A case report with functional characterization of a HNF1B mutation (p.Leu168Pro) causing MODY5

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Abstract. We previously performed next-generation sequencing-based genetic screening in patients with autoantibody-negative type 1 diabetes, and identified the p.Leu168Pro mutation in HNF1B. Here, we report the clinical course of the patient and the results of functional characterization of this mutation. The proband had bilateral renal hypodysplasia and developed insulin-dependent diabetes during childhood. The pathogenicity of Leu168Pro-HNF1B was evaluated with three-dimensional structure modeling, Western blotting, immunofluorescence analysis and luciferase reporter assays using human embryonic kidney 293 cells. Three-dimensional structure modeling predicted that the Leu168 residue is buried in the DNA-binding Pit-Oct-Unc-specific (POUS) domain and forms a hydrophobic core. Western blotting showed that the protein expression level of Leu168Pro-HNF1B was lower than that of wild-type (WT) HNF1B. Immunofluorescence staining showed that both WT- and Leu168Pro-HNF1B were normally localized in the nucleus. The cells transfected with WT-HNF1B exhibited 5-fold higher luciferase reporter activity than cells transfected with an empty vector. The luciferase activities were comparable between WT-HNF1B/Leu168Pro-HNF1B and WT-HNF1B/empty vector co-transfection. In conclusion, Leu168Pro is a protein-destabilizing HNF1B mutation, and the destabilization is likely due to the structural changes involving the hydrophobic core of POU5. The disease-causing Leu168Pro HNF1B mutation is a loss-of-function mutation without a dominant-negative effect.

Key words: HNF1B, mutation, genetics, MODY5, multicystic dysplastic kidney

Introduction

Maturity-onset diabetes of the young (MODY) is a monogenic form of diabetes characterized by autosomal dominant inheritance, early onset and absence of β-cell autoimmunity. Fourteen different genes have been reported to be associated with MODY (1). MODY3 and MODY2 are the most common forms of MODY in Caucasians, accounting for 33–56% and 25–50% of cases, respectively (2–4). MODY5 is a relatively rare form of MODY, accounting for 2–6% of cases (5, 6). Genetic mutations in hepatocyte nuclear factor (HNF)-1B are known to cause MODY5 (7), which is characterized by various types of complications, the most common of which are renal malformations, such as horseshoe kidney, renal dysplasia, and multiple renal cysts (8-10). In addition, gonadal dysplasia, hepatic dysfunction, hyperuricemia, and bile duct dilatation have also been reported (11, 12). Patients with MODY5 have reduced insulin sensitivity to endogenous glucose production (13). HNF1B is located on chromosome 17q12 and is highly homologous to HNF1A. HNF1B is a tissue-specific transcription factor that forms homodimers or heterodimers with HNF1A and transactivates a variety of genes, such as albumin, α-fetoprotein, and glucose transporter 2 (14, 15). The crystal structure...
of the HNF1B DNA-binding domain revealed the presence of Pit-Oct-Unc (POU)-specific (POUS) and POU homeodomain (POUH) (16). According to the Human Protein Atlas database (https://www.proteinatlas.org/), HNF1B is expressed most abundantly in the kidney, and the second most abundantly in the exocrine pancreas. The HNF1B protein is also expressed in the genital tract, liver, gut, and lungs. This broad expression pattern of HNF1B is likely associated with multiple complications seen in the HNF1B defect (17). Various types of HNF1B mutations have been reported, including 117 missense, 98 nonsense, 58 frameshift, and 24 splice site mutations, according to the Human Gene Mutation Database (http://www.hgmd.cf.ac.uk/ac/).

We previously performed next-generation sequencing-based genetic screening in Japanese patients with autoantibody-negative type 1 diabetes (18) and identified the p.Leu168Pro mutation in HNF1B. However, the details of the examination and transition of treatment of the patient and functional characterization of the mutation were not reported. In this study, we report the clinical course of the patient and the results of the functional characterization of this previously uncharacterized mutation.

### Patient and Methods

**Patient report**

The patient was a Japanese boy born at 36 wk of gestational age and weighed 2,232 g (−1.2 SD) (Fig. 1). During pregnancy, no morphological abnormalities of the fetus, including renal malformations, were reported through routine ultrasonographic check-ups. Soon after birth, he was noted to have an imperforate anus. Ultrasonography revealed right renal hypodysplasia and left renal dysplasia. Blood examination showed that serum creatinine levels were increased, but no significant hyperglycemia was observed. Renograms demonstrated that the kidneys were nonfunctional.

![Graph](image.png)

**Fig. 1.** Growth charts of the patient. The circles represent the patient’s height and weight. Treatments for chronic kidney disease (CKD) and diabetes (DM) are aligned with ages of the growth charts. CAPD indicates continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis.
He was diagnosed with chronic kidney disease (CKD) and was followed by pediatric nephrologists since then. Due to the progression of CKD, continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis was started at 9 yr of age. At 10 yr of age, a routine blood examination showed a high random plasma glucose level (19.6 mmol/mol; reference 3.9–11.1) and a high glycated hemoglobin level of 9.3% (78 mmol/mol; reference 26–44), although he had no symptom of diabetes. Diabetic ketoacidosis was not observed. Both glutamic acid decarboxylase antibody and tyrosine phosphatase-like insulinoma antigen 2 antibodies were negative. He was initially treated with oral agents, including pioglitazone, miglitol, and gliclazide. Subsequently, insulin glargine was added to miglitol 4 mo after the diagnosis because his glycemic profiles worsened. Pioglitazone and miglitol were discontinued. He ultimately received a renal transplant at the age of 13 yr. Since the age of 13 yr, before the renal transplant, he was treated with a basal-bolus regimen with insulin aspart and insulin glargine. Based on this clinical course, the patient was diagnosed with autoantibody-negative type 1 diabetes (19). To clarify the molecular basis of autoantibody-negative type 1 diabetes, a genetic test was performed. After that, glycated hemoglobin levels were maintained at approximately 6%. The random serum C-peptide level at the latest visit was 0.2 ng/mL (ref: > 0.6 ng/mL). There was no family history of early onset diabetes or CKD.

Ethics

This study was approved by Ethics Committee of National Center for Child Health and Development and performed in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. Written informed consent for genetic and clinical investigations was obtained from the patients’ parents.

Three-dimensional structure modelling of the HNF1B protein

The three-dimensional structure of HNF1B was modeled using data from the HNF1B-DNA complex (accession number 2H8R) obtained from the Protein Data Bank (https://www.rcsb.org/), and visualized using PyMOL version 0.99 (https://pymol.org/).

Plasmids

Human HNF1B cDNA was purchased from Addgene (Watertown, MA, USA; Plasmid #31101). We created a vector expressing the N-terminal FLAG-enhanced green fluorescent protein-tagged-HNF1B fusion protein by inserting the FLAG sequence and HNF1B cDNA sequence into pEGFP-C1 using the Gibson assembly technique (NEBuilder HiFi DNA Assembly Master Mix; New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, USA). Leu168Pro was introduced using the standard site-directed mutagenesis technique.

We created a firefly luciferase reporter containing the promoter sequence of the human ALB promoter gene corresponding to the −163/−1 region. The human ALB promoter sequence was amplified using the following primers: 5’- GCC AAG AAT ATT ATT T G TGA ATC G-3’ (forward) and 5’- CAT TGT GCC AAA GGC GTG TGG GTT T-3’ (reverse). The human ALB promoter sequence was cloned into pGL4.10 (Promega, Madison, WI, USA). To enhance HNF1-dependent transactivation, we chemically synthesized four tandem repeats of the HNF1 recognition sequence (5’- AGT CTA GGT AAT AAT CTA CTT AGT TAA TAA TCT ACG AAG TTA ATA ATC TAC G-3’; HNF1B recognition sequence underlined), and inserted it into the native recognition site (4×HNF-luc).

Cell culture and transient transfection

Human embryonic kidney 293 cells were grown in DMEM supplemented with 50 IU/mL penicillin, 50 µg/mL streptomycin, and 10% fetal bovine serum. Transient transfection of each effector plasmid with or without the luciferase reporter was performed using Lipofectamine 3000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) according to the manufacturer’s protocol.

Western blotting and immunofluorescence analysis

For Western blotting, the cells were seeded in 24-well plates. At 48 h after transfection, the cells were harvested and subjected to sodium dodecyl sulphate–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE). Western blotting was performed with a mouse monoclonal anti-FLAG M2 antibody (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) at 500:1 dilution and anti-tubulin antibody (Abcam, Cambridge, UK; #ab6160) at 1000:1 dilution. Horseradish peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG polyclonal antibody (Sigma-Aldrich) was used as the secondary antibody. Signals were detected using a chemiluminescence kit (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA).

For immunofluorescence analysis, the cells were seeded in 35-mm glass-bottom dishes. At 48 h after transfection, the cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) at room temperature for 10 min. After fixation, the cells were permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS at room temperature for 10 min and incubated with 0.1% Hoechst 33342 in PBS for 10 min at room temperature. The cells were observed under an FV1000-D confocal microscope (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

Luciferase reporter assays

Human embryonic kidney 293 cells were seeded in 96-well plates (approximately 70–80% confluence) and transiently transfected with 100 ng of the 4×HNF-luc reporter vector together with 3 ng of each HNF1B expression vector (WT or Leu168Pro) or an empty vector.
Firefly luciferase activity was measured 48 h after transfection using ONE-Glo Luciferase Reporter Assay System (Promega) and a FlexStation 3 microplate reader (Molecular Devices, San Jose, CA, USA). Luciferase activity was measured in triplicate, and all assays were replicated at least thrice. Statistical significance was determined using the t-test. A two-tailed $P$-value with an alpha level for significance was set at $\leq 0.05$.

**Results**

Detection of a novel **HNF1B** mutation p.Leu168Pro

In our previous study (18), we performed a systematic investigation of genetic defects causing monogenic diabetes in Japanese patients clinically diagnosed with autoantibody-negative type 1 diabetes, and found that the patient described above had a heterozygous missense mutation of **HNF1B** (c.503T>C, p.Leu168Pro) (18) (**Fig. 2A**). This mutation was not registered in any of the mutation/polymorphism databases, including 1000 Genomes Database (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov), gnomAD database (http://gnomad.broadinstitute.org), dbSNP database (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/projects/SNP), and Tohoku Medical Megabank database (https://jmorp.megabank.tohoku.ac.jp). The amino acid leucine at position 168 of HNF1B and the corresponding residue of HNF1A is highly conserved across species (**Fig. 2B**). No other rare mutations were detected in the other tested diabetes-related genes. The parents declined familial genetic analysis.

**Location of Leu168 in the HNF1B protein**

The location of the Leu168 residue in the HNF1B protein was assessed using the crystal structure data of the HNF1B-DNA complex. Three-dimensional structure modeling of HNF1B showed that Leu168 is buried inside the POU$_S$ domain and likely configures a hydrophobic core (**Fig. 2C**).

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**Fig. 2.** The **HNF1B** mutation reported in this study. A: The structure of the HNF1B protein. Arrow indicates the position of the Leu168Pro mutation. DNA binding domains of HNF1B consist of the Pit-Oct-Unc (POU)-specific domain (POU$_S$) and the POU homeodomain (POU$_H$). B: Three-dimensional structure modeling of the DNA-binding domain (POU$_S$ and POU$_H$) of the HNF1B protein. The Leu168 residue is colored in red. The residue is buried in the core of the POU$_S$ domain. C: Comparison of amino acid sequences of HNF1A and HNF1B among the species. The amino acid leucine at position 168 of the HNF1B and HNF1A proteins is highly conserved.
Protein expression and subcellular localization

To verify the pathogenicity of the p.Leu168Pro HNF1B mutation, we performed a series of expression experiments using human embryonic kidney 293 cells. Western blotting showed that the protein expression level of Leu168Pro-HNF1B was lower than that of WT-HNF1B (Fig. 3A). Immunofluorescence staining showed that both WT- and Leu168Pro-HNF1B were normally localized in the nucleus (Fig. 3B).

Luciferase reporter assays

The cells transfected with WT-HNF1B exhibited 5-fold higher luciferase activity of the 4×HNF-luc reporter than the cells transfected with the empty vector (Fig. 3C). This HNF1B-dependent transactivation was completely abolished in Leu168Pro-HNF1B. We then tested whether Leu168Pro-HNF1B interferes with the activity of WT-HNF1B (i.e., dominant negative effect) by co-transfection experiments. The luciferase activities were comparable between WT-HNF1B/Leu168Pro-HNF1B co-transfection and WT-HNF1B/empty vector co-transfection, indicating that Leu168Pro-HNF1B does not exert a dominant negative effect (Fig. 3D).

