the one participant that did drop below this threshold recovered quickly once exercise stopped, without requiring glucose intake. Reassuringly, ITx did not experience nocturnal hypoglycemia post-exercise, thereby alleviating the major fear associated with exercise and physical activity for individuals with T1D.

305 The smaller change in insulin levels despite a greater decrease in glucose in ITx vs CON 306 during exercise suggests that inhibition of insulin secretion from intrahepatic islets may not be 307 completely normal. Whether this is because of lack of innervation or altered microenvironment 308 including paracrine factors is not known. In native beta cells, the sympathetic nervous system 309 plays an important role in insulin suppression during exercise. As a result, insulin levels will 310 decrease throughout moderate intensity exercise [28, 31], and will not increase in proportion to 311 rising blood glucose levels during high intensity efforts [26, 27]. The possibility that hepatic 312 clearance of insulin may be reduced in ITx, where insulin is secreted within the liver from intra-

hepatic islets, compared with portal delivery of insulin to the liver from the native pancreas of
CON should be considered [32]. This inference is supported by the differences in ICR between
ITx and CON observed both during a period of rest, as well as during exercise. In addition,
higher plasma glucose levels despite higher insulin levels in ITx may suggest some degree of
insulin resistance relative to CON. This might be as a result of the diabetogenic effects of
immunosuppressant drugs (particularly tacrolimus) or differences in body composition.

319 In the present study, insulin concentrations decreased in ITx during exercise, but not to 320 the same extent as they did in CON. While insulin suppression during exercise has been found in 321 all animal models to date regardless of exercise duration, exercise modality, or transplantation 322 site [19], three studies have found that insulin suppression is either less pronounced in ITx 323 compared to controls [23, 24] or that ITx take longer to return to baseline post-exercise [21]. In 324 addition, a recent human study found that individuals with autotransplanted islets did not 325 demonstrate a decrease in insulin levels during exercise, where significant declines in insulin 326 were seen in control participants [25]. It has been proposed that since epinephrine and 327 norepinephrine infusion have had little impact on insulin suppression [21], that sympathetic 328 neural influences may be playing a role [21, 22]. While animal studies would suggest that 329 sympathetic re-innervation of transplanted islets may occur within weeks of the procedure [21, 330 22], it is possible that it is insufficient for appropriate suppression of insulin secretion during 331 exercise. Although the higher circulating insulin concentrations in the present study may simply 332 reflect higher blood glucose levels, there may also be a contribution from incomplete innervation 333 of transplanted islets.

334 Sympathetic stimulation of alpha cells in the native islets might also explain why
 335 glucagon increased in response to exercise, and the subsequent 60-minute recovery, in a similar

336 way in both ITx and CON. Although Bellin et al, [33] found defective glucagon responses to 337 stepped hypoglycemia in autoislet transplant recipients these studies were conducted in a resting 338 state using exogenous insulin to induce hypoglycemia in a population with significant risk 339 factors for hypoglycemia (total pancreatectomy and gastroenteric reanastamosis). Most studies 340 involving exercise are in rodent models, where significant increases in glucagon in response to 341 30 minutes of treadmill running were found in STZ-induced diabetic rats after islet allo-342 transplantation [24]. The glucagon response to exercise was consistent whether islets were 343 transplanted into the liver, the kidney, or the peritoneum despite the fact that insulin responses to 344 exercise were different across each of these transplant sites, raising questions about the relative roles of native alpha cells versus transplanted alpha cells. 345

346 An unexpected finding of our study was that ITx experienced hyperglycemia to a greater 347 extent after exercise than after the resting control session. This rebound in blood glucose 348 concentrations has also been noted after aerobic exercise in T1D individuals who have not 349 undergone islet transplantation [34]. The higher blood glucose concentrations in ITx compared to 350 CON after the resting control session is most likely caused by the evening meal. This post-351 prandial hyperglycemia may reflect the relatively limited functional beta cell mass in ITx [9]. 352 One explanation as to why this was exacerbated after the exercise session is that native alpha 353 cells, in the absence of the suppressing effect of insulin from neighboring beta cells, may have 354 continued to produce glucagon for an extended period post-exercise [35]. While there are 355 currently no studies that can support or refute this speculation, a further examination of this 356 phenomenon is warranted.

