

The Harmony of Iron Regulating Genes and Genes of Antioxidant Enzymes in Thalassaemia Patients

Nuha S. Thanoon¹, Mohammed K. J. Alnori^{2*}, Ali S. Alchalabi³

¹Ninevah Health, Ninevah, Iraq

²College of Pharmacy, University of Mosul, Mosul, Iraq

³College of Veterinary Medicine, University of Mosul, Mosul, Iraq

Abstract

The purpose of this work was to investigate the expression of iron-regulating genes and their relationship to enzymatic antioxidant genes in thalassaemic patients, as well as to detect distinct forms of thalassaemia using an RT-PCR technique using a presence/absence protocol. This study included 50 patients who were admitted to Mosul's Al-Hadba'a Hospital. Ten healthy subjects and forty thalassaemic patients were aged eight to seventeen years. Freshly blood samples were collected using EDTA for molecular processes, as gene expression and genomic identification of thalassaemia types. The outcomes indicated that the *foxO1* gene was significantly upregulated in thalassaemic patients compared to healthy participants, but *hepcidin* expression was non-significantly downregulated. Similarly, the enzymatic antioxidant gene *GSH-Px1* demonstrated significant downstream regulation expression in thalassaemic participants compared to healthy ones, even though the expression of *SOD1* and *CAT* antioxidant enzyme genes did not differ across investigated patients. Catalase expression is associated inversely with *foxO1* expression. The presence/absence approach showed that 8.4% and 5.1% of individuals had positive α -thalassaemia based on *a1* and *a2* mutations in their gDNA samples, respectively, compared to healthy patients. Furthermore, 33.6%, 36.5%, and 16.4% of blood samples with an unknown type of thalassaemia tested positive for β -thalassaemia because their gDNA samples had codon8/9, codon 41/42, and IVS-I-5 mutations, respectively. Our findings suggest that the RT-PCR approach is the most effective for studying gene expression and molecular identification of thalassaemia types.

Keywords: Antioxidant Enzymes, *Foxo1*, *Hepcidin*, *Thalassemia*.

Introduction

Many biological functions require iron, a mineral that can be hazardous in excess. The body has to control how much iron it gets from food since it cannot expel excess iron [1]. *Hepcidin* is a hormone produced in the liver that mediates this control [2]. Additionally, *hepcidin* regulates the release of iron from hepatocytes, which store iron, and macrophages, which recycle iron. *Hepcidin* inhibits the release of iron into the plasma by binding to *ferroportin*, the sole known iron export protein, and causing its internalization

and destruction [3]. The following factors significantly influence *hepcidin* and, by extension, systemic iron homeostasis: body iron storage, infection and inflammation, hypoxia and erythropoiesis, and, to a lesser extent, testosterone [4].

Overproduction of *hepcidin* leads to iron-restricted anaemias in chronic inflammatory diseases and inherited iron-refractory anaemia, while deficiency causes iron overload in hereditary hemochromatosis and non-transfused β -thalassaemia [5]. Strong radicals can be created from relatively stable oxidants

by the majority of transition metals, including iron. The Fenton and Haber-Weiss reactions are the mechanisms by which excess iron catalyzes the production of hydroxyl radicals from activated oxygen species [6]. Thalassaemia patients are highly vulnerable to free radical damage. Thalassaemia causes oxidative damage due to free radical generation, lipid peroxidation, and iron toxicity [7]. In vitro, unstable haemoglobins have been shown to produce free oxygen radicals. The more methemoglobins these free radicals produce, the more reversible and irreversible hemichromes are formed [8]. Non-hemoglobin iron levels increase in thalassaemic RBCs [9]. The Fenton reaction catalyzes lipid and protein peroxidation using free irons, ferritin aggregates, and hemosiderin deposits.

