1

Decreased K$_{ATP}$ channel activity contributes to the low glucose threshold for insulin

secretion of rat neonatal islets

Juxiang Yang[1], Batoul Hammoud[1], Changhong Li[1], Abigail Ridler[1], Daphne Yau[1], Junil Kim[2,3],

Kyoung-Jae Won[2], Charles A. Stanley[1,4], Toshinori Hoshi[5*], and Diana E. Stanescu[1,4*]

*the authors contributed equally to this work, co-corresponding authors

[1] Division of Endocrinology and Diabetes, The Children's Hospital of Philadelphia, Philadelphia,

PA

[2] Biotech Research & Innovation Centre, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen, Denmark

[3] School of Systems Biomedical Science, Soongsil University, Seoul, South Korea

[4] Department of Pediatrics, Perelman School of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania,

Philadelphia, PA

[5] Department of Physiology, Perelman School of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania,

Philadelphia, PA

Abstract:

Transitional hypoglycemia in normal newborns occurs in the first 3 days of life and has clinical

features consistent with hyperinsulinism. We found a lower threshold for glucose-stimulated

insulin secretion from freshly isolated embryonic day (E)22 rat islets, which persisted into the

first postnatal days. The threshold reached the adult level by postnatal day (P)14. Culturing P14

islets also decreased the glucose threshold. Freshly isolated P1 rat islets had a lower threshold

for insulin secretion in response to BCH (2-aminobicyclo-(2,2,1)-heptane-2-carboxylic acid), a

non-metabolizable leucine analog, and diminished insulin release in response to tolbutamide, an

inhibitor of β-cell K_{ATP} channels. These findings suggested that decreased K_{ATP} channel function

could be responsible for the lower glucose threshold for insulin secretion. Single-cell

transcriptomic analysis did not reveal a lower expression of K_{ATP} subunit genes in E22

compared to P14 β-cells. The investigation of electrophysiological characteristics of dispersed

β-cells showed that early neonatal and cultured cells had fewer functional K_{ATP} channels per unit

membrane area. Our findings suggest that decreased surface density of K_{ATP} channels may

contribute to the observed differences in glucose threshold for insulin release.

Introduction

Transitional neonatal hypoglycemia occurs in healthy newborns in the first days of life. Plasma glucose concentrations reach a nadir by 2 hrs after birth, to a mean of 55-65 mg/dl (3-3.6 mmol/L), and increase to above 70 mg/dl (3.8 mmol/L) after the first 2-3 days, regardless of delayed or early feeding of neonates(1-4). Clinical features suggesting hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia during the first postnatal day include hypoketonemia, non-suppressed plasma insulin concentrations, and inappropriately large glycemic response to glucagon or epinephrine (as reviewed in (5)). A similar timing of hypoglycemia occurs in rodent models, where insulin also appears to be secreted at low glucose concentrations postnatally (6, 7). While transitional neonatal hypoglycemia is typically mild, its underlying mechanism is unknown. Furthermore, there are few clinical criteria to differentiate this mild hypoglycemia from severe or persistent forms of hypoglycemia, which can cause irreversible brain injury and long-term neurologic defects.

Fetal plasma glucose concentrations closely follow maternal plasma concentrations(8). However, since maternal insulin does not cross the placenta, fetal β-cells are solely responsible for the fetal serum level of insulin, the major growth factor during the intrauterine period. If insulin secretion or signaling is impaired, fetal growth is restricted.(9, 10) If fetal β-cells have the same glucose threshold for glucose-stimulated insulin secretion (GSIS) as adult β-cells, fetal insulin secretion would be easily suppressed and fetal growth would be impaired. Hence, a β-cell adaptation that lowers the threshold for responding to glucose may be required to allow the fetus to secrete sufficient insulin to maintain growth. The clinical features of hyperinsulinemic transitional neonatal hypoglycemia are consistent with the concept that the low fetal glucose threshold for insulin secretion persists into the early neonatal period.

We aimed to characterize the glucose threshold for insulin secretion during the fetal and early neonatal period and to uncover the mechanism underlying the hyperinsulinism causing transitional neonatal hypoglycemia. We describe here the change in glucose threshold from late

embryonic period to adulthood in rats and show that decreased K_{ATP} channel function,

potentially through changes in K_{ATP} channel trafficking to the plasma membrane, is a major

factor that contributes to the lower glucose threshold of embryonic and neonatal β-cells.

Methods

<u>Animals:</u> All animal experiments were performed in rats at the Children's Hospital of

Philadelphia with IACUC approval. Pregnant Sprague Dawley rats at embryonic day (E)15 or

E17 were purchased from Charles River Laboratories (Wilmington, MA). Dams and pups were

housed together in AAALC approved rodent colony. Male and female pups were batched

together for measurements. Plasma glucose concentrations were determined using a Contour

Next glucose meter (Ascensia Diabetes Care, NJ).

<u>Islet isolation and islet perifusions:</u> Islet isolation was performed as previously described (11). In

brief, pancreases were collected at E22 (last day of gestation in rats), postnatal day (P)1, P3,

P7, P14, and P28 rats of both sexes. To minimize the number of animals used for these studies,

we chose to perform only limited studies in E22 embryos. Pancreases were digested with

collagenase (Millipore Sigma, Burlington, MA) in Hank's buffer. Islets were handpicked twice

and then incubated in regular islet media (RPMI 1640, supplemented with 5 mM glucose, 10%

fetal bovine serum, 2 mM glutamine, 1% antibiotics (Gibco, Gaithersburg, MD)) at 37°C for 3 hrs

or, in some experiments, for 1 or 2 days, as specified. Islets, 200-250 in number, isolated from

1-5 rat pups, depending on postnatal age, were perifused at a flow rate of 1 ml/min. Perifusion

media was a Krebs-Ringer bicarbonate buffer supplemented with 0.25% bovine serum albumin

and 2 mM glutamine. Because of the low rates of insulin secretion in fetal islets, perifusion

media was also supplemented with 0.1 mM 3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine (IBMX), a

phosphodiesterase inhibitor, to augment Ca^{2+}-stimulated insulin secretion and bring insulin

concentrations to the detection range of the insulin assay. After 30 min of perifusion with

glucose-free buffer, step-wise increasing concentrations of glucose, BCH (2-aminobicyclo-

(2,2,1)-heptane-2-carboxylic acid) or tolbutamide were added, every 20 min, as described in the

figures. For the perifusions with BCH or tolbutamide, the perifusion media contained no glucose

for the entire duration of the experiment. These experiments with BCH or tolbutamide were

performed only at P1 and P14 because these were the ages with the largest difference in

glucose threshold. After return to basal conditions for another 20 min, islets were exposed to 30

mM KCl to determine maximal insulin release at the end of the perifusion. Samples were

collected every min for insulin assay using Insulin High Range Kits (Cat# 62IN1PEG,

RRID:AB_2890910, Cisbio Assays, Bedford, MA) following the manufacturer's instructions. For

representation in Figures 1-3, % insulin release per min in response to glucose, BCH or

tolbutamide was calculated as percentage of maximal KCl-stimulated insulin release for each

replicate in each condition. In the presence of IBMX, maximal insulin secretion (ng/200-250

islets/min) in response to glucose and KCl, was approximately 30% lower in e22 islets

compared to P1-P14 islets. Data points are connected with straight lines for presentation clarity

only.