While not statistically significant, the finding that CON would experience more CGM
 glucose measurements below 3.5 mmol/L than ITx overnight following exercise was reassuring

359 for ITx. Previous CGM studies of individuals with normal glucose tolerance have shown that it is 360 not unusual for people without diabetes to experience interstitial glucose concentrations <3.9 361 mmol/L [36-39]. One study by Wang et al. (2012) found that 49% of individuals assessed as 362 having normal glucose tolerance experienced interstitial glucose measurements below 3.9 363 mmol/L during a 3-day period of sensor wear [36]. Another study of 74 participants wearing 364 CGM for 3 to 7 days, found that 1.1% of daytime CGM readings in nondiabetic individuals were 365 below 3.9 mmol/L with twice the number of readings below the same threshold at night [37]. 366 These values can increase to over 9% during endurance exercise [38]. While it is possible that 367 some of the nocturnal values occur when participants fall asleep in a position that deprives blood 368 flow to the area of the sensor [40], daytime values below 3.9 mmol/L still occur in individuals 369 without diabetes. Our CON CGM data are thus in line with existing literature. The fact that ITx 370 experienced no CGM glucose values below 3.5 mmol/L following exercise can be interpreted as 371 an indication that the transplant procedure is successfully preventing low blood glucose from 372 occurring.

373 Participants were matched as closely as possible for physical activity level, but the 374 aerobic capacity of ITx was significantly lower than CON, likely due to the low hematocrit. 375 Lower VO_{2peak} values are consistent with another study comparing pancreatectomized and islet 376 autotransplanted individuals to controls without diabetes [25]. In the present study, the low 377 hematocrit is likely multi-factorial with contributions from immunosuppression (particularly 378 mycophenolate mofetil), autonomic neuropathy (where erythropoietin release is blunted [41], 379 and suggested by the high resting and low peak heart rate) and anemia of chronic disease. In 380 theory, however, this means that CON would have expended more energy during exercise than 381 ITx, which could have decreased the difference between the two groups with respect to changes

in blood glucose during exercise. In addition, a higher level of aerobic fitness has been
associated with less suppression of insulin during exercise, and a less pronounced glucagon
response [31, 42]. Taken together, these studies would indicate that a greater difference could be
expected between our ITx and CON groups in insulin concentrations (and potentially plasma
glucose as a result) had their fitness levels been more closely matched.

While the sample size for this particular study was adequate for a repeated measures design, a larger sample would be required for subgroup comparisons. For example, it would be beneficial to determine whether or not sex, age, physical fitness, or the time elapsed since the transplant procedure have an influence on blood glucose regulation during exercise in ITx. Future studies examining these aspects individually or as part of a study with a larger sample size are warranted.

The small number of blood samples taken during the exercise sessions also proved to be a limitation in the interpretation of the data. More frequent samples throughout may have provided more clarity in terms of the rates of change for the hormones involved, as well as for the blood glucose concentrations. These details could have provided more room for extrapolation and further interpretation. In spite of these limitations, this is the first study to examine how transplanted islets respond to the stress of exercise in human ITx and highlights the need for future studies of different exercise intensity, modality, and duration.

