

Approach to the Patient: Insulinoma

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Abstract

Insulinomas are hormone-producing pancreatic neuroendocrine neoplasms with an estimated incidence of 1 to 4 cases per million per year. Extrapancratic insulinomas are extremely rare. Most insulinomas present with the Whipple triad: (1) symptoms, signs, or both consistent with hypoglycemia; (2) a low plasma glucose measured at the time of the symptoms and signs; and (3) relief of symptoms and signs when the glucose is raised to normal. Nonmetastatic insulinomas are nowadays referred to as “indolent” and metastatic insulinomas as “aggressive.” The 5-year survival of patients with an indolent insulinoma has been reported to be 94% to 100%; for patients with an aggressive insulinoma, this amounts to 24% to 67%. Five percent to 10% of insulinomas are associated with the multiple endocrine neoplasia type 1 syndrome. Localization of the insulinoma and exclusion or confirmation of metastatic disease by computed tomography is followed by endoscopic ultrasound or magnetic resonance imaging for indolent, localized insulinomas. Glucagon-like peptide 1 receptor positron emission tomography/computed tomography or positron emission tomography/magnetic resonance imaging is a highly sensitive localization technique for seemingly occult, indolent, localized insulinomas. Supportive measures and somatostatin receptor ligands can be used for to control hypoglycemia. For single solitary insulinomas, curative surgical excision remains the treatment of choice. In aggressive malignant cases, debulking procedures, somatostatin receptor ligands, peptide receptor radionuclide therapy, everolimus, sunitinib, and cytotoxic chemotherapy can be valuable options.

Key Words: insulin, insulinoma, hypoglycemia, therapy, pathology

Abbreviations: CT, computed tomography; EUS, endoscopic ultrasound; GLP-1R, glucagon-like peptide 1 receptor; MEN1, multiple endocrine neoplasia type 1; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; mTOR, mammalian target of rapamycin; NEC, neuroendocrine carcinoma; NET, neuroendocrine tumor; panNEN, pancreatic neuroendocrine neoplasm; PET, positron emission tomography; PRRT, peptide radionuclide receptor therapy; SPECT, single-photon emission computer tomography; SRL, somatostatin receptor ligand; SSTR, somatostatin receptor subtype.

Case Presentations

Case 1

A 45-year-old man was referred for the evaluation of hypoglycemic symptoms. For approximately 1 year, he had been experiencing episodes of tremors, blurriness of vision, loss of attention, and headaches. There was no excessive perspiration, hunger, or episodes of loss of consciousness. He had fewer symptoms when he ate frequent meals. His weight had gradually increased over a period of 2 years (0.5–0.9 kg/year) and at first admission was 110 kg. His primary care provider had documented a “very low blood glucose” concentration during an episode. Additional investigations included a fasting test (1) with the following results: after 16 hours, he developed hypoglycemic symptoms and his blood glucose was 36 mg/dL (2.0 mmol/L), insulin = 42 μ IU/mL (253 pmol/L), proinsulin = 43 pmol/L, and C-peptide = 1.35 nmol/L (4.05 ng/mL). The fast was stopped and the patient was allowed to eat food. His hypoglycemic symptoms subsequently rapidly disappeared. Urine toxicology was negative for sulfonylurea derivatives. An 3-phase abdominal computed tomography (CT) scan did not demonstrate a pancreatic lesion and there was no evidence for liver or lymph node metastases. A ⁶⁸Ga-DOTATATE

positron emission tomography (PET)-CT showed physiological uptake without demonstration of uptake of the radioligand in the pancreatic lesion. A ⁶⁸Ga-Exendin 4 PET/CT, however, showed positive uptake in a 13 \times 10-mm lesion in the pancreatic body without pathological uptake in other parts of the body (Fig. 1). An endoscopic ultrasound (EUS) showed a 14 \times 11-mm hypoechoic lesion in the pancreatic body without a close relation to the pancreatic duct. The patient subsequently underwent a robot-assisted laparoscopic enucleation of the insulinoma. Histology revealed a 12 \times 10-mm grade 1, ENETS/AJCC T1 pancreatic neuroendocrine tumor (NET) that stained positive for insulin and negative for the somatostatin receptor subtype 2 (SSTR2). The patient is still free of NET disease 10 years after surgery.

