

Hemoglobinopathies in Iran: An Updated Review

Abolfazl Nasiri^{1,2}, Zohreh Rahimi^{2,3}, Asad Vaisi-Raygani^{2,4}

¹Students Research Committee, Kermanshah University of Medical Sciences, Kermanshah, Iran

²Department of Clinical Biochemistry, Kermanshah University of Medical Sciences, Kermanshah, Iran

³Medical Biology Research Center, Health Technology Institute, Kermanshah University of Medical Sciences, Kermanshah, Iran

⁴Fertility and Infertility Research Center, Health Technology Institute, Kermanshah University of Medical Sciences, Kermanshah, Iran

Corresponding Author: Zohreh Rahimi, Medical Biology Research Center, Health Technology Institute, Kermanshah University of Medical Sciences, Kermanshah, Iran

Tel: 0098-833-4274882

Fax: 0098-833-4276471

Email: zrahimi@kums.ac.ir

Received: 04, Feb, 2019

Accepted: 16, Jan, 2020

ABSTRACT

Hemoglobinopathies are the most common single gene disorders (monogenic disorders) in the world population. Due to specific position of Iran and the presence of multi-ethnic groups in the country, there are many varieties in the molecular genetics and clinical features of hemoglobinopathies in Iran. Hemoglobinopathies include structural variants, thalassemias, and hereditary persistence of fetal hemoglobin. In this review, we look at the common structural variants in various parts of the country along with their hematological and clinical characteristics. Also, we discuss about the burden of the thalassemias in the country, different types, complications, molecular defects and therapy.

Keywords: Hemoglobinopathies; Thalassemia; Hemoglobin S; Hemoglobin D; Mutation

INTRODUCTION

Hemoglobinopathies, inherited disorders of hemoglobin (Hb), are public health problem in the world. Hemoglobinopathies can be divided into structural variants, the thalassemias, and hereditary persistence of fetal hemoglobin (HPFH) ¹. Taken together, they are the most common single gene disorders (monogenic disorders) in the world population ¹.

Various clinical manifestations of hemoglobin disorders can be attributed to the influence of environmental factors and various genetic modifiers. Heterogenous distribution of the disease and high variation in the phenotypic manifestation of a specific mutation are the main problems with the development of programs for the control of the hemoglobinopathies ². In Iran, the rate of hemoglobinopathies is high that could be

attributed to the medium malaria endemicity that still exist in some provinces and high rate of consanguineous marriages in the country. So, the knowledge of genetic epidemiology and clinical features of hemoglobinopathies in the Iran will be valuable in prevention programs and better diagnosis and management of Hb disorders in the country ³.

Structural variants

The β -Chain variants

Hb S as a beta chain variant results from glutamic acid \rightarrow valine substitution at the 6th codon of beta chain. This amino acid substitution in concentrated hemoglobin solutions and in the partial or fully deoxygenated conditions leads to polymerization and the occurrence of chronic hemolytic anemia and intermittent vaso-

occlusive events (sickling disorders)⁴⁻⁶. These events result in tissue ischemia, which leads to acute and chronic pain as well as damage of different organs in the body⁷. The low prevalence of ischemic change in some patients may be partly explained by the higher Hb F percentage among them⁸. The sickle cell anemia (SCA) patients with high Hb F level, Southern Iran, India and Eastern Saudi Arabia have the benign clinical course^{9,10}.

The prevalence of sickle cell trait and SCA in southern Iran has been estimated to be 1.43 and 0.1%, respectively¹¹, while in the center of Iran (Isfahan) the frequency has been reported to be 8.33%¹².

Blood transfusion is one of the most important treatments for sickle cell disease (SCD). Transfusion slows progressive hyperplasia in bone marrow and results in reduces the risk of heart failure and face and limb changes due to bone deformation¹³⁻¹⁵. Some drugs such as hydroxyurea (HU) and 5-azacytidine by increasing formation of HbF are used in treatment the severity and the frequency of SCD episodes^{16,17}.

The HbS has been found to be in linkage disequilibrium with five distinct common β -globin gene cluster haplotypes are known as African haplotypes (Benin, Bantu, Senegal, and Cameroon), and Arab-Indian haplotype¹⁸. In Iran, genetic studies for the first time in central and southwestern Iran indicated that the β^S disequilibrium gene was in linkage disequilibrium with the Arab-Indian haplotype in these regions^{12, 19}. The clinical presentation of SCA in southwestern Iran is associated with the elevation ratio of $\gamma^G : \gamma^A$ chain and high level of Hb F in SCA patients that is related to Xmn I polymorphic site at 5' to ϵ gene and is linked with Arab-Indian haplotype^{20,21}. However, in western Iran, the β^S gene is in linkage with the African haplotype of Benin²².

In 1951, another beta chain variant of hemoglobin, hemoglobin D (Hb D), was described. Variants of this Hb are Hb D-Bushman ($\beta 16$ Gly \rightarrow Arg), Hb D-Granada ($\beta 22$ Glu \rightarrow Val), Hb D-Ouled Rabah ($\beta 19$ Asn \rightarrow Lys), Hb D-Los Angeles or Hb D-Punjab ($\beta 121$ Glu \rightarrow Gln), Hb D-

Iran ($\beta 22$ Glu \rightarrow Gln), Hb D-Ibadan ($\beta 87$ Thr \rightarrow Lys),) and Hb D-Neath ($\beta 121$ Glu \rightarrow Ala). Only Hb D-Los Angeles and Hb D-Iran have been detected among Iranians. Hb D-Punjab was the most prevalent structural β -globin variant in Kurdish population from Western Iran and the second prevalent structural variant among Khuzestan province in Southern Iran^{23,24}.

Hb D in homozygous state is accounted for 95% of Hb with normal Hb F and Hb A2 levels²⁵. Mild clinical presentation of Hb D-Punjab in homozygous and combined heterozygous state with β^0 -thalassemia mutation and also with α^0 -thalassemia mutations have been indicated²³. In a report from South west of Iran, the combination of Hb D with β^0 thalassemia presented with a benign nature²⁶.

Molecular genetic studies in Western Iran demonstrated an association between Hb D-Punjab mutation with haplotype I [+ - - - - + +]. However, in southern Iran (Fars and Hormozgan provinces), β^D alleles were linked to four haplotypes, I, V [- + - - + + +], VII [+ - - - - +], and IX [- + - + + + +] that among them the haplotype I (67.5%) was the most prevalent²⁷. In Northern Iran, (Mazandaran province) three different haplotypes were linked to Hb D-Punjab. In most cases (91.4%) β^D alleles were associated with haplotype I [+ - - - - + +]²⁸.

Common α -Chain variants

Two variants of the α -globin gene including Hb Q-Iran and Hb Setif have frequently been found in heterozygous state among Iranians. Hb Q-Iran was introduced for the first time in 1970 by Lorkin et al. This Hb results from aspartic acid replacement by histidine at position $\alpha 75$ ⁵. Hb Q disorders including Hb Q-Iran [75 (EF4) Asp \rightarrow His], Hb Q-India [64 (E13) Asp \rightarrow His], and Hb Q-Thailand [74 (EF3) Asp \rightarrow His]. These Hb variants slowly migrate with Hb S in electrophoresis at alkaline pH^{29,30}.

Patients with Hb Q-Iran or Hb Q-India in heterozygous state do not show the thalassemia phenotype or any distinctive clinical manifestation³¹. Compound heterozygous state of Hb Q-Iran with a β^0 -thalassemia mutation and also in the presence of α^+ -thalassemia leads

to a minor β -thalassemia (β -thal) picture with mild anemia and elevation of Hb F³². In carriers of Hb, Q-Iran hematological indices are normal and a level of 17–19% has been reported for this alpha chain variant of Hb²⁹. In studies from western Iran, this Hb variant was the second prevalent structural variant of Hb^{22,33}.

Hb Setif [94 (G1) Asp \rightarrow Tyr] is another α -chain Hb variant. This Hb has electrophoretic mobility similar to Hb S at alkaline pH^{29,30}. In studies from Kurdish population of Western Iran this Hb variant was the third prevalent structural variant of Hb. The hematological indices of Hb Setif in heterozygote state are normal and the levels of 10.8 to 27.1% for this variant have been detected^{3,33,34}. A recent study reported a homozygous state of this Hb that produced anemia with persistent hypochromic microcytosis³⁵.

Thalassemias

Thalassemias are divided into four types of α , β , γ and δ thalassemia. Around 1.7% of the world's populations are carriers of α - or β -thalassemia. From each 10,000 live births, approximately 4.4% of them have thalassemia³⁶. In Iran, there is around 2 million thalassemia carriers³⁷. Thalassemias are more prevalent in Northern and Southern regions of the country, where the carrier rate for α -thalassemia is around 35% and for β -thalassemia is about 10%³⁸.

β -Thalassemia

β -thalassemia is an autosomal recessive inherited disorder due to decreased or the absence of β -globin chain production. There are 200 mutations linked with a β -thalassemia phenotype that affect the stages of β -globin gene expression and cause a reduction (β^+) or complete absence (β^0) of β -chain synthesis^{39,40}.

This hematological disorder has a high prevalence among Asian, Indian, Middle Eastern and Mediterranean populations⁴¹. During prenatal diagnosis (PND) programs in Iran, more than 52 thalassemic mutations with different ethnic heterogeneity have been detected^{42,43}.

In three Northern provinces of Gilan, Mazandaran and Golestan, the IVS-II-1 G \rightarrow A

was the most prevalent (56.1%) and the CD 30 G \rightarrow C (8.1%) was the second prevalent β -thalassemic mutations⁷³. However, in more recent study in Mazandaran and Golestan provinces of Northern Iran, the IVSII-74 (G/T) with a frequency of 54.71% was the most prevalent mutation⁴⁵. In Northeastern province of Khorasan, the CD 8/9 +G was the most prevalent mutation (62.5%), and the second prevalent mutations were IVS-II-1 G \rightarrow A, 36/37 (-T), and CD 39 C \rightarrow T, each had equal frequency of 12.5%⁴³. In more recent study in this province, the IVS-I-5 G \rightarrow C (42.03%) was the most prevalent mutation and codon 8/9 +G had a frequency of 4.79%⁴⁶. In Northwestern province of Tabriz, codon 36 / 37 (-T) was found to be the most prevalent mutation⁴⁴.

In Southern provinces, the IVS II-I G \rightarrow A, IVS I-5 G \rightarrow C, C36–37 (-T), 25bp del (252–276), IVS I-110 G \rightarrow A and C44 (-C) were the major common mutations responsible for β -thalassemia mutations in Southern Iran⁴⁷. In Southeastern Iran, among Balouch population, the IVS I- 5 G \rightarrow C with a frequency of 87.2% and CD 8/9 +G with a frequency of 4% constituted about 91% of β -thal mutations⁴⁸. Also, in Southeastern province of Kerman, the IVS I-5 G \rightarrow C was the highest prevalent β -thalassemia mutation (66.2%)⁴⁹.

In western Iran provinces of Kermanshah, Kurdistan, Ilam (mostly Kurds), Hamadan (mostly Fars) and Lorestan (mostly Lors), β -thalassemia mutations were identified⁵⁰⁻⁵². In Kermanshah province, the most common mutation was the IVSII-1 G \rightarrow A (32.97%)⁵¹. In the Kurdistan province, the most common mutation was found to be IVS-II-1 G \rightarrow A (35%)⁵². In the Lorestan province, the CD 36/37 (-T) mutation with a frequency of 33.8%, and in two provinces of Hamadan and Ilam the IVSII-1 G \rightarrow A with a frequency 29.4% were the most prevalent mutations⁵⁰.

Types of β -thalassemia

According to clinical manifestations, the β -thalassemia is classified into three types of β - β -thalassemia minor (β -thal minor), β -

thalassemia intermedia (β -TI) and β -thalassemia major (β -TM) ⁵³.

β -thal minor is due to a single mutation in β -gene, which leads to decrease biosynthesis of Hb A ($\alpha 2\beta 2$) ^{54, 55}. Due to the presence of excess and unmatched α chains, red blood cell (RBC) destruction increases that leads to decreased Hb level. The β -thal minor patients are asymptomatic since one β -globin gene still is normal and the clinical condition in these patients is mild-to-moderate microcytic anemia ⁵⁶. The β -thal minor patients usually experience bone pain complaint, muscle weakness, myalgia and fatigue ⁵⁷. Abnormal low plasma carnitine concentrations which lead to deficient ATP production, fatigue and bone pain complaint has been reported in these patients and carnitine and folic acid supplementation lead to a decrease in muscle weakness and bone pain complaint ⁵⁸.

β -thalassemia intermedia. Genetic heterogeneity of β -TI is associated with wide clinical spectrum manifestation from mild to severe hemolytic anemia. Based on the clinical symptoms of β -TI, it can be divided into two subgroups: some patients are mildly affected with mild clinical problems until adult life. In this subgroup, Hb levels maintain between 7 and 11 g/dL and are usually rarely require blood transfusion ⁵⁹. The second subgroup consisted of patients that have severe anemia which generally present at ages 2–6 years old. These patients frequently develop clinical symptoms such as growth retardation and skeletal deformities ⁶⁰⁻⁶². These patients are usually diagnosed after the age of 2 years with Hb levels of 7 g/dL or free of infection and with adequate folic acid. In some carriers of this disease, normal or borderline HbA2 or isolated increased HbF is observed (up to 10%) ⁶⁰⁻⁶². Differential diagnosis between β -TI and β -TM is essential ⁶³ since the first choice of β -TM management is blood transfusion, while the first step for management of patients with β -TI is usually not transfusion. In these patients, the hydroxyurea (HU) therapy, blood transfusion, and radiation therapy are therapeutic options. There are several reports indicating that erythropoietin, HU (an Hb F augmenting agent),

and Minihepcidin Peptide or similar drugs (ACE-536, ACE-011), which promote RBC differentiation or maturation in the bone marrow improve anemia ⁶⁴⁻⁶⁷. The dosage of HU which can be effective and safe in β -TI for enhancement of gamma globin chain synthesis is 8–15 mg/kg/d. In patients with β -TI, the HU therapy in combination with magnesium or L-carnitine can be effective in improving hematologic parameters and cardiac status ^{68,69}. No significant association between HU response and single-nucleotide polymorphism in β -TI patients has been detected ⁷⁰.

β -TM is usually diagnosed in the first 2 years of life with severe anemia, poor growth and skeletal abnormalities. Untreated β -TM usually leads to heart failure and consequently death ⁴⁴. The first step for management of patients with β -TM is blood transfusion. Blood transfusion leads to iron overload and its complications such as cardiac and liver dysfunction, immune impairment, and endocrine deficiencies ⁵⁹. Iron chelators such as deferoxamine, deferiprone, and deferasirox can reduce the excess iron in the body and prevent serious complications in patients with β -TM ⁷¹. Deferoxamine is the standard treatment for iron overload. Because of the complications of these drugs, new studies are focused on using natural iron chelating agents ⁷²⁻⁷⁴. So, a recent study has suggested silymarin (a flavonoid extract from the *Silybum marianum*) as an iron chelator could be useful ⁷⁵. Some micro RNAs (miRNAs) can regulate the maturation and the proliferation of erythroid cells, and also the expression of fetal γ -globin genes. Using miRNA for treatment of β -TM indicated a significant increase in γ -globin gene expression in the responder group ⁷⁶. However, due to high cost of health care for β -TM treatment and the lack of suitable treatment, the PND is the best way to control the prevalence of the disease. Termination of pregnancy has been allowed in Iran since 2000 in a fetus with genetic disorder ⁴⁷. Evaluating the outcome of the PND has indicated that it is an integrated primary health care approach with best infra-structure for implementing successful strategies that significantly reduced the rate of

β -thalassemia⁷⁷. Studies are now looking for novel methods with high sensitivity and specificity for detection of a paternally inherited mutation in a fetus⁷⁸. It has been suggested that the real-time PCR high-resolution melt could be a sensitive and specific method for distinguish the paternally inherited mutation in a fetus at risk with β -TM⁷⁹.

α -Thalassemia

α -Thalassemia is a hereditary autosomal recessive disorder resulting from deletions or mutations within the α -globin gene cluster including of two alpha 1 (α 1) and alpha 2 (α 2) globin genes that are located on chromosome 16p13. More than 750 different variants in α -globin genes have been identified, leading to α -thalassemia worldwide⁸⁰. It is estimated that more than 5.0% of the world's population are carriers of α -thalassemia⁸¹. The α -thalassemia is commonly found in sub-Saharan Africa, Mediterranean region, Middle East, Indian Subcontinent, East, and Southeast Asia and immigrants to these areas⁸²⁻⁸⁵. Middle East is so-called thalassemia belt. Iran is located in the Middle East between Iraq and Pakistan, and the incidence of α -thalassemia in Iran is high^{50, 86}. Although the frequency of α -thalassemia carriers in Iran is not well detected, one report from Northern Iran has estimated its frequency around 15.0%⁸⁷. In Iran, more than 19 different α -globin gene mutations have been identified, representing the heterogeneity of the population^{88,89}. Common and rare mutations of α -thalassemia can be classified into deletional, and non-deletional. The most common deletional and non-deletional mutations are shown in Figure 1. Over 70 non-deletional forms

of α -thalassemia have been detected that co-inherited with deletional mutations (90) or with other genetic modifiers, leading to diverse genotypic and/or phenotypic expressions⁹¹. The spectrum of α -thalassemia mutations in different regions of Iran showed that the α -^{3.7} (rightward deletion), - _{MED} (Mediterranean deletion) and α -^{4.2} (leftward deletion) are the major common mutations among Iranian patients^{88, 92}. Kerman province has the highest frequency of α -^{3.7} deletion among Iranian population with a frequency of around 83%⁹³. However, in Gilan and Mazandaran (two Northern provinces), the frequency of α -^{3.7} deletion are lower than others, 42.5 and 44.9%, respectively⁹⁴. This high prevalence of the α -^{3.7} deletion could be due to the high rate of consanguine marriages among Iranians⁹⁴. The second most common mutation in other parts of Iran is different as in the Mazandaran province (Northern province) the α -^{polyA2} is the second prevalent mutation⁹⁵. However, in Khuzestan province (Southwest Iran) - _{MED}⁹⁶, and in Hormozgan and Kermanshah provinces (Southern and Western Iran, respectively) the α -^{5nt}^{97,98} is the second most common mutations. The presence of α -thalassemia 1 and α -thalassemia 2 in trans position (- α - α) is the classic form of HbH disease known as deletional HbH disease. The α -^{3.7} (single deletion) and - _{20.5} kb and - _{MED} (double deletions) are reported as the most deletions among Iranian HbH patients, while the α -^{3.7}, α -^{4.2}, - _{SEA}, - _{MED}, - _{THAI}, - _{20.5}, - _{Tot}, - _{FIL} and - _{5.2} are the most observed mutations of HbH disease in different populations^{89, 90, 99}. The most common genotype among Iranians is α -^{3.7}/- _{MED}¹⁰⁰.

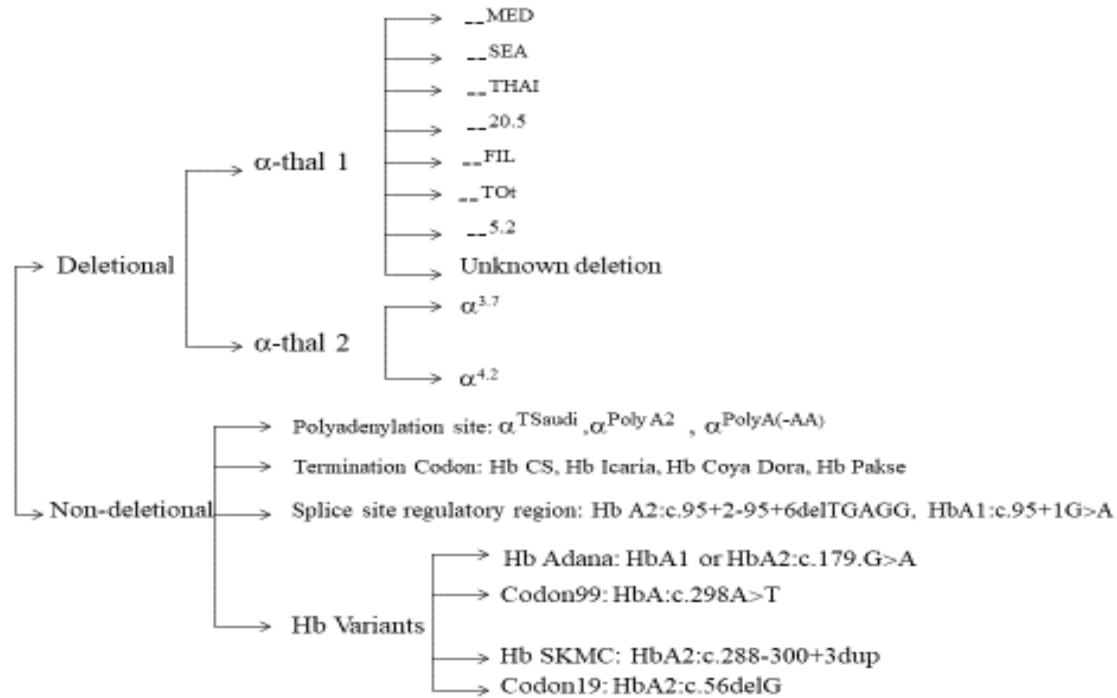


Figure1. Frequently deletional and non-deletional mutations involved α -thalassemia are presented in tree diagram ¹⁰¹.

In α -thalassemia carriers, the levels of mean corpuscular volume and mean corpuscular hemoglobin decreased, and the Hb A2 level was normal or slightly decreased along with normal level of Hb F ¹⁰². Clinical severity of the of α -thalassemia depends on the type of mutation (deletional or non-deletional) and the copy number of affected α - gene ¹⁰³.

By timely screening, Hb Bart's hydrops fetalis (four defective α -globin genes) or Hb H disease (three defective α -globin genes) can be diagnosed during prenatal. Blood transfusion is by far the most important treatment for patients with thalassemia ⁴⁻¹⁰, but the frequency of blood transfusion varies depending on the type of α -thalassemia. Patients with non-deletion type of Hb H disease have more symptoms at younger age and need more transfusions than patients with deletional Hb H disease ^{100, 104, 105}. In spite of the vital role of transfusion, it is associated with iron overload and adverse reactions in the recipients ¹⁰⁶. Adverse transfusion reactions can be divided into acute and delayed reactions, the acute

reactions (more common) occurring within the first 24 hours of transfusion, and delayed reactions occurring after the first 24 hours. Hemovigilance is a set of supervision activities that is used to monitor and assess the safety of blood transfusions from donors to recipients, and the improvement of process and training of staff ^{107,108}. This system was introduced in Iran in 2009, which has been used in a study in Shiraz ¹⁰⁶.

CONCLUSION

Due to specific location of Iran and the presence of various ethnic groups in the country, there are many varieties in the molecular genetics and clinical features of hemoglobinopathies in the country. Hemoglobinopathies included structural variants, thalassemias, and HPFH. Many structural variants have been identified in Iran, but among these abnormal variants, β -globin chain variants of Hb S and Hb D and α -globin chain variants of Hb Q-Iran and Hb Setif are more common. Thalassemia is one of the major

genetically inherited hematological diseases. A wide spectrum of β -thalassemia alleles has been detected among Iranians with IVSII-1 G→A as the most prevalent β -thalassemia mutation. Among Iranians, more than 19 different α -globin gene mutations have been detected, which represent the heterogeneity of the population. The α -^{3.7Kb} was found to be the major common deletional mutation among Iranians. The first step for management of patients with severe form of thalassemia is blood transfusion; however, it leads to an iron overload and its complications. So, new therapies have recently been proposed for the disease.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We would like to thank the Vice Chancellor for Research of Kermanshah University of Medical Sciences, Kermanshah, Iran.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

REFERENCES

1. Scriver CR, Beaudet AL, Sly WS, et al. *The Metabolic and Molecular Bases of Inherited Disease*, Montreal McGraw-Hill; 2001; 24(1):45-52.
2. Weatherall D. Current trends in the diagnosis and management of haemoglobinopathies. *Scand J Clin Lab Invest*. 2007; 67(1):1-2.
3. Rahimi Z. Genetic epidemiology, hematological and clinical features of hemoglobinopathies in Iran. *BioMed Res Int*. 2013; 2013: 803487.
4. Acquaye JK, Omer A, Ganeshaguru K, et al. Non-benign sickle cell anaemia in western Saudi Arabia. *Br J Haematol*. 1985; 60(1):99-108.
5. Adekile A, Haider M. Morbidity, β S haplotype and α -globin gene patterns among sickle cell anemia patients in Kuwait. *Acta Haematol*. 1996; 96(3):150-4.
6. Adekile A. Historical and anthropological correlates of β S haplotypes and α - and β -thalassemia alleles in the Arabian Peninsula. *Hemoglobin*. 1997; 21(3):281-96.
7. Al Arrayed SS, Haites N. Features of sickle-cell disease in Bahrain. 1995; 12(4):41-48.
8. Zamani S, Borhan Haghghi A, Haghpanah S, et al. Transcranial Doppler Screening in 50 Patients With Sickle Cell Hemoglobinopathies in Iran. *J Pediatr Hematol Oncol*. 2017; 39(7):506-512.
9. Alsultan A, Aleem A, Ghabbour H, et al. Sickle cell disease subphenotypes in patients from Southwestern Province of Saudi Arabia. *J Pediatr Hematol Oncol*. 2012; 34(2):79-84.
10. Haghshenass M, Ismail-Beigi F, Clegg J, et al. Mild sickle-cell anaemia in Iran associated with high levels of fetal haemoglobin. *J Med Genet*. 1977; 14(3):168-171.
11. Habibzadeh F, Yadollahie M, Ayatollahie M, et al. The prevalence of sickle cell syndrome in south of Iran. *Iran J Med Sci*. 1999;24:32-4.
12. Rahgozar S, Poorfathollah AA, Moafi AR, et al. β S gene in Central Iran is in linkage disequilibrium with the Indian–Arab haplotype. *Am J Hematol*. 2000; 65(3):192-195.
13. Booth C, Inusa B, Obaro SK. Infection in sickle cell disease: a review. *Int J Infect Dis*. 2010; 14(1):e2-e12.
14. Keikhaei B, Mohseni AR, Norouzirad R, A, et al. Altered levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines in sickle cell disease patients during vaso-occlusive crises and the steady state condition. *Eur Cytokine Netw*. 2013; 24(1):45-52.
15. Shahripour RB, Mortazavi MM, Barlinn K, et al. Can stop trial velocity criteria be applied to Iranian children with sickle cell disease? *J stroke*. 2014; 16(2):97-101.
16. Green NS, Barral S. Emerging science of hydroxyurea therapy for pediatric sickle cell disease. *Pediatr Res*. 2014; 75(0):196-204.
17. Keikhaei B, Yousefi H, Bahadoram M. Hydroxyurea: Clinical and hematological effects in patients with sickle cell anemia. *Glob J Health Sci*. 2015; 8(3):252-6.
18. Rahimi Z, Merat A, Gerard N, et al. Implications of the genetic epidemiology of globin haplotypes linked to the sickle cell gene in southern Iran. *Hum Biol*. 2006;78 (6):719-31.
19. Rusanova I, Cossio G, Moreno B, et al. β -globin gene cluster haplotypes in sickle cell patients from Panamá. *Am J Hum Biol*. 2011; 23(3):377-80.
20. Rahimi Z, Karimi M, Haghshenass M, et al. β -Globin gene cluster haplotypes in sickle cell patients from southwest Iran. *Am J Hematol*. 2003;74(3):156-60.
21. Rahimi Z, Vaisi-Raygani A, Merat A, et al. Level of hemoglobin F and Gg gene expression in sickle cell disease and their association with haplotype and XmnI polymorphic site in South of Iran. *Iran J Med Sci*. 2007; 32(4):234-239.

22. Rahimi Z, Muniz A, Mozafari H. Abnormal hemoglobins among Kurdish population of Western Iran: hematological and molecular features. *Mol Biol Rep.* 2010; 37(1):51-7.
23. Rahimi Z, Akramipour R, Nagel RL, et al. The β -globin gene haplotypes associated with Hb D-Los Angeles [β 121 (GH4) Glu \rightarrow Gln] in western Iran. *Hemoglobin.* 2006;30(1):39-44.
24. Galehdari H, Salehi B, Azmoun S, et al. Comprehensive spectrum of the β -thalassemia mutations in Khuzestan, Southwest Iran. *Hemoglobin.* 2010;34(5):461-68.
25. Bunn HF, Forget BG. *Hemoglobin: molecular, genetic, and clinical aspects.* WB Saunders Co.; 1986; 35(1):26-54.
26. Aghdashloo BE, Khmenini O, Shohreh P. Co-legacy against 3.7 triplication with hemoglobin D/O thalassemia: A case report from South west of Iran. *Int J Genet. Genomics.* 2015;2 (3):080-084
27. Yavarian M, Karimi M, Paran F, et al. Multi Centric Origin of Hb D-Punjab [β 121 (GH4) Glu \rightarrow Gln, G AA \rightarrow C AA]. *Hemoglobin.* 2009;33(6):399-405.
28. Mahdavi MR, Jalali H, Kosaryan M, et al. β -Globin gene cluster haplotypes of Hb D-Los Angeles in Mazandaran province, Iran. *Genes Genet Syst.* 2015; 90(1):55-57.
29. Lorkin P, Charlesworth D, Lehmann H, et al. Two haemoglobins Q, α 74 (EF3) and α 75 (EF4) Aspartic acid \rightarrow Histidine. *Br J Haematol.* 1970; 19(1):117-125.
30. Aksoy M, Gurgey A, Altay C, et al. Some notes about Hb Q-India and Hb Q-Iran. *Hemoglobin.* 1986; 10(2):215-9.
31. Khorshidi M, Roshan P, Bayat N, et al. Hemoglobin Q-Iran detected in family members from Northern Iran: a case report. *J Med Case Rep.* 2012; 6: 47.
32. Rahimi Z, Akramipour R, Vaisi-Raygani A, et al. An Iranian Child With HbQ-Iran [α 75 (EF4) Asp \rightarrow His]/- α 3. 7 kb/IVSII. 1 G \rightarrow A: First Report. *J Pediatr Hematol Oncol.* 2007; 29(9):649-651.
33. Rahimi Z, Rezaei M, Nagel RL, Muniz A. Molecular and hematologic analysis of hemoglobin Q-Iran and hemoglobin Setif in Iranian families. *Arch Iran Med.* 2008;11(4):382-6.
34. Nozari G, Ralhar S, Darbre P, et al. Hemoglobin Setif (α 94 (G1) ASP \rightarrow TYR) in Iran a report of 9 Cases. *Hemoglobin.* 1977; 1(3):289-292.
35. Farashi S, Garous NF, Vakili S, et al. Characterization of homozygous Hb Setif (HBA2: c. 283G \rightarrow T) in the Iranian population. *Hemoglobin.* 2016;40(1):53-55.
36. Keikhaei B, Slehi-fard P, Shariati G, Khosravi A. Genetics of Iranian Alpha-Thalassemia Patients: A Comprehensive Original Study. *Biochem Genet.* 2018; 56(5):506-521.
37. Hafezi-Nejad N, Khosravi M, Bayat N, Kariminejad A, Hadavi V, Oberkanins C, et al. Characterizing a cohort of α -thalassemia couples collected during screening for hemoglobinopathies: 14 years of an Iranian experience. *Hemoglobin.* 2014;38(3):153-57.
38. Abolghasemi H, Amid A, Zeinali S, et al. Thalassemia in Iran: epidemiology, prevention, and management. *J Pediatr Hematol Oncol.* 2007; 29(4):233-8.
39. Bilgen T, Clark O, Ozturk Z, Akif Yesilipek M, Keser I. Two novel mutations in the 3' untranslated region of the beta-globin gene that are associated with the mild phenotype of beta thalassemia. *Int. J. Lab. Hematol.* 2013;35(1):26-30.
40. Patrinos GP, Kollia P, Papadakis MN. Molecular diagnosis of inherited disorders: lessons from hemoglobinopathies. *Hum. Mutat.* 2005;26(5):399-412.
41. Mentzer WC, Kan YW. Prospects for research in hematologic disorders: sickle cell disease and thalassemia. *JAMA.* 2001; 285(5):640-2.
42. Alizadeh S, Bavarsad MS, Dorgalaleh A, et al. Frequency of beta-thalassemia or beta-hemoglobinopathy carriers simultaneously affected with alpha-thalassemia in Iran. *Clin Lab.* 2014; 60(6):941-9.
43. Strauss BS. Genetic counseling for thalassemia in the Islamic Republic of Iran. *Perspect Biol Med.* 2009; 52(3):364-76.
44. Asadi S, Habibi S, Nazirzadeh A. Assessment of beta-globin gene mutations in patients with beta-thalassemia created in the Chain, the population of the city of Tabriz in Iran. *World J Pharm Pharm Sci.* 2016; 5(1):343-362
45. Hashemi-Soteh MB, Mousavi SS, Tafazoli A. Haplotypes inside the beta-globin gene: use as new biomarkers for beta-thalassemia prenatal diagnosis in north of Iran. *J Biomed Sci.* 2017; 24(1):92.
46. Jaripour ME, Hayatigolkhatmi K, Iranmanesh V, et al. Prevalence of β -thalassemia mutations among Northeastern Iranian population and their impacts on hematological indices and application of prenatal diagnosis, a seven-year study. *Mediterr J Hematol Infect Dis.* 2018; 10(1): e2018042.
47. Moghadam M, Karimi M, Dehghani SJ, et al. Effectiveness of β -thalassemia prenatal diagnosis in Southern Iran: a cohort study. *Prenat Diagn.* 2015;35(12):1238-42.
48. Miri-Moghaddam E, Zadeh-Vakili A, Rouhani Z, et al. Molecular basis and prenatal diagnosis of β -

- thalassemia among Balouch population in Iran. *Prenat Diagn.* 2011;31(8):788-91.
49. Saleh-Gohari N, Bazrafshani M. Distribution of β -globin gene mutations in thalassemia minor population of Kerman Province, Iran. *Iran J Public Health.* 2010; 39(2):69-76.
50. Najmabadi H, Karimi-Nejad R, Sahebjam S, et al. The β -thalassemia mutation spectrum in the Iranian population. *Hemoglobin.* 2001; 25(3):285-296.
51. Rahimi Z, Muniz A, Parsian A. Detection of responsible mutations for beta thalassemia in the Kermanshah Province of Iran using PCR-based techniques. *Mol Biol Rep.* 2010; 37(1):149-54.
52. Haghgi M, Khorshidi S, Hosseinpour Feizi MA, et al. β -Thalassemia mutations in the Iranian Kurdish population of Kurdistan and West Azerbaijan provinces. *Hemoglobin.* 2009;33(2):109-14.
53. Galanello R, Origa R. Beta-thalassemia. *Orphanet J Rare Dis.* 2010; 5:11.
54. El-Beshlawy A, Seoud H, Ibrahim A, et al. Apoptosis in thalassemia major reduced by a butyrate derivative. *Acta Haematol.* 2005; 114(3):155-9.
55. Vasileiadis I, Roditis P, Dimopoulos S, et al. Impaired oxygen kinetics in beta-thalassaemia major patients. *Acta Physiol (Oxf).* 2009; 196(3):357-63.
56. Borgna-Pignatti C, Rugolotto S, De Stefano P, et al. Survival and complications in patients with thalassemia major treated with transfusion and deferoxamine. *haematologica.* 2004;89(10):1187-93.
57. Toptas B, Baykal A, Yesilipek A, et al. L-carnitine deficiency and red blood cell mechanical impairment in β -thalassemia major. *Clin Hemorheol Microcirc.* 2006;35(3):349-57.
58. Tabei SMB, Mazloom M, Shahriari M, et al. Determining and surveying the role of carnitine and folic acid to decrease fatigue in β -thalassemia minor subjects. *Pediatr Hematol Oncol.* 2013; 30(8):742-7.
59. Rund D, Rachmilewitz E. Beta-Thalassemia. *N Engl J Med.* 2005; 353(11):1135-46.
60. Taher A, Isma'eel H, Cappellini MD. Thalassemia intermedia: revisited. *Blood Cells Mol Dis.* 2006; 37(1):12-20.
61. Camaschella C, Cappellini MD. Thalassemia intermedia. *haematologica.* 1995;80(1):58-68.
62. Weatherall D. Thalassemia intermedia: cellular and molecular aspects. *J Hematol.* 2001;86(1):186-188.
63. Haghpanah S, Vahdati S, Karimi M. Comparison of quality of life in patients with β -Thalassemia intermedia and β -Thalassemia major in Southern Iran. *Hemoglobin.* 2017; 41(3):169-174.
64. Lal A, Vichinsky E. The role of fetal hemoglobin-enhancing agents in thalassemia. *Semin Hematol.* 2004; 41(4 Suppl 6):17-22.
65. Karimi M, Darzi H, Yavarian M. Hematologic and clinical responses of thalassemia intermedia patients to hydroxyurea during 6 years of therapy in Iran. *J Pediatr Hematol Oncol.* 2005; 27(7):380-5.
66. Piga A, Perrotta S, Gamberini MR, et al. Luspatercept (ACE-536) reduces disease burden, including anemia, iron overload, and leg ulcers, in adults with beta-thalassemia: results from a phase 2 study. *Blood.* 2015; 126 (23): 752.
67. Carrancio S, Markovics J, Wong P, et al. An activin receptor II A ligand trap promotes erythropoiesis resulting in a rapid induction of red blood cells and haemoglobin. *Br J Haematol.* 2014; 165(6):870-82.
68. Karimi M, Borzouee M, Mehrabani A, et al. Echocardiographic finding in beta-thalassemia intermedia and major: absence of pulmonary hypertension following hydroxyurea treatment in beta-thalassemia intermedia. *Eur J Haematol.* 2009; 82(3):213-8.
69. Karimi M, Musallam KM, Cappellini MD, et al. Risk factors for pulmonary hypertension in patients with β thalassemia intermedia. *Eur J Intern Med.* 2011; 22(6):607-10.
70. Karimi M, Zarei T, Haghpanah S, et al. Relationship Between Some Single-nucleotide Polymorphism and Response to Hydroxyurea Therapy in Iranian patients with β -thalassemia intermedia. *J Pediatr Hematol Oncol.* 2017; 39(4):e171-e176.
71. Khezri HD, Salehifar E, Kosaryan M, et al. Potential effects of silymarin and its flavonolignan components in patients with β -Thalassemia major: a comprehensive review in 2015. *Adv Pharmacol Sci.* 2016; 2016: 3046373
72. Gharagozloo M, Moayedi B, Zakerinia M, et al. Combined therapy of silymarin and desferrioxamine in patients with β -thalassemia major: a randomized double-blind clinical trial. *Fundam Clin Pharmacol.* 2009; 23(3):359-65.
73. Hagag AA, Elfaragy MS, Elrifayy SM, et al. Therapeutic value of combined therapy with Deferiprone and Silymarin as iron chelators in Egyptian Children with Beta Thalassemia major. *Infect Disord Drug Targets.* 2015; 15(3):189-95.
74. Moayedi Esfahani BA, Reisi N, Mirmoghtadaei M. Evaluating the safety and efficacy

of silymarin in β -thalassemia patients: a review. *Hemoglobin*. 2015; 39(2):75-80.

75. Darvishi-Khezri H, Salehifar E, Kosaryan M, et al. Iron-chelating effect of silymarin in patients with β -thalassemia major: A crossover randomised control trial. *Phytother Res*. 2018; 32(3):496-503.

76. Hojjati MT, Azarkeivan A, Pourfathollah AA, et al. Comparison of MicroRNAs Mediated in Reactivation of the γ -Globin in β -Thalassemia Patients, Responders and Non-Responders to Hydroxyurea. *Hemoglobin*. 2017; 41(2):110-115.

77. Joulaei H, Shahbazi M, Nazemzadegan B, et al. The diminishing trend of β -thalassemia in Southern Iran from 1997 to 2011: the impact of preventive strategies. *Hemoglobin*. 2014 ; 38(1):19-23.

78. Ranjbaran R, Okhovat MA, Mobarhanfard A, et al. Analysis of β/α globin ratio by using relative qRT-PCR for diagnosis of beta-thalassemia carriers. *J Clin Lab Anal*. 2013; 27(4):267-71.