400 **5.** Conclusion

401 Our data suggest that individuals having undergone islet transplantation are capable of
402 performing exercise to lower blood glucose levels with no increase in the risk of hypoglycemia.
403 Notwithstanding greater changes in blood glucose during and following exercise, ITx
404 experienced few blood glucose concentrations lower than 3.5 mmol/L during exercise and no

405 interstitial glucose concentrations below this threshold in the 24-hour period following exercise. 406 As fear of hypoglycemia is the main barrier to physical activity in T1D individuals pre-407 transplant, the islet transplant procedure could make exercise and physical activity (along with its 408 many benefits) more accessible in this population. This may be especially important for ITx, as it 409 has been suggested that increased physical activity may be a factor involved in improved insulin 410 sensitivity, which could improve blood glucose control and increase graft survival by decreasing 411 metabolic demand on the transplanted islets [43]. Further studies are encouraged to examine 412 different exercise modalities and durations in order to determine what type of exercise regimen is 413 most beneficial in this population. 414 Acknowledgments 415 416 This study was supported by a Pilot Study Grant from the Alberta Diabetes Institute. JLR was 417 supported by a Canada Graduate Scholarship. DRF was supported by a Mazankowski Summer 418 Studentship from the Augustana Faculty of the University of Alberta. PAS is supported by 419 AMHSP. The clinical islet transplant program has research funding from AIHS, JDRF and the 420 Stem Cell Network. We would also like to thank Ms. Becca Dyck and Ms. Chufan Zhang for 421 their help in data collection. 422

The original research question was formulated by PAS and JEY. NGB, PAS and JEY designed
the study. PAS, JEY, JLR and DRF were responsible for participant recruitment. DRF, JLR, SRT
and JEY collected the data. NGB analyzed the data. All authors contributed to the drafting and
revising of the manuscript.

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597	Legends for Tables and Figures
598	
599	Table 1. Participant characteristics
600	
601	Data presented are mean \pm SD. SD=standard deviation, ITx=islet cell transplant recipients, CON=control, M=males,
602 603	F=females, BMI=body mass index, A1C=glycated hemoglobin, VO _{2peak} =peak volume of oxygen uptake, T1D=type 1 diabetes. *n=10 for CON
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608	Table 2. Continuous glucose monitoring data the 6-hour, 12-hour and 24-hour period following
609	the exercise or resting control sessions
610	
611	Data are presented as median [IQR], except for $*$ where data are mean \pm SD. ITx=Islet cell transplant recipients,
612 613	CON=control participants, SD=standard deviation, MAGE=mean amplitude of glycemic excursion, % high = % of time spent >9.9 mmol/L; %low = % of time spent <3.5 mmol/L; % in range = % of time spent between 3.5 and 9.9 mmol/L
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617	<i>Figure 1</i> – Data are presented as mean \pm SD. Changes in blood glucose, glucagon, insulin and c-peptide
618	before and after rest and exercise treatments (gray box) and recovery in ITx (black squares) and CON
619	(white squares).
620	
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622	Figure 2. CGM glucose from 30 minutes pre-exercise until 12 hours post-exercise
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	ITx	CON	p-values
M/F, (n)	5/7	5/7	1.00
Age (yrs)	52.7 ± 7.9	55.3 ± 11.3	0.51
Height (cm)	165.9 ± 7.1	167.7 ± 8.8	0.60
Weight (kg)	64.0 ± 9.0	64.6 ± 10.7	0.88
BMI (kg·m ⁻²)	23.2 ± 2.7	22.9 ± 3.2	0.82
A1C (%)	6.3 ± 0.5	$5.4 \pm 0.2*$	< 0.0001
Hematocrit	34.2 ± 3.8	40.5 ± 3.6	0.0004
Resting heart rate (bpm)	78 ± 10	65 ± 11	0.01
VO _{2peak} , mL·kg ⁻¹ ·min ⁻¹	24.0 ± 6.0	35.7 ± 9.7	0.002
Heart rate at VO _{2peak} (bpm)	144 ± 19	174 ± 12	0.0005
RPE at VO _{2peak}	17 ± 1	18 ± 1	0.22
RER at VO _{2peak}	1.14 ± 0.07	1.21 ± 0.09	0.14
Godin Leisure Time Questionnaire	48.2 ± 41.5	47.7 ± 28.0	0.96
T1D diagnosis duration (yrs)	36.2 ± 12.7	-	-
Time since last transplant (months)	10.4 ± 17.8	-	-
Number of transplant procedures	3.0 ± 1.7	-	-
Total number of islets (IEQ)	1297219 ± 331889	-	-
Islets per kilogram of body weight (IEQ/kg)	19553 ± 5516	-	-