The World Health Organization (WHO) lists thalassaemia as one of the most common hereditary disorders worldwide, with an estimated 7% global carrier prevalence. It is highly common in the Middle East and Mediterranean region, with estimated carrier rates as high as 30%. The result of thalassaemia syndromes, which are inherited as autosomal recessive disorders, is defective globin synthesis [10]. There are several ways they might manifest themselves, ranging from carriers with no symptoms to severe thalassaemia requiring regular blood transfusions. One allele mutation is the cause of the carrier status known as the thalassaemia trait [11]. The molecular characterization of two types of thalassaemic abnormalities in the target population is a necessary precursor for the construction of an effective prenatal diagnosis service. Thus, the study's goal is to explore the link between iron-controlling genes and certain enzymatic antioxidant genes alongside the molecular identification of two forms of thalassaemia based on the presence or absence of specific mutations in hemopathy patients using an RT-PCR approach.

Materials and Methods

Ethical Approval

The Mosul City Health Department issued an ethical authorization under No. (48386). This study involved 50 individuals who were presented to the Al-Hadba'a Hospital in Mosul. Ten healthy participants and seventy thalassaemic patients ranged in age from eight to seventeen years. The hospital provided blood samples meticulously and cautiously. Iron and enzymatic antioxidant genes were expressed using RT-PCR on a portion of the blood samples after extracting total RNA; the remaining portion was utilized for gDNA extraction and then preserved in a deep freeze at -80°C for molecular study.

RT-PCR Analysis for Gene Expression

The quantitative endpoint for real-time PCR is the threshold cycle (Ct), which is defined as the PCR cycle at which the fluorescent signal of the reporter is detected. The data obtained from reverse transcription-PCR (RT-qPCR) were compared to the expression of the glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) gene as an endogenous control (relative quantification). The initial stage in the PCR process was to isolate total RNA using an Addbio RNA extraction kit and following the manufacturer's instructions. The isolated RNA was then converted to cDNA using AddScript Rt Master (Addbio, Korea) reverse transcriptase. Priming took place at 25°C for 10 minutes, followed by reverse transcription at 50°C for 60 minutes, RT inactivation at 80°C for 5 minutes, and holding at 12°C. The cDNA samples of the iron-controlling genes (hepcidin and foxO1 genes) and enzymatic antioxidant genes (catalase, GSH-Px1, SOD1) were used for the last stage of RT-PCR (table 1), which was done using the Step-One Applied Biosystems tool system (USA). A final amount of 25 µl was used for each reaction, which included 5 µl of cDNA, 0.5 µmol of sense and antisense specific

primers (2 µl per primer), 5.5 µl of PCR water, and 12.5 µl of Add SYBER Master (Addbio, Korea). The template cDNA was denaturated with a 3-minute pre-incubation at 95 °C. This was followed by 40 cycles of amplification: denaturation (15 s at 95 °C), annealing (15 s at 60 °C), and extension (30 s at 72 °C). At 72 °C, fluorescence was measured after each cycle. Each experiment had a negative control run that did not employ any cDNA templates.

Plotting the Ct values (cycle threshold) against the log cDNA dilution resulted in the creation of standard curves for each target and monitoring gene. This made it possible to perform relative quantification after PCR. The data was retrieved as Ct values, and the fold change was calculated with the $2^{-(\Delta\Delta Ct)}$ method. The gene expression was calculated using the following formula: Target gene = 2^{-1Ct} , i.e. $[2^{-(Ct \text{ target gene} - Ct \text{ GAPDH})}]$.

Table 1. Sequences of Studied Genes for Gene Expression

Hepcidin	CAC AACAGACGGGACAACCTT	F
	CGCAGCAGAAAATGCAGATG	R
FoxO1	AACCTTCGCTTAGTGGAACGT	F
	ACCCTCATACCTTTGGAACAG	R
Catalase	GTTACTCAGGTGCGGGCATTCTAT	F
	GAAGTTCTTGACCGCTTTCTTCTG	R
GSH-Px1	AACCAGTTTGGGCATCAGGAGA	F
	TCTCGAAGAGCATGAAGTTGGG	R
SOD1	GTGGAGAACCCAAAGGGGAGTT	F
	TTTCATGGACCACAGTGTGC	R
GAPDH	ATGACATCAAGAAGGTGGTG	F
	CATACCAGGAAAATGAGCTTG	R

