

Understanding type 3c diabetes (or *Pancreatogenic Diabetes*)

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- Sanofi
- Viatris

What this session will cover

- What is Type 3c?
- Can patients be misclassified as type 1 or 2?
- How do you diagnose type 3c?
- How can we recognise these patients?
- Treating type 3c diabetes, what are the differences to type 1 and 2?

Definitions

Type 3c diabetes (also known as **pancreatogenic diabetes**) is diabetes that comes secondary to pancreatic diseases, involving the exocrine and digestive functions of the pancreas.

Gudipaty, Lalitha. Rickels, Michael R. (2015). Pancreatogenic (Type 3c) Diabetes.

[*Pancreapedia: Exocrine Pancreas Knowledge Base*](#),

DOI: [10.3998/panc.2015.35](https://doi.org/10.3998/panc.2015.35)

Pancreatic diabetes includes both structural and functional loss of glucose-normalizing insulin secretion in the context of exocrine pancreatic dysfunction.

- It is commonly misdiagnosed as type 2 diabetes
- Hyperglycemia due to general pancreatic dysfunction has been called “type 3c diabetes”

What are the causes?

- pancreatitis (acute and chronic)
- trauma or pancreatectomy
- neoplasia
- cystic fibrosis
- hemochromatosis
- fibrocalculous pancreatopathy
- rare genetic disorders
- idiopathic forms

.....as such, pancreatic diabetes is the preferred umbrella terminology

However, pancreatitis is the commonest cause

Pancreatitis, even a single bout, can lead to postpancreatitis diabetes mellitus (PPDM)

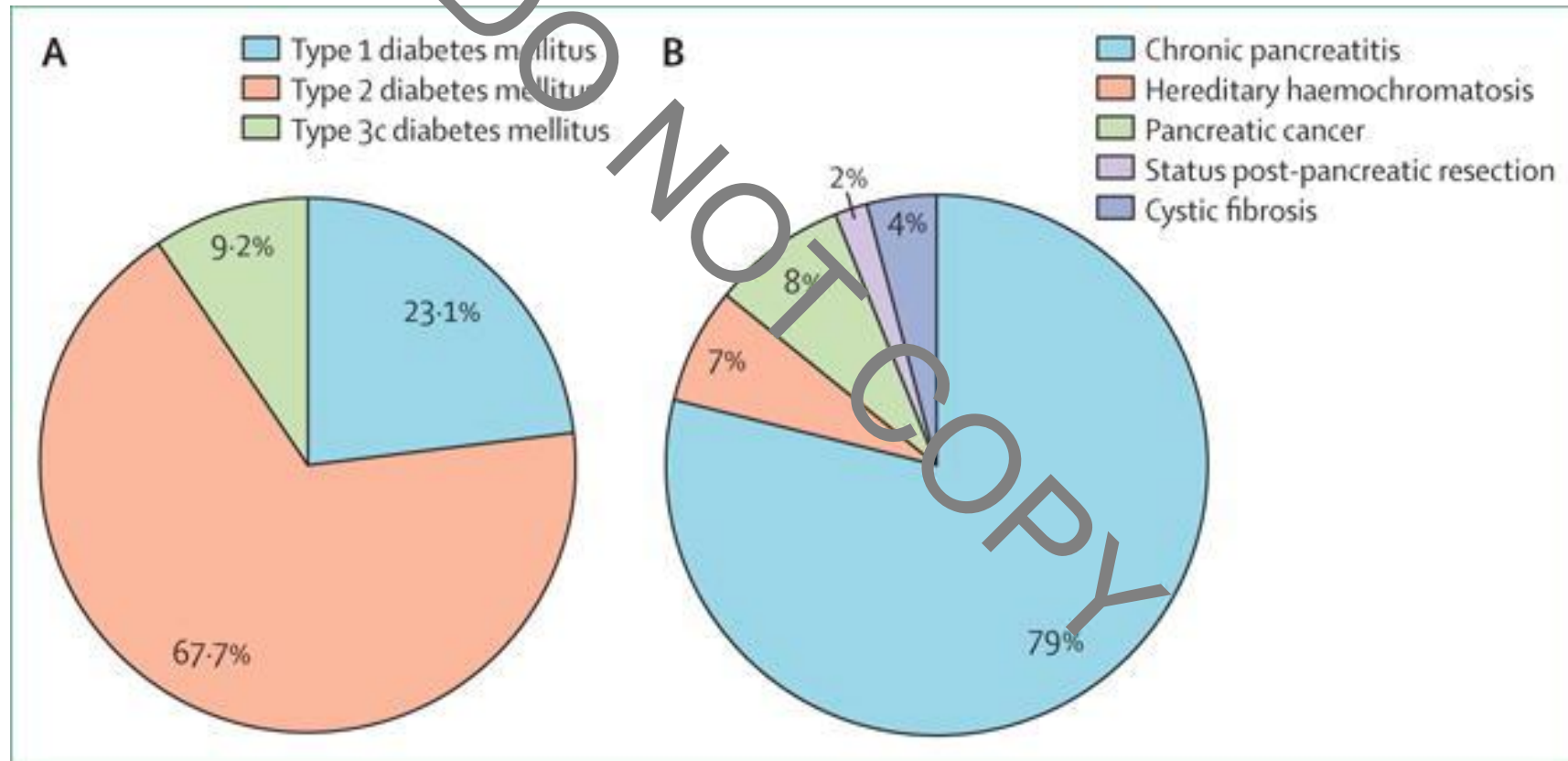
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graph TD; A[Pancreatitis, even a single bout, can lead to postpancreatitis diabetes mellitus (PPDM)] --> B[Both acute and chronic pancreatitis can lead to PPDM]; B --> C[the risk is highest with recurrent bouts];
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Both acute and chronic pancreatitis can lead to PPDM

the risk is highest with recurrent bouts

Prevalence and causes of type 3c diabetes mellitus

Prevalence of type 3c diabetes in a cohort of 1868 participants with diabetes



Incidence, Demographics, and Clinical Characteristics of Diabetes of the Exocrine Pancreas (Type 3c):

A Retrospective Cohort Study

31,789 new cases of adult onset diabetes were identified. Diabetes following pancreatic disease was more common than type 1 diabetes.