Table 1. Participant characteristics

Data presented are mean \pm SD. SD=standard deviation, ITx=islet cell transplant recipients, CON=control, M=males, F=females, BMI=body mass index, A1C=glycated hemoglobin, VO_{2peak}=peak volume of oxygen uptake, T1D=type 1 diabetes, BPM=beats per minute. *n=10 for CON

	ITx (n=12)		CON (n=12)		p-values		
	Exercise	Rest	Exercise	Rest	Group	Treatment	Interaction
*6-hr glucose	7.8±1.6	7.5±1.5	5.4±0.7	5.3±0.7	< 0.001	0.34	0.52
(mmol/L)							
*12-hr glucose	$7.4{\pm}1.1$	7.4±1.4	5.2±0.8	5.2±0.7	< 0.001	0.92	0.73
(mmol/L)							
*24-hr glucose	7.8 ± 1.0	7.5±1.2	5.3±0.8	5.3±0.7	< 0.001	0.28	0.22
(mmol/L)							
*SD (mmol/L)	1.5±0.7	1.5 ± 0.6	0.7±0.3	0.7±0.3	< 0.001	0.96	0.67
*MAGE (mmol/L)	4.1±2.2	4.0±1.7	2.0±0.9	1.9±0.4	0.001	0.75	0.86
% high (6 hr)	6.9[0.0-45.5]	5.6[0.0-25.0]	0.0[0.0-0.0]	0.0[0.0-0.0]	0.014	0.18	0.32
% low (6 hr)	0.0[0.0-0.0]	0.0[0.0-0.0]	0.0[0.0-0.0]	0.0[0.0-0.0]	0.51	0.66	1.00
% in range (6 hr)	93.1[54.9-100]	94.4[75.0-100.0]	100.0[100.0-100.0]	100.0[100.0-100.0]	0.05	0.21	0.35
% high (12 hr)	4.5[0.0-22.57]	5.2[0.0-12.5]	0.0[0.0-0.0]	0.0[0.0-0.0]	0.014	0.60	0.51
% low (12 hr)	0.0[0.0-0.0]	0.0[0.0-0.0]	0.0[0.0-0.0]	0.0[0.0-0.0]	0.51	0.66	1.00
% in range (12 hr)	95.5[77.4-100]	94.8[87.5-100.0]	100.0[100.0-100.0]	100.0[100.0-100.0]	0.09	0.68	0.60
% high (24 hr)	12.7[0.4-24.1]	8.0[0.0-21.4]	0.0[0.0-0.0]	0.0[0.0-0.0]	< 0.001	0.59	0.16
% low (24 hr)	0.0[0.0-0.0]	0.0[0.0-0.0]	0.0[0.0-0.0]	0.0[0.0-0.8]	0.18	0.72	1.00
% in range (24 hr)	87.3[76.0-99.6]	92.0[78.6-100.0]	100.0[100.0-100.0]	100.0[99.1-100.0]	0.14	0.43	0.35

Table 2. Continuous glucose monitoring data the 6-hour, 12-hour and 24-hour period following the exercise or resting control sessions

Data are presented as median [IQR], except for * where data are mean \pm SD. ITx=Islet cell transplant recipients, CON=control participants, SD=standard deviation, MAGE=mean amplitude of glycemic excursion, % high = % of time spent >9.9 mmol/L; % low = % of time spent <3.5 mmol/L; % in range = % of time spent between 3.5 and 9.9 mmol/L