Presence/Absence Approach for Molecular Detection of 2-Types of Thalassaemia

Genomic DNA was extracted from freshly provided blood samples with EDTA by using of gDNA kit, Addbio gDNA kit, Korea according to the kit protocol for blood samples. The typical DNA yielded from 200µl of whole blood was about 5-15 µg which depends on the quantity of White blood cells. The final reaction volume was 20µl, with 10µl Tag master mix, 2µl negative control block internal positive control IPC, 1µl negative control IPC, 1µl primer, 2µl isolated gDNA, and 4µl PCR-water. Samples from both the

patient and control groups are analyzed for each mutation using disease phenotypes. Each sample is subjected to two PCR reactions (two tubes), one for determining the presence of the normal allele (using the normal primer) and the other for detecting the presence of the mutant allele. The Presence/Absence protocol conditions are as follows: pre-PCR read at 60°C for 30 seconds, holding stage step 1 at 50°C for 2 minutes, step 2 at 95°C for 10 minutes, followed by cycling stage for 40 cycles at 95°C for 15 seconds and 60°C for 1 minute, and finally post-PCR read at 60°C for 30 seconds (Table 2).

Table 2. Sequences of Studied Mutations for Detection of Thalassaemia Types

Mutation	Sequences for α -thalassaemia
$\alpha 1$	5'- CCAAGCATAAACCTGGCGCGCT-3'
	3'- CCATGCTGGCACGTTTCTGAG-5'
$\alpha 2$	5'-CCAAGCATAAACCTGGCGCGCT-3'

	3'-AACACCTCCATTGTTGGCACATTCC-5'
Sequences	
Internal primers	Primer A (Forward): 5 '-CAA TGT ATC ATG CCT CTT TGC ACC -3 '
	Primer B (Reverse): 5 '-GAG TCA AGG CTG AGA GAT GCA GGA- 3 '
Common primer	Common primer C: 5 '-ACC TCA CCC TGT GGA GCC AC3'
	Common primer D: 5 '-CCC CTT CCT ATG ACA TGA ACT TAA-3 '
Sequences for β-thalassaemia	
IVS- I- 5	5 '-CTC CTT AAA CCT GTC TTG TAA CCT TGT TAG-3 '
Codon 8 /9	5 '-CCT TGC CCC ACA GGG CAG TAA CGG CAC ACC-3 '
Codon 41/42	5 '-GAG TGG ACA GAT CCC CAA AGG ACT CAA CCT-3 '

Statistical Analysis

Data were reported as mean \pm SE using IBM's version 26 of SPSS software from the USA. A t-independent student t-test was then used to compare healthy and thalassaemic subjects. Then, a *Pearson correlation test* was performed among the analyzed parameters, and $P > 0.05$ was used to indicate a significant difference. While using percentages to explore the percentage of each type of thalassaemia.

Results

Gene Expression of Iron Regulating Genes and Antioxidant Enzymes Genes

The gene expression analysis found notable upregulation of the foxO1 gene in thalassaemic patients compared to healthy participants, while hepcidin expression shows non-significant downregulation in thalassaemic compared to healthy subjects. Likewise, the enzymatic antioxidant gene GSH-Px1 showed important downstream regulation expression in thalassaemic participants compared to healthy ones, despite SOD1 and CAT antioxidant enzyme genes showing no variation in expression between examined subjects (Figure 1).