79. Zafari M, Gill P, Kowsaryan M, et al. High-resolution melting analysis for noninvasive prenatal diagnosis of IVS-II-I (GA) fetal DNA in minor beta-thalassemia mothers. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*. 2016; 29(20):3323-8.

80. Giardine B, Borg J, Viennas E, et al. Updates of the HbVar database of human hemoglobin variants and thalassemia mutations. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2014; 42(Database issue): D1063–D1069.

81. Weatherall DJ, Clegg JB. Thalassemia-a global health problem. *Nat Med*. 1996; 2(8):847-9.

82. Zaino EC, Tien YY. Hemoglobinopathy and thalassemia in China. *N Engl J Med*. 1981; 305(13):766.

83. Kulozik AE, Kar BC, Serjeant GR, et al. The molecular basis of alpha thalassemia in India. Its interaction with the sickle cell gene. *Blood*. 1988;71(2):467-72.

84. Vichinsky EP. Changing patterns of thalassemia worldwide. *Ann N Y Acad Sci*. 2005; 1054:18-24.

85. Weatherall D. The inherited disorders of haemoglobin: an increasingly neglected global health burden. *Indian J Med Res*. 2011; 134(4): 493–497.

86. Najmabadi H, Pourfathollah AA, Neishabury M, et al. Rare and unexpected mutations among Iranian beta-thalassemia patients and prenatal samples discovered by reverse-hybridization and DNA sequencing. *Haematologica*. 2002;87(10):1113-14.

87. Jalali H, Mahdavi MR, Roshan P, et al. Alpha thalassemia gene mutations in neonates from

Mazandaran, Iran, 2012. *Hematology*. 2014; 19(4):192-5.

88. Hadavi V, Taronchi AH, Malekpour M, et al. Elucidating the spectrum of α -thalassemia mutations in Iran. *haematologica*. 2007; 92(7):992-3.

89. Hartevelde CL, Yavarian M, Zorai A, et al. Molecular spectrum of α -thalassemia in the Iranian population of Hormozgan: Three novel point mutation defects. *Am J Hematol*. 2003; 74(2):99-103.

90. Najmabadi H, Ghamari A, Sahebjam F, et al. Fourteen-year experience of prenatal diagnosis of thalassemia in Iran. *Community Genet*. 2006; 9(2):93-7.

91. Rachmilewitz EA, Giardina PJ. How I treat thalassemia. *Blood*. 2011; 118(13):3479-88.

92. Neyshabouri M, Abbasi-Moheb L, Kahrizi K, et al. Alpha-thalassemia: deletion analysis in Iran. *Arch Iran Med*. 2001; 4(4):160-164

93. Saleh-Gohari N, Khosravi-Mashizi A. Spectrum of α -globin gene mutations in the Kerman Province of Iran. *Hemoglobin*. 2010; 34(5):451-60.

94. Karamzade A, Mirzapour H, Hoseinzade M, et al. α -globin gene mutations in Isfahan province, Iran. *Hemoglobin*. 2014; 38(3):161-4.

95. Eftekhari H, Tamaddon A, Mahmoudi Nesheli H, et al. A comprehensive molecular investigation of α -thalassemia in an Iranian cohort from different provinces of North Iran. *Hemoglobin*. 2017;41(1):32-37.

96. Dehbozorgian J, Moghadam M, Daryanoush S, et al. Distribution of alpha-thalassemia mutations in Iranian population. *Hematology*. 2015;20(6):359-62.

97. Khosravi A, Jalali-Far M, Saki N, et al. Evaluation of α -globin gene mutations among different ethnic groups in Khuzestan Province, Southwest Iran. *Hemoglobin*. 2016;40(2):113-7.

98. Alibakhshi R, Mehrabi M, Omidniakan L, et al. The spectrum of α -thalassemia mutations in Kermanshah Province, West Iran. *Hemoglobin*. 2015; 39(6):403-6.

99. Garshasbi M, Oberkanins C, Law HY, et al. alpha-globin gene deletion and point mutation analysis among in Iranian patients with microcytic hypochromic anemia. *Haematologica*. 2003; 88(10):1196-7.

100. Ebrahimkhani S, Azarkeivan A, Bayat N, et al. Genotype-phenotype correlation in Iranian patients with Hb H disease. *Hemoglobin*. 2011; 35(1):40-6.

101. Farashi S, Najmabadi H. Diagnostic pitfalls of less well recognized HbH disease. *Blood Cells Mol Dis*. 2015; 55(4):387-95.

102. Akhavan-Niaki H, Youssefi Kamangari R, Banihashemi A, et al. Hematologic features of alpha thalassemia carriers. *Int J Mol Cell Med*. 2012; 1(3):162-7.
103. Miri-Moghaddam E, Nikravesht A, Gasemzadeh N, et al. Spectrum of alpha-globin gene mutations among premarital Baluch couples in southeastern Iran. *Int J Hematol Oncol Stem Cell Res*. 2015; 9(3):138-142.
104. Laosombat V, Viprakasit V, Chotsampancharoen T, et al. Clinical features and molecular analysis in Thai patients with HbH disease. *Ann Hematol*. 2009; 88(12):1185-92.
105. Bayat N, Farashi S, Hafezi-Nejad N, et al. Novel mutations responsible for α -thalassemia in Iranian families. *Hemoglobin*. 2013; 37(2):148-59.
106. Kasraian L, Karimi MH. The incidence rate of acute transfusion reactions in thalassemia patients referred to the Shiraz Thalassemia Centre, Shiraz, Iran, before and after the establishment of the hemovigilance system. *Hemoglobin*. 2015; 39(4):274-80.
107. Jain A, Kaur R. Hemovigilance and blood safety. *Asian J Transfus Sci*. 2012; 6(2):137-138.
108. Hervé P, des Floris MFL, Rebibo M, et al. Hemovigilance in France. *Rev Bras Hematol Hemoter*. 2000; 22(3):368-73.