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Genotype-histotype-phenotype correlations in hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia

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hypoglycemia syndrome, insulinoma, insulinomatosis, nesidioblastosis, mosaicism, histology, mutational

profiling.

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# **Abbreviations:**

BCNC, beta cell nuclear crowding; BWS, Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome; CHI, congenital hyperinsulinism; FAH, focal adenomatous hyperplasia; HH, hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia; GCK, glucokinase; GDH, glutamate dehydrogenase; GSIS, glucose-stimulated insulin secretion; HK-1, hexokinase 1; IHC, immunohistochemistry; MEN1, multiple endocrine neoplasia type 1; NET, neuroendocrine tumor; NI-PHHS, adult-onset non-insulinoma persistent hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia; pUPD, paternal uniparental disomy.

# **Abstract**

Hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia (HH) of pancreatic origin includes congenital hyperinsulinism (CHI), insulinoma, insulinomatosis, and adult-onset non-insulinoma persistent hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia syndrome (NI-PHHS). In this review, we describe the genotype-histotype-phenotype correlations in HH and their therapeutic implications.

CHI can occur from birth or later on in life. Histologically, diffuse CHI shows diffuse beta cell hypertrophy with a few giant nuclei per islet of Langerhans, most frequently caused by loss-of-function mutations in *ABCC8* or *KCNJ11*. Focal CHI is histologically characterized by focal adenomatous hyperplasia consisting of confluent hyperplastic islets, caused by a paternal *ABCC8/KCNJ11* mutation combined with paternal uniparental disomy of 11p15. CHI in Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome is caused by mosaic changes in the imprinting region 11p15.4-11p15.5, leading to segmental or diffuse overgrowth of endocrine tissue in the pancreas. Morphological mosaicism of pancreatic islets is characterized by occurence of hyperplastic (type 1) islets in one or a few lobules and small (type 2) islets in the entire pancreas. Other rare genetic causes of CHI show less characteristic or unspecific histology.

HH with a predominant adult onset includes insulinomas, which are pancreatic insulin-producing endocrine neoplasms, in some cases with metastatic potential. Insulinomas occur sporadically or as part of multiple

endocrine neoplasia type 1 due to *MEN1* mutations. *MAFA* mutations may histologically lead to insulinomatosis with insulin-producing neuroendocrine microadenomas or neuroendocrine neoplasms. NI-PHHS is mainly seen in adults and shows slight histological changes in some patients, which have been defined as major and minor criteria. The genetic cause is unknown in most cases. The diagnosis of HH, as defined by genetic, histological, and phenotypic features, has important implications for patient management and outcome.

# Introduction

The term hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia (HH) covers a broad disease spectrum that can be subdivided into primary HH, consisting of congenital hyperinsulinism (CHI), insulinoma, insulinomatosis, and adult-onset non-insulinoma persistent hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia syndrome (NI-PHHS), and secondary HH, related to maternal diabetes, perinatal stress in neonates, bariatric surgery, medication, autoimmune insulin/receptor disease, and Münchhausen by proxy (Cryer et al., 2009; Thornton et al., 2015).

CHI is a rare, heterogeneous disease with a prevalence of 1:28,000-1:50,000 in the general population (Yau *et al.*, 2020), with differences in genetics, clinical presentation, histology, and response to treatment. To date, CHI has been associated with mutations in at least 11 different genes: *ABCC8, GCK, GLUD1, HADH, HK1, HNF1A, HNF4A, INSR, KCNJ11, UCP2,* and *SLC16A1* (Rosenfeld *et al.*, 2019; Hewat *et al.*, 2022). CHI may be dominantly or recessively inherited or arise sporadically (Dunne *et al.*, 2004; De Franco *et al.*, 2020). Histologically, CHI is classified into two main well-described forms: diffuse and focal CHI. Besides, there are other rare histological forms and histological classification is not possible in approximately 5% of surgically treated patients (Sempoux *et al.*, 2003; Sempoux *et al.*, 2004; Snider *et al.*, 2013).

Mutations in *ABCC8* and *KCNJ11* on chromosome 11p15.1, encoding the Kir6.2 and SUR1 subunits of the K<sub>ATP</sub> channel, are the most common cause of severe CHI and, in large series, have been identified in 36-69% of patients (Kapoor *et al.*, 2013; Snider *et al.*, 2013). Activating mutations in *GLUD1* and *GCK* are the second and

third most common mutations in CHI, which lead to increased expression of glutamate dehydrogenase (GDH) and glucokinase (GCK), respectively (Glaser *et al.*, 1998; Stanley *et al.*, 1998; Kapoor *et al.*, 2013; Snider *et al.*, 2013). CHI is a feature of several syndromes, especially Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome (BWS) and Kabuki syndrome (Kostopoulou *et al.*, 2021; Hewat *et al.*, 2022).

CHI usually develops in the neonatal period and may cause severe and persistent hypoglycemia, or transient forms with spontaneous remission even in patients with or without perinatal stress (DeBaun *et al.*, 2000; Kapoor *et al.*, 2008; Kumaran *et al.*, 2010; Stanescu *et al.*, 2012). Rapid diagnosis and treatment are essential to prevent brain injury in both transient and persistent CHI (Avatapalle *et al.*, 2013; Rasmussen *et al.*, 2020B). Advances in the definition of the histological features, molecular genetics, imaging techniques, medical treatment, and surgery have radically changed the management and improved the outcome of patients with CHI, also based on a deeper pathophysiological understanding of the various subtypes of CHI.

Insulinoma is a rare cause of HH and is very rare in children, with the earliest onset at 3-4 years of age (Boley et al., 1960; Mann et al., 1969; Service et al., 1991; Padidela et al., 2014; Bhatti et al., 2016). This neuroendocrine tumor (NET) can spread locally and metastasize. Insulinomas may present as a part of multiple endocrine neoplasia type 1 (MEN1) syndrome, due to germline pathogenic genetic variants in *MEN1*. Clinical differential diagnoses of insulinoma include insulinomatosis (Anlauf et al., 2009), NI-PHHS (Service et al., 1999), insulin autoimmune syndrome (Church et al., 2018), and secondary causes of HH, such as bariatric surgery (Thompson et al., 2000).

In this review, we focus on the histological features of the different types of HH and their associated genetic changes, clinical characteristics, and treatment with an emphasis on genotype-histotype-phenotype correlations. The following topics will be covered: K<sub>ATP</sub> channel diffuse CHI and K<sub>ATP</sub> channel focal CHI, GCK-CHI, GDH-CHI, BWS-CHI, mosaic CHI, insulinoma, insulinomatosis, and NI-PHHS. A comprehensive overview of the different entities is shown in Table 1.

#### Nesidioblastosis

Historically, the term "nesidioblastosis" was linked to HH in neonates and infants (Laidlaw, 1938; Yakovac et al., 1971; Jaffe et al., 1980). Nesidioblastosis is defined as single or small packets of 2-6 beta cells scattered in the walls of small ducts or between acini. This morphological change was later interpreted as a main histological feature of the two major histological forms of CHI, denoted diffuse and focal nesidioblastosis (Goossens et al., 1989). However, nesidioblastosis is present in both diffuse and focal CHI as well as in normoglycemic, age-matched controls (Rahier et al., 1981, 1984; Sempoux et al., 1995; Suchi et al., 2003). Hence, the morphological feature of nesidioblastosis is neither sensitive nor specific for infants with CHI (Rahier et al., 1981, 1984; Sempoux et al., 1995; Suchi et al., 2003). The term nesidioblastosis should, consequently, only be used in its histological meaning and not as the name for a disease entity.

# Different forms of hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia

# **K**<sub>ATP</sub> channel diffuse CHI

#### Genetic and clinical findings of KATP channel diffuse CHI

K<sub>ATP</sub> channel diffuse CHI is, per definition, associated with biallelic recessive (homozygous or compound heterozygous) or monoallelic dominant loss-of-function (LOF) variants in the K<sub>ATP</sub> channel genes *ABCC8* and *KCNJ11* (Kapoor *et al.*, 2013; Snider *et al.*, 2013; De Franco *et al.*, 2020). The homozygous, recessive K<sub>ATP</sub> channel mutations are associated with unresponsiveness to diazoxide, which targets SUR1 (Gribble *et al.*, 1997; Shyng *et al.*, 1997; Flanagan et al., 2011a; Rasmussen, *et al.*, 2020a). In a large series of patients with diazoxide-unresponsive CHI, 41% had germline mutations in *ABCC8* or *KCNJ11* (Snider *et al.*, 2013). Patients with compound heterozygous pathogenic variants may sometimes be responsive to diazoxide (Dekel *et al.*, 2002). Patients with biallelic K<sub>ATP</sub> channel mutations typically have early, neonatal onset of severe CHI with a high risk of neurodevelopmental impairment if not promptly diagnosed and managed (Helleskov *et al.*, 2017; Lord, 2019; Banerjee *et al.*, 2022). Dominant LOF variants usually result in a milder form of diffuse CHI (Huopio *et al.*, 2000; Thornton *et al.*, 2003; Pinney *et al.*, 2008; Kapoor *et al.*, 2011; Oçal *et al.*, 2011). However, the

phenotypes overlap, and variable penetrance and responsiveness to diazoxide have been reported for specific variants of *ABCC8* and *KCNJ11*, even in transient diffuse CHI (Otonkoski *et al.*, 1999; Thornton *et al.*, 2003; Pinney *et al.*, 2008; Kumaran *et al.*, 2010; Flanagan, *et al.*, 2011b; Kapoor *et al.*, 2011; Macmullen *et al.*, 2011; Oçal *et al.*, 2011; Nessa *et al.*, 2015). The K<sub>ATP</sub> channel LOF mutations disrupt the glucose-stimulated insulin secretion (GSIS) pathway with resultant unregulated hypersecretion of insulin from the beta cells.

# Histological findings in K<sub>ATP</sub> channel diffuse CHI

In K<sub>ATP</sub> channel diffuse CHI, the pancreas does not present gross abnormalities. The number and size of islets are typically normal (Fig. 1A-B). Microscopically, the key finding is beta cell hypertrophy and nuclear enlargement of one or a few single cells per islet of Langerhans (Fig. 1C-D) (Rahier *et al.*, 1984, 1998; Witte *et al.*, 1984; Goossens *et al.*, 1989; Sempoux *et al.*, 1995; Solcia *et al.*, 1997; Sempoux *et al.*, 1998a; Klöppel *et al.*, 1999). Hence, K<sub>ATP</sub> channel diffuse CHI is characterized by giant cell nuclei or nucleomegaly (Rahier *et al.*, 1984, 1998; Witte *et al.*, 1984; Goossens *et al.*, 1989; Sempoux *et al.*, 1995; Solcia *et al.*, 1997; Sempoux *et al.*, 1998b; Klöppel *et al.*, 1999; Han *et al.*, 2016). Nucleomegaly is usually present in 60–70% of islets of Langerhans or more (Rahier *et al.*, 1998; Han *et al.*, 2016).

# Morphometric and immunohistochemical studies of K<sub>ATP</sub> channel diffuse CHI

Morphometric studies show large beta cells with abundant cytoplasm and abnormally large nuclei of up to 19 µm in diameter, compared with nuclei with a mean diameter of 5-6 µm in normal beta cells. The islets of Langerhans show no endocrine cell proliferation and normal proportions and spatial organization of endocrine cell types (Witte *et al.*, 1984; Goossens *et al.*, 1989; Sempoux *et al.*, 1995; Klöppel *et al.*, 1999). The hypertrophied beta cells with giant nuclei have large Golgi areas indicating hyper-functional activity, supported by high expression of proinsulin. Insulin labeling is, however, very low due to the great uncontrolled hypersecretion of insulin (Klöppel *et al.*, 1999; Rahier *et al.*, 2011).

# Treatment of K<sub>ATP</sub> channel diffuse CHI

After emergency treatment to correct hypoglycemia, diazoxide is the first-line treatment for diffuse CHI with an effect in 50-60% of patients (Salomon-Estebanez *et al.*, 2016; van der Steen *et al.*, 2018; Brar *et al.*, 2020; Lord and De León, 2020). In diazoxide-unresponsive patients, somatostatin agonists may be effective (Arnoux *et al.*, 2010; Arnoux *et al.*, 2011; Le Quan Sang *et al.*, 2012; Demirbilek *et al.*, 2014; Welters *et al.*, 2015; Salomon-Estebanez *et al.*, 2016; Lord and De León, 2020). Long-acting somatostatin analogs, such as octreotide long-acting release or lanreotide, are increasingly used for the treatment of diffuse CHI (van der Steen *et al.*, 2018; Dastamani *et al.*, 2019).

In case of surgery, leading centers recommend biopsies from the head, body, and tail of the pancreas for intraoperative frozen section analysis to confirm diffuse type CHI before proceeding to subtotal pancreatectomy (Adzick *et al.*, 2019). Subtotal pancreatic resection has been performed and is still being widely used in some centers, but often leads to diabetes and sometimes to exocrine pancreatic insufficiency (malabsorption) at long-term follow-up (Lovvorn *et al.*, 1999; Meissner *et al.*, 2003; Beltrand *et al.*, 2012; Arya *et al.*, 2014; Lord *et al.*, 2015; Rasmussen *et al.*, 2020a). This has prompted experimental therapies with other drugs such as sirolimus and nifedipine, which, however, are largely ineffective (Durmaz *et al.*, 2014; Senniappan *et al.*, 2014; Banerjee *et al.*, 2017; Sikimic *et al.*, 2020). More recently, trials with novel drugs such as glucagon analogs, insulin receptor antibodies, and GLP-1 receptor agonists have been conducted (Calabria *et al.*, 2012; Lord and De León, 2020; Sikimic *et al.*, 2020), providing hope for future management.

#### **KATP** channel focal CHI

# Genetic and clinical findings in K<sub>ATP</sub> channel focal CHI

K<sub>ATP</sub> channel focal CHI is associated with a genetic two-hit etiology with a paternal, recessively inherited heterozygous disease-causing mutation in *ABCC8* or *KCNJ11*, combined with somatic loss of the maternal allele in the 11p15.5 region (de Lonlay *et al.*, 1997; Ryan *et al.*, 1998; Verkarre *et al.*, 1998; de Lonlay-Debeney *et al.*, 1999; Glaser *et al.*, 1999; Fournet *et al.*, 2001; Snider *et al.*, 2013). Somatic mitotic recombination of

11p15.5 results in duplication of the paternal allele leading to homozygosity of the mutated ABCC8/KCNJ11 locus and paternal uniparental disomy (pUPD) for all genes telomeric to ABCC8/KCNJ11 (Damaj et al., 2008). In the imprinting region 11p15.5, only the maternal allele expresses the tumor suppressor CDKN1C encoding the protein p57 and the long non-coding RNA H19, whereas the paternal allele expresses IGF2 encoding insulin-like growth factor 2 (IGF2), which has proliferative and anti-apoptotic effects (Petrik et al., 1998, 1999). The imbalance of expressed growth/tumor suppressor genes leads to focal CHI (de Lonlay et al., 1997; Ryan et al., 1998; Verkarre et al., 1998; Fournet et al., 2001; Damaj et al., 2008). Detailed studies have shown varying recombination breakpoints and upregulation of the growth promoter gene ASCL2 and other pancreatic transcription factors (Giurgea et al., 2006a; Wieland et al., 2022). The combination of focal overgrowth and hypersecretion of insulin leads to the histological features of  $K_{ATP}$  channel focal CHI.  $K_{ATP}$ channel focal CHI is found in approximately 50% of diazoxide-unresponsive CHI patients, however, with a variable prevalence of 17–65% in different studies (Bellanné-Chantelot et al., 2010; Kapoor et al., 2013; Lord et al., 2013; Snider et al., 2013; Adzick et al., 2019). The positive predictive value of a monoallelic, paternal K<sub>ATP</sub> channel mutation in a child with diazoxide-unresponsive CHI is 94% for the diagnosis of focal CHI with a sensitivity of 97%, as de novo KATP channel mutations on the paternal allele are also observed (Suchi et al., 2006; Snider et al., 2013). K<sub>ATP</sub> channel focal CHI presents within the first days of life and is usually, but not always, diazoxide-unresponsive (Ismail et al., 2012; Maiorana et al., 2014). The risk of KATP channel focal CHI in offspring of paternal K<sub>ATP</sub> channel mutation carriers has been estimated to 1:540 (Glaser et al., 2011). Consequently, families with more than one child with focal CHI are very rare (Ismail et al., 2011). Likewise, siblings with focal and diffuse CHI are exceedingly rare (Valayannopoulos et al., 2007; Ismail et al., 2011).

## Terminology

In the literature of the past 60-70 years, K<sub>ATP</sub> channel focal CHI has been referred to by many different names: Congenital islet cell adenoma (Buist *et al.*, 1971), islet cell adenomatosis (Schwartz and Zwiren, 1971), islet-cell adenoma (Baerentsen, 1973), focal islet cell adenomatosis (Klöppel *et al.*, 1975), congenital insulinoma

(Carney, 1976), pancreatic adenomas with nesidioblastosis (Dahms *et al.*, 1976), mixed islet-acinar adenomas, (Scully *et al.*, 1978), neonatal islet cell adenoma (Bordi *et al.*, 1982), focal nesidioblastosis (Goossens *et al.*, 1989), focal islet hyperplasia (Stanley, 1997), focal adenoma (Ryan *et al.*, 1998), focal adenomatous hyperplasia (FAH) (Rahier *et al.*, 1998), focal hyperinsulinism (de Lonlay-Debeney *et al.*, 1999), focal islet cell adenomatous hyperplasia (Fournet *et al.*, 2001), focal nodular adenomatosis (Smith *et al.*, 2001), focal adenomatous islet-cell hyperplasia (Crétolle *et al.*, 2002), focal persistent hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia of infancy (FoPHHI) (Sempoux *et al.*, 2003), focal beta cell hyperfunction (Kaczirek and Niederle, 2004), and focal beta cell hyperrlasia (Ouyang *et al.*, 2011). We prefer the histological term focal adenomatous hyperplasia (of endocrine cells) for the lesion that defines K<sub>ATP</sub> channel focal CHI.

# Histological and immunohistochemical findings in KATP channel focal CHI

Focal CHI can arise anywhere in the pancreas, sometimes protruding from the pancreatic surface, and may even occur in ectopic pancreatic tissue (Jaffe *et al.*, 1982; Goossens *et al.*, 1989; de Lonlay-Debeney *et al.*, 1999; Klöppel *et al.*, 1999; Hussain *et al.*, 2006; Delonlay *et al.*, 2007; Christiansen *et al.*, 2018; Longnecker, 2021). The focal lesion is often macroscopically invisible and impalpable (Rahier *et al.*, 1998; Sempoux, Guiot, Lefevre, *et al.*, 1998; de Lonlay-Debeney *et al.*, 1999).

Microscopically, focal CHI is characterized by a FAH consisting of endocrine cells (Fig. 2A). The lesion is sometimes circular or ellipsoid, measuring from 2.5 to 13 mm, and consists of confluent hyperplastic islets (Fig. 2B-D) (Klöppel *et al.*, 1975; Dahms *et al.*, 1976; Jaffe *et al.*, 1980; Bordi *et al.*, 1982; Goudswaard *et al.*, 1986; Goossens *et al.*, 1989; Solcia *et al.*, 1997; Rahier *et al.*, 1998; Sempoux *et al.*, 1998b; de Lonlay-Debeney *et al.*, 1999; Klöppel *et al.*, 1999; Mohnike *et al.*, 2014; Bendix *et al.*, 2018; Bjarnesen *et al.*, 2021). At their periphery, a thin rim of acinar cells and/or ducts, or strands of connective tissue, are present (Fig. 2D) (Klöppel *et al.*, 1975; Dahms *et al.*, 1976; Shermeta *et al.*, 1980; Bordi *et al.*, 1982; Witte *et al.*, 1984; Goossens *et al.*,

1989; Solcia *et al.*, 1997; Rahier *et al.*, 1998; de Lonlay-Debeney *et al.*, 1999; Klöppel *et al.*, 1999; Sempoux *et al.*, 2003).

The limits of the focal lesions are sometimes ill-defined (Klöppel *et al.*, 1975; Dahms *et al.*, 1980; Klöppel and Heitz, 1984; Witte *et al.*, 1984; Goossens *et al.*, 1989; Solcia *et al.*, 1997; Sempoux *et al.*, 2003), however, a lobular structure of the area in the pancreas harboring them is maintained (Rahier *et al.*, 1998; de Lonlay-Debeney *et al.*, 1999; Sempoux *et al.*, 2003).

Cragie et al. observed differences at the periphery of the lesions in a study of 25 surgical specimens (Craigie *et al.*, 2018). In 28% of the cases, the focal lesion projected into adjoining normal pancreatic tissue without clear delineation from normal tissue. In these cases, severe hypoglycemia was detected within a few days following birth. In the remaining patients, the FAH was encapsulated within a defined matrix capsule. These findings remain to be confirmed by others. Occasionally, multiple adjacent lobules are involved (Delonlay *et al.*, 2007). Like normal islets of Langerhans, beta cells comprise the main endocrine cell type in focal CHI, but at their periphery, also alpha, delta, and gamma cells are found (Dahms *et al.*, 1980; Goossens *et al.*, 1989; Rahier *et al.*, 1998; Klöppel *et al.*, 1999; Sempoux *et al.*, 2003).

# Morphometric and immunohistochemical studies of K<sub>ATP</sub> channel focal CHI

Early investigations by morphometry and immunohistochemistry (IHC) revealed the presence of alpha, beta, delta, and gamma cells within the lesion (Jaffe *et al.*, 1980; Bordi *et al.*, 1982; Klöppel and Heitz, 1984; Witte *et al.*, 1984; Goossens *et al.*, 1991; Solcia *et al.*, 1997; Sempoux *et al.*, 2003). About 80-90% of cells, including hypertrophied cells, are beta cells (Fig. 2B) (Klöppel *et al.*, 1975; Jaffe *et al.*, 1982; Witte *et al.*, 1984; Goossens *et al.*, 1989; Solcia *et al.*, 1997). In normal infants, the beta cell population accounts for ~50%, alpha cells for ~20%, and delta cells for ~30% (Fig. 2C) (Rahier *et al.*, 1981; Stefan *et al.*, 1983).

Nucleomegaly was quantified in the FAH with high-content analysis of the volume of the nuclei using transmission electron microscopy data (Han *et al.*, 2016). Nucleomegaly was sometimes present, but eight

times less frequently compared with diffuse CHI (Han *et al.*, 2016), in keeping with previous findings of a lower frequency of large nuclei in focal vs. diffuse CHI (Rahier *et al.*, 1998; Sempoux *et al.*, 1998b).

Sempoux et al. used IHC double staining of the cellular proliferation marker Ki-67 and insulin for measuring the mean beta cell labeling index, defined as the number of Ki-67 labeled beta cell nuclei per 1000 beta cell nuclei. The mean beta cell labeling index was four times higher in the focal lesion compared with islets of Langerhans in age-matched controls (Sempoux *et al.*, 1998a). A similar beta cell proliferation rate study was performed by Kassem et al. with almost identical results (Kassem *et al.*, 2000). The maternally expressed protein cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 1C (CDKN1C), also known as p57 or Kip2, is consistently absent in the FAH, following the pUPD genetic changes in the lesion (Kassem *et al.*, 2001; Sempoux *et al.*, 2003; Suchi *et al.*, 2006; Mohnike *et al.*, 2014).

SUR1, encoded by *ABCC8*, is expressed significantly less on the beta cell surface in focal CHI compared with endocrine cells outside the lesion (Sempoux *et al.*, 2003), compatible with the variable failure of mutated K<sub>ATP</sub> channels to either synthesize, mature, assemble, traffick, or reach the beta cell surface (Dunne *et al.*, 2004). IHC double staining of proinsulin and insulin revealed that the hyper-functional beta cells in focal CHI have a large Golgi proinsulin/beta cell area, with strong proinsulin labeling, but relatively few insulin granules and low insulin labeling (Sempoux *et al.*, 1995, 2003), as compared with diffuse CHI. A significant increase in apoptosis was found in FAH compared with age-matched controls (Kassem *et al.*, 2000). In keeping with these findings, rare patients with suggested K<sub>ATP</sub> channel focal CHI not subjected to surgery had spontaneous clinical remission at follow-up (Yorifuji *et al.*, 2011).

## Changes in islets outside the focal adenomatous hyperplasia

In many centers performing surgery on patients with CHI, biopsies from different portions of the pancreas are submitted for frozen section analysis to distinguish between focal and diffuse K<sub>ATP</sub> channel CHI (Adzick *et al.*, 2004; Suchi *et al.*, 2004; Barthlen, 2011; Adzick *et al.*, 2019). For these reasons, it is relevant to be familiar with the histological appearance of the pancreas, not only inside but also outside the FAH. Beta cell nuclear

crowding (BCNC) is defined as the number of beta cell nuclei per 1,000  $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup> of beta cell cytoplasm. A BCNC above 12 was indicative of insular beta cells outside the FAH in K<sub>ATP</sub> channel focal CHI compared with islets from age-matched controls and K<sub>ATP</sub> channel diffuse CHI (Sempoux *et al.*, 1998b, 2003). The mean radius of the 50 largest beta cell nuclei was below 3.70  $\mu$ m outside the FAH in K<sub>ATP</sub> channel focal CHI and almost always higher in K<sub>ATP</sub> channel diffuse CHI (Sempoux *et al.*, 1998b).

# Phenotypic diversity of K<sub>ATP</sub> channel focal CHI

Rare variants of K<sub>ATP</sub> channel focal CHI include multifocal CHI, which is believed to develop due to two or more separate somatic maternal deletions of the 11p15 region in the same patient (Giurgea *al.*, 2006a; Craigie *et al.*, 2018; Ni *et al.*, 2019; Rosenfeld *et al.*, 2021). Moreover, focal-extensive lesions may reach a size greater than 3 cm (Ismail *et al.*, 2012; Kühnen *et al.*, 2014), or even occupy the entire pancreas (Fig. 3) (Giurgea *et al.*, 2006a; Suchi *et al.*, 2006; Rahier *et al.*, 2011; Ismail *et al.*, 2012; Barthlen *et al.*, 2016). The size of the FAH is believed to relate closely to the time of the second somatic hit in the embryonic development of the pancreas, where early somatic 11p15 maternal deletions will lead to larger focal lesions.

# Treatment of focal CHI

Focal CHI can be cured by resection of the lesion. Preoperative <sup>18</sup>F-DOPA-PET (PET/CT) imaging (Mohnike *et al.*, 2006; Otonkoski *et al.*, 2006; Laje *et al.*, 2013b; Christiansen *et al.*, 2018) is today imperative to localize focal lesions before surgery. If a focal lesion is not macroscopically identified, intraoperative frozen section analysis may be helpful to localize focal lesions (Adzick *et al.*, 2004; Suchi *et al.*, 2004; Barthlen, 2011; Adzick *et al.*, 2019). In many centers, piecemeal resection with multiple frozen sections is used (Suchi *et al.*, 2004; Barthlen *et al.*, 2010; Barthlen, 2011; Pierro and Nah, 2011; Zobel *et al.*, 2020). At our and other centers, intraoperative ultrasound is frequently used to localize small focal lesions (Adzick *et al.*, 2004; Bendix *et al.*, 2018; Adzick *et al.*, 2019; Bjarnesen *et al.*, 2021). Rare patients with focal CHI have been managed conservatively with later spontaneous clinical remission, as suggested by 18F-DOPA PET/CT (Mazor-

Aronovitch *et al.*, 2007; Yorifuji *et al.*, 2011). Despite curing HH in focal CHI, neurodevelopmental impairment is still frequently observed, mostly due to late diagnosis and insufficient early treatment.

#### **GCK-CHI**

#### Genetic and clinical findings in GCK-CHI

Glucokinase is an enzyme encoded by the *GCK* gene that acts as a glucose sensor in the GSIS pathway and facilitates the phosphorylation of glucose to glucose-6-phosphate (Campbell and Newgard, 2021). Gain-of-function (GOF) mutations in *GCK* lead to a lowered glucose threshold for GSIS with resultant HH (Glaser *et al.*, 1998; Christesen *et al.*, 2002). GCK-CHI may be inherited in a dominant pattern (Glaser *et al.*, 1998; Christesen *et al.*, 2002; Gloyn *et al.*, 2003; Dullaart *et al.*, 2004; Barbetti *et al.*, 2009; Kassem *et al.*, 2010; Martínez *et al.*, 2017; Ping *et al.*, 2019) or occur *de novo* (Cuesta-Muñoz *et al.*, 2004; Meissner *et al.*, 2009; Sayed *et al.*, 2009; Martínez *et al.*, 2017; Ping *et al.*, 2019). To date, at least 17 GOF position variants of *GCK* causing GCK-CHI have been described (Langer *et al.*, 2021). The prevalence of GCK-CHI is estimated at 2% of all patients with CHI (Christesen *et al.*, 2008b; Snider *et al.*, 2013). The clinical picture of GCK-CHI ranges from neonatal onset severe HH necessitating subtotal pancreatectomy to apparently asymptomatic childhood with adult-onset hypoglycemic attacks (Glaser *et al.*, 1998; Christesen *et al.*, 2002; Gloyn *et al.*, 2003; Cuesta-Muñoz *et al.*, 2004; Dullaart *et al.*, 2004; Wabitsch *et al.*, 2007; Christesen *et al.*, 2008a; Barbetti *et al.*, 2009; Sayed *et al.*, 2009; Kassem *et al.*, 2010; Beer *et al.*, 2011; Challis *et al.*, 2014; Ajala *et al.*, 2016; Martínez *et al.*, 2017; Jannin *et al.*, 2018; Ping *et al.*, 2019).

#### Histological findings in GCK-CHI

The histology of GCK-CHI has rarely been described because of the rareness of surgically-treated patients. Reported morphologic changes range from normal pancreas to increased islet size or slightly increased nuclei size of single beta cells (Gloyn *et al.*, 2003; Cuesta-Muñoz *et al.*, 2004; Wabitsch *et al.*, 2007; Kassem *et al.*, 2010). However, even when abnormally large nuclei are present, they tend not to reach the size seen in K<sub>ATP</sub>

channel diffuse CHI, and their frequency is lower (Cuesta-Muñoz *et al.*, 2004). In one case, only increased beta cell nuclei size was reported (Sayed *et al.*, 2009).

#### Morphometric and immunohistochemical studies of GCK-CHI

Abnormally large islets were observed in an operated infant with the GCK mutation p.Val91Leu (Kassem et al., 2010). The mean area per islet in the head and tail of the pancreas in the infant with GCK-CHI was around 7,000 μm<sup>2</sup>, compared with five age-matched controls with around 1,000 - 2,000 μm<sup>2</sup> and diffuse CHI around  $750 - 850 \, \mu m^2$ . There may be some uncertainty about the islet sizes measured in this patient, which of course depend on the methods used and the significance that can be achieved due to the limited number of individuals with GCK-CHI in which similar morphometry has been performed; it seems that the islets from patients with diffuse CHI and age-matched controls used by Kassem et al. were possibly smaller compared with previous studies (Liu and Potter, 1962). However, ten percent of the islets of Langerhans in Kassem et al.'s case were larger than 13,000  $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup>, and these large islets contained some beta cells with a large nucleus (Kassem et al., 2010). Abnormally large islets were also reported in a patient with a heterozygous de novo GCK mutation p.Tyr214Cys (Cuesta-Muñoz et al., 2004). Normal processing of proinsulin (with an absence of cytoplasmic labeling), increased proinsulin labeling in the Golgi area, and low insulin labeling indicate hypersecretion of insulin, similar to diffuse and focal CHI (Sempoux et al., 1995; Klöppel et al., 1999; Sempoux et al., 2003; Cuesta-Muñoz et al., 2004; Rahier et al., 2011). Furthermore, the BCNC was intermediate between age-matched controls, diffuse CHI, and the FAH in KATP channel focal CHI (Cuesta-Muñoz et al., 2004). The variations in the histological picture of GCK-CHI seem to reflect variations in glucokinase activity, leading to various degrees of islet size.

# **Treatment of GCK-CHI**

Patients with GCK-CHI do not fully respond to diazoxide, as this drug is not able to correct the lowered threshold for GSIS. Reported GCK-CHI patients had, however, some benefit from diazoxide at low dosages

(Meissner *et al.*, 2009; Lord and De León, 2013), yet, this has not been described in detail in the published literature, and there seems to be no effect of this treatment in severe GCK- CHI (Cuesta-Muñoz *et al.*, 2004). Octreotide has been helpful in some cases of GCK-CHI (Wabitsch *et al.*, 2007).

#### **GDH-CHI**

## Genetic and clinical findings in GDH-CHI

GLUD1 encodes the mitochondrial matrix enzyme GDH, which occurs in the mitochondria of prokaryotes and eukaryotes and is expressed in beta cells (Stanley et al., 1998). GDH-CHI is also known as hyperinsulinism/hyperammonemia syndrome (Stanley et al., 1998). The majority of GDH-CHI cases are due to de novo mutations but familial inherited transmitted mutations are also reported (Stanley et al., 1998; De Lonlay et al., 2001; MacMullen et al., 2001; Santer et al., 2001; Stanley, 2004, 2011). GDH is allosterically activated by leucine or ADP and inhibited by guanosine-5'-triphosphate (GTP) and ATP. In GDH-CHI, a GOF mutation in GLUD1 desensitizes GDH to allosteric inhibition by GTP, while allosteric activation by leucine is uninhibited (Stanley et al., 1998).

GDH-CHI typically results in milder HH compared with K<sub>ATP</sub> channel CHI and is usually not detected until patients are at least a few months old (De Lonlay *et al.*, 2001; Stanley, 2004; Kapoor *et al.*, 2009), although cases may already present at day 1 (Yorifuji *et al.*, 1999; Stanley *et al.*, 2000; MacMullen *et al.*, 2001).

GDH-CHI is characterized by normal birth weight and protein-meal-induced postprandial hypoglycemia with persistent asymptomatic hyperammonemia (Stanley *et al.*, 2000; Hsu *et al.*, 2001; Stanley, 2004; Kapoor *et al.*, 2009; Palladino and Stanley, 2010). However, some patients show completely normal ammonia levels, probably due to mosaicism of the genetic changes (Kapoor *et al.*, 2009). Barrosse-Antle et al. reported a severe case with homozygous activating *GLUD1* mutations in exon 6 and 7, presenting with hypoglycemia, hyperammonemia, and seizures immediately after birth (Barrosse-Antle *et al.*, 2017).

#### Histological findings in GDH-CHI

Rahier et al. analyzed two surgical GDH-CHI cases (Rahier *et al.*, 2011). The specimens were macroscopically unremarkable. Microscopically, a few beta cell nuclei showed a moderate increase in size but the cytoplasm remained unchanged. With IHC, insulin staining was not lowered as in diffuse CHI and proinsulin expression was high. SUR1 expression was normal, compatible with a normally functioning  $K_{ATP}$  channel. In a specimen from another surgically treated GDH-CHI patient, hypertrophic islet cells were arranged in ribbon-like patterns (De Lonlay *et al.*, 2001). These morphological changes seem to reflect a clinically milder form of HH than  $K_{ATP}$  channel diffuse CHI (Stanley, 2004)

#### **Treatment of GDH-CHI**

Management of GDH-CHI includes diazoxide and a diet restricted in protein, especially leucine (Kapoor *et al.*, 2009; Stanley, 2011; Roy *et al.*, 2019). Surgery is very rarely performed, as GDH-CHI usually responds to diet and diazoxide (Stanley *et al.*, 2000; MacMullen *et al.*, 2001)

# CHI in Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome (BWS-CHI)

# Genetic and clinical findings in BWS-CHI

BWS is the most common pediatric overgrowth syndrome with an estimated prevalence of 1:10,000–13,700 (Thorburn *et al.*, 1970; Mussa *et al.*, 2013). BWS is frequently diagnosed in the neonatal period or early childhood and is typically characterized by macroglossia, macrosomia, abdominal wall defects, asymmetric overgrowth, and increased risk of embryonal tumor development (DeBaun and Tucker, 1998; Weksberg *et al.*, 2010; Kalish *et al.*, 2016; Maas *et al.*, 2016; Brioude *et al.*, 2018).

As overgrowth affects a variable part of cells during embryogenesis, a broad BWS spectrum of clinical features with varying severity is, however, seen (Kalish *et al.*, 2016; Brioude *et al.*, 2018; Wang *et al.*, 2019).

HH is seen in 50% of patients with BWS and is usually mild and transient with resolution within a few days (Mussa, Di Candia, et al., 2016). In 5% of cases, however, persistent hypoglycemia is observed (Elliott et al., 1994; DeBaun et al., 2000). The severity of HH in BWS is thought to be related to the variable percentage of mosaic changes within the pancreas (Kalish et al., 2016).