Diabetes following pancreatic disease is frequently labelled type 2 diabetes

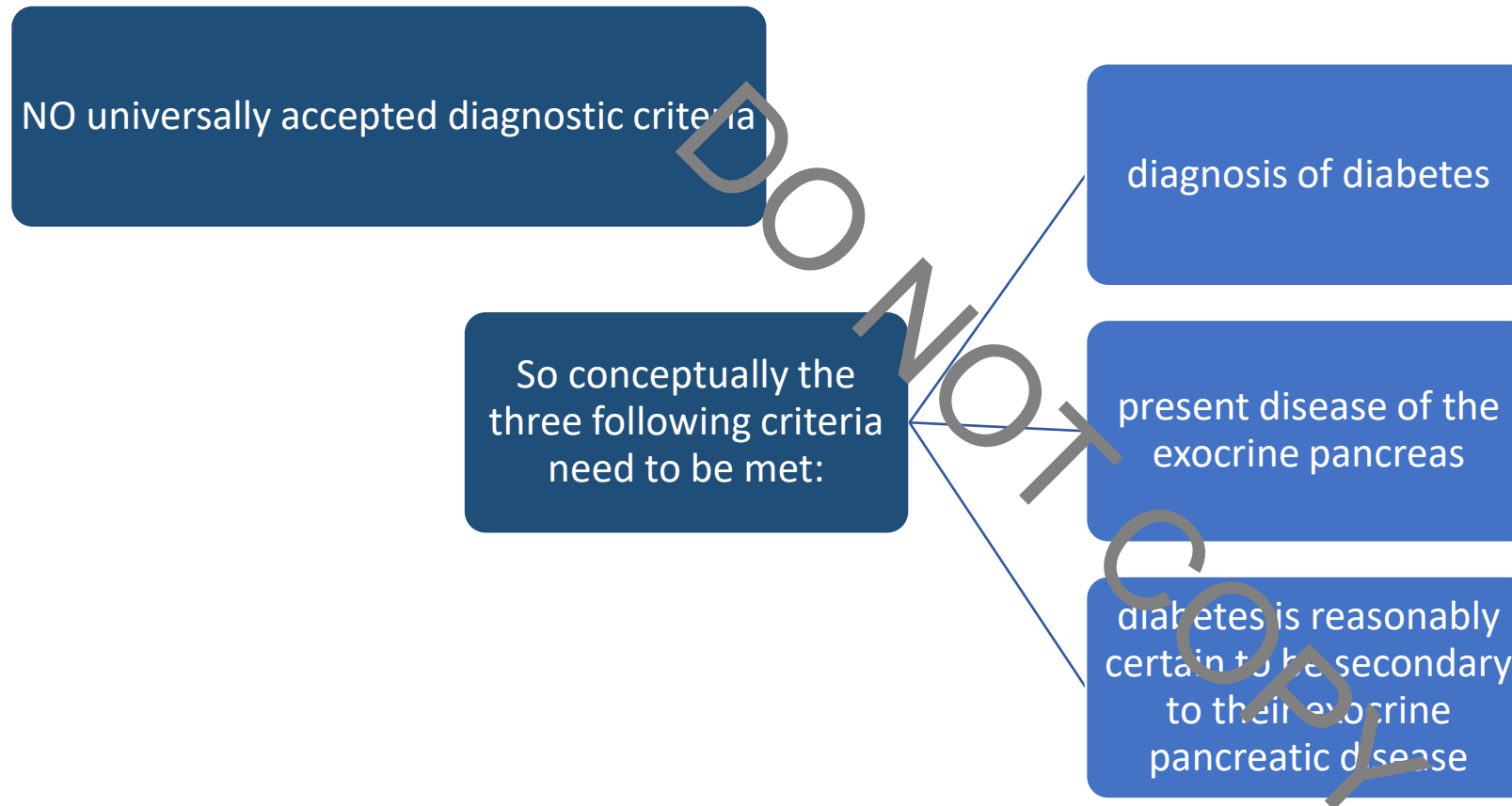
Only 2.7% of people with diabetes following pancreatic disease are diagnosed with 'diabetes of the exocrine pancreas', most (87.8%) patients were labelled type 2 diabetes

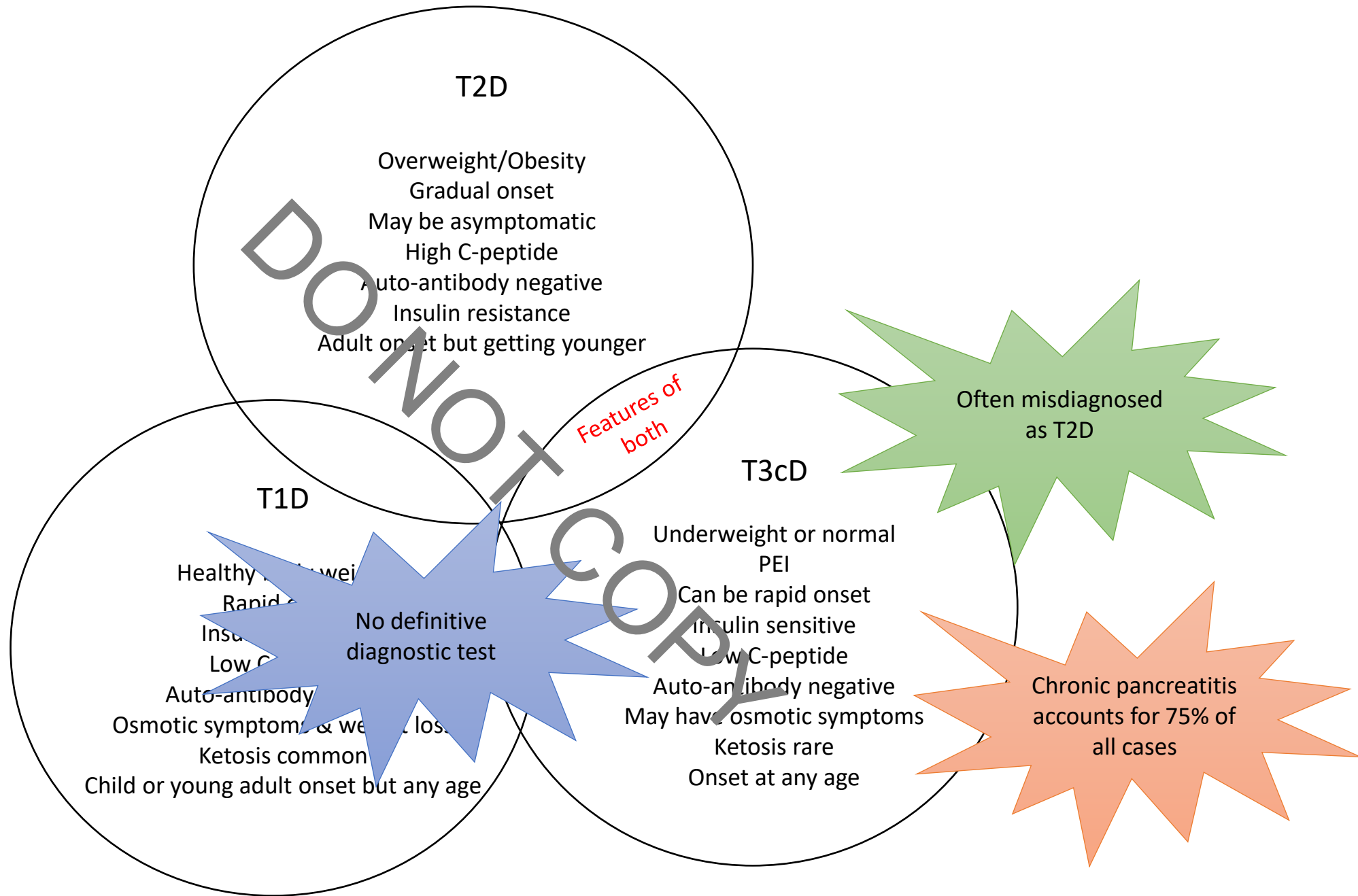
Clinicians should elicit whether a patient has any history of pancreatic disease when they first present with diabetes and consider the diagnosis of diabetes of the exocrine pancreas