Case 2

A 50-year-old woman was referred for the evaluation of hypoglycemic symptoms. For less than 1 year, she had been experiencing episodes of tremors, blurriness of vision, loss of attention, and headaches. She had fewer symptoms when she ate frequent meals. Her weight was stable at 163 lb (74 kg). She was admitted to the emergency department

following loss of consciousness. Her blood glucose level was 1.4 mmol/L. She was treated with IV glucose 20% and rapidly recovered. Additional investigations included a fasting test (1) with the following results: after 6 hours, she developed hypoglycemic symptoms and her blood glucose was 21.6 mg/dL (1.2 mmol/L), insulin = 132 μ U/mL (794 pmol/L), proinsulin > 200 pmol/L, and C-peptide = 1.69 nmol/L (5.07 ng/mL). The fast was stopped at that time. Her hypoglycemic symptoms rapidly disappeared after food intake. Urine toxicology was negative for sulfonylurea derivatives. An abdominal ultrasound demonstrated a pancreatic tumor and extensive liver metastases. A ^{68}Ga -DOTATATE PET/CT scan demonstrated a 14 \times 15-mm pancreatic head tumor and extensive liver and lymph node metastases that all showed positive PET uptake (Fig. 2). Pathology of a liver biopsy showed a grade 2, SSTR2-positive NET with positive immunohistochemistry for insulin. Initial treatment consisted of frequent meals, diazoxide 100 mg/day and lanreotide-Autogel 120 mg/4 weeks. Three months later, she experienced recurrent hypoglycemic episodes and radiological tumor progression and was started on peptide radionuclide receptor therapy (PRRT) with ^{177}Lu -DOTATATE, in 4 cycles at

8-week intervals with a cumulative dose of 29.8 GBq. PRRT resulted in tumor control and normalization of blood glucose levels for 3 years. Subsequently, she developed tumor progression and a recurrence of hypoglycemic events and was retreated with 2 cycles of PRRT using ^{177}Lu -DOTATATE, resulting in a cumulative dose of 44.5 GBq. Thereafter, she was treated with everolimus 10 mg/day. This resulted in euglycemia. Four years and 1 month after initial diagnosis, radiological and hormonal progressive disease occurred in combination with progressive liver failure, which led to her death.

Diagnosis and Presentation

The Whipple triad, named after the American surgeon Allen O. Whipple (1881-1963), is the diagnostic hallmark establishing the existence of a hypoglycemic disorder and has the following 3 features: (1) symptoms, signs, or both consistent with hypoglycemia; (2) low plasma glucose measured at the time of the symptoms and signs; and (3) relief of symptoms and signs when the glucose is raised to a normal level (2, 3). In addition to the familiar hypoglycemic symptoms such as sweating, palpitations, nervousness, and feeling of hunger, neuroglycopenic symptoms such as confusion, visual disturbances, or seizures may also occur. The latter may cause patients to be misdiagnosed with a psychiatric or neurological disorder. Symptoms occur mainly in the fasting state, but up to 20% of patients also described postprandial symptoms (4, 5). By definition, in endogenous hyperinsulinism, the insulin secretion does not decrease to very low levels when plasma glucose concentrations decrease to hypoglycemic levels (2, 6). Thus, in patients with insulinoma, plasma insulin, C-peptide, and proinsulin concentrations are inappropriately high in the setting of low fasting plasma glucose concentrations (2, 6). According to the most recent clinical practice guidelines, critical diagnostic findings are present when the confirmed fasting plasma glucose concentrations are preferably below 45 mg/dL (2.5 mmol/L) or below 55 mg/dL (3.0 mmol/L) (=hypoglycemia—depending on guidelines and cutoffs—the optimal cutoff level for blood glucose is currently still a matter of debate), plasma insulin concentrations of at least 3 μ U/mL (18 pmol/L), plasma C-peptide concentrations of at least 0.6 ng/L (0.2 nmol/L), and plasma proinsulin concentrations of at least 5.0 pmol/L (2, 7). The patients presented here fulfilled all these criteria. If hypoglycemia

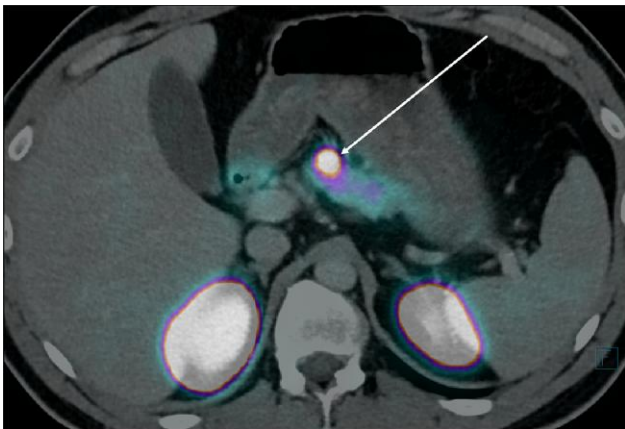


Figure 1. Axial ^{68}Ga -exendin-PET/CT fused image of a 45-year-old man with documented endogenous hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia (case 1) showing a 13 \times 10-mm lesion (arrow) positive for the GLP-1 receptor and renal elimination of the tracer with uptake in the kidneys.

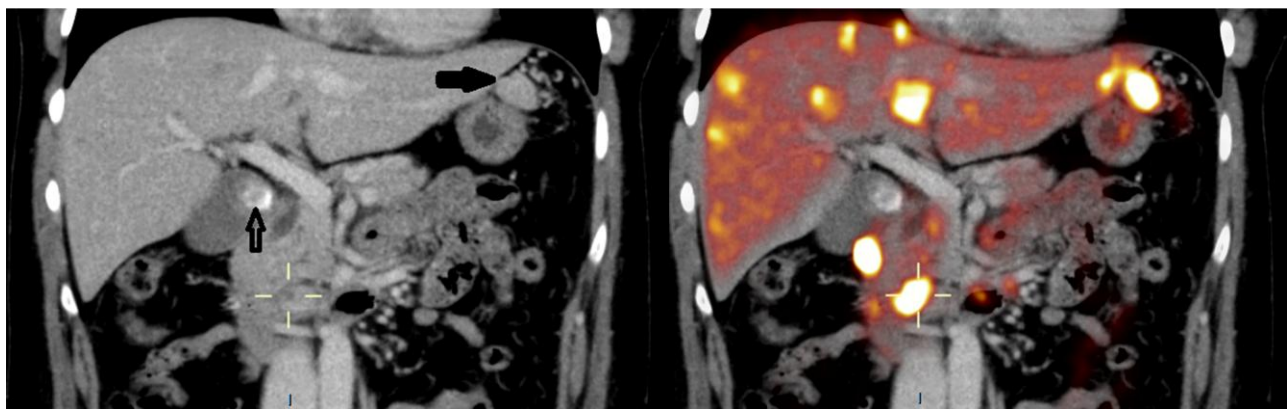


Figure 2. Left: coronal CT image of a 50-year-old woman with documented endogenous hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia (case 2) showing a 14 \times 15-mm pancreatic lesion (box) and a gallbladder stone (arrow). Right: coronal ^{68}Ga -DOTATATE PET/CT fused images of a 50-year-old woman with documented endogenous hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia (case 2) in the same plane as Fig. 2A showing a 14 \times 15-mm PET-positive pancreatic lesion (box) and extensive ^{68}Ga -DOTATATE PET-positive liver metastases.

does not occur spontaneously, a 72-hour prolonged fasting test should be performed and blood should be drawn for measurements of insulin, and pro-insulin, or C-peptide measurements if hypoglycemia occurs. Some authors have advocated shorter fasting tests (1, 6, 8). There are data suggesting that a standardized evaluation of neurocognitive function during the fasting test (using the Mini-Mental test) can be helpful and more important than a glucose concentration threshold. Indeed, a median decrease in Mini-Mental score of ≥ 6 points has been shown to be superior for stopping the fasting test than a predefined glucose concentration (9). For the differential diagnosis of hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia not caused by insulinoma in individuals who have not undergone upper gastrointestinal surgery, such as persistent hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia in infancy and noninsulinoma pancreatogenous hypoglycemia syndrome (nesidioblastosis), administration of exogenous insulin or sulfonyleureas, insulinomatosis, and insulin (receptor) autoimmune syndrome (Hirata disease), the reader is referred to other publications (10–14).

Incidence and Epidemiology

Insulinomas are the most common, yet still rare, hormone-producing pancreatic neuroendocrine neoplasms (panNEN) with a reported incidence of 0.7 to 4 cases per million per year (4, 7, 15–18). There is an age-specific incidence peak in the fifth decade of life in men and the sixth decade of life in women and the incidence is slightly higher in women than in men (16). More than 99% of insulinomas are located in the pancreas, where its tumor locations are evenly distributed (19, 20). Extrapancratic (occasionally metastatic) insulinomas are extremely rare and have been described in the lung, duodenum, ileum, jejunum, hilum of the spleen, and gastric antrum (21–27). Approximately 10% of insulinomas present as multiple lesions (28, 29). Because the definitions for malignancy in insulinoma are ambiguous, nonmetastatic insulinomas are now referred to as “indolent” and metastatic insulinomas as “aggressive” (see Treatment of Metastatic or Inoperable Aggressive Insulinoma) (20, 27, 30). Approximately 10% to 15% of insulinomas belong to the aggressive category and 85% to 90% can be considered as indolent (17, 18, 30, 31). Patients with an aggressive insulinoma have lower survival compared with patients with an indolent insulinoma. The 5-year survival of patients with an indolent insulinoma has been reported to be 94% to 100% and for patients with an aggressive insulinoma this amounts to 24% to 67% (4, 7, 15, 16, 18, 20, 30). Secondary, or metachronous insulin secretion by panNEN that previously were nonsecreting, or secreting other peptide hormones, can also occasionally develop and is generally associated with a poor survival as compared with their non-insulin-secreting counterparts (32, 33).

A total of 5% to 10% of insulinomas are associated with the multiple endocrine neoplasia type 1 (MEN1) syndrome. The MEN1-related insulinomas may develop as multiple synchronous or metachronous lesions and are generally diagnosed at an earlier age than their sporadic counterparts because of application of the MEN1 screening recommendations (28, 29, 34, 35). Routine genetic testing for MEN1 is usually not recommended in patients with newly diagnosed insulinoma, but a thorough medical and family history should be obtained, and patients should be referred for appropriate testing if there is suspicion of the insulinoma being 1 of the manifestations of MEN1 (34–36). A recent Delphi consensus recommends to consider MEN1 screening in patients aged 35

or younger who present with an apparently sporadic insulinoma, although this is not yet supported by the literature (29, 37–39). Other genetic syndromes associated with the development of insulinomas are neurofibromatosis type 1 (40) and tuberous sclerosis complex (41, 42).

Historical Perspective

“Harris’ syndrome” is a historical eponym for endogenous hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia and named after the American surgeon Seale Harris (1870–1957) who was the first to notice that a few of his nondiabetic patients presented with the same symptoms as observed after insulin overdosing (“insulin shock”) (12, 43, 44). In 1926, the American surgeon William J Mayo (1861–1939) performed an exploratory laparotomy on a patient suffering from recurrent severe hypoglycemia caused by an unresectable pancreatic insulinoma with liver, lymph node, and mesenteric metastases (12, 45, 46). The first cure of hyperinsulinism following surgical removal of an insulinoma was reported in 1929 by the Canadian surgeon Roscoe R. Graham (1890–1948) (12, 47–49).

Localization

Localization of the insulinoma and exclusion or confirmation of metastatic disease by CT is still the preferred initial localization modality followed by EUS or magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) for indolent, localized insulinomas (Table 1) (Fig. 3). Glucagon-like peptide 1 receptor (GLP-1R) PET/CT or PET/MRI is a highly sensitive localization technique for seemingly occult, indolent, localized insulinomas and has become increasingly popular.

Preoperative localization of nonmetastatic insulinomas is important and sometimes difficult, because approximately 30% of insulinomas are less than 10 mm in diameter. Furthermore, particularly in patients with MEN1, 10% of insulinomas can be multiple (36). The anatomical localization of nonmetastatic insulinomas is also important for the choice between laparoscopic, robot-assisted, and open pancreatic surgery and between enucleation or resection, or partial pancreatectomy (7, 54). The GLP-1R is mainly expressed on the pancreatic β cells, overexpressed on indolent insulinoma and

Table 1. Imaging strategies in patients with insulinoma

	Sensitivity	Specificity	Reference
CT	54%	75%	(50)
MRI	54%	65%	(50)
EUS	81%	90%	(51)
ASVS	93%	86%	(52)
SSTR SPECT ^a	53%	50%	(50)
SSTR PET ^a	39%	14%	(50)
GLP-1R SPECT ^b	83%	40%	(50, 53)
GLP-1R PET ^b	87%	94%	(50, 53)

Abbreviations: ASVS, arterial stimulation and venous sampling; CT, computed tomography; EUS, endoscopic ultrasound; GLP-1R, glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; PET, positron emission tomography; SPECT, single-photon emission computed tomography; SSTR, somatostatin receptor.

^aPreferably used in patients with aggressive, malignant, metastatic insulinomas.

^bPreferably used in patients with indolent (“benign”) localized insulinomas.

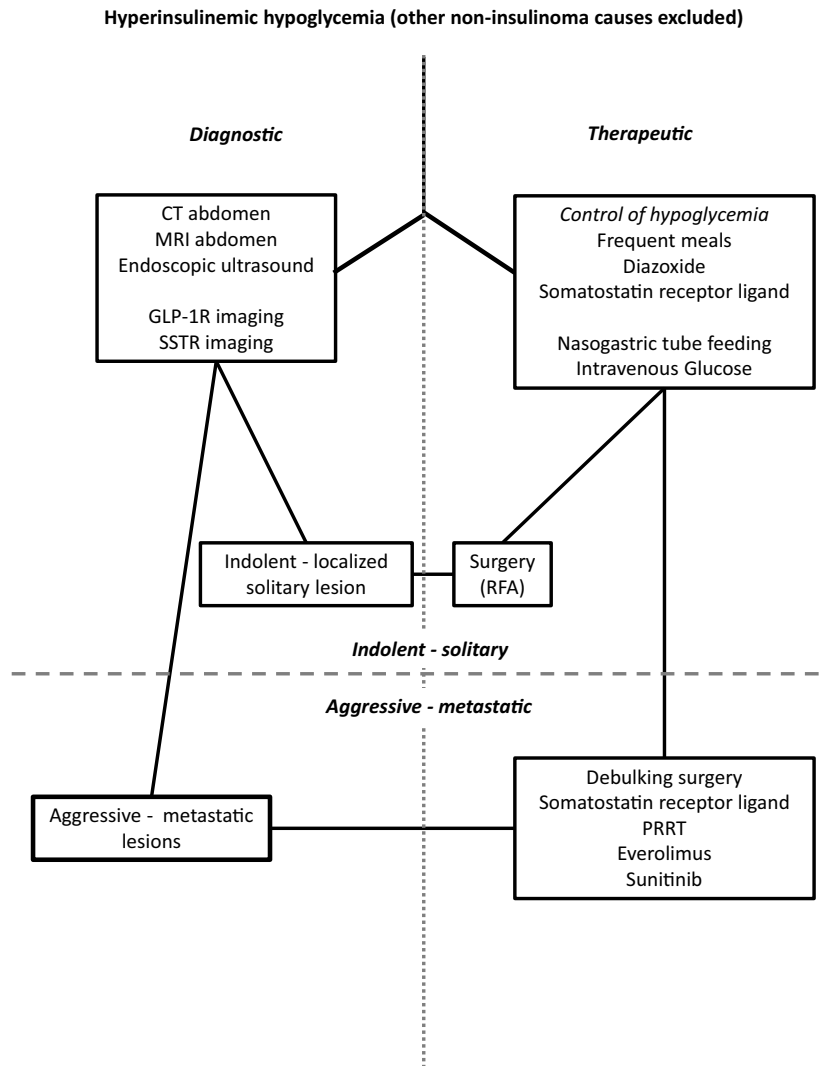


Figure 3. Algorithm for clinical suspicion of insulinoma. After the diagnosis of hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia, imaging procedures should be performed to locate the source of hyperinsulinism and hypoglycemia should be prevented by dietary and medical interventions. Following the detection of the localized or metastatic insulinoma, tumor-directed surgical and/or medical therapy should be initiated. GLP-1R, glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor; PRRT, peptide receptor radionuclide therapy; RFA, radiofrequency ablation; SSTR, somatostatin receptor.

is therefore an interesting target for imaging of (previously occult) indolent localized insulinomas (55, 56). In various studies, the radiolabeled GLP-1R agonists ^{111}In -DOTA-exendin-4 single-photon emission computer tomography (SPECT) and/or ^{68}Ga -DOTA-exendin-4 PET successfully detected localized indolent insulinomas. ^{68}Ga -DOTA-exendin-4 PET/CT is more sensitive than ^{111}In -DOTA-exendin-4 SPECT/CT (57–60). In case 1, who had localized indolent insulinoma, the GLP-1R PET/CT was clearly positive in the pancreatic lesion (Fig. 1), whereas SSTR2 PET/CT was negative. However, as opposed to localized indolent insulinomas, aggressive malignant insulinomas often lack the expression of the GLP-1R. Conversely, malignant aggressive insulinomas usually express the SSTR2, which can be targeted with PET/CT or PET/MRI using ^{68}Ga -DOTA-labeled somatostatin receptor ligands (SRLs), or in the past with somatostatin receptor scintigraphy and SPECT using ^{111}In -pentetreotide (30, 57). In case 2, who had metastatic insulinoma, the SSTR PET/CT showed positive uptake in all tumor lesions (Fig. 2). In this case, no GLP-1R PET/CT was performed.

In the past, selective pancreatic angiography and selective intra-arterial injection of calcium with sampling of hepatic vein insulin were routinely used in high-volume centers. This invasive regionalization (an exact localization will be never given) procedure became less used because of the improved imaging procedures mentioned above (61–63).

If all localization and regionalization techniques fail to localize a tumor, intraoperative palpation of the pancreas and intraoperative ultrasound might still prove to be successful (54).