BWS is caused by genetic and epigenetic changes in the imprinting centers IC1 and IC2 for imprinting chromosome 11p15.5-11p15.4, containing the genes *CDKN1C*, *H19*, *IGF2*, and *KCNQ1* (Kalish *et al.*, 2016; Mussa *et al.*, 2016b; Brioude *et al.*, 2018). An (epi-)genetic defect is seen in 80% of BWS patients (Choufani *et al.*, 2010; Eggermann *et al.*, 2014; Brioude *et al.*, 2018). The majority of patients with BWS are sporadic and 15% have a familial predisposition (Viljoen and Ramesar, 1992; Choufani *et al.*, 2010; Eggermann *et al.*, 2014; Brioude *et al.*, 2018). In sporadic cases, about 50% have a loss-of-methylation of IC2 in the maternal allele, 20% have pUDP of chromosome 11p15, 5% have a gain-of-methylation of IC1 in the maternal allele, and 5% have a mutation in *CDKN1C* (Choufani *et al.*, 2010; Eggermann *et al.*, 2014; Brioude *et al.*, 2018). A maternal *CDKN1C* mutation can be detected in 40% of familial cases (Choufani *et al.*, 2010; Eggermann *et al.*, 2014; Brioude *et al.*, 2018). The 11p15.5-11p15.4 changes commonly lead to mosaic overgrowth. Mosaic pUPD is occasionally seen for the entire chromosome 11, which does not seem to affect the clinical features, compared to cases where only a small part of this chromosome is affected (Dutly *et al.*, 1998; Cooper *et al.*, 2007). In rare cases, the genome-wide pUPD may lead to additional syndromic manifestations, including BWS-CHI (Giurgea, Sanlaville, *et al.*, 2006; Wilson *et al.*, 2008; Gogiel *et al.*, 2013; Kalish *et al.*, 2013; Christesen *et al.*, 2020).

Persistent HH in BWS is almost exclusively due to pUPD of chromosome 11p15 (Kalish et~al., 2016). Moreover, paternally inherited pathogenic  $K_{ATP}$  channel mutations may occur in addition to overexpression of IGF2 and reduced expression of H19 and CDKN1C (Kalish et~al., 2016). Hence, mosaic pUPD can uncover a recessive pathogenic  $K_{ATP}$  channel mutation resulting in HH, as also suggested by other studies (Calton et~al., 2013; Kocaay et~al., 2016).

#### Histological findings in BWS-CHI

In surgical pancreas specimens from patients with BWS-CHI, a distinct histological picture is characterized by overgrowth with an increase in the volume of endocrine cells (Fig. 4) (Hussain *et al.*, 2005; Laje, Palladino, *et al.*, 2013; Christesen *et al.*, 2020). The degree of morphological mosaicism in the resected pancreatic tissue varies from a focal or segmental lesion, sometimes several, to the inclusion of the entire pancreas (Kalish *et al.*, 2016).

In contrast to K<sub>ATP</sub> channel focal CHI, the endocrine cells are arranged in small clusters, often enlarged islets and groups, but usually not confluent islets (Fig. 4D-F). Between the endocrine islets and cell clusters, acinar cells and small ducts are observed (Christesen *et al.*, 2020).

#### Morphometric and immunohistochemical studies of BWS-CHI

In a small study, the density of nuclei in the endocrine lesion was around 4,000 nuclei per 0.4 mm<sup>2</sup> in a BWS-CHI patient, compared with around 2,500 nuclei per 0.4 mm<sup>2</sup> in five randomly selected specimens with focal CHI (Christesen *et al.*, 2020). Strong proinsulin expression was reported in BWS-CHI but insulin immunostaining was weak (Hussain *et al.*, 2005). The expression of p57 was seen in approximately 5% of the endocrine cells (Christesen *et al.*, 2020), in contrast with K<sub>ATP</sub> channel focal CHI, where p57 expression is absent (Kassem *et al.*, 2001; Sempoux *et al.*, 2003). Larger studies using morphometry in BWS-CHI are, to our knowledge, currently lacking.

# **Treatment of BWS-CHI**

For those patients with BWS-CHI who are unresponsive to medical treatment, pancreatic resection is required. Preoperative 18F-DOPA-PET (PET/CT) can be useful to determine the size of the overgrowth area and to exclude focal CHI (Laje *et al.*, 2013a). Even severe and prolonged BWS-CHI can improve over time, which may call for prolonged medical treatment (Laje *et al.*, 2013a).

## Morphological mosaicism of pancreatic islets

#### Genetic findings in morphological mosaicism of pancreatic islets

Rare non-syndromal CHI patients subjected to pancreatic surgery have shown a mosaic histological picture without overgrowth, with normal SUR1 expression in the islets, and absence of germline mutations in known CHI genes (Sempoux *et al.*, 2011). In five of these patients, hexokinase 1 (HK-1), was inappropriate expressed in hyper-functional type 1 islets. The five patients were preoperative responsive, or at least transient sensitive, to diazoxide (Henquin *et al.*, 2013). Using Sanger sequencing, a heterozygous somatic *GCK* variant, p.Ile211Phe, was later reported in one of the patients from Sempoux's cohort (Henquin *et al.*, 2013).

Although not always fully described, somatic mosaicism on the (epi-)genetic level in leukocyte DNA or pancreatic tissue is probably closely correlated with the morphological mosaic histological picture, with or without overgrowth. The emerging genetic heterogeneity of mosaic, non-syndromal CHI will probably, in the future, lead to a more detailed phenotypic characterization, according to the affected genes and the degree of mosaicism in the pancreatic tissue.

#### Clinical findings in morphological mosaicism of pancreatic islets

Compared with focal and diffuse CHI, patients with non-syndromal mosaicism of pancreatic islets had a lower birth weight and later onset of HH, median (range) 165 (1-270) days (Sempoux *et al.*, 2011).

#### Histological findings in morphological mosaicism of pancreatic islets

In the important study of Sempoux et al. (Sempoux et al., 2011), CHI without the histological features of focal CHI, diffuse CHI, GCK-CHI, GDH-CHI, or BWS-CHI was described in 16 patients with unknown genetics. The pancreas appeared macroscopically normal. Histologically, the coexistence of two different islet types was observed (Sempoux et al., 2011). Type 1 islets were hyperplastic, being around two-fold larger than type 2 islets, and confined to one or several adjacent lobules. Type 2 islets were small, shrunken, and distributed throughout the entire pancreas (Sempoux et al., 2011). This histological pattern may well be caused by as

yet unidentified somatic, mosaic gene mutations restricted to the endocrine cells in type 1 islets, as later proven for a fraction of the patients. It is possible that the three cases published by Han and coworkers also represent morphological mosaicism of islets (Han *et al.*, 2017).

# Morphometric and immunohistochemical findings in morphological mosaicism of pancreatic islets

Morphometric analyses showed that type 1 islets had a mean area of around 11,400  $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup> (Sempoux *et al.*, 2011). Type 1 islets also contained numerous beta cells with abundant cytoplasm and sometimes large nuclei, however, rarely as large as in diffuse CHI. The radius of beta cell nuclei was around 5–6  $\mu$ m in type 1 compared with around 4  $\mu$ m in type 2 islets. In accordance with this, the BCNC was higher in type 2 vs. type 1 islets (around 14 vs. 9). Also, insulin expression was higher in type 1 than in type 2 islets (Sempoux *et al.*, 2011). p57 expression was present in both types of islets. The area of type 2 islets is not given in the article, but it was stated that type 1 islets were 2.06 fold larger than type 2 islets. The mean area in type 1 islets was 11,400  $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup>, roughly corresponding to a mean diameter of around 0.12 mm. This would mean that type 2 islets, in the study by Sempoux and coworkers, may have had a mean diameter of roughly 0.08 mm, corresponding to a mean area of 5.540  $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup> (Sempoux *et al.*, 2011).

# Differential diagnosis of morphological mosaicism of pancreatic islets

Localized Islet Nuclear Enlargement (LINE) has been introduced as a morphological type of CHI (Adzick *et al.*, 2019). Recently, a series of 12 cases of patients with pancreatic histology consistent with LINE were published (Boodhansingh *et al.*, 2022b). Morphologically, islet cell nucleomegaly was identified in one or two contiguous regions of the pancreas. Genetically, low-level mosaic mutations were identified in the pancreas of six cases (three in *ABCC8*, three in *GCK*), out of eight cases where this analysis was done (Boodhansingh *et al.*, 2022b). Hence, it seems that LINE, in the absence of beta cell hyperplasia, is characterized by a morphology different from the morphological mosaicism of islets described above, based on data available so far.

Other less clear mosaic genotype-histotype correlations have been described, including combinations of 11pUPD and a germline or somatic mosaic *ABCC8* variant in affected parts of the pancreas (Hussain *et al.*, 2008) and germline and somatic mosaic *GLUD1* mutations, but with reportedly diffuse histology without further details (Boodhansingh *et al.*, 2022a).

In conclusion, mosaic mutations in several known CHI genes lead to mosaic histotypes and often less severe clinical hyperinsulinism compared to non-mosaic mutations in the same genes. A more detailed description of the potential different mosaic histotypes is warrented.

# <u>Treatment of morphological mosaicism of pancreatic islets</u>

All patients with mosaicism were (at least partially) responsive to diazoxide treatment, however, with decreasing sensitivity over time, necessitating surgery. After surgical intervention, medical treatment was usually not necessary (Sempoux *et al.*, 2011).

#### Other forms of hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia

Other rare syndromic or non-syndromic genotypes with CHI lack histological descriptions, as they usually can be managed conservatively without surgery. This includes CHI in association with mutations in *ADK* (ADK deficiency); *ALG3* (Congenital Disorder of Glycosylation (CDG) type 1D); *ARID12* (Coffin-Siris syndrome); *CACNA1C* (Timothy syndrome); *CACNA1D* (PASNA syndrome); *CCND2* (Megaencephaly-polymicrogyria syndrome); *CHD7* (Charge syndrome); *CREBBP* and *EP300* (Rubinstein-Taybi syndrome); *DIS3L2* (Perlman syndrome); *EIF2S3* (MEMHO syndrome); *FAH* (Tyrosinemia type 1); *FOXA2* (Pituitary hypoplasia-CHI syndrome); *GPC3* (Simpson-Golabi-Behmel syndrome); *HADH*, *HNF1A*, *HNF4A*, and *HRAS* (Costello syndrome); *INSR* and *JAG1* (Alagille syndrome type 1); *KCNQ1*, *KDM6A*, and *KMT2D* (Kabuki syndrome); *MAGEL2* (Schaaf-Yang syndrome); *MPI* (CDG type 1B); *NFIX* (Malan syndrome); *NSD1* (SOTOS syndrome); *PGM1* (CDG type 1T); *PMM2* (CDG type 1A, polycystic kidney disease); *PHOX2B* (congenital central

hypoventilation); *SLC16A1* (*MCT*, exercise-induced hyperinsulinism); *SCL25A36* and *TRMT10A* (MMSGM1 syndrome); *UCMA* (Poland syndrome); *UCP2* and *YARS1* (YARS syndrome) (Rosenfeld *et al.*, 2019; Kostopoulou *et al.*, 2021; Hewat *et al.*, 2022; Shahroor *et al.*, 2022). Moreover, a number of contiguous gene deletions have been related to CHI.

Of special note, dominant inactivating mutations in the transcription factors *HNF4A* and *HNF1A* result in Maturity-onset diabetes of the young (MODY) type 1 and type 3, respectively, however, in some patients also macrosomia at birth and diazoxide-responsive HH with spontaneous clinical remission (Pearson *et al.*, 2007; Flanagan *et al.*, 2010; Dusatkova *et al.*, 2011; Stanescu *et al.*, 2012; McGlacken-Byrne *et al.*, 2014; Tung *et al.*, 2018; McGlacken-Byrne *et al.*, 2022). Patients with mutations in a number of other genes may also undergo spontaneous transition to diabetes without pancreatic surgery. Inhibiting *INSR* mutations lead to insulin resistance, usually presenting with permanent neonatal diabetes, but milder cases may have late disease onset with HH as the presenting feature due to a prolonged insulin half-life in the circulating blood (Rosenfeld *et al.*, 2019; Hewat *et al.*, 2022).

## Insulinoma

An insulinoma is a functioning NET with unregulated hyperproduction of insulin and resultant HH (Guettier and Gorden, 2010). The incidence of insulinoma is estimated at 1:250.000 in Mayo Clinic, USA (Service *et al.*, 1991).

## Genetic findings in insulinoma

Most insulinomas arise sporadically (Shin *et al.*, 2010). In adults, 4-8% are associated with MEN1 (Service *et al.*, 1991; Anlauf *et al.*, 2009; Placzkowski *et al.*, 2009; Crippa *et al.*, 2012; Kurakawa *et al.*, 2021; Svensson *et al.*, 2022) due to autosomal dominantly inherited mutations in the tumor suppressor gene *MEN1* (Larsson *et al.*, 1988; Byström *et al.*, 1990; Chandrasekharappa *et al.*, 1997). While insulinoma is rarely a part of MEN1 in adults, MEN1-associated insulinomas are commonly seen in children with this syndrome, accounting for

38–42% of all cases (Bhatti *et al.*, 2016; Melikyan *et al.*, 2023). In children, insulinomas may often be the first presentation of MEN1 (van Beek *et al.*, 2020), in contrast to parathyroid adenomas as the most frequent first presentation of MEN1 in adults (Thakker *et al.*, 2012). The *MEN1* gene is located on chromosome 11q13, and the presumed somatic second hit in the insulinoma may be caused not only by a second *MEN1* mutation but also by deletion of the entire maternal chromosome 11 including the tumor suppressor region 11p15. as suggested by (Bhatti *et al.*, 2016). The authors found evidence of maternal loss of heterozygosity for 11p15 in both MEN1-associated and sporadic insulinomas. Moreover, aneuploidy of other chromosomes was reported (Bhatti *et al.*, 2016).

MEN1 mutations are uncommon in sporadic insulinomas (Cupisti *et al.*, 2000; Jonkers *et al.*, 2005), however, in three next-generation sequencing studies, somatic *MEN1* mutations were revealed in approximately 2.4% of insulinomas (Cao *et al.*, 2013; Wang *et al.*, 2017; Hong *et al.*, 2020). Somatic mutations in other genes have also been reported in insulinomas, including *ARHGAP35*, *ATR*, *FLNC*, *H3F3A*, *KDM6A*, *LMO2*, *MLL3*, *and YY1* (Cao *et al.*, 2013; Wang *et al.*, 2017; Hong *et al.*, 2020). In a recent whole-genome sequencing study, the most frequent somatic mutations were found in *YY1* (25%), *DOCK4* (4%), *EVA1X* (2%), and *FRG1* (2%) (Hong *et al.*, 2020). In pancreatic non-functioning NETs, on the other hand, others found frequent somatic mutations in *MEN1* (42%), followed by *DAXX* (21%), *ATRX* (13%), *PTEN* (9%), *and SETD2* (5%), however, the same mutations are rarely involved in insulinomas (Hong *et al.*, 2020). More studies on a larger number of insulinomas are needed on the genetic background for the development of insulinomas with and without hereditary or somatic *MEN1* mutations.

#### Clinical findings in insulinoma

Insulinomas in children are rare (Boley *et al.*, 1960; Mann *et al.*, 1969; Service *et al.*, 1991; Padidela *et al.*, 2014; Bhatti *et al.*, 2016; Melikyan *et al.*, 2023). In a 60-year-study including 224 patients, only 6% of the insulinomas occurred in adolescents or children under the age of 19 (Service *et al.*, 1991), and the youngest

children were 3-4 years old (Boley et al., 1960; Mann et al., 1969; Service et al., 1991; Padidela et al., 2014; Bhatti et al., 2016). Hence, it is unlikely that an insulinoma is the cause of HH before the age of 2-3 years. In a large series of insulinoma patients, the median age at the time of surgery was 47 (8-82) years, with females constituting 59%, almost 87% had a single insulinoma, 7.1% had multiple insulinomas, and 5.8% had aggressive insulinomas (Service et al., 1991). Sporadic insulinomas are typically solitary but insulinomas associated with MEN1 are frequently multicentric (Demeure et al., 1991; van Beek et al., 2020). Insulinoma with and without MEN1 mutations can be malignant but behaves mostly as non-malignant (Placzkowski et al., 2009; Bartsch et al., 2013; Andreassen et al., 2019). The Ki67 index predicts the probability of metastasis but even insulinomas with a low Ki67 index can metastasize and occasionally benign insulinomas show a high Ki67 index (Alkatout et al., 2015; Andreassen et al., 2019; Sada et al., 2021). Malignant insulinomas are not, or very rarely, seen in children (Service et al., 1991; Jaksic et al., 1992; Janem et al., 2010; Bhatti et al., 2016). The clinical diagnosis of insulinomas is based on Whipple's triad with signs and symptoms of hypoglycemia, low blood glucose, and resolution of symptoms after rising blood glucose (Whipple, 1938). Insulinomas can be difficult to detect as symptoms may be non-specific and present for a long period before diagnosis (Service, 1995; Boukhman et al., 1998; Grant, 1998). A 48h, or 72h, fasting test is the gold diagnostic test for the detection of HH in adults (Service, 1995; Hirshberg et al., 2000; de Herder et al., 2006; Vezzosi et al., 2007; Placzkowski et al., 2009; Toaiari et al., 2013). In the case of a negative fasting test, an oral glucose tolerance test may provoke rebound hypoglycemia due to insulin excess (Falconi et al., 2016). The presence of an insulinoma is associated with high levels of circulating proinsulin, consistent with histopathology findings suggesting insufficient insulin processing, rather than high insulin secretion (Roth et al., 1992; Azzoni et al., 1998; Wiesli et al., 2004; Guettier et al., 2013). A higher proinsulin/insulin ratio is often seen in malignant insulinomas compared with benign insulinomas (Yu et al., 2017). Imaging to detect and localize the insulinoma may be difficult despite the many available imaging technique modalities, including ultrasound, CT, MRI, and various PET scan tracers, as discussed in a recent review (Prosperi et al., 2022).

## Histological findings in insulinoma

Insulinomas are often well-delimited endocrine tumors (Fig. 5) (Sempoux et al., 2003; Padidela et al., 2014; Bhatti et al., 2016). The tumors are distributed equally in the different regions of the pancreas (Shin et al., 2010). Insulinomas typically range from 5 to 24 mm (Klöppel and Heitz, 1988; Solcia et al., 1997; Sempoux et al., 2003; Bhatti et al., 2016) and insulinomas exceeding 3 cm in diameter increase the risk of malignancy (Solcia et al., 1997; Câmara-de-Souza et al., 2018; Andreassen et al., 2019; Sada et al., 2021). Their cut surface is typically grey-white to red-pink-brown (Solcia et al., 1997; Komminoth et al., 1999; Sempoux et al., 2003). The consistency is soft compared with the normal surrounding yellowish pancreatic parenchyma except in cases with fibrous stroma and/or large amounts of amyloid (Solcia et al., 1997; Komminoth et al., 1999; Sempoux et al., 2003; Bhatti et al., 2016). Different growth patterns can be observed, for example, nets or cords separated by vascularized fibrous stroma (Sempoux et al., 2003; Padidela et al., 2014; Bhatti et al., 2016). The tumor cells are relatively uniform, cylindrical, or cuboidal-shaped with moderately abundant acidophilic cytoplasm (Sempoux et al., 2003). Insulinomas express mainly insulin (Fig. 5B) but expression of glucagon, somatostatin, and even pancreatic polypeptide is also observed in about half of cases (Liu et al., 1985; Solcia et al., 1997; Komminoth et al., 1999; Sempoux et al., 2003; Bhatti et al., 2016). In addition, general neuroendocrine markers, such as chromogranin A and synaptophysin, (Fig. 5C), are strongly expressed. As with other neuroendocrine neoplasms, insulinomas are graded according to their Ki67 and mitotic index: NET grade 1 shows a Ki67-index of < 3% (and < 2 mitoses per 2 mm<sup>2</sup>), grade 2 between 3% and 20% (Fig. 5C) (and 2-20 mitoses per 2 mm<sup>2</sup>), grade 3 above 20% (and > 20 mitoses per 2 mm<sup>2</sup>). Neuroendocrine carcinomas show necrosis and an aggressive infiltration growth, in addition to a Ki67-index > 20% (often > 90%), and > 20 mitoses per 2 mm<sup>2</sup> (Lloyd, 2017). Most insulinomas are low-grade tumors (Bhatti et al., 2016).

#### Treatment of insulinoma

Surgery is the optimal treatment for insulinomas (de Carbonnières *et al.*, 2021). Diazoxide is the primary choice for treating the symptoms of non-resectable insulinomas and is effective in 50-60% of patients (Mathur *et al.*, 2009; Öberg, 2018; Niitsu *et al.*, 2019). In diazoxide non-responders with non-resectable malignant insulinomas, somatostatin agonists can be used because of their antiproliferative effect (Matej *et al.*, 2016; Brown *et al.*, 2018).

#### Insulinomatosis

Insulinomatosis is a rare cause of HH in adults and is characterized by multiple small and large insulinproducing tumors (Anlauf *et al.*, 2009). Insulinomatosis is a very rare neoplastic condition; in a large series of patients with insulinomas, insulinomatosis accounted for approximately 5% (Anlauf *et al.*, 2009). To date, at least 18 cases of sporadic insulinomatosis (Anlauf *et al.*, 2009; Snaith *et al.*, 2020; Anoshkin *et al.*, 2021; Mintziras *et al.*, 2021; Tartaglia *et al.*, 2022) and three cases with familial insulinomatosis (Tragl and Mayr, 1977; Jacovazzo *et al.*, 2018; Fottner *et al.*, 2022) have been reported.

## Genetic and clinical findings in insulinomatosis

Germline mutations in the *MAFA* gene have been identified in familial insulinomatosis in three unrelated families with an autosomal dominant pattern (Iacovazzo et al., 2018; Fottner et al., 2022). Other family members with the same *MAFA* mutation develop impaired glucose tolerance or diabetes. In addition, congenital glaucoma or cataracts may be present (Iacovazzo et al., 2018; Fottner et al., 2022). In one case of sporadic insulinomatosis, a germline *MAFA* in-frame deletion, p.His207del, has been reported (Mintziras *et al.*, 2021).

MAFA encodes the transcription factor MAFA, which regulates the beta cell expression of insulin and several genes involved in GSIS (Liang *et al.*, 2022). Moreover, the two reported familial missense mutations, p.Ser64Phe and p.Thr47Arg, impair MAFA phosphorylation leading to decreased proteasome-mediated

degradation and, hence, increased MAFA protein stability as a potential, at least partial, mechanism for the oncogenic capacity of these *MAFA* mutations (Iacovazzo *et al.*, 2018; Fottner *et al.*, 2022). The mechanisms for the development of both diabetes and insulinomatosis in MAFA patients are, however, not fully understood.

## Histological findings in insulinomatosis

Insulinomatosis is histologically characterized by multiple macro-tumors (> 5 mm) and micro-adenomas (< 5 mm) that express insulin and arise synchronously and metachronously in all regions of the pancreas; metastases are rarely seen (Anlauf *et al.*, 2009).

Insulinomatosis is distinguished histologically by insulin-expressing mono-hormonal endocrine cell clusters. The tumors only stain for insulin (Anlauf *et al.*, 2009), whereas micro-adenomas in MEN1 patients often express glucagon and pancreatic polypeptide (Anlauf *et al.*, 2006). Other micro-adenomas express glucagon (glucagon-cell adenomatosis), or no hormones, as seen in von Hipple-Lindau syndrome (Périgny *et al.*, 2009; Zhou *et al.*, 2009; Miller *et al.*, 2015).

# **Treatment of insulinomatosis**

Treatment of insulinomatosis is complicated due to the multicentric nature of the disease. In a large study, 43% of patients had persistent or recurrent disease following surgical treatment, sometimes necessitating additional surgery (Anlauf *et al.*, 2009). Medical therapy is often not successful but one patient with sporadic insulinomatosis showed complete remission after treatment with octreotide long-acting release (Tartaglia *et al.*, 2022).

#### Adult-onset non-insulinoma persistent hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia syndrome

## **Terminology**

Adult-onset NI-PHHS has been alternatively abbreviated NIPH (Vanderveen *et al.*, 2010; Anderson *et al.*, 2016), NI-PHH (Christesen, Tribble, *et al.*, 2008), NIPHS (Thompson *et al.*, 2000; Anlauf *et al.*, 2005; Won *et al.*, 2006; Sahloul *et al.*, 2007; Yamada *et al.*, 2020), or non-insulinoma pancreatogenous hypoglycemic syndrome (PHH) (Kloppel *et al.*, 2008). Adult nesidioblastosis is an alternative historical, yet incorrect, histological term in today's view.

# Genetic and clinical findings in NI-PHHS

NI-PHHS is an entity that mainly affects adults, with rare cases seen in adolescence (age range from 12-82 years) (Harness *et al.*, 1981; Service *et al.*, 1999; van der Wal *et al.*, 2000; Witteles *et al.*, 2001; Kaczirek *et al.*, 2003; Anlauf *et al.*, 2005; Won *et al.*, 2006; Raffel *et al.*, 2007; Yamada *et al.*, 2020). Most patients with NI-PHHS have an unknown genetic cause. However, GCK mutations have been found in a few adults with clinical features of NI-PHHS, suggesting a genetic cause in at least some patients (Glaser *et al.*, 1998; Christesen *et al.*, 2008a). Yet, histology was not available in these studies (Glaser *et al.*, 1998; Christesen *et al.*, 2008a). Other rare adult patients presented with exercise-induced HH due to activating mutations in the *SLC16A1* promotor, none of these patients were subjected to pancreatic surgery (Otonkoski *et al.*, 2003, 2007). Insulinoma is the most important clinical differential diagnosis. NI-PHHS has, in a large series, been identified in 3-8.5% of insulinomas (Anlauf *et al.*, 2005; Raffel *et al.*, 2007; Yamada *et al.*, 2020). Another and more frequent cause of HH in adults is postprandial HH after gastric bypass surgery, a condition which should be discerned from NI-PHHS as a primary disease (Thompson *et al.*, 2000; Raffel *et al.*, 2007; Yamada *et al.*, 2020).

The clinical symptoms of NI-PHHS are usually observed during fasting, exercise, or stress, and are related to autonomic and severe neuroglycopenic hypoglycemia, leading to confusion, visual disturbances, dizziness, abnormal behavior, loss of consciousness, sweating, palpitations, and tremor (Goossens *et al.*, 1991; Service

et al., 1999; van der Wal et al., 2000; Witteles et al., 2001; Kaczirek et al., 2003; Otonkoski et al., 2007). A 72-h fast is a standard test in the diagnostic process for NI-PHHS (Service, 1995) but is unspecific in distinguishing NI-PHHS from insulinoma (Service, 1999; Kaczirek et al., 2003; Starke et al., 2006; Won et al., 2006).

## Histological findings in NI-PHHS

In surgical pancreas specimens from NI-PHHS patients, the macroscopic appearance is usually normal (Anlauf *et al.*, 2005). In around a third, the histological changes in the endocrine pancreas were minimal and difficult to distinguish from normal pancreatic tissue (Kloppel *et al.*, 2008). A feature of the islets in the remaining cases was a somewhat lobulated composition, probably resulting from irregularly sized beta cells that form small groups within the islets (Anlauf *et al.*, 2005). In a proportion of cases, however, the number and size of pancreatic islets are slightly increased (Fig. 6). Major histopathologic criteria for the histological diagnosis of NI-PHHS are 1) exclusion of an insulinoma, 2) multiple beta cells with enlarged and hyperchromatic nuclei and abundant cytoplasm, 3) islets with a normal composition of endocrine cell types, and 4) no increased proliferative activity of endocrine cells (Anlauf *et al.*, 2005). Minor histopathologic criteria are 1) irregular shape and occasional enlargement of islets (Fig. 6D), 2) increased number of islets (Fig. 6A-B), 3) lobulated islet structure, and 4) macronuclei in beta cells (Fig. 6C) (Anlauf *et al.*, 2005). Unfortunately, these criteria are relatively unspecific.

#### Morphometric and immunohistochemical studies of NI-PHHS

Single islets in NI-PHHS are enlarged, with a diameter of 300 µm or more (Fig. 6D-F) (Harness *et al.*, 1981; Volk, 1985; van der Wal *et al.*, 2000; Kaczirek *et al.*, 2003; Anlauf *et al.*, 2005). As a consequence, an increased total beta cell volume can be measured (van der Wal *et al.*, 2000; Anlauf *et al.*, 2005). Beta cells show enlarged nuclei and abundant clear cytoplasm. Macronuclei were observed more often than in controls (van der Wal *et al.*, 2000; Witteles *et al.*, 2001; Anlauf *et al.*, 2005). Overexpression of islet neogenesis-associated protein was reported in a few cases (Won *et al.*, 2006). More research with the identification of (epi-)genetic,

germline, or somatic mutations, or altered regulation of insulin production or secretion, is needed to further describe the pathophysiology and related histological features of NI-PHHS. Most probably, subtypes of NI-PHHS will be identified with the need for novel nomenclature of a heterogeneous disease entity.

## **Diagnosis and treatment of NI-PHHS**

NI-PHHS should be suspected in adolescents or adults with new-onset HH, and negative genetics and imaging for insulinoma (Witteles *et al.*, 2001; Gupta *et al.*, 2013). In the absence of secondary causes to adult-onset HH, targeted panel sequencing or whole genome sequencing should be performed to identify genetic causes. In the case of surgery, resection of 70-80% is considered the most appropriate surgery for NI-PHHS (Jabri and Bayard, 2004; Raffel *et al.*, 2007). In case of persistent hypoglycemia after surgery, diet and various medical treatments including diazoxide and somatostatin analogs can be used (Yamada *et al.*, 2020). With the improvements in the medical therapy of HH, surgery may be less often used as seen in the treatment of diffuse CHI.

# **Conclusion**

This review provides an overview of the different histological forms of HH, their associated genetic changes, clinical characteristics, and treatment options. Histology plays, together with genetics and imaging, an important role in the diagnosis of HH, including K<sub>ATP</sub> channel diffuse or focal CHI, GCK-CHI, GLUD1-CHI, BWS-CHI, mosaic CHI, insulinoma, insulinomatosis, and NI-PHHS. Improvements in the understanding of the genotype-histotype-phenotype correlations have led to considerable progress in patient management. Intra-operative frozen section microscopy can identify a focal lesion in infants with CHI and an insulinoma in adolescent and adult HH patients, assisting the surgeon in limiting the pancreatic resection. At many centers, frozen section biopsy is performed to differentiate the different histological forms of CHI, most importantly the diffuse from the focal type. Genotype-histotype-phenotype correlations are also important in genetic counseling of families with HH.

# Legends

**Fig. 1.**  $K_{ATP}$  channel diffuse CHI. **A.** The number and size of islets of Langerhans are usually age appropriate (H&E, scale bar 500 μm). **B.** Synaptophysin immunostaining of pancreatic islets is shown (scale bar 500 μm). **C.** At medium-power magnification, giant nuclei in beta cells of islets of Langerhans can be observed (scale bar 250 μm). **D.** High magnification of an islet of Langerhans with numerous giant nuclei (scale bar 500 μm).

**Fig. 2.** K<sub>ATP</sub> channel focal CHI. **A.** Focal adenomatous hyperplasia (FAH) measuring 12 mm at maximum diameter (H&E, scale bar 2.5 mm). **B.** Strong insulin positivity in beta cells in the FAH (insulin immunostaining, scale bar 2.5 mm). **C.** Delta cells with expression of somatostatin at the periphery of confluent islets of Langerhans in the FAH (somatostatin immunostaining, scale bar 2.5 mm). **D.** High magnification of FAH in focal CHI (H&E, scale bar 250 μm).

**Fig. 3.** K<sub>ATP</sub> channel focal-extensive CHI. The pancreas of a seven-month-old girl with a paternal *ABCC8* mutation was enlarged. A distal pancreatectomy was performed. The specimen measured 6.7 cm in length. Almost the entire specimen showed changes consistent with focal-extensive CHI. Representative pictures from different areas are shown. **A. – B., C. – D., E. – F., G. – H., I. – J.** H&E and synaptophysin staining different portions of the specimen, from its proximal to distal end. Confluent areas occupying various proportions in the cross-section show focal-extensive adenomatous hyperplasia (FAH). Scale bars: 2.5 mm (A), 5 mm (B-J).

Fig. 4. CHI in Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome (BWS-CHI). A. – C. H&E (A), synaptophysin (B), and insulin (C) staining of a portion of the surgically resected pancreas. Overgrowth with an increase in the volume of endocrine cells in this area is shown. Scale bar: 5 mm. D. – F. H&E (D), synaptophysin (E), and insulin (F) staining at higher magnification. The endocrine cells are arranged in small clusters, often enlarged islets, and in groups. between the endocrine islets and cell clusters, acinar cells and small ducts are observed. Scale bars: 100 μm (D and F), 250 μm (E).

**Fig. 5.** Insulinoma that resulted in hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia. **A.** A well-circumscribed tumor consisting of confluent trabeculae supported by a hyalinized fibrotic stroma (H&E). **B.** Strong expression of insulin in the tumor cells (insulin immunostaining). **C.** Lack of glucagon expression in the tumor cells (glucagon immunostaining). **D.** A Ki67 proliferation index in hot spots of 7%, corresponding to tumor grade 2 (dual-IHC of synaptophysin (red) and Ki67 (brown)). **E.** Higher magnification of (D). **F.** Nuclei of insulinoma cells show salt and pepper chromatin (H&E). Scale bars: A-D & F: 5.0 mm. B: 0.1 mm.

**Fig. 6.** Adult-onset non-insulinoma hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia syndrome (NI-PHHS). **A.** Number and size of islets of Langerhans are slightly increased compared with normal adults (H&E, scale bar 500 μm). **B.** Synaptophysin immunostaining emphasizes several enlarged pancreatic islets (scale bar 500 μm). **C.** A pancreatic islet showing slight variation in the size of beta cell nuclei, which can also be seen in healthy adult pancreas (scale bar 100 μm). **D. - F.** Enlarged islet of Langerhans with a length of around 800 μm. D. H&E. E. Normal amount of insulin-positive beta cells (insulin immunostaining, scale bar 500 μm). F. Normal amount of glucagon-positive alpha cells (glucagon immunostaining, scale bar 500 μm).

Table 1. Summary of the main histological types of hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia (HH) and related genotypes and phenotypes

Type of HH	Pancreatic histology	Genetics	Phenotype*
Diffuse CHI	Nucleomegaly in a few beta cells per islet of Langerhans, distributed throughout the entire pancreas.	Monoallelic or biallelic mutations in <i>ABCC8</i> or <i>KCNJ11</i> .	Macrosomia from birth. Neonatal onset, persistent HH.
Focal CHI	Focal adenomatous hyperplasia of islets of Langerhans. Size mostly between 2.5 and around 15 mm. Very rare focal extensive forms > 3 cm. Absence of p57/CDKN1C/Kip2 in the lesion.	Paternal monoallelic mutations in <i>ABCC8</i> or <i>KCNJ11</i> , and somatic loss of maternal 11p15.	Macrosomia from birth. Neonatal onset, persistent HH.
<b>GCK-CHI</b>	Changes range from normal pancreas to increased size of islets, or slightly increased size of nuclei of single beta cells in some islets.	Monoallelic activating mutations in GCK.	Neonatal onset HH.
<b>GDH-CHI</b>	A few beta-cell nuclei in a few islets may show a moderate increase in size.	Monoallelic activating mutations in GLUD1.	Neonatal or infant onset, persistent HH with mild hyperammonemia.
BWS-CHI	Overgrowth with an increase in the absolute and relative volume of endocrine cells.	Monoallelic mutation in <i>CDKNIC</i> .  Somatic pUPD, biallelic expression of <i>IGF2</i> , and loss-of-expression of <i>CDKNIC</i> , <i>KCNQ1</i> , <i>H19</i> .  Epigenetic loss or gain methylation.	Neonatal onset, persistent HH. Macrosomia and mosaic overgrowth defects, increased risk of cancer.
Morphological mosaicism of pancreatic islets	Hyperplastic (type 1) islets confined to one or several adjacent lobules and small, shrunken islets (type 2 islets) distributed throughout the entire pancreas.  Normal expression of p57/CDKN1C/Kip2.	None, or somatic mutations in GCK.	Neonatal or infant onset, persistent HH.
Insulinoma	Low-grade NETs, typically WHO grade 1-2. Size typically between 6 and 25 mm. Histological expression of mainly insulin. Neuroendocrine markers, such as chromogranin A and synaptophysin, are strongly expressed.	None, or monoallelic <i>MEN1</i> mutations. Somatic mutations in <i>ARHGAP35</i> , <i>ATR</i> , <i>DOCK4</i> , <i>EVA1X</i> , <i>FLNC</i> , <i>FRG1</i> , <i>H3F3A</i> , <i>KDM6A</i> , <i>LMO2</i> , <i>MEN1</i> , <i>MLL3</i> , and <i>YY1</i> .	HH onset in late childhood, adolescence, or adulthood. Other MEN1 features are possible.
Insulinomatosis	Multiple insulin-producing neuroendocrine microadenomas (< 5 mm) and/or neuroendocrine neoplasms.  Insulin-producing mono-hormonal endocrine cell clusters.	Monoallelic, or biallelic mutations in MAFA.	Adult onset HH. Diabetes.
NI-PHHS	Multiple beta cells with enlarged and hyperchromatic nuclei and abundant cytoplasm, islets with the normal composition of endocrine cell types.  No increased proliferative activity of endocrine cells.  Single enlarged islets > 300 μm.	None, or monoallelic activating <i>GCK</i> mutations.	Adult onset HH. Rare cases are seen in adolescence.

\*) Only typical phenotypes of patients with pancreatic resection (severe CHI) are included. Patients with milder and transient HH phenotypes will not undergo pancreatic resection and hence often have unknown histology.

BWS (Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome), CHI (congenital hyperinsulinism), GCK (glucokinase), GDH (glutamate dehydrogenase), HH (Hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia), MEN1 (multiple endocrine neoplasia type 1), NETs (neuroendocrine tumors), NI-PHHS (adult-onset non-insulinoma persistent hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia syndrome).

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