Single-cell sequencing and analysis: Islets were isolated as described above from E22 embryos

and P14 pups of both sexes. Islets were washed once with PBS without Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+}, followed

by dissociation with TrypLe (Gibco, Gaithersburg, MD) for 7-9 min with gentle pipetting every 1

min. Dissociation was stopped by adding fetal bovine serum. The cell mixture was immediately

filtered through 40 µm cell strainer, washed three times with cold PBS, and resuspended in

regular islet media (as above). Single-cell suspensions were visualized under a microscope to

assess cell viability and to ensure an adequate concentration for single-cell preparation. Cells

were loaded on the 10X Genomics Chromium Controller (Pleasanton, CA) in the Center for

Applied Genomics at CHOP, as per manufacturer's instructions. Single-cell transcriptome

libraries were sequenced on the HiSeq platform (Illumina, San Diego, CA). The CellRanger

(v.2.1,10x genomics) pipeline was used for barcode filtering, alignment to *Rattus norvegicus*

genome and Unique Molecular Identifiers (UMI) counting. Sequenced 10x libraries were

individually evaluated using multiple criteria to determine cells of interest, including gene

number (200 – 3000), number of UMI (0 – 20000), and percent mitochondrial gene expression

(<0.10). The top 10 principal components were used to perform clustering and visualization

using a t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (tSNE) plot. Gene marker expression was

used to identify specific populations. We sequenced a total of 3556 cells, of which we identified

1072 cells (237 from E22 embryos and 835 from P14 pups) with transcriptomic signatures

expected of β-cells (*Ins* and *Pdx1* expression). List of differentially expressed genes between

E22 and P14 β-cells is provided in Supplemental Table (12).

<u>Whole-cell patch-clamp measurements:</u> Electrophysiological measurements were performed

using the apparatus previously described (13). Membrane potentials (V_m) were monitored using

the perforated whole-cell patch-clamp method with β-escin (MP Biomedicals, Santa Ana, CA) as

the perforating agent (6 to 8 μM). The extracellular solution contained (in mM): 135 NaCl, 4 KCl,

2 CaCl$_2$, 2 MgCl$_2$, 10 mannitol, 5 glucose, 10 HEPES, pH 7.2 at 35°C with *N*-methyl-*D*-

glucamine (NMG). The intracellular solution contained (in mM): 76 K$_2$SO4, 10 KCl, 10 NaCl, 6

MgCl$_2$, 30 mannitol, 30 HEPES, pH 7.2 at 35°C with NMG. Accounting for the divalent cation-

chelating action of SO_4^{2-}, the free Mg^{2+} concentration is estimated to be ~2 mM. The tip of the

wax-coated electrode (Warner G85150T, Holliston, MA) was filled with the intracellular solution

and back-filled with the β-escin-containing intracellular solution. The current-clamp

measurements were performed under a continuous perfusion condition (0.3 to 0.4 mL/min) at 35

°C (Warner TC-124A and TC-344B, Holliston, MA).

Voltage-clamp measurements were performed in the whole-cell configuration of the

patch-clamp method at room temperature. Wax-coated patch electrodes (Warner G85150T) had

a typical initial input resistance of 2 to 4 Mohms using the solutions described below. The

external bath solution contained (in mM): 140 KCl, 2 MgCl2, 10 HEPES, pH 7.2 with *N*-methyl-

D-glucamine (NMG). The internal pipette solution contained (in mM): 140 KCl, 11 EGTA, 10

HEPES, pH 7.2 with NMG. The absence of Mg^{2+} in the intracellular solution is not expected to

impact activation of K$_{ATP}$ channels without ATP (14). Once a gigaohm seal was obtained, the

cell was transferred to a small perfusion chamber, ~150 μl in size, and then the membrane

within the patch electrode was ruptured by negative pressure to obtain the whole-cell

configuration. The cell was held at 0 mV and short 10 mV-square pulses were first applied to

estimate total membrane capacitance and input resistance. Following electronic compensation

for the capacitance and series resistance (~60%), voltage ramps from –80 mV to 80 mV in 400

ms were applied every 12 s. After establishing the whole-configuration, currents often increased

in size, presumably because of loss intracellular components such as ATP, and the currents

stabilized within 4 to 5 min, after which glyburide (400 nM; Sigma), a K_{ATP} channel inhibitor, was

applied. Once the currents were stable in size in the presence of glyburide, the broad-spectrum

K^+ channel inhibitor quinidine (200 µM) was added to assess the gigaohm seal integrity. In

some experiments, currents were recorded for up to 12 min before glyburide was applied to

ensure that there was no slow change in current size.

The dissociated cells were amenable to electrophysiological measurements for up to 2

hrs following the cell isolation procedure. All salts were from Sigma (MilliporeSigma, Burlington,

MA). The V_m values shown have been corrected for the junction potential.

Results

Glucose threshold for insulin secretion is lower in fetal and early postnatal islets.

Figure 1A compares the insulin response of islets from E22 embryos, P1, P3, P7 and

P14 pups, and adult rats to stepwise changes in glucose concentration to 3, 5, 10, and 25 mM.

Glucose threshold was defined as the lowest glucose concentration examined at which insulin

release exceeded 10% of the maximal release by 30 mM KCl above basal. The E22 islets

showed a glucose threshold at 3 mM glucose. P1-P7 islets exhibited a progressive rightward

shift in the glucose threshold with diminishing responses to 3 mM and then to 5 mM glucose;

P14 and adult rat islets did not release insulin at 5 mM, but had a response to 10 mM glucose

step, suggesting a glucose threshold between 5-10 mM. In E22 islets and at all other ages, the

maximum insulin response to glucose in the presence of IBMX was similar to the response to

membrane depolarization with KCl. The increase in threshold for GSIS closely paralleled the

increase in plasma glucose concentrations between P1 to P14 (Fig. 1B). These observations

suggest that that transitional neonatal hypoglycemia in human newborns is due to a lower fetal

glucose threshold for GSIS, which is maintained in the immediate postnatal period (5).

The low glucose threshold in neonatal islets reflects differences in the insulin secretory

pathway distal to glycolysis.

To assess whether the low glucose threshold for insulin release in fetal and newborn

islets is conferred within the glycolytic pathway, we examined the responses of P1 and P14

islets to increasing concentrations of BCH, a non-metabolizable leucine analog. BCH promotes

insulin release by activating β-cell mitochondrial glutamate dehydrogenase to stimulate

oxidation of glutamate via α-ketoglutarate largely bypassing the glycolytic pathway, leading to a

rise in β-cell ATP/ADP ratio and triggering insulin secretion (15). As shown in Fig. 2A, the BCH

threshold for insulin secretion was lower in P1 islets (1 mM) compared to P14 islets (3 mM),

suggesting that the low glucose threshold for insulin release in fetal and neonatal islets is

determined, at least in part, at a step downstream of the glycolytic pathway.

To focus on the steps distal to mitochondrial ATP production, we assessed insulin

responses to tolbutamide, an inhibitor of β-cell K_{ATP} channels that causes plasma membrane

depolarization to trigger influx of Ca^{2+} and subsequent insulin release. The insulin response was

markedly lower at all concentrations of tolbutamide in P1 islets compared to P14 islets, despite

similar maximal insulin responses to KCl-induced depolarization (Fig 2B). This observation

suggested that K_{ATP} channel activity and/or channel surface expression is lower in P1 than in

P14 islets because a similar pattern of insulin secretion is seen in sulfonylurea receptor 1

(SUR1) knock-out islets, which have reduced insulin response to K_{ATP} channel inhibitors, but

normal response to KCl (16-18).

Culturing islets lowers the glucose threshold for insulin secretion.

Davis and Matschinsky have previously shown that culturing human islets for 48 hrs

decreased the glucose threshold for insulin secretion from 4-5 mM down to 2-3 mM (19). We

confirmed this observation in rat P14 islets: culturing for 2 days decreased the glucose threshold

from 10 mM to 3 mM (Fig. 3A). In contrast, for P1 islets, which already had a lower glucose

threshold, 2 days of culture did not change the glucose threshold for insulin release (Fig. 3B).

The insulin response to the K_{ATP} channel inhibitor tolbutamide was similarly diminished in P14

islets cultured for 2 days (Fig. 3C, D) and also in freshly isolated P1 islets (Fig. 2B, Fig. 3D).

These findings show that P14 cultured islets have diminished responses to tolbutamide and

implicate the changes in the K_{ATP} channels as the mechanism for the lower threshold for GSIS.

Single-cell transcriptomic analysis of E22 and P14 cells.

We performed differential expression analysis of single E22/P14 β-cells to identify gene

transcript changes that could influence the threshold for GSIS. We identified 237 β-cells from

E22 embryos and 835 β-cells from P14 pups (Fig. 4A-B); 135 transcripts were upregulated in

E22 β-cells but only 17 transcripts were upregulated in P14 β-cells (false discovery rate

<0.0001, logRatio>0.3) (Fig 4C; Suppl. Table) (12). β-cell maturational markers, such as *MafB,*

Npy and *Nnat*, were upregulated in E22 β-cells compared to P14 β-cells, consistent with

previous reports (6, 20, 21)(Fig. 4D). Among top upregulated genes in the P14 β-cells were

Sfrp5, Syt4, *Ppy*, *Dbp*, and *Pcsk1n* (Fig. 4D, Suppl. Table) (12).

Several factors upstream of mitochondrial oxidation, including lactate dehydrogenase

(Ldh), monocarboxylic transporter 1 *(Slc16a1)* and hexokinase isoforms 1-3 *(Hk1-3),* have been

suggested to be responsible for the low glucose threshold for GSIS of early postnatal β-cells

(22-24). These transcripts were not differentially expressed between the rat E22 and P14 β-

cells. The lack of transcriptional changes, in the context of the perifusion data presented above,

shows that the above factors are unlikely to be responsible for the low glucose threshold in fetal

and neonatal islets.

The above results from the BCH-stimulated and tolbutamide-stimulated insulin secretion

measurements suggested that decreased activity or expression of K_{ATP} channels, comprised of

$K_{ir}6.2$ channels complexed with SUR1, could be responsible for the lower glucose threshold of

fetal and neonatal β-cells (see Fig. 2B). However, the mRNA level of *Abcc8* (SUR1) was higher

in E22 β-cells and no difference in *Kcnj11* transcript ($K_{ir}6.2$) was detected (Fig. 4D). These

transcriptomic findings suggested that decreased transcription of K_{ATP} channel subunit genes is

not the cause of the lower glucose threshold in neonatal islets.

Neonatal islet cells have fewer functional K_{ATP} channels.

The β-cell membrane potential (V_m), in part controlled by K_{ATP} channels, is a critical

regulator of insulin release (25). The lower glucose threshold in the fetal and early neonatal

islets suggested the possibility that these β-cells have a V_m closer to the level at which voltage-

dependent Ca^{2+} channels open to allow Ca^{2+} influx and subsequent insulin release. To test this

prediction, we measured V_m values in individual cells from P3 and P14 islets incubated with 5

mM glucose. These two age groups were selected because the P3 islets were readily identified

and amenable to enzymatic dissociation, whereas islets from younger animals were difficult to

dissociate while preserving their functionality. In addition, as shown in Fig. 1A, at 5 mM glucose,

P3 islets exhibited ~40% of maximal insulin release while P14 islets essentially showed no

insulin release. V_m traces recorded from 29 cells isolated from 6 P3 pups and 33 cells from 9

P14 pups are illustrated in Fig. 5A. The V_m values show a high degree of variability in each

group, ranging from near –90 mV to –30 mV (Fig. 5A; Suppl. Fig. 1) (12). Many of the cells

exhibited non-overshooting action potentials (APs) typical of β-cells (Suppl. Fig. 1)(12). We

observed that 41% of P3 cells had V_m values ≥–60 mV compared with 18% of P14 cells (Fig.

5A, B). This greater fraction of depolarized cells in the P3 group could contribute to the lower

glucose threshold for GSIS found in the younger islets. While we do not have clear information

regarding the cell-type identity of each cell in our electrophysiological measurements, in those

experiments in which the glucose concentration was increased from 5 to 25 mM, the cells

responded by firing non-overshooting APs, as expected from functionally viable β-cells (Suppl.

Fig. 1) (12).

Plasma membrane depolarization in β-cells may be facilitated by closure/inhibition of

K_{ATP} channels and/or a reduced number of channels trafficked to the cell surface (25, 26). Our

perifusion results suggested that reduced K_{ATP} channel number or activity could contribute to the

observed differences in the glucose threshold, both between E22-P14 islets and with culturing

islets for 1 or 2 days. Total whole-cell membrane currents under a symmetrical 140 mM KCl

condition were recorded from 20 P3 uncultured neonatal islet cells, 13 P14 uncultured islet cells,

and 20 P14 islet cells cultured for 2 days. Input capacitance, reflecting the membrane area, was

similar for uncultured P3 and P14 cells, and slightly greater the P14 cultured group (Suppl. Fig.

2A) (12). After establishing the whole-cell configuration, currents in response to repeated

voltage ramps were recorded and illustrative results from a P14 cell are depicted in Suppl. Fig.

1B (12). The whole-cell configuration, establishing a small conduit through the membrane,

disrupts the cellular enzymatic machinery. Therefore, the ramp currents immediately following

establishing the whole-cell configuration reflect the near physiological ion channel status and

those recorded later in time represent very compromised biochemical conditions when the ATP

content is very low (Suppl. Fig. 2B; Fig. 6A-B) (12). Glyburide (400 nM) was next applied to

inhibit K_{ATP} channels (Suppl. Fig. 2B; Fig. 6C) (12) and then quinidine, a broad-spectrum K^+

channel inhibitor, was applied to assess the gigaohm seal integrity (Suppl. Fig. 2B) (12). The

currents immediately after achieving the whole-cell configuration (~30 s) were noticeably greater

in the uncultured P14 cells than in uncultured P3 or cultured P14 cells (Fig 6A). In most of the

cells, the currents increased in size with time after achieving the whole-cell configuration,

especially in P14 cells, probably due to disruption of ATP supply that activated K_{ATP} channels

(Fig. 6B). The currents were subsequently nearly entirely blocked by the K_{ATP} channel inhibitor

glyburide (Fig. 6C), suggesting that K_{ATP} channels dominate the whole-cell currents.

Cultured P14 cells appeared to be comprised of two subpopulations based on the

glyburide-sensitivity, with 60% (14 out of 20) of cultured P14 cells having no appreciable

glyburide-sensitive currents (Fig. 6D – *green* circles). Uncultured P3 cells presented a similar

two subpopulation distribution, with some of the cells exhibiting decreased glyburide-sensitive

K^+ currents compared to the uncultured P14 cells (Fig. 6D – *red* circles vs. *blue* circles). Thus,

both P3 and cultured P14 islet cells had decreased glyburide-sensitive K^+ currents, very likely

K_{ATP} currents. These findings collectively suggest that decreased K_{ATP} channel activity,

potentially due to decreased trafficking of channels to the plasma membrane, is the main

contributor to the lower glucose threshold for GSIS in neonatal and cultured β-cells.

Discussion

The results here demonstrate that fetal and early neonatal pancreatic β-cells respond to

glucose stimulation with a lower glucose threshold than mature β-cells. This low threshold for

GSIS correlates closely with the period of transitional hypoglycemia in normal newborns during

the first day after birth. Our studies indicate that the glucose threshold for GSIS of early

postnatal β-cells is lower than that of the adult β-cells at least until P7, and it reaches the adult

value by P14. Furthermore, our results show that the differences in glucose threshold for GSIS

during the early postnatal period reflect changes occurring distal to glycolysis and appear to

involve the triggering pathway for insulin secretion at the site of the plasma membrane K_{ATP}

channel. Electrophysiological measurements reveal reduced K_{ATP} channel activity, reflecting

decreased density on the plasma membrane of neonatal β-cell. Culturing of isolated islets for 1-

2 days produce a similar effect of reduced glucose threshold and reduced K_{ATP} activity,

suggesting the possibility that extrinsic rather than developmental factors may be responsible

for transitional neonatal hypoglycemia.

The repeated observation has been that isolated fetal β-cells are poorly responsive to

glucose and only gain glucose responsiveness only after birth(27). Immature β-cells have been

shown to have several differences in insulin secretory pathway when compared with mature β-

cells: despite the presence of the insulin secretory machinery, it has been suggested there is a

diminished coupling between glucose metabolism and membrane depolarization, leading to

glucose insensitivity.(28-34) However, these observations from isolated islets must be carefully

evaluated in the clinical context of β-cell function in the fetal and neonatal period to understand

transitional hypoglycemia. Clinical evidence indicates that fetal β-cells are in fact responsive to

glucose. Activating mutations in the glucose sensor of β-cells, glucokinase, lead to insulin-

induced fetal overgrowth, whereas inactivating mutations in glucokinase lead to fetal

undergrowth.(35-39) Increased fetal glucose levels due to maternal diabetes causes to greater

fetal insulin secretion and large for gestational age birthweight (40). Hence, increased glucose

phosphorylation in fetal β-cells increases insulin secretion, demonstrating that these cells have

a functional insulin secretory pathway that is responsive to glucose, albeit with a different

pattern of GSIS compared to adult β-cells.

A low glucose threshold for insulin secretion has been previously reported in both

newborn rodent and human newborn islets (6, 41). The glucose threshold for GSIS, which

determines the basal concentration of plasma glucose(19), is controlled by several components

of the insulin secretory pathway, from the initial step of glucose phosphorylation to distal steps

of insulin vesicle exocytosis. While glucokinase functions as the β-cell glucose sensor,

mutations in many of the subsequent steps in the pathway of insulin secretion from glucokinase

to the voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channel have been found to lead to congenital hyperinsulinism (42).

The most common of the mutations alter K_{ATP} channel gene expression or activity, reflecting the

key role of this channel in insulin regulation. Loss of function mutations in the K_{ATP} channel

subunits, *KCNJ11* and *ABCC8*, lead to congenital hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia due to a

failure to appropriately suppress insulin release (43, 44). Decreased gene expression of the

K_{ATP} channel subunits has also been proposed to be responsible for the infantile

hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia and subsequent maturity onset diabetes associated with

inactivating mutations of HNF1A and HNF4A transcription factors (MODY1 and MODY3) (45-

48). Recently, the decreased insulin secretion induced by leptin has been shown to involve

increased density of K_{ATP} channels on the plasma membrane surface caused by increased

trafficking of channels (49). Leptin increases surface expression of the K_{ATP} channel through

upregulation of AMPK and PKA pathways without affecting channel gating properties (50). A

defect in this leptin response pathway in *Phpt1$^{-/-}$* mice causes lethal neonatal hypoglycemia due

to impaired trafficking and decreased surface density of K_{ATP} channels.(26)

Multiple mechanisms have been suggested to explain the lower glucose threshold of

neonatal islets including increased expression of genes normally disallowed in mature β-cells

(*Slc16a1*, *LDH* genes and hexokinase isoforms with low affinity for glucose) or decreased

expression of *Syt4* leading to increased sensitivity of insulin vesicles to Ca^{2+} (7, 22-24). It has

also been suggested that the lower glucose threshold is involved in β-cell replication since it

appears to correlate with the higher proportion of proliferating β-cells in the early postnatal

period (51). We conclude here that the above mechanisms are unlikely to play a major role in

determining the lower glucose threshold for GSIS in rat neonatal islets for the following two

reasons. Firstly, the lower threshold for BCH-stimulated insulin secretion suggests that the low

glucose threshold in fetal and neonatal islets is conferred at a step downstream of mitochondrial

oxidation. This finding is in accord with the observed lack of transcript level changes in *Hk1-3,*

Slc16a1 or *Ldh* between E22 and P14 β-cells. Secondly, we have shown that *Syt4* expression is

lower in E22 compared to P14 β-cells, supporting the role of this factor in the postnatal β-cell

functional changes(7). However, the resulting increase sensitivity of insulin granules to Ca^{2+} due

to lower *Syt4* expression in fetal and early neonatal β-cells would predict an increased, not a

decreased, tolbutamide-stimulated insulin secretion that we observed in early neonatal islets.