Pathophysiology and Pathology

Pathophysiology

Despite a low tumor mutational burden, insulinomas are enriched for genetic mutations and copy number variants in epigenetic modifiers (64). This suggests a central role for chromatin remodeling in the pathogenesis of insulinomas. The predominant recurring genetic variant in up to 30% of insulinomas is an activating T372R mutation in the Yin Yang 1

(*YY1*) gene, which is absent in nonfunctioning panNEN (65). *YY1* is a transcriptional activator of the insulin gene. *MEN1* mutations appear to be less common in insulinomas than nonfunctioning panNEN, but insulinomas do display loss of heterozygosity of the *MEN1* region at chromosome 11q13.1 in 30% of cases (30, 64). Insulinomas are also associated with aberrant methylation patterns, including of the insulin promoter, where noncanonical transcription factors drive insulin expression (66).

Pathology

The World Health Organization classification and grading of panNEN separates these tumors using the Ki67 index (MIB-1 antibody staining) into 4 broad categories: well-differentiated panNET grade 1, 2, or 3 (G1-2-3) and poorly differentiated pancreatic neuroendocrine carcinomas (NEC). Helpful for the distinction of panNEC from G3 panNET is the overexpression of p53 and loss of expression of Rb1. Insulin staining is not obligatorily positive in insulinomas and is usually not necessarily required once the clinical diagnosis has been made (20, 27, 67, 68).

Indolent and aggressive insulinomas are different entities. Aggressive insulinomas are characterized by rapid onset of symptoms, larger size, and expression of ARX and alpha-1-antitrypsin, and decreased or absent immunohistochemical expression of insulin, PDX1, and GLP-1R. Moreover, aggressive insulinomas often harbor *ATRAX* and *DAXX* mutations, the alternative lengthening of telomeres phenotype and chromosomal instability. Tumor grade and somatic *MEN1* or *YY1* mutations are less useful for predicting clinical behavior. Aggressive insulinomas have similarities to normal α cells and nonfunctioning panNETs, whereas indolent insulinomas remain closely related to normal β cells (30, 69).

Treatment

Prevention of Hypoglycemia

Supportive measures (70)

Dietary/glucose: regular meals or snacks rich in slow carbohydrates, also ante noctem, are generally recommended (Fig. 3). The inclusion of a bedtime or late night meal is sufficient in most patients, but nocturnal tube feeding might be required to avoid nocturnal hypoglycemia in severely symptomatic patients. IV glucose administered via a central IV indwelling catheter might be needed for the control of severe recurrent hypoglycemia. A continuous glucose monitoring system can support patients in recognizing hypoglycemic events and prevent serious complications, especially during the night (71–74).

Medical treatment

Diazoxide is a nondiuretic benzothiadiazide vasodilator also known to control insulin secretion by blocking the adenosine triphosphate-dependent potassium channels of the pancreatic β cells (75). Furthermore, it likely also has an extrapancreatic effect that increases the hepatic glucose output (76, 77). Generally, doses between 300 and 900 mg per day, usually divided into 3 equal and increasing doses every 8 hours, are rapidly successful in reversing hypoglycemia. The most frequent dose-limiting side effects of diazoxide occurring in up to 80% are fluid retention and edema, palpitations, nausea, anorexia, and hirsutism in female patients. Combination

with a thiazide diuretic is generally recommended to prevent fluid retention, edema, and severe weight gain (7, 70, 78–80).

Somatostatin receptor ligands—first-generation

Expression of the SSTR2 and SSTR5 is generally low in indolent insulinoma cells, but usually high in aggressive insulinomas (81). The currently commercially available first-generation SRLs, octreotide and lanreotide, both have a high affinity for the SSTR2, and some affinity to SSTR3 and SSTR5. The long-acting SRL, lanreotide Autogel, is the approved first-line therapy for control of tumor growth in low grade (G1-2) panNET. SRLs can adequately suppress the pathologic insulin hypersecretion in patients with insulinomas that express SSTR2 (17, 70, 81, 82). A challenge with subcutaneous administration of the short-acting SRL octreotide, is generally recommended before switching to a long-acting formulation. This test is required to avoid and timely intervene for a paradoxical aggravation of hypoglycemia via the suppression of counterregulatory glucagon secretion in patients with insulinomas which lack SSTR2 expression (81–84).

Somatostatin receptor ligands—second-generation

Pasireotide is a second-generation multireceptor SRL that binds with high affinity to SSTR types 1, 2, 3, and 5 (85). In Cushing disease, acromegaly and in phase 2-3 studies in NET (including panNET), hyperglycemia (79%), and type 2 diabetes were important side effects observed with pasireotide because of its inhibitory effects on incretin release (86–92). However, until now, pasireotide has not been approved for the treatment of panNET. Anecdotal reports show successful control with pasireotide of hypoglycemia in patients with insulinoma (75, 93–97).

Other drugs

Glucocorticoids are sometimes used to control the hypoglycemia but their chronic use poses a significant risk for side effects (eg, weight gain, neuropsychiatric disturbances, hypertension, secondary [opportunistic] infections). Also β -adrenergic receptor blocking drugs, phenytoin, diltiazem, and verapamil have been tried with some success in selected cases (98–101).

RZ358

RZ538 is a human monoclonal antibody that binds to a unique site on the insulin receptor and acts as negative allosteric modulator of insulin receptor. Currently, its effects have been studied in an open-label multiple-dose study in patients with congenital hyperinsulinism (NCT04538989). Recently, the successful use of RZ358 was reported in a patient with severe refractory hypoglycemia and a malignant insulinoma (102).

Treatment of Localized, Nonmetastatic Insulinoma Surgery and ablation

For single solitary insulinomas, curative surgical excision remains the treatment of choice. However, it should be performed only when the diagnosis is certain and by a surgeon who is skilled in pancreatic surgery. EUS with special focus on the relationship between the tumor and the pancreatic duct is an excellent tool to guide surgical resectability. Laparoscopic, or robot-assisted enucleation of an insulinoma, has been shown to be feasible, particularly if the lesion is

visualized preoperatively on CT scan, or by EUS, and when there is sufficient distance to the pancreatic and/or common bile duct. Localized insulinomas at the head of the pancreas rarely require a pancreaticoduodenectomy (Whipple procedure), thereby avoiding considerable morbidity (54, 103).

Complications following pancreas resection include postoperative pancreatic fistula, postpancreatectomy hemorrhage, and delayed gastric emptying together with exocrine and endocrine pancreatic insufficiency. These complications seem to occur at higher rates than those observed in patients undergoing surgery for other solid pancreatic tumors (54, 103–105). Perioperative SRL administration may reduce the perioperative complications (106). Enucleation is favored for small lesions (<2 cm) located >2 to 3 mm from the main pancreatic and/or common bile duct (54, 103, 107). In a large series of >1000 patients undergoing surgery for panNET, the complication rates as defined by a Clavien–Dindo score ≥ 3 was 32% for pancreaticoduodenectomy, 20% for distal pancreatectomy, and 25% for enucleation, whereas the rate of pancreatic fistula grade B/C was 23%, 29%, and 33%, respectively (107, 108). In case 1, the patient successfully underwent a robot-assisted laparoscopic enucleation of the insulinoma without any complications.

Nonsurgical therapy can be considered in patients who either have comorbidities precluding resection or do not want to undergo resection after being appropriately counseled about therapeutic options. In selected cases, curative EUS-guided radiofrequency ablation of a localized insulinoma can be feasible and safe, although long-term data are pending (19, 54, 103, 109–112). Stereotactic body radiotherapy is another promising noninvasive therapeutic modality that has also been shown to be able control hypoglycemia in selected patients with insulinoma (113, 114).

The approach to MEN1-associated (multiple) insulinomas differs from that in patients without MEN1 (54, 115). In patients with MEN1 and confirmed endogenous hyperinsulinism and multiple panNET at imaging, a selective intra-arterial injection of calcium with sampling of hepatic vein insulin or ^{68}Ga -DOTA-exendin-4 PET/CT can regionalize or localize the insulinoma(s) and differentiate it/them from concurrent nonfunctional panNETs (28, 54, 116). In the past, the use of intraoperative intratumoral alcohol injection in patients with MEN1 with multiple panNET/insulinoma(s), in whom surgical resection was not feasible, induced good symptom control (117).

Treatment of Metastatic or Inoperable Aggressive Insulinoma

Debulking

In aggressive malignant cases, debulking of the panNEN, including locoregional lymph nodes can be considered on a case-by-case basis, particularly in an attempt to control the endogenous hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia (54, 103, 118). Also, liver metastases can be resected, or treated by transarterial bland or chemo-embolization, radioembolization, radiofrequency ablation, microwave and cryoablation, high-intensity focused ultrasound, laser, brachytherapy, and irreversible electroporation depending on the local availability (75, 119). If more than 90% of tumor load can be resected, palliative surgery can also be considered.

However, most aggressive malignant metastatic insulinomas cannot be cured by surgery or ablation procedures alone

and require supportive measures, medical antihormonal, and antitumor treatment (54).

Somatostatin receptor ligands

SRLs not only inhibit hormone release by functioning NENs, including insulin by a subset of insulinomas, but also suppress tumor growth (120). Although no large case series on tumor stabilization of metastatic insulinoma by SRLs are available, SRLs can be considered as first-line therapy for metastatic insulinomas.

Peptide receptor radionuclide therapy

PRRT with radiolabeled SRL is an established second-line treatment for well-differentiated (tumor Ki67 index $\leq 20\%$) gastrointestinal tract and pancreas NET (7, 15, 121, 122). At present, β -radiation-emitting ^{177}Lu -DOTATATE is the only approved theranostic therapy (15, 122, 123). It is imperative to demonstrate expression of SSTR on the tumors using pretreatment ^{68}Ga -DOTANOC/DOTATOC/DOTATATE PET/CT (122). Favorable symptomatic and biochemical responses using PRRT with ^{177}Lu -DOTATATE have been obtained in small patient series with functioning metastatic gastrointestinal tract and pancreas NEN like metastatic insulinomas, even when there was no visible tumor regression (75, 80, 122, 124–126). Acute side effects of PRRT are usually mild and include nausea and gastrointestinal upset, but these are probably more related to the amino acid infusions coadministered for kidney protection. However, rare (2%) but serious side effects include severe and irreversible bone marrow disease (pancytopenia, acute myelogenous leukemia, and myelodysplastic syndrome) (7, 15, 121, 122). In case 2, the patient underwent PRRT (4 cycles) and salvage PRRT (2 cycles) with ^{177}Lu -DOTATATE.

Everolimus

Everolimus is a mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) inhibitor with antiproliferative activity in metastatic NET, including malignant insulinomas, via inhibition of signaling in the phosphoinositide 3-kinase/Akt/mTOR pathway. The drug is currently approved for the treatment of adult patients with advanced, progressive, and both functioning and non-functioning well-differentiated panNET (127). Inhibition of the mTOR signaling pathway further results in impaired skeletal muscle and adipose tissue glucose uptake, impaired insulin-mediated suppression of hepatic gluconeogenesis, and impaired pancreatic β -cell insulin secretion (75). The hyperglycemic effect of everolimus (and other mTOR inhibitors) is, therefore, a welcome side effect in the antiproliferative treatment of insulinomas (75, 128–130). Other major adverse effects of everolimus include skin rash, stomatitis, fatigue, gastrointestinal upset, pneumonitis, anemia, and opportunistic infections (75, 127). In case 2, the patient was treated with everolimus, which resulted in normalization of blood glucose levels.

Sunitinib

Sunitinib is an oral multitargeted receptor tyrosine kinase inhibitor that has antiangiogenic and antitumor activity by inhibiting a number of molecular pathways involved in angiogenesis. It is approved for the treatment of progressive, well-differentiated panNET in patients with unresectable locally advanced or metastatic disease (131). In contrast to

everolimus, sunitinib does not directly influence insulin secretion or insulin resistance. Conversely, sunitinib therapy in patients with advanced renal cell cancer resulted in a decrease of the blood glucose levels (132). Further adverse events include mucositis, skin rash, hand-foot syndrome, diarrhea, nausea, vomiting, fatigue, hypertension, and neutropenia (75, 131).

Cytotoxic chemotherapy

Systemic chemotherapy is currently recommended in advanced high-grade pancreatic NEN (NET grade 3 and NEC) (75, 133–139). Historically, (combinations of) 5-fluorouracil, doxorubicin, and streptozotocin have been used for the treatment of inoperable functioning and nonfunctioning pancreatic high-grade NET, including malignant insulinomas (7, 75). However, these drugs and their combinations cause considerable toxicities. For NEC, the combination of cisplatin or carboplatin with etoposide is most commonly used (7, 70, 75, 134, 135, 139, 140). Recent trials show objective responses and good tolerance of temozolomide-based chemotherapy regimens like the capecitabine and temozolomide regimen in panNEN of all grades (141–144). Again, it can be expected that considerable debulking following chemotherapy will be associated with less frequent and less severe hypoglycemias.

Disclosures

J.H. has received honoraria for speaker engagements and/or for advisory boards from Ipsen, Novartis, and Serb. J.C.R. declares that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest. R.A.F. has received honoraria for speaker engagements and/or research grants from Recordati and Corcept. E.C. has received honoraria for speaker engagements from Novartis, Ipsen, Pfizer, HRA Pharma, Novo Nordisk, and AAA and for advisory boards from AAA, Pfizer, HRA Pharma, Ricordati Pharma GmbH, and Novo Nordisk. W.W.d.H. has received honoraria for speaker engagements and/or for advisory boards from Ipsen and Novartis.

Data Availability

Data sharing is not applicable to this article as no data sets were generated or analyzed during the current study.

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