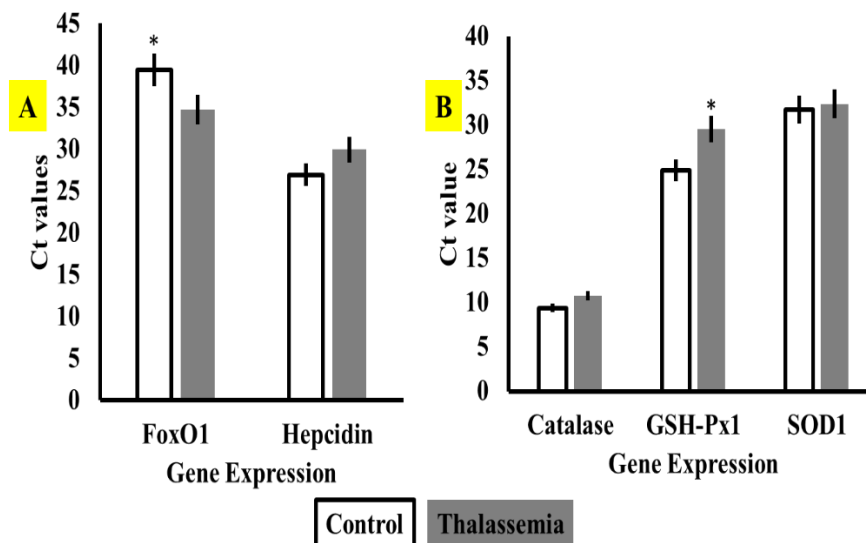


Figure 1. Gene Expression Profile of Iron Regulating Genes (A) and Genes of Antioxidant Enzymes (B). Data Expressed as Mean \pm SD of the Ct Values. * Indicatres Significant Difference at $p < 0.05$ Using Independent Student t-test. SOD1=Superoxide Dismutase, GSH-Px=Glutathione Peroxidase

Correlation Between Iron Regulating and Antioxidant Enzymes Genes

To determine the association between these genes within the participants, a correlation test was run between antioxidant enzymes and iron-regulating genes. The findings showed a significant vice-versa connection between the antioxidant enzymes SOD1 and CAT at *P*

0.000 with an *r-value* of -.481 and a strongly direct link between GSH-Px1 and catalase at *P* value 0.004 with an *r-value* of 0.323. Additionally, there was a negative association between the foxO1 gene and the antioxidant enzyme CAT at *P* 0.001 and *r* value -0.355 (Table 3).

Table 3. Correlation Between Iron Regulating Genes and Enzymatic Antioxidant Genes

		FoxO1	Hepcidin	Catalase	GSH-Px1	SOD1
FoxO1	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.087	-0.355**	-0.089	0.148
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.448	0.001	0.438	0.197
Hepcidin	Pearson Correlation		1	0.035	0.033	-0.020
	Sig. (2-tailed)			0.761	0.772	0.863
Catalase	Pearson Correlation			1	0.323**	-0.481**
	Sig. (2-tailed)				0.004	0.0001
GSH-Px1	Pearson Correlation				1	-0.262*
	Sig. (2-tailed)					0.021
SOD1	Pearson Correlation					1
**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).						
*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).						

Molecular Detection of α Thalassaemia

Using the RT-PCR approach for detecting the presence and absence of certain mutations in the participant blood samples with unknown types of thalassaemia in 50 subjects (healthy and non-healthy) revealed that 8.4%, 5.1% had

positive α -thalassaemia according to the presence of $\alpha 1$ and $\alpha 2$ mutations in their gDNA samples concerning healthy subjects that revealed 2% and 0% presence of the same mutations in their gDNA samples (Table 4).

Table 4. The Percentage of Absence and Presence of Primer in α -Thalassaemic Subjects

Mutation	Healthy subjects (n=10)		Thalassaemic subjects (n=70)	
	Presence%	Absence%	Presence%	Absence%
$\alpha 1$	2	98	8.4	91.6
$\alpha 2$	0	100	5.1	94.9
Total α -thalassaemic subjects	2%		13.5%	
Note: positive results in healthy subjects it mean carriers but without symptoms				

Molecular Detection of β Thalassemia

The 50 individuals (healthy and non-healthy) whose blood samples had an unknown type of thalassaemia were found to have 33.6%, 36.5%, and 16.4% positive β -

thalassaemia based on the presence of codon 8/9, codon 41/42, and IVS-I-5 mutations in their gDNA samples, despite the healthy subjects illustrated 0%, 0%, and 0.5%,

respectively, of the same mutations in their gDNA samples (Table 5).

Table 5. The Percentage of Absence and Presence of Primer in β -Thalassemia Subjects

Mutation	Healthy subjects (n=10)		Thalassemia subjects (n=40)	
	Presence%	Absence%	Presence%	Absence%
Codon 8/9	0	100	33.6	66.4
Codon 41/42	0	100	36.5	63.5
IVS-I-5	0.5	99.5	16.4	83.6
Total β-thalassaemic subjects	0.5%		86.5%	

Note: positive results in healthy subjects it mean carriers but without symptoms

Discussion

In contrast to healthy individuals, thalassaemic patients exhibited strong upstream regulation of the foxO1 gene and no alteration in hepcidin regulation to iