Oxygen-sensing pathways orchestrate phenotypic adjustments from the cellular to the whole-body level, allowing function and survival under a variety of conditions. The hypoxic response is exquisitely sensitive and dynamic, with relatively small changes in oxygen availability initiating transcriptional and post-transcriptional responses. A fundamental process in this pathway is the ubiquitination and subsequent degradation of the hypoxia-inducible factors (HIFs), processes that are mainly regulated by the oxygen- and iron-dependent activity of the prolyl hydroxylase domain (PHD) enzymes and that require von Hippel–Lindau tumor suppressor (VHL).

VHL encodes four different isoforms (pVHL-213, pVHL-160, pVHL-172, and pVHL-X1). Mutations leading to VHL loss of function result in a number of diseases with divergent features. These diseases include the VHL syndrome, an inherited disorder due to germline VHL alterations that lead to a predisposition to the development, on a somatic second hit, of a variety of tumors and fluid-filled sacs (cysts) in several body regions; sporadic tumors, such as cerebellar hemangioblastomas, pheochromocytomas, and clear-cell renal-cell carcinoma; and familial erythrocytosis type 2, caused by a biallelic germline VHL mutation (canonically c.598C>T [R200W], causing Chuvash polycythemia) that results in increased expression of HIF target genes. Different sporadic VHL mutations have been reported in addition to the canonical R200W mutation; some of these mutations are associated with divergent diseases. We describe a patient with marked erythrocytosis and prominent mitochondrial alterations associated with a severe germline VHL deficiency due to homozygosity for a novel synonymous mutation (c.222C>A, p.V74V). The condition is characterized by early systemic onset and differs from Chuvash polycythemia (c.598C>T) in that it is associated with a strongly reduced growth rate, persistent hypoglycemia, and limited exercise capacity. We report changes in gene expression that reprogram carbohydrate and lipid metabolism, impair muscle mitochondrial respiratory function, and uncouple oxygen consumption from ATP production. Moreover, we identified unusual intermitochondrial connecting ducts. Our findings add unexpected information on the importance of the VHL–hypoxia-inducible factor (HIF) axis to human phenotypes. (Funded by Associazione Italiana Ricerca sul Cancro and others.)
associated with severe clinical phenotypes. For example, D126N caused fatal pulmonary hypertension in a homozygous patient.\(^1\)

We present the clinical and molecular characterization of a case of familial erythrocytosis type 2 associated with a congenital, marked decrease in VHL levels. The patient had very early systemic onset of the disorder, with prenatal bradycardia and severe neonatal hypoglycemia. He underwent phlebotomy in his first days of life, and a polymorphic clinical phenotype developed. At the age of 12 years, he underwent clinical and genetic characterization that revealed homozygosity for a synonymous mutation in VHL (c.222C→A; p.V74V). The patient’s genetic background and disease-related features stray from canonical familial erythrocytosis type 2\(^2\) and suggest a new syndrome characterized by reduction in growth rate and pleiotropic alterations in energy metabolism, underpinned by marked mitochondrial dysfunction and structural changes.

**CASE REPORT**

The index patient, a son of healthy consanguineous white Italian parents (Fig. S1A in Supplementary Appendix 1, available with the full text of this article at NEJM.org; note that all supplementary figures and tables are located in Supplementary Appendix 1) was born by emergency cesarean section on evidence of prenatal bradycardia episodes. At birth, the index patient had severe hypoglycemia, which was treated with hydrocortisone for 1 month, and persistent bradycardia (Table 1). No signs of sepsis were detected. He received phototherapy for early neonatal jaundice and underwent phlebotomy when he was a few days old for hemoglobin and hematocrit values higher than the 99th percentile for his age.

A few months after birth, he began to show a marked failure to thrive and was administered recombinant growth hormone for 4 to 6 weeks, with no signs of growth hormone deficiency itself. Owing to the persistent hypoglycemia, he was treated with diazoxide for 3 years, which normalized his fasting glucose levels. When he was 12 years old, the patient was admitted to the University of Campania Hospital, Naples, Italy, with several phenotypic and metabolic abnormalities (Table 1), together with an abnormal cardiac rhythm, which manifested as bigeminal and trigeminal pulses and supraventricular premature beats (not judged as requiring treatment).

At the age of 13 years, his height and growth velocity were 3.0 SD below the normal population mean for his sex and age; growth hormone–releasing hormone (GHRH) and arginine-stimulation testing produced a growth hormone (GH) peak of 33.6 ng per milliliter (a normal response is in the mid-60s in this age group), highlighting impairment in the GHRH–growth hormone–insulin-like growth factor 1 (IGF1) pathway. He underwent therapy with recombinant human IGF1, starting at a dose of 0.04 mg per kilogram of body weight and increasing to a full dose of 0.12 mg per kilogram. His growth velocity increased by 50% in 4 months, and he reached a height of 159 cm, with his genetic target being 162 to 178 cm (Fig. S1B). The patient is currently 22 years old.

He has undergone periodic phlebotomies of 5 to 7 ml per kilogram since he was a few days old (lately every 3 to 4 weeks). Although described as detrimental in patients with Chuvash polycythemia,\(^13\) phlebotomy is currently the main prophylactic treatment\(^14\) for symptoms such as severe headache and muscle cramps, possibly because of blood hyperviscosity. The pleiotropic effects of iron deficiency\(^15\) demand strict control of iron bioavailability: iron supplementation (80 mg of ferrous sulfate per day), implemented since the patient was 14 years old, produced normal cellular iron availability (total iron-binding capacity, 402 μg per deciliter [72 μmol per liter]). The patient’s parents were similar to controls with respect to clinical and laboratory measures (not shown).

**METHODS**

**OVERSIGHT**

This study was approved by the institutional review board of the University of Campania Luigi Vanvitelli. The patient and his parents provided written informed consent.

**GENETIC ANALYSES**

The genetic and protein analyses were performed on peripheral-blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs). VHL exons were amplified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and sequenced. VHL messenger RNA (mRNA) was quantified by reverse-transcriptase–quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR). Expression of hypoxia-dependent genes was investigated with a comprehensive array RT\(^2\) Profiler PCR Array Human Hypoxia Signaling Path-
way (Qiagen). Transcription levels of selected genes were confirmed by RT-qPCR. Immunoblotting was used to analyze protein levels. Whole-genome sequencing and bioinformatics analyses were performed by Admera Health.

FUNCTIONAL AND LABORATORY STUDIES
Respirometry analyses were performed on muscle fibers. The in vivo phenotype of the index patient was characterized by investigating exercise capacity and cardiopulmonary responses to acute hypoxia (end-tidal partial pressure of oxygen, 50 mm Hg).

Blood and red-cell membrane lipids were studied by means of high-performance liquid chromatography and gas chromatography. Muscle metabolites were analyzed by ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography–mass spectrometry. Muscle ultrastructure was studied with transmission electron microscopy. Additional methodologic details, including details of the methods used to evaluate glycemia, are provided in Supplementary Appendix 1.

RESULTS
Mutational Analysis and Transcriptional and Biochemical Characterization
Direct sequencing of the exons and exon–intron boundaries of the VHL gene revealed homozygosity for a novel mutation causing a synonymous variation, p.V74V (c.222C→A) (Fig. 1A). To support the identification of pathogenic VHL mutations and to investigate the occurrence of other possible pathologic genetic variants, whole-genome sequencing of the patient and his parents was performed (Supplementary Appendix 1). Three groups of mutations were highlighted: mutations for which the patient was homozygous and his parents were simple heterozygous (Supplementary Appendix 2), mutations for which the patient was homozygous and the parents were compound double heterozygous (Supplementary Appendix 3), and mutations for which the patient was double heterozygous, with one mutation inherited from the heterozygous mother and one inherited from the heterozygous father (Supplementary Appendix 4).

A total of 249,010 mutations were identified, with only 1134 (0.46%) being exonic (Fig. S1C). As discussed in Supplementary Appendix 1, the use of predictive software for identifying damaging mutations or for pathway analysis identi-

Table 1. Clinical and Laboratory Measures.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Value in Patient</th>
<th>Reference Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>At birth</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hematocrit (%)</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>42–64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hemoglobin (g/dl)</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>14–19.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Glucose (mg/dl)</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>45–100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17-Hydroxyprogesterone (μg/liter)</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>0.7–43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insulin (μU/ml)</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>2.42–13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heart rate (beats/min)</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>120–160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>At genetic diagnosis (12 yr of age)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hematocrit (%)</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>35–46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hemoglobin (g/dl)</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>12.2–15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erythropoietin (mU/ml)</td>
<td>496</td>
<td>1.6–34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ferritin (ng/ml)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20–150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GHRH+arginine test, GH peak (ng/ml)</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>5–12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Height (cm)</td>
<td>132.3†</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glucose (mg/dl)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>60–100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blood pressure (mm Hg)</td>
<td>75/35‡</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venous lactate (mmol/liter)</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>&lt;1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Arterial blood gas analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>pH</td>
<td>7.41</td>
<td>7.38–7.42</td>
</tr>
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<td>pCO₂ (mm Hg)</td>
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<tr>
<td>pO₂ (mm Hg)</td>
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<td>83–105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cHCO₃⁻ (mmol/liter)</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>22–26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cBASE (mmol/liter)</td>
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<td>−2 to 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>At 22 yr of age</strong></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hematocrit (%)</td>
<td>55.5</td>
<td>37–49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hemoglobin (g/dl)</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>12.5–16.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reticulocyte count (cells/µl)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ferritin (ng/ml)</td>
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<td>20–150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total iron-binding capacity (µg/dl)</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>240–450</td>
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<tr>
<td>Insulin (µU/ml)</td>
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<td>Glucose (mg/dl)</td>
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<td>Cholesterol (mg/dl)</td>
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<td>HDL cholesterol (mg/dl)</td>
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<td>&gt;35</td>
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<tr>
<td>LDL cholesterol (mg/dl)</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>&lt;129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total cholesterol:HDL cholesterol ratio</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The main anomalous clinical and laboratory measures at each indicated age are shown. Reference values are the normal values for age and sex. The patient has been treated with monthly phlebotomies, iron supplementation, and periodic antihistaminic treatments. To convert the values for cholesterol to millimoles per liter, multiply by 0.02586. To convert the values for glucose to millimoles per liter, multiply by 0.05551. To convert the values for iron-binding capacity to micromoles per liter, multiply by 0.1791. To convert the values for insulin to picomoles per liter, multiply by 6.945. The term cBASE denotes base excess in blood, cHCO₃⁻ concentration of bicarbonate, GH growth hormone, GHRH growth hormone–releasing hormone, HDL high-density lipoprotein, LDL low-density lipoprotein, pCO₂ partial pressure of carbon dioxide, and pO₂ partial pressure of oxygen.

† The patient’s height was 3 SD below the population mean for his age and sex.
‡ The patient’s systolic blood pressure was 2 SD below the mean for his age and sex; his diastolic blood pressure was in the 3rd percentile for his age and sex.
Figure 1. Effects of the Mutation on VHL Levels.