Discussion

We report the clinical course of an HNF1B mutation-carrying Japanese boy with bilateral renal hypodysplasia and autoantibody-negative insulin-resistant diabetes mellitus. This patient had a HNF1B mutation (p.L168P) causing MODY5.

Fig. 3. Functional analysis of the Leu168Pro-HNF1B mutation. A: Protein expression levels of FLAG-EGFP-HNF1B [wildtype (WT) and Leu168Pro] were evaluated by Western blotting. The expected size of the FLAG-EGFP-HNF1B protein is indicated by an arrow. The expression level of the Leu168Pro protein was low. EV indicates empty vector. B: Intracellular localization of WT- and Leu168Pro-FLAG-EGFP-HNF1B. Hoechst 33342 (blue) was used for nuclear staining. C, D: Luciferase assays. Human embryonic kidney 293 cells were transfected with indicated amount (nanograms) of each HNF1B expression vector (WT and Leu168Pro). Left panel displays the results comparing WT-HNF1B (black bar) and Leu168Pro-HNF1B (red bar). Transactivating capacities of the FLAG-EGFP-HNF1B proteins (WT or Leu168Pro) were evaluated by the 4×HNF-luc reporter. Leu168Pro-HNF1B showed a negligible transacting capacity. Right panel displays the results comparing WT/Leu168Pro co-transfection (black and red bar) and WT/EV co-transfection (black and white bar). Dominant negative effect of the Leu168Pro mutation was assessed by performing the co-transfection experiment. The transactivation observed in WT/Leu168Pro co-transfection was comparable to that of WT/EV co-transfection.
dependent diabetes in childhood. We characterized the Leu168Pro HNF1B mutation in vitro and confirmed that it was a loss-of-function mutation.

The HNF1B defect is the most commonly known monogenic form of CKD (17). Previous genetic studies of HNF1B in CKD patients have reported that the proportion of mutation carriers was 5–31% (9, 20–26). Renal phenotypes of HNF1B mutation carriers are variable, ranging from normal to renal dysplasia with end-stage renal failure (10). Therefore, it is difficult to predict which CKD patients have the HNF1B defect based on renal symptoms alone. Diabetes, the second most frequent phenotype of the HNF1B defect (27), has been observed in 5–50% of HNF1B mutation carriers in previous studies (20–24). The presence of diabetes is a clinical key to suspect the HNF1B defect in CKD patients. Typically, onset of diabetes in the HNF1B defect is in the teens or twenties (20, 22, 23, 28), as in our patient. It is noteworthy that severity of diabetes is also variable: Dubois-Laforgue et al. reported that 49% of 140 HNF1B mutation-carrying patient with diabetes were treated with insulin at onset of diabetes, while 18% and 33% were treated with diet alone and oral hypoglycemic agents, respectively (28). Thus, even if the diabetes in a CKD patient is mild and can be controlled with oral medication alone, the HNF1B defect should be suspected. The previous studies reported that five out of six patients with the HNF1B defect treated with insulin immediately after diagnosis (29, 30). In our case, the patient was diagnosed with diabetes at 10 yr of age but did not require insulin therapy for 3 yr. We speculate that the reason for the slow progression of our patient might be due to the fact that he had been receiving frequent blood tests for renal failure, resulting in very early detection of hyperglycemia.

We showed that Leu168Pro-HNF1B had an abrogated transactivating capacity on a reporter vector containing the four tandem repeats of the HNF1 recognition sequence. Co-transfection experiments of WT and HNF1B mutations showed no dominant negative effects. Leu168Pro-HNF1B showed decreased protein expression. The most likely explanation for the low protein expression level is protein instability due to a structural change involving the POU5 domain, as suggested by three-dimensional modeling, because the leucine to proline substitution would disorganize the hydrophobic core of POU5.

Conclusion

We report the clinical course of the patient with the Leu168Pro HNF1B mutation and investigated the functional characteristics of the mutation. The results of our study indicate that (i) the substitution of Leu168 with proline probably affects the hydrophobic core of POU5; (ii) the protein expression level of HNF1B is negatively affected by the Leu168Pro mutation; and (iii) Leu168Pro-HNF1B does not have a dominant negative effect. Our findings would contribute to a better understanding of the structure-function relationships of HNF1B.

Conflict of interests: The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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