Our single-cell transcriptomic analysis failed to detect transcriptomic-level regulation of

Kcnj11 or *Abcc8* genes between E22 and P14, consistent with other similar single-cell or bulk

transcriptomic data sets in mice (20, 33). This observation, together with the suppressed

tolbutamide-induced insulin secretion, suggests that decreased K_{ATP} channel surface density in

fetal and neonatal β-cells contributes to the low glucose threshold for GSIS, leading to

transitional hypoglycemia in the early neonatal period. We thus postulate that the change we

found in K_{ATP} current size is caused by decreased channel trafficking to plasma membrane.

Fetal and neonatal islets have poorer maximal insulin responses to glucose stimulation

and a higher maximal response to amino acids compared to mature islets (6, 27, 28, 34). The

experiments here did not attempt to address these contrasting maximal responses; however,

our observation of reduced K_{ATP} channel activity may not only explain the low glucose threshold

for GSIS of fetal islets but also their decreased maximal GSIS and increased responsiveness to

amino acids. A similar decreased maximal GSIS and increased responsiveness to amino acids

are seen in genetic deficiency of K_{ATP} channels in human infants and in rodents (11, 18, 52, 53).

In islets with impaired K_{ATP} channels from both humans and rodents, the insulin-glucose

response curve is flattened with incomplete suppression of insulin release at low glucose

concentrations and diminished rise in insulin at high glucose concentrations(18). Human and

mouse islets with K_{ATP} mutations also show an exaggerated response to a mixture of amino

acids via the amplification pathway in the presence of elevated concentrations of cytosolic Ca^{2+}

(18, 53).

A few limitations exist in our study reported here. First, we assessed dynamic insulin

secretion from isolated islets, not in the context of the whole animal. The observed lower

glucose threshold may reflect the possibility that β-cell function may be influenced by a different

milieu of nutrient and other hormones. However, the change in glucose threshold documented

here strikingly parallels the plasma glucose in the first 7-14 days of life (as shown in Fig. 1B).

This tight correspondence suggests that the glucose threshold of islets *in vivo* is indeed similar

to the measurements in the *ex vivo* setting. Second, while our results here show that the

glucose threshold for GSIS from early postnatal β-cells is determined largely in the last steps of

the insulin secretory pathway, we cannot rule out the contribution of changes in the proximal

steps in this pathway. For example, differences in glucose phosphorylation, glycolysis and/or

mitochondrial oxidation could contribute to the threshold and/or maximal stimulated insulin

secretion. Third, our dynamic insulin measurements were done in the presence of IBMX, a

phosphodiesterase inhibitor that increases cAMP levels and augments Ca^{2+}-stimulated insulin

secretion. Phosphodiesterase inhibitors augment both the first and second phase of insulin

secretion from neonatal and infant islets but do not affect insulin secretion at subthreshold

glucose concentrations (41, 54, 55). While dynamic insulin measurements from adult human

islets do not typically require the addition of a phosphodiesterase inhibitor, such

pharmacological agents are helpful for similar studies in early postnatal islets. Thus, in early

postnatal β-cells the amplifying pathway of insulin secretion may not be fully developed, either

because of differences in PKA pathway in β-cells and/or differences in inter-cellular connections

with neighboring α-cells. Indeed, intercellular gap junctions or other cell-to-cell contacts can

change the characteristics of insulin release (56, 57).

The lower glucose threshold for GSIS of cultured islets, previously observed in isolated

islets that had been cultured for 48 hrs (19), can be explained by our finding here that 60% of

cultured β-cells have markedly reduced glyburide-sensitive K^+ currents. We note, however, that

other factors such as changes in intracellular Ca^{2+} handling, could also contribute (58). The

observation that fetal/neonatal islets and islets exposed to culture conditions share a similar low

glucose threshold for GSIS suggests the possibility of similar underlying mechanisms driven by

extrinsic factors. Both the interior of cultured islets and fetal islets have reduced oxygen and

receive a relatively constant nutrient supply, as opposed to a pulsatile feeding pattern (59).

More severe restrictions of fetal oxygen or nutrient supply, as in birth asphyxia or late

intrauterine growth retardation, cause perinatal stress-induced hyperinsulinism that may persist

for several weeks after delivery (60, 61). Mechanistically, changes in the mTOR/AMP-kinase

(27) and/or the hypoxia-inducible factor pathway could signal the postnatal increase in K_{ATP}

channel trafficking to the β-cell plasma membrane and increase the threshold for GSIS.

Furthermore, the lower glucose threshold for GSIS in fetal and early postnatal β-cells may

provide as of yet undiscovered adaptive advantages, particularly in view of the surge in counter-

regulatory hormones such as cortisol in the early neonatal period.

In conclusion, we have established that fetal and early postnatal β-cell function are

characterized by a low glucose threshold for GSIS. This low threshold correlates with decreased

K_{ATP} channel surface density. These findings support the concept that transitional neonatal

hypoglycemia represents an extension into the early postnatal period of the fetal pattern of

insulin release from β-cells.

Acknowledgements and funding: We thank Dr. Franz Matschinsky and Dr. Show-Ling Shyng

for critical review of the manuscript. We also thank the Center for Applied Genomics at The

Children's Hospital of Philadelphia. DES was supported by American Diabetes Association

Junior Faculty Development Award (1-16-JDF086). CAS was supported by NIH grant R37-

DK056268. TH was supported in part by DK098517.

Data availability statement: All single cell transcriptomic datasets generated during and/or

analyzed during the current study are not publicly available but are available from the

corresponding author (DES) on reasonable request.

Author contributions: JY, BH designed and performed experiments, interpreted the results

with input from DES and wrote parts of the manuscript. CL designed and performed

experiments, interpreted the results, contributed to the conceptual frame work. AR performed

experiments and revised the manuscript. DY designed and performed experiments. JK

performed the bioinformatic analysis, interpreted the data. KJW conceptualized the bioinformatic

analysis and revised the manuscript. CAH conceptualized and supervised the project, wrote and

edited the manuscript. TH conceptualized the electrophysiological approach, performed

experiments, interpreted the data and wrote/edited the manuscript. DES conceptualized and

supervised the project overall, analyzed the data, wrote/edited the manuscript.

 Figure Legends:

 Figure 1: The glucose threshold for GSIS increases in early postnatal rat islets. A. Islet

 perifusions with stepwise increases in glucose concentration from 3 to 25 mM followed by 30

 mM KCl for each age as depicted. Insulin release per min is calculated as percentage of

 maximal KCl-stimulated insulin release for each replicate. A total of 3-5 independent pools of

 freshly isolated islets (200-250 islets each) were obtained from 1-5 animals for each age. **B.**

 Plasma glucose concentrations of rat pups between 1-28 days of age. Each point represents

 measurements of one pup. Error bars in **A** and **B** represent SEM.

 Figure 2: The lower threshold for insulin secretion is conferred by changes in the distal

 steps of insulin secretion pathway. A: Perifusions with stepwise increases in BCH

 concentration from 1 to 10 mM followed by 30 mM KCl in P1 and P14 freshly isolated rat islets.

 B: Perifusions with stepwise increases in tolbutamide concentration from 25 to 150 µM in freshly

 isolated P1 and P14 islets. Insulin release per min is calculated as percentages of maximal KCl-

 stimulated insulin secretion for each replicate and age. Three independent pools of islets (200-

 250 islets each) were obtained from 1-5 animals for each age. Error bars represent SEM.

 Figure 3: Glucose threshold for insulin release decreases after 2 days of culture. A-B:

 Perifusions with stepwise increases in glucose concentration from 3 to 25 mM followed by 30

 mM KCl in freshly isolated P14 islets and P14 islets that had been cultured for 2 days (A) or

 freshly isolated P1 islets and P1 islets that had been cultured for 2 days (B). **C:** Perifusions with

 stepwise increases in tolbutamide concentration from 25 to 150 µM in freshly isolated islets and

 P14 islets that had been cultured for 2 days. **C:** Tolbutamide response curves in freshly isolated

 P1 islets, freshly isolated P14 islets, and cultured P14 islets. For **A-B**, 3-4 independent pools of

 islets (200-250 islets each) were obtained from 1-5 animals for each age. Insulin release per

min is calculated as percentages of maximal KCl-stimulated insulin secretion for each replicate

and age. Error bars represent SEM.

Figure 4: Single-cell transcriptomic analysis: A-B. t-SNE representation of E22/P14 isolated

pancreas cells. **A:** Different clusters were identified based on expression of cell-specific genes.

B: Cells are labeled depending on the age: E22 cells are presented in dark gray and P14 cells

are represented in red. **C.** Heatmap of differentially expressed genes in E22 or P14 β-cells. **D:**

Violin plots of log2 normalized expression levels (FPKM) for specific transcripts in E22 or P14 β-

cells.

Figure 5: Membrane potential differences between P3 and P14 rat islet cells. **A-B** P3 rat

cells have a more depolarized membrane potential (V_m) at 5 mM glucose compared with P14

cells**. A**. Compressed 60-sec recordings of V_m values for from all cells measured: 29 P3 islet

cells (red) and 33 P14 islet cells (blue). **B**. Probability density functions of median V_m values

from the cells in P3 cells (red) and P14 cells (blue).

Figure 6: K$^+$ currents in islet cells. Currents elicited by voltage ramps normalized by cell

capacitance in individual cells **(A)** 20 to 30 s after whole-cell configuration, (**B**) after "run-up" of

currents caused presumably by ATP loss and (**C**) after 400 nM glyburide. **D**. Freshly isolated P3

cells and cultured P14 cells have smaller glyburide-sensitive currents than uncultured P14 cells.

Glyburide-sensitive currents normalized by cell capacitance at –80 mV for each cell measured.

Each cell is represented by a circle. Results from uncultured P3 cells (*red*), uncultured P14 cells

(*blue*) and cultured P14 cells (*green*). For **A**, **B**, and **C**, current sizes at –80 mV are shown (*right*

panels). For **D**, statistical analysis: One Way ANOVA (Kruskal Wallis) p-value is 0.002; Mann-

Whitney test for comparing two groups: (*) P3 no culture vs P14 no culture: p = 0.032, (**) P3 no

culture vs P14 culture: p = 0.01, (***) P14 culture vs P14 no culture: p= 0.003. The p values are

provided only as data description parameters.

References:

1. Cornblath M, and Reisner SH. Blood glucose in the neonate and its clinical significance. *N Engl J Med.* 1965;273(7):378-81.

2. Bozzetti P, Ferrari MM, Marconi AM, Ferrazzi E, Pardi G, Makowski EL, et al. The relationship of maternal and fetal glucose concentrations in the human from midgestation until term. *Metabolism.* 1988;37(4):358-63.

3. Hoseth E, Joergensen A, Ebbesen F, and Moeller M. Blood glucose levels in a population of healthy, breast fed, term infants of appropriate size for gestational age. *Arch Dis Child Fetal Neonatal Ed.* 2000;83(2):F117-9.

4. Srinivasan G, Pildes RS, Cattamanchi G, Voora S, and Lilien LD. Plasma glucose values in normal neonates: a new look. *J Pediatr.* 1986;109(1):114-7.

5. Stanley CA, Rozance PJ, Thornton PS, De Leon DD, Harris D, Haymond MW, et al. Re-evaluating "transitional neonatal hypoglycemia": mechanism and implications for management. *J Pediatr.* 2015;166(6):1520-5 e1.

6. Blum B, Hrvatin S, Schuetz C, Bonal C, Rezania A, and Melton DA. Functional β-cell maturation is marked by an increased glucose threshold and by expression of urocortin 3. *Nat Biotechnol.* 2012;30(3):261-4.

7. Huang C, Walker EM, Dadi PK, Hu R, Xu Y, Zhang W, et al. Synaptotagmin 4 Regulates Pancreatic β Cell Maturation by Modulating the Ca(2+) Sensitivity of Insulin Secretion Vesicles. *Dev Cell.* 2018;45(3):347-61 e5.

8. Marconi AM, Paolini C, Buscaglia M, Zerbe G, Battaglia FC, and Pardi G. The impact of gestational age and fetal growth on the maternal-fetal glucose concentration difference. *Obstet Gynecol.* 1996;87(6):937-42.

9. Fowden AL. Insulin deficiency: effects on fetal growth and development. *J Paediatr Child Health.* 1993;29(1):6-11.

10. Hill DJ, and Milner RD. Insulin as a growth factor. *Pediatr Res.* 1985;19(9):879-86.

513   11.   Li C, Najafi H, Daikhin Y, Nissim IB, Collins HW, Yudkoff M, et al. Regulation of leucine-

514   stimulated insulin secretion and glutamine metabolism in isolated rat islets. *J Biol Chem.*

515   2003;278(5):2853-8.

516   12.   Yang, Juxiang; Hammoud, Batoul; Li, Changhong; Ridler, Abigail; Yau, Daphne; Kim,

517   Junil; et al. (2021): Supplemental data Yang et al. figshare. Figure.

518   https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.14582667.v1

519   13.   Tian Y, Heinemann SH, and Hoshi T. Large-conductance Ca(2+)- and voltage-gated

520   K(+) channels form and break interactions with membrane lipids during each gating

521   cycle. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.* 2019;116(17):8591-6.

522   14.   Gribble FM, Tucker SJ, Haug T, and Ashcroft FM. MgATP activates the β cell KATP

523   channel by interaction with its SUR1 subunit. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.*

524   1998;95(12):7185-90.

525   15.   Sener A, Malaisse-Lagae F, and Malaisse WJ. Stimulation of pancreatic islet metabolism

526   and insulin release by a nonmetabolizable amino acid. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.*

527   1981;78(9):5460-4.

528   16.   Szollosi A, Nenquin M, and Henquin JC. Pharmacological stimulation and inhibition of

529   insulin secretion in mouse islets lacking ATP-sensitive K+ channels. *Br J Pharmacol.*

530   2010;159(3):669-77.

531   17.   Szollosi A, Nenquin M, Aguilar-Bryan L, Bryan J, and Henquin JC. Glucose stimulates

532   Ca2+ influx and insulin secretion in 2-week-old β-cells lacking ATP-sensitive K+

533   channels. *J Biol Chem.* 2007;282(3):1747-56.

534   18.   Li C, Ackermann AM, Boodhansingh KE, Bhatti TR, Liu C, Schug J, et al. Functional and

535   Metabolomic Consequences of KATP Channel Inactivation in Human Islets. *Diabetes.*

536   2017;66(7):1901-13.

19.   Matschinsky F.M. DEA. *The Distinction between 'Glucose Setpoint', 'Glucose Threshold'*

and 'Glucose Sensor' Is Critical for Understanding the Role of the Pancreatic Β-Cell in

Glucose Homeostasis. Front Diabetes. Basel: Karger; 1998.

20.   Zeng C, Mulas F, Sui Y, Guan T, Miller N, Tan Y, et al. Pseudotemporal Ordering of

Single Cells Reveals Metabolic Control of Postnatal β Cell Proliferation. *Cell Metab.*

2017;25(5):1160-75 e11.

21.   Rodnoi P, Rajkumar M, Moin ASM, Georgia SK, Butler AE, and Dhawan S.

Neuropeptide Y expression marks partially differentiated β cells in mice and humans. *JCI*

Insight. 2017;2(12).

22.   Sekine N, Cirulli V, Regazzi R, Brown LJ, Gine E, Tamarit-Rodriguez J, et al. Low lactate

dehydrogenase and high mitochondrial glycerol phosphate dehydrogenase in pancreatic

β-cells. Potential role in nutrient sensing. *J Biol Chem.* 1994;269(7):4895-902.

23.   Pullen TJ, Khan AM, Barton G, Butcher SA, Sun G, and Rutter GA. Identification of

genes selectively disallowed in the pancreatic islet. *Islets.* 2010;2(2):89-95.

24.   Thorrez L, Laudadio I, Van Deun K, Quintens R, Hendrickx N, Granvik M, et al. Tissue-

specific disallowance of housekeeping genes: the other face of cell differentiation.

Genome Res. 2011;21(1):95-105.

25.   Rorsman P, and Ashcroft FM. Pancreatic β-Cell Electrical Activity and Insulin Secretion:

Of Mice and Men. *Physiol Rev.* 2018;98(1):117-214.

26.   Srivastava S, Li Z, Soomro I, Sun Y, Wang J, Bao L, et al. Regulation of KATP Channel

Trafficking in Pancreatic β-Cells by Protein Histidine Phosphorylation. *Diabetes.*

2018;67(5):849-60.

27.   Helman A, Cangelosi AL, Davis JC, Pham Q, Rothman A, Faust AL, et al. A Nutrient-

Sensing Transition at Birth Triggers Glucose-Responsive Insulin Secretion. *Cell Metab.*

2020;31(5):1004-16 e5.

28.   Rorsman P, Arkhammar P, Bokvist K, Hellerstrom C, Nilsson T, Welsh M, et al. Failure

of glucose to elicit a normal secretory response in fetal pancreatic β cells results from

glucose insensitivity of the ATP-regulated K+ channels. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.*

1989;86(12):4505-9.

29.   Hole RL, Pian-Smith MC, and Sharp GW. Development of the biphasic response to

glucose in fetal and neonatal rat pancreas. *Am J Physiol.* 1988;254(2 Pt 1):E167-74.

30.   Bliss CR, and Sharp GW. A critical period in the development of the insulin secretory

response to glucose in fetal rat pancreas. *Life Sci.* 1994;55(6):423-7.

31.   Weinhaus AJ, Poronnik P, Cook DI, and Tuch BE. Insulin secretagogues, but not

glucose, stimulate an increase in [Ca2+]i in the fetal rat β-cell. *Diabetes.* 1995;44(1):118-

24.

32.   Bergsten P, Aoyagi K, Persson E, Eriksson UJ, and Hellerstrom C. Appearance of

glucose-induced insulin release in fetal rat β-cells. *J Endocrinol.* 1998;158(1):115-20.

33.   Jermendy A, Toschi E, Aye T, Koh A, Aguayo-Mazzucato C, Sharma A, et al. Rat

neonatal β cells lack the specialised metabolic phenotype of mature β cells.

Diabetologia. 2011;54(3):594-604.

34.   Rozzo A, Meneghel-Rozzo T, Delakorda SL, Yang SB, and Rupnik M. Exocytosis of

insulin: in vivo maturation of mouse endocrine pancreas. *Ann N Y Acad Sci.*

2009;1152:53-62.

35.   Hattersley AT, Beards F, Ballantyne E, Appleton M, Harvey R, and Ellard S. Mutations in

the glucokinase gene of the fetus result in reduced birth weight. *Nat Genet.*

1998;19(3):268-70.

36.   Sayed S, Langdon DR, Odili S, Chen P, Buettger C, Schiffman AB, et al. Extremes of

clinical and enzymatic phenotypes in children with hyperinsulinism caused by

glucokinase activating mutations. *Diabetes.* 2009;58(6):1419-27.

37.   Stanley CA. Perspective on the Genetics and Diagnosis of Congenital Hyperinsulinism

Disorders. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2016;101(3):815-26.

38.   Dickens LT, Letourneau LR, Sanyoura M, Greeley SAW, Philipson LH, and Naylor RN.

Management and pregnancy outcomes of women with GCK-MODY enrolled in the US

Monogenic Diabetes Registry. *Acta Diabetol.* 2019;56(4):405-11.

39.   Terauchi Y, Kubota N, Tamemoto H, Sakura H, Nagai R, Akanuma Y, et al. Insulin effect

during embryogenesis determines fetal growth: a possible molecular link between birth

weight and susceptibility to type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes.* 2000;49(1):82-6.

40.   Beardsall K, Diderholm BM, and Dunger DB. Insulin and carbohydrate metabolism. *Best

Pract Res Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2008;22(1):41-55.

41.   Henquin JC, and Nenquin M. Immaturity of insulin secretion by pancreatic islets isolated

from one human neonate. *J Diabetes Investig.* 2018;9(2):270-3.

42.   Matschinsky FM, and Wilson DF. The Central Role of Glucokinase in Glucose

Homeostasis: A Perspective 50 Years After Demonstrating the Presence of the Enzyme

in Islets of Langerhans. *Front Physiol.* 2019;10:148.

43.   Rosenfeld E, Ganguly A, and De Leon DD. Congenital hyperinsulinism disorders:

Genetic and clinical characteristics. *Am J Med Genet C Semin Med Genet.*

2019;181(4):682-92.

44.   Hussain K, and Cosgrove KE. From congenital hyperinsulinism to diabetes mellitus: the

role of pancreatic β-cell KATP channels. *Pediatr Diabetes.* 2005;6(2):103-13.

45.   Flanagan SE, Kapoor RR, Mali G, Cody D, Murphy N, Schwahn B, et al. Diazoxide-

responsive hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia caused by HNF4A gene mutations. *Eur J

Endocrinol.* 2010;162(5):987-92.

46.   Haliyur R, Tong X, Sanyoura M, Shrestha S, Lindner J, Saunders DC, et al. Human

islets expressing HNF1A variant have defective β cell transcriptional regulatory

networks. *J Clin Invest.* 2019;129(1):246-51.

47.   Stanescu DE, Hughes N, Kaplan B, Stanley CA, and De Leon DD. Novel presentations

614   of congenital hyperinsulinism due to mutations in the MODY genes: HNF1A and HNF4A.

615   *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2012;97(10):E2026-30.

616   48.   Gupta RK, Vatamaniuk MZ, Lee CS, Flaschen RC, Fulmer JT, Matschinsky FM, et al.

617   The MODY1 gene HNF-4alpha regulates selected genes involved in insulin secretion. *J*

618   *Clin Invest.* 2005;115(4):1006-15.

619   49.   Chen PC, Kryukova YN, and Shyng SL. Leptin regulates KATP channel trafficking in

620   pancreatic β-cells by a signaling mechanism involving AMP-activated protein kinase

621   (AMPK) and cAMP-dependent protein kinase (PKA). *J Biol Chem.* 2013;288(47):34098-

622   109.

623   50.   Chen PC, Kryukova YN, and Shyng SL. Leptin regulates KATP channel trafficking in

624   pancreatic β-cells by a signaling mechanism involving AMP-activated protein kinase

625   (AMPK) and cAMP-dependent protein kinase (PKA). *J Biol Chem.* 2013;288(47):34098-

626   109.

627   51.   Puri S, Roy N, Russ HA, Leonhardt L, French EK, Roy R, et al. Replication confers β cell

628   immaturity. *Nat Commun.* 2018;9(1):485.

629   52.   Grimberg A, Ferry RJ, Jr., Kelly A, Koo-McCoy S, Polonsky K, Glaser B, et al.

630   Dysregulation of insulin secretion in children with congenital hyperinsulinism due to

631   sulfonylurea receptor mutations. *Diabetes.* 2001;50(2):322-8.

632   53.   Li C, Nissim I, Chen P, Buettger C, Najafi H, Daikhin Y, et al. Elimination of KATP

633   channels in mouse islets results in elevated [U-13C]glucose metabolism, glutaminolysis,

634   and pyruvate cycling but a decreased gamma-aminobutyric acid shunt. *J Biol Chem.*

635   2008;283(25):17238-49.

636   54.   Yajima H, Komatsu M, Schermerhorn T, Aizawa T, Kaneko T, Nagai M, et al. cAMP

637   enhances insulin secretion by an action on the ATP-sensitive K+ channel-independent

638   pathway of glucose signaling in rat pancreatic islets. *Diabetes.* 1999;48(5):1006-12.

639   55.   Henquin JC, and Nenquin M. Dynamics and Regulation of Insulin Secretion in

640   Pancreatic Islets from Normal Young Children. *PLoS One.* 2016;11(11):e0165961.

641   56.   Speier S, Gjinovci A, Charollais A, Meda P, and Rupnik M. Cx36-mediated coupling

642   reduces β-cell heterogeneity, confines the stimulating glucose concentration range, and

643   affects insulin release kinetics. *Diabetes.* 2007;56(4):1078-86.

644   57.   Skelin Klemen M, Dolensek J, Slak Rupnik M, and Stozer A. The triggering pathway to

645   insulin secretion: Functional similarities and differences between the human and the

646   mouse β cells and their translational relevance. *Islets.* 2017;9(6):109-39.

647   58.   Gilon P, Jonas JC, and Henquin JC. Culture duration and conditions affect the

648   oscillations of cytoplasmic calcium concentration induced by glucose in mouse

649   pancreatic islets. *Diabetologia.* 1994;37(10):1007-14.

650   59.   Komatsu H, Cook C, Wang CH, Medrano L, Lin H, Kandeel F, et al. Oxygen

651   environment and islet size are the primary limiting factors of isolated pancreatic islet

652   survival. *PLoS One.* 2017;12(8):e0183780.

653   60.   Mizumoto H, Uchio H, Yamashita S, and Hata D. Transient neonatal hyperinsulinism

654   with adaptation disorders: a report of three cases. *J Pediatr Endocrinol Metab.*

655   2015;28(3-4):337-40.

656   61.   Hoe FM, Thornton PS, Wanner LA, Steinkrauss L, Simmons RA, and Stanley CA.

657   Clinical features and insulin regulation in infants with a syndrome of prolonged neonatal

658   hyperinsulinism. *J Pediatr.* 2006;148(2):207-12.

Figure 1

Figure 2

BCH

A

KCl

% Insulin release

Duration of perifusion (min)

→ P1 islets   ⊖ P14 islets

B

Tolbutamide

150

KCl

75

50

25

% Insulin release

Duration of perifusion (min)

→ P1 islets   ⊖ P14 islets

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6