Panel A shows a sequence chromatogram for VHL, which encodes von Hippel–Lindau tumor suppressor (VHL); the normal and mutated genome are shown, highlighting (in the box) the homozygous mutation at nucleotide 222 (C→A). The identified mutation affects VHL transcript maturation, since it creates an alternative donor site and causes a 121-bp loss of VHL mature RNA transcript. Panel B shows electrophoretic analysis of reverse-transcriptase–polymerase-chain-reaction (RT-PCR) products with primers designed against exons 1 and 2 (lane 1, molecular weight marker; lane 2, control participant [CTR]; lane 3, index patient [II1]; lane 4, index patient’s father [I1]). The sequence chromatogram shows the anomalous short band (372 bp) with 121-bp loss. Panel C shows normal and mutated VHL messenger RNA (mRNA) splicing, illustrating the reduction of exon 1. Altered splicing caused a shift in the open reading frame and orignates a premature stop codon. Panel D shows quantification of VHL mRNA in a control, the father of the index patient, and the index patient, from an analysis of a specific exon 2 region. Quantitative RT-PCR (RT-qPCR) was performed on total peripheral-blood mononuclear cell (PBMC) mRNA. Mean values from three independent evaluations are shown and are expressed as the ratio of the mRNA level in the patient to that in the control; I bars indicate the standard deviation. P values are for the comparison with control. Panel E shows Western blot analysis of VHL protein isoforms in PBMCs from a control and from the patient. VHL antibodies were directed against an epitope occurring in normal and mutated VHL. Tubulin (TUB) is a control for loading. The filter stained with ponceau red is shown to confirm equal loading.

fied no variation that was clearly related to the patient’s phenotype (Supplementary Appendixes 5 and 6). The c.222C→A change created a cryptic donor splicing site at nucleotide position 220 (NetGene2 and FSPlice). RNA was analyzed to characterize the effect of the c.222C→A change on splicing. Primers annealing on exons 1 and 2 of the VHL complementary DNA (cDNA) were designed to produce a 493-bp amplicon. A VHL RT-PCR analysis revealed an additional band of 372 bp in the patient (II1 in Fig. 1B). The patient’s father (II) had a smaller amount of the anomalous transcript, and a control had only the longer transcript. Sequence analysis showed that the aberrant transcript was missing 121 bp, from nucleotide 220 to 340 (Fig. 1B). The aberrant splicing led to a shorter exon 1, causing a frameshift with an anomalous stop codon, which would in theory produce a shorter protein (Fig. 1C).

The full-length VHL mRNA levels in the patient and his father were approximately 80% and 40% lower, respectively, than those in a control participant (Fig. 1D). Levels of the three main VHL protein isoforms (pVHL-213, pVHL-160, and pVHL-172) were clearly reduced (Fig. 1E), suggesting impairment in VHL-dependent functions. Correspondingly, the HIF-1α nuclear immunofluorescence signal in the patient’s lymphocytes was strongly enhanced as compared with that in a healthy control (Fig. S1D). According to the American College of Medical Genetics and Ge-

The patient had serious hypotension at diagnosis (blood pressure, 75/35 mm Hg), a condition not described in other forms of familial erythrocytosis, including classical familial erythrocytosis type 2, type 3 (due to PHD2 loss of function), and type 4 (due to HIF2A gain of function).17 To evaluate the phenotype associated with the genetic mutation, the patient’s exercise capacity and response to hypoxic cardiopulmonary stress were tested with standard procedures.18 The patient had elevated arterial partial pressure of oxygen, reduced arterial partial pressure of carbon dioxide, and reduced arterial bicarbonate (Table 1). At baseline while he was breathing ambient air, the patient’s end-tidal partial pressure of oxygen was high, the end-tidal partial pressure of carbon dioxide was low, and the respiratory quotient was 0.803; this altered ventilatory control has been observed in Chuvash polycythemia19 and mimics acclimatization to high-altitude hypoxia, overall suggesting the central role of the VHL–HIF pathway in the regulatory control of the cardiorespiratory system physiology.20 The precise mechanisms underpinning altered ventilation remain to be elucidated. However, a study involving a mouse model of Chuvash polycythemia showed the occurrence of carotid-body hyperplasia and enhanced sensitivity to hypoxia.21

End-tidal partial pressure of oxygen and carbon dioxide were accurately controlled throughout the acute hypoxia exposure protocol; in particular, end-tidal partial pressure of carbon dioxide was controlled to reflect values observed at rest and from the arterial blood gas analysis (Fig. 2A). The patient’s pulmonary arterial systolic pressure and cardiac output were elevated at baseline and increased markedly in response to hypoxia, similar to findings in patients with Chuvash polycythemia.21

The patient had a limited exercise capacity, associated with a low peak level of lactate in venous blood (Fig. 2B). Moreover, he had a greater than normal increase in ventilation for equivalent work rates, while end-tidal partial pressure of carbon dioxide remained low throughout the exercise protocol (Fig. 2B). These integrative aspects of the phenotype associated with the mutation in this patient partly recapitulate those described in Chuvash polycythemia.21


In contrast to findings in patients with Chuvash polycythemia,22 markedly altered expression of several HIF target genes was found in the analysis of RNA from the patient’s PBMCs (Fig. 2C and Supplementary Appendix 1). IGFBP3 (encoding insulin-like growth factor–binding protein 3) RNA levels were 80% lower than in either patients with Chuvash polycythemia or healthy controls (Fig. S1E). Lower IGFBP3 expression has been reported in conditions under which activity of the GH–IGF1 axis is reduced.23

BNIP3L and MXI1 are two key mitochondrial modulating genes. BNIP3L is a receptor accountable for stress-induced mitophagy,24 and MXI1 is a negative transcriptional regulator of MYC, which is involved in mitochondrial biogenesis and metabolism.25 RT-qPCR analysis showed that expression of BNIP3L and MXI1 was more than 25 and 45 times as high, respectively, in our patient as in two controls, whereas there was no significant difference between the controls and two patients with Chuvash polycythemia with Italian heritage who were matched to our index patient for hematologic and iron measures (Fig. 2D). BNIP3L, MXI1, and IGFBP3 expression in the patient’s parents did not differ from that in controls (not shown). BNIP3L and MXI1 expression was previously found to be enriched to a minor degree in a cohort of Russian patients with Chuvash polycythemia (1.31 and 1.18 times as high as normal, respectively), with low ferritin levels positively correlating with expression.22 BNIP3L and MXI1 up-regulation in our patient was confirmed at the protein level, suggesting marked mitochondrial dysfunction (Fig. 2E). Given the degree of these alterations that were found in the patient but were absent in patients with canonical familial erythrocytosis type 2, we investigated skeletal muscle mitochondrial function and morphology in vastus lateralis biopsy specimens.

Mitochondrial respiratory function was assessed in saponin-permeabilized muscle fibers with the use of high-resolution respirometry.26 This revealed a marked suppression in the pa-
The patient’s muscle mitochondrial respiratory capacity relative to that in a control (Fig. 3A). The oxidative phosphorylation capacity supported by fatty-acid substrates (OctM<sub>P</sub>) was 28% lower in the patient, and oxidative phosphorylation capacities supported by substrates for electron transport

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Baseline</th>
<th>Hypoxia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>End-tidal O&lt;sub&gt;2&lt;/sub&gt; (mm Hg)</td>
<td>120±5</td>
<td>50±1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End-tidal CO&lt;sub&gt;2&lt;/sub&gt; (mm Hg)</td>
<td>25±3</td>
<td>28±2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PASP (mm Hg)</td>
<td>26±2</td>
<td>26±3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cardiac output (liters/min)</td>
<td>6.6±0.3</td>
<td>5.6±1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heart rate (beat/min)</td>
<td>63±9</td>
<td>83±7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ventilation (liters/min)</td>
<td>10±3</td>
<td>20±4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturation (%)</td>
<td>97±1</td>
<td>86±1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C Gene-Expression Profiles

- **BNIP3L**: 39.48
- **MXI1**: 49.02
- **SLC2A1**: 3.02

D BNIP3L and MXI1 Transcript Analysis

- **BNIP3L**
  - CTR1: 30
  - CTR2: 25
  - II1: 25
  - CP1: 20
  - CP2: 20

- **MXI1**
  - CTR1: 30
  - CTR2: 25
  - II1: 25
  - CP1: 20
  - CP2: 20

E BNIP3L and MXI1 Protein Analysis

- **BNIP3L**
  - CTR: 60 kDa
  - II1: 60 kDa

- **MXI1**
  - CTR: 60 kDa
  - II1: 60 kDa
chain complex I (GM), and for complexes I and II in combination (GMS), were 44% and 34% lower, respectively. LEAK respiration (i.e., oxygen consumption in the absence of ATP synthesis [OCTM]) per unit muscle mass did not differ; however, it was 31% higher when expressed relative to electron transport chain capacity, with LEAK respiration making up a greater proportion of total oxygen consumption. Together, these data indicate that the patient's muscle mitochondrial respiratory capacity was substantially low, but with greater LEAK respiration per mitochondrial unit, which suggests that there was uncoupling of oxygen consumption from ATP production. The suppression of mitochondrial respiratory capacity and fatty-acid oxidation resembles that seen in healthy humans acclimatizing to high-altitude hypoxia. Electron microscopy revealed that the patient had high levels of unusual intermitochondrial connecting ducts (similar to cardiac nanotunnels) extending from mitochondria in a direction perpendicular to the long axis of the fiber (Fig. 3B). These ducts have been observed only in mitochondrial myopathy and, to a much lesser extent, in normal muscle. They can form an extensive network for physiological exchanges, possibly contributing to mitochondrial survival under stress conditions.

**GLUCOSE AND LIPID METABOLISM**

We investigated the patient's glucose and lipid metabolism in light of the metabolic shift from oxidative phosphorylation to glycolysis associated with VHL loss of function. GLUT-1, a uniporter supporting cellular glucose entry that is under transcriptional control by HIF-1α, was increased at the RNA and protein levels (Fig. S1F and S1G). Metabolomic analysis of muscle tissue highlighted that levels of almost all glycolytic intermediates were substantially lower in the patient than in the control (by 81 to 98%) (Table 2). Low levels of glycolytic metabolites in association with increased GLUT-1 and high levels of circulating lactate suggest that glucose utilization by muscle was enhanced, which accounts for the remarkable venous hypoglycemia (Table 1). Patients with familial erythrocytosis type 2 have been described as having a lower mean blood glucose level than controls, albeit still within the physiologic range, with the lower quartile of patients having glucose levels lower than 56 mg per deciliter (3.1 mmol per liter). The levels of all tricarboxylic acid cycle intermediates (from α-ketoglutarate to malate) were reduced in the index patient's muscle, alongside slightly higher levels of citrate and isocitrate than in the control and an oxaloacetate level that was 10 times as high as in the control (Fig. S2A). The difference in oxaloacetate levels could result from altered aspartate metabolism and might explain the elevated citrate levels. High cellular citrate and oxaloacetate levels might also originate from increased...
glutamine metabolism, as has been observed in patients with VHL deficiency. Lower levels of all amino acids studied were seen, possibly because of their consumption as a carbon source for energy metabolism (Table 2). Muscle ATP levels and energy charge (a marker of the energy status of the tissue) were substantially lower (79%) in the patient, and the phosphocreatine level was 24% lower. The ratio of oxidized to reduced glutathione was 2.44 times as high in the patient, which suggested greater in vivo oxidative stress (Fig. S2B).

Lipid metabolism was evaluated in blood. The patient had low levels of high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol (Table 1), with a total:HDL cholesterol ratio that suggested a low risk of ischemic heart disease. Low cholesterol levels may be related to the HIF-dependent activation of INSIG2 (insulin induced gene 2) expression. INSIG2 is a key negative regulator of fatty acids and cholesterol biosynthesis and directly induces degradation of \( \beta \)-hydroxy-\( \beta \)-methylglutaryl-CoA reductase. This up-regulation was not observed in patients with Chuvash polycythemia (Fig. S2C) or any other human disease.

As compared with healthy persons, the patient's fatty-acid distribution in whole blood showed lower levels of monounsaturated fatty acid concentrations.
acids, especially palmitoleic acid (C16:1) and oleic acid (C18:1), and an arachidonic acid:eicosapentaenoic acid ratio that was 4 times as high (Fig. S2D), suggesting increased inflammation in the patient.35 No substantial difference in circulating malondialdehyde was observed between the patient and controls (Fig. S2E), implying that there was not a substantial degree of lipid peroxidation. Red-cell membranes in the patient had altered lipid compositions (Fig. S2F), which could lead to increased deformability and decreased aggregation and thrombotic risk.

**DISCUSSION**

The increase in HIF levels caused by VHL loss of function, due to either hereditary or acquired mutations, underpins a large spectrum of diseases with different features. Classic VHL syndrome, which is generally caused by hereditary allele inactivation plus a tissue somatic mutation, is characterized by the occurrence of cancers and increased expression of genes, including VEGF, that allow tumor development and progression. In contrast, hereditary VHL missense mutations can result in erythrocytosis associated with a variety of generally mild symptoms, without development of cancers.17 as is seen with the R200W mutation, which is endemic in the Chuvash region (Russia) and in Ischia (Italy).36,37

Molecular and clinical studies highlighted differences between the index patient and patients with canonical familial erythrocytosis type 2 carrying the R200W homozygous mutation. Homozygosity for the c.222C→A mutation was associated with a severe, congenital decrease in functionally normal VHL, along with a novel pleiotropic syndrome characterized by a reduced growth rate, hypotension, persistent hypoglycemia, erythrocytosis from birth, limited exercise capacity, and marked metabolic alterations, including reduced oxidative phosphorylation capacity. Studies in animal models showed that HIF up-regulation impairs the GH–IGF1 axis, affecting growth rate and down-regulating IGFBP3 mRNA expression.38 In our patient, the robust HIF activation might have altered the GH–IGF1 axis, causing a reduction in the growth rate. GH–IGF1 impairment was confirmed by decreased IGFBP3 mRNA and by the positive effect of IGF1 treatment on growth rate.

Many additional clinical features are likely to be related to altered skeletal-muscle metabolism. Our patient has greatly reduced mitochondrial respiratory capacity, probably as a consequence of HIF-dependent gene expression. Although HIF-related transcriptome analysis (confirmed at the protein level) revealed a high level of promitophagy signals, muscle mitochondrial density (as opposed to respiratory capacity) was unaffected, in contrast to findings in adapted Tibetan highlanders.26

Electron microscopy revealed that muscle mitochondria had an unexpectedly high number of microtubular extensions, which were clearly connected to mitochondria at both ends and thus allowed equilibrium of membrane potential and exchange of solutes over long distances. These structures create a dynamic communication network, potentially contributing to mitochondrial survival under conditions of stress by counteracting autophagic stimuli.

Phlebotomy to reduce erythrocytosis causes iron deficiency, which can alter energy metabolism.39 In our patient, long-term iron supplementation was sufficient to partially restore concentrations of non–transferrin-bound iron and ferritin, which were higher than in patients with Chuvash polycythemia (median ferritin level, 14 ng per milliliter among 24 patients) with mildly altered gene expression.22 The mitochondrial abnormalities observed in our patient are distinct from those in patients with iron deficiency,40 which only mildly reduces the lactate threshold in humans. The unique, complex clinical phenotype observed in our patient might arise from the mitochondrial dysfunction, other deregulated pathways, and, probably, as-yet-undescribed adaptive mechanisms.

We conclude that this newly identified syndrome is a direct demonstration of the exquisitely sensitive interaction between VHL and HIF in the regulation of human metabolism and skeletal-muscle function.

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Disclosure forms provided by the authors are available with the full text of this article at NEJM.org.

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