How do you
diagnose type 3c?



How do we differentiate Pancreatic diabetes from type 1 or 2 diabetes?





So how do we do this?

A distinguishing feature is concurrent pancreatic exocrine insufficiency (defined by monoclonal faecal elastase 1 test or direct function tests)

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graph TD; A[A distinguishing feature is concurrent pancreatic exocrine insufficiency (defined by monoclonal faecal elastase 1 test or direct function tests)] --> B[Pathological pancreatic imaging (endoscopic ultrasound, MRI, computed tomography)]; B --> C[An absence of type 1 diabetes-associated autoimmunity];
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Pathological pancreatic imaging (endoscopic ultrasound, MRI, computed tomography)

An absence of type 1 diabetes-associated autoimmunity

Feacal Elastase-1 test



Feacal Elastase 1 (FE-1) usually repeated to ensure accuracy of result.

<100 mcg/g indicates severe PEI

<200 mcg/g indicates mild/moderate PEI

A value of 200-250 mcg/g is considered borderline with retesting recommended



FE-1 may be reduced in patients diagnosed with coeliac disease or IBS suggesting PEI may be the cause of symptoms in these patients or the patient may have both conditions

Be aware that this measure can be unreliable if the patient has very loose stools

If the patient has persistent, very loose stools, refer to GI services

How do we recognize these patients?

Distinguishing pancreatogenic diabetes from type 1 or type 2 diabetes^{4,8}

Clinical feature	Type 1 diabetes	Type 2 diabetes	Pancreatogenic diabetes
Age of onset of diabetes	Mainly children and young adults	Commonly adults >40 years	Chronic pancreatitis: usually >40 years Cystic fibrosis: usually <30 years Pancreatic resection: within 5 years of surgery
Presentation	Rapid onset, osmotic symptoms, DKA	Gradual onset, DKA rare	Can be rapid decompensation, DKA rare
Obesity	Uncommon	Common	Uncommon
Autoimmunity	Islet cell antibodies, other autoimmune diseases	Rare	Rare
Insulin levels (C-peptide)	Low	High	Low



Incidence, Demographics, and Clinical Characteristics of Diabetes of the Exocrine Pancreas (Type 3c): A Retrospective Cohort Study

Diabetes Care 2017;40:1486–1493 | <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc17-0542>

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Andrew P. McGovern,
Katherine A. McCullough,^{1,2}
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Ana C. Correa,¹ Piers A.C. Gatenby,^{1,3}
Simon A. Jones,^{1,4} and
Simon de Lusignan^{1,5}



Insulin use within 5 years was:

4.1% (3.8–4.4) with type 2 diabetes,

20.9% (14.6–28.9) with diabetes following acute pancreatitis

45.8% (34.2–57.9) with diabetes following chronic pancreatic disease.

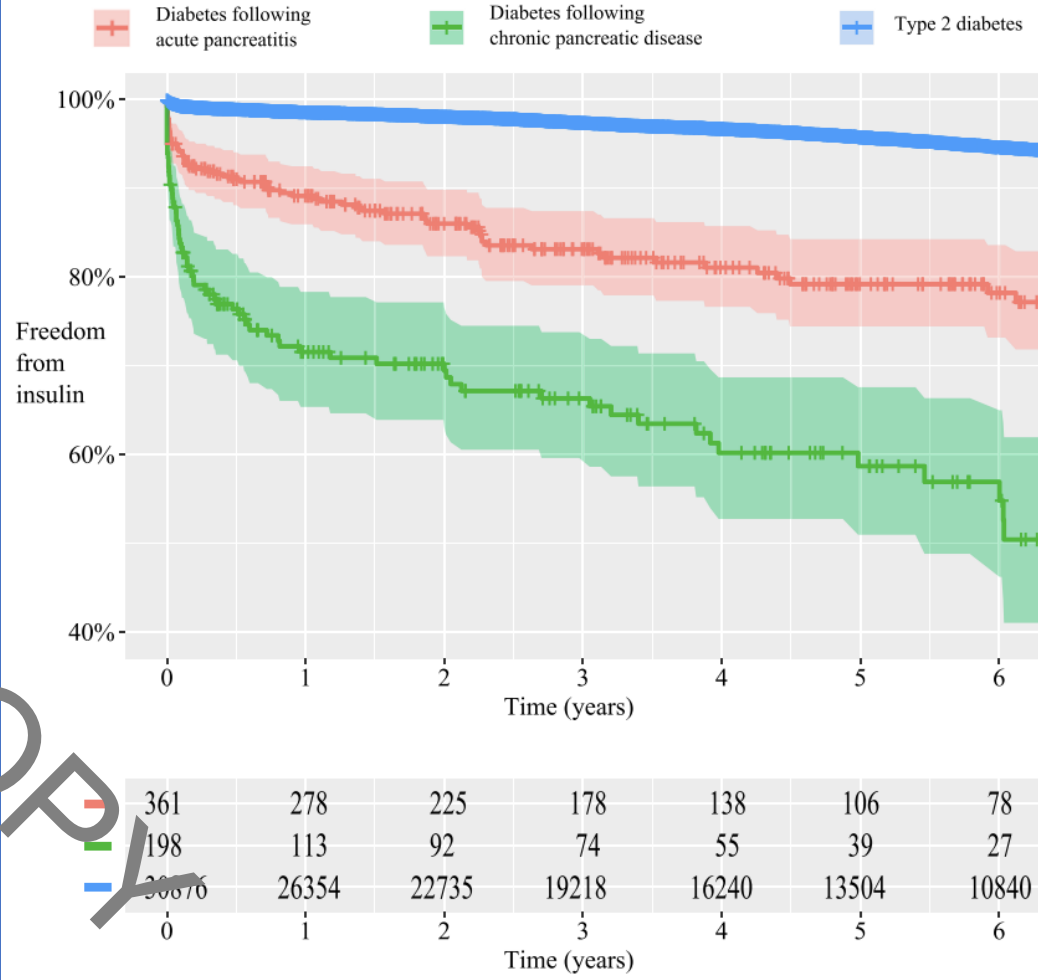
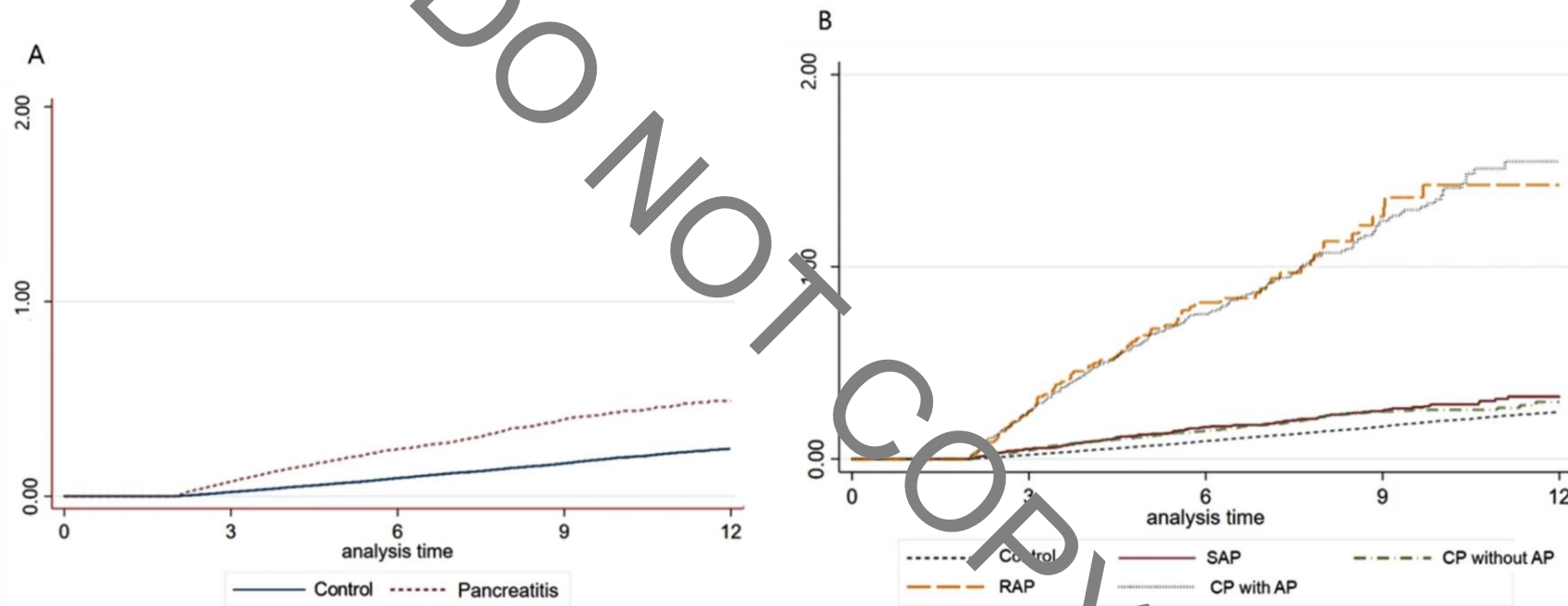


Figure 2—Kaplan-Meier curves of freedom from insulin use over time for type 2 diabetes, diabetes following acute pancreatitis, and diabetes following chronic pancreatic disease. The shaded areas represent the 95% CIs. Log-rank *P* for difference: *P* < 0.001. The table is the number of patients at risk over time.

Pancreatic cancer is a known complication of chronic pancreatitis and sometimes manifests with new onset diabetes.

From: [Incidence and risk of pancreatic cancer in patients with acute or chronic pancreatitis: a population-based cohort study](#)



Cumulative incidences of pancreatic cancer among patients with pancreatitis followed for more than 2 years and controls. (A) Comparison between pancreatitis and control groups. (B) Comparison among SAP, RAP, CP with AP, CP without AP and control groups. SAP, single episode of acute pancreatitis; RAP, recurrent acute pancreatitis; AP, acute pancreatitis; CP, chronic pancreatitis.

Treating type 3c diabetes, what are the difference to type 1 and 2?



Management

The evidence base to guide management of type 3c diabetes is weak and there are no specific guidelines.

Treatment goals are derived from randomised controlled trials from type 1 and type 2 diabetes, and expert opinion but include the following:

Diet and lifestyle

Reducing
cardiovascular risk

Glycaemic control

Exocrine issues

Type 3c diabetes

1.3.15 Assess people with type 3c diabetes every 6 months for potential benefit of

CVD risk reduction

Blood pressure
Lipids
Smoking cessation
Urine ACR

Nutrition

Specialist dietitian

Lifestyle

Alcohol
Smoking cessation
Physical activity

Metformin

if no contraindications

Insulin

Often needed due to insulin deficiency

Pioglitazone

Avoid in HF
Bladder cancer
Risk of fractures

SGLT-2 inhibitors

DKA risk
Little evidence

DPP4-inhibitors

Pancreatitis risk

Sulphonylurea

may be less effective dependent on beta cell function

GLP-1 RA

Pancreatitis risk
Appetite suppression
Weight loss

[2018, amended 2020]

The challenge of glucose management in type 3c

Glucose metabolism ranges from a mild impairment to a severe form characterised by frequent episodes of hypoglycemia, commonly referred to as 'brittle diabetes'.



Blood glucose control may be unstable due to:

the loss of glucagon
response to hypoglycemia,

carbohydrate
malabsorption

reduction in pancreatic
polypeptides leading to
reduced hepatic insulin
sensitivity and subsequent
increase in hepatic glucose
production.

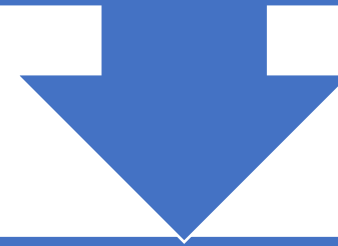
and/or inconsistent eating
patterns due to
concomitant pain

and/or nausea or chronic
alcohol abuse.

Alberti KGMM. Diabetes secondary to pancreatopathy: an example of brittle diabetes. In: Tiengo A, Alberti KGMM, Del Prato S, Vranic M (editors), editors. Diabetes Secondary to Pancreatopathy. Proceedings of the Post EASD International Symposium on Diabetes Secondary to Pancreatopathy, Padova, 21–22 September 1987, International Congress Series 762. Amsterdam: Excerpta Medica; 1988. p. 211–214

Exocrine issues

Malabsorption not only increases malnutrition, but it also presents problems for blood glucose management.



Pancreatic enzyme replacement therapy (PERT)

PERT can improve digestion of carbohydrates and increase glucose levels.

PERT may unmask diabetes in an individual with previously normal HbA1c.

Vitamin D supplements if proven deficiency. Consider investigations for osteoporosis.

Cui Y, Andersen DK (2011) Pancreatology 11: 279–94
Gudipaty L, Rickels M (2015) Pancreatogenic (Type 3c) Diabetes. APA: bit.ly/2No0Vtl
Makuc J (2016) Diabetes Metab Syndr Obes 9: 311–15
Gupte A et al (2018) BMJ 361: k2126
Duggan SN, Conlon KC (2017) Practical Gastroenterology 41: 14–23
Ewald N, Hardt PD (2103) World J Gastroenterology 19: 7276–81

Recommended Creon® (pancreatin) Dosing

KEY Successful Unsuccessful

Suggested follow-up timing
Week 0

Starting dose of Creon® minimicrospheres¹⁻³

 Main meal (300-600kcal)	2 x Creon[®] 10000 	 Snacks	1 x Creon[®] 35000 
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Explain why patients need to take Creon® with meals

What does unsuccessful look like?

- Symptoms of maldigestion including; abdominal pain, flatulence & diarrhoea.
- Lack of weight increase or continual weight loss despite good oral intake.
- Nutritional markers not improving despite good oral intake.

Recheck dietary intake and compliance

Instruct patients to increase dose and consider timing Titrated dose example⁹

 Main meal	4 x Creon[®] 10000 	 Snacks	2 x Creon[®] 35000 
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Ensure adequate acid suppression by use of PPI

Continue with current treatment

Week 12

Recheck dietary intake and check compliance

Instruct patients to increase dose and consider timing Titrated dose example⁹

 Main meal	5 x Creon[®] 10000 	 Snacks	3 x Creon[®] 35000 
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Continue with current treatment

Week 16

- Reconsider the diagnosis of pancreatic insufficiency
- Ensure effective acid suppression
- Check coeliac status
- Is biliary obstruction contributing?
- Increase dose again. If unsuccessful, consider alternative formulation



Creon® is indicated for the treatment of pancreatic exocrine insufficiency.

Capsules shown are not actual size.
Adapted from: Layer et al. *Current Gastroenterology Reports*. 2001; Lohr JM et al. *United European Gastroenterol J*. 2017; 5(2): 153-199.
Prescribing information: [see full prescribing information](#). CRE-2021-1087 Date of preparation: January 2022



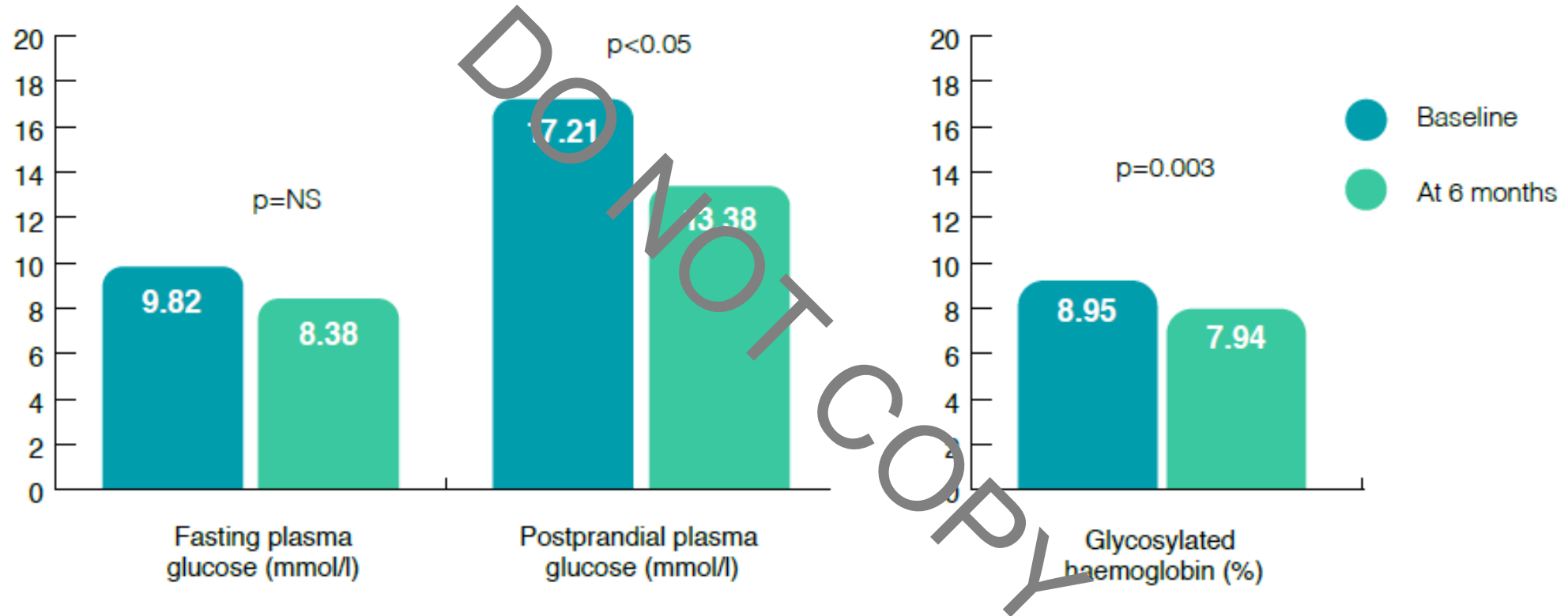
Glycaemic management

PERT can affect glycaemic control pathways via:

The altered action of the hormones leptin and incretins on glucose homeostasis; for example, it may improve the incretin response to food and consequently lower blood glucose levels

The patient's glycaemic response and blood glucose levels should be checked frequently during treatment as the dose of the diabetes medication may need adjusting (especially sulphonylureas and insulin)

Clinical study – Could PERT improve glycaemic control?



The improvement in diabetes control as shown by significant improvements in postprandial plasma glucose and HbA1c

HbA1c is reduced by 11 mmol/mol

For further advice



Recognition and management of pancreatogenic (type 3c) diabetes

At a glance factsheet

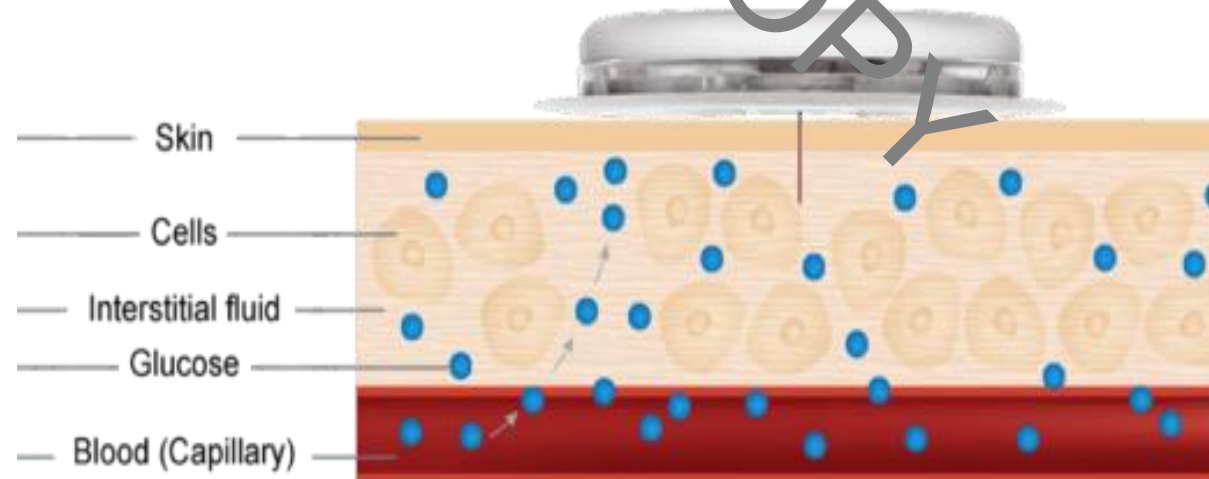


Morris D (2020) Recognition and management of pancreatogenic (type 3c) diabetes. *Diabetes & Primary Care* **22**:111–12

Does technology help
people living with type
3c diabetes?



Continuous glucose monitoring



Who is eligible for CGM in England or Wales?

Type 1 diabetes: NICE NG17

**Type 1
diabetes**

- ✓ All adults with type 1 diabetes
- ✓ All children and young people with type 1 diabetes
- ✓ Consider CGM for pregnant women who are on insulin therapy but do not have type 1 diabetes if:
 - ✓ Problematic severe hypoglycaemia (with or without impaired awareness of hypoglycaemia)
 - ✓ Unstable blood glucose levels that are causing concern despite efforts to optimise glycaemic control

Who is eligible for CGM in England or Wales?

Type 2 diabetes: NICE NG28

**Type 2
diabetes**

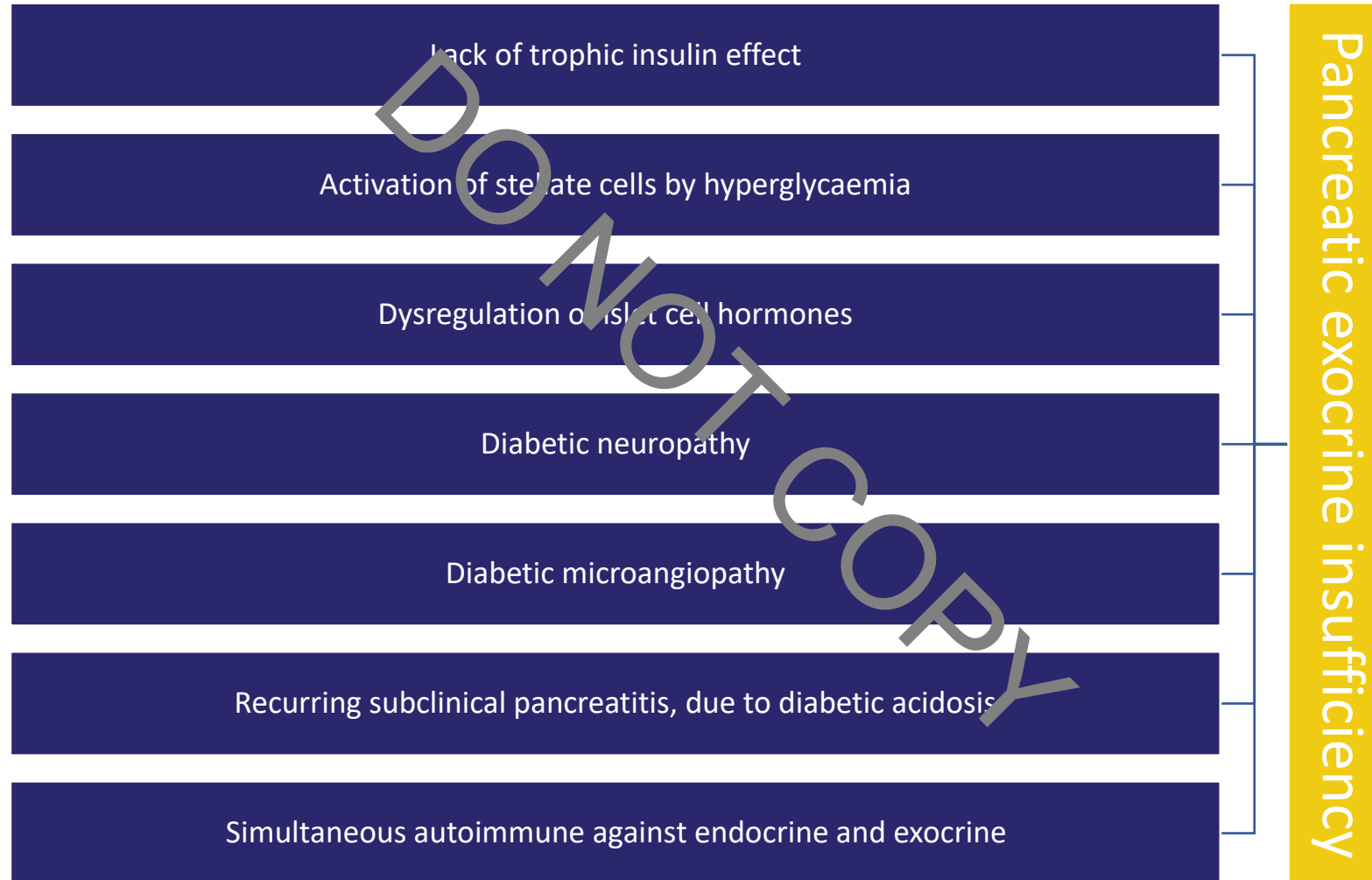
For adults with type 2 diabetes on multiple daily insulin injections if any of the following apply:

- ✓ Recurrent hypoglycaemia or severe hypoglycaemia
- ✓ Impaired hypoglycaemia awareness
- ✓ User would otherwise be advised to self-monitor capillary glucose at least 8 times a day
- ✓ A condition or disability (including a learning disability or cognitive impairment) that means the user cannot self-monitor capillary blood glucose but could use an isCGM device (or have it scanned for them) or could use rtCGM

Type 3c not to be
confused with Pancreatic
Exocrine Insufficiency in
Diabetes

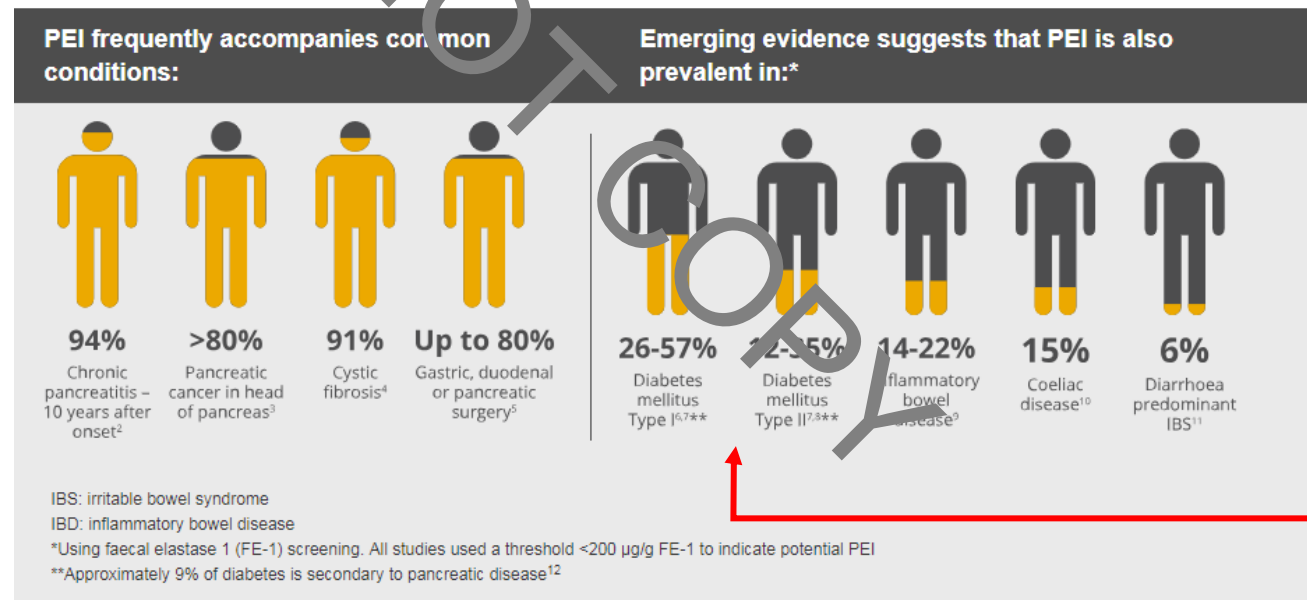


Pathophysiological concepts of PEI in DM



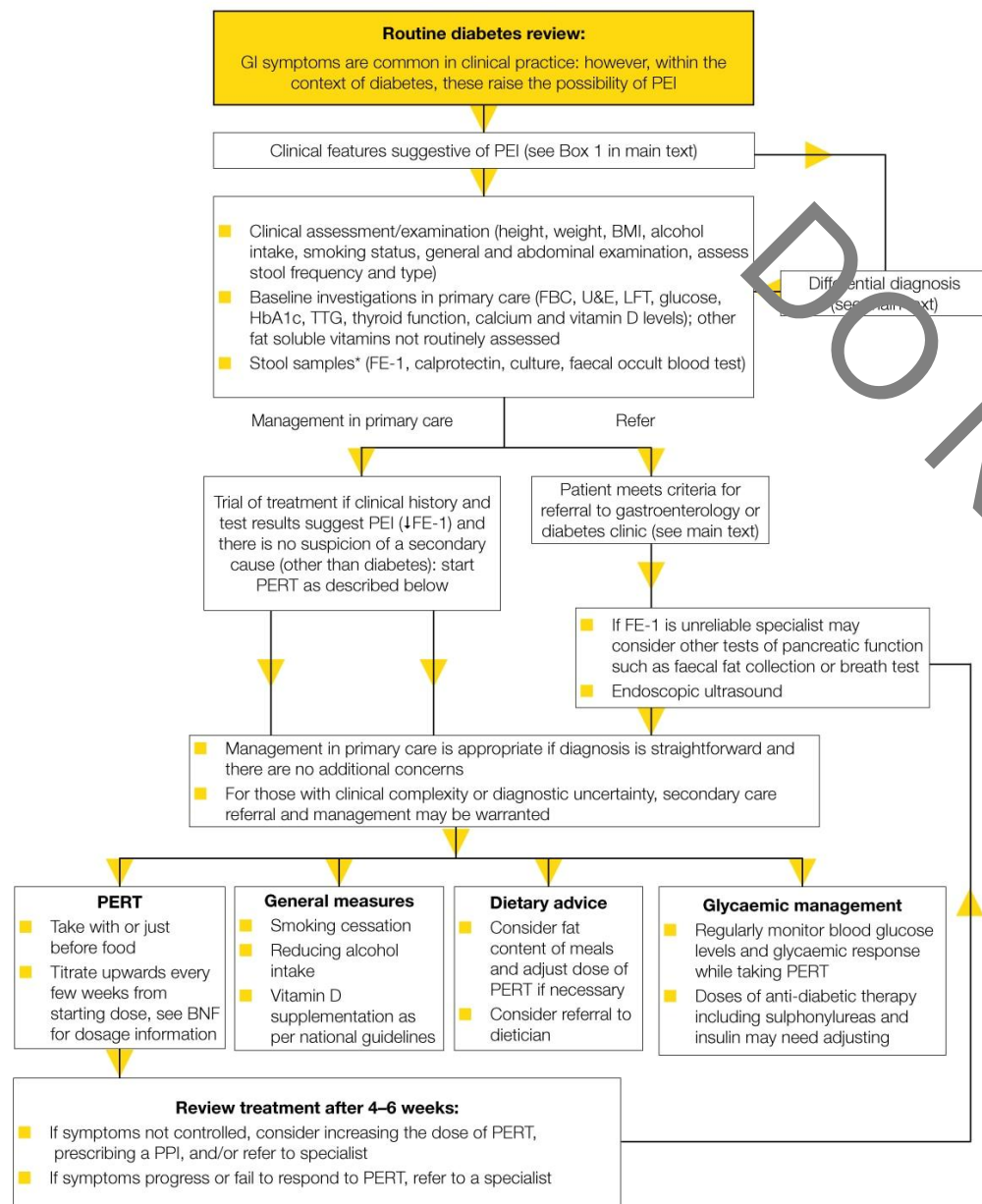
Pathophysiological concepts of PEI in DM

- The prevalence of PEI is reportedly higher in Type 1 DM than in T2DM
- Type 1 DM (26-57%) than in T2DM (20-36%) - *Singh V et al, World J Gastroenterol 2017*
- T1DM 38.62% vs T2DM 28.12% - *Mohapatra S et al, Pancreas 2016*



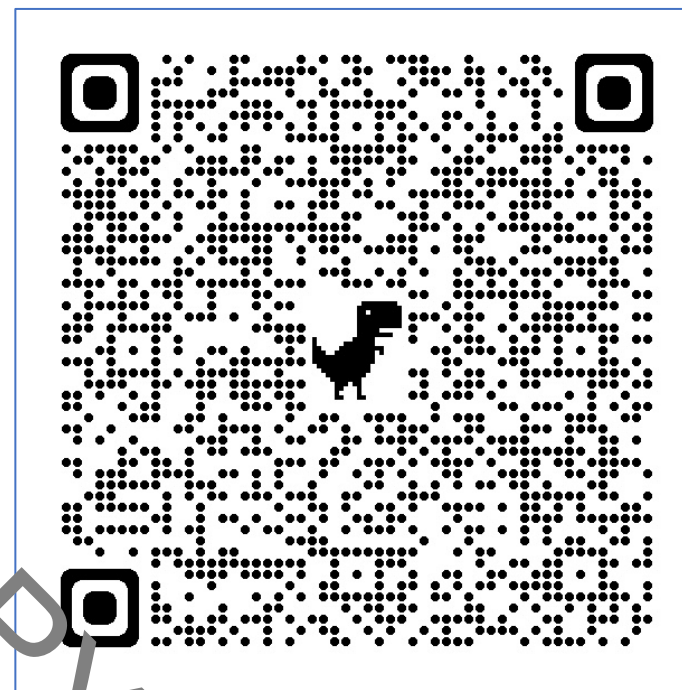
1. Icks A, Haastert B, Giani G, *et al.* Low fecal elastase-1 in type I diabetes mellitus. *Z Gastroenterol.* 2001;**39**:823-30.
2. Hardt PD, Krauss A, Bretz L, *et al.* Pancreatic exocrine function in patients with type 1 and type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Acta Diabetol.* 2000;**37**:105-10.
3. Rathmann W, Haastert B, Icks A, *et al.* Low faecal elastase 1 concentrations in type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Scand J Gastroenterol.* 2001;**36**:1056-61.

Use these figures for consistency



* FE-1 is an unreliable measure if the patient has very loose stools; elevated levels of calprotectin are suggestive of inflammatory bowel disease and warrant specialist referral

BMI=body mass index; FE-1=faecal elastase-1; FBC=full blood count; GI=gastrointestinal; HbA1c=haemoglobin A1c; LFT=liver function tests; PEI=pancreatic exocrine insufficiency; PERT=pancreatic enzyme replacement therapy; PPI=proton pump inhibitor; TTG=IgA tissue transglutaminase antibody; U&E=urea and electrolytes



Summary

- Type 3c diabetes is diabetes due to pancreatic damage, it is little recognised and often misdiagnosed
- Management of type 3c covers both endocrine and exocrine functionality
- Typically, glycaemic management is achieved with Metformin and insulin with glucose monitoring to avoid hypoglycaemia
- Exocrine management is achieved with enzyme replacement and vitamins

Thank you for listening, any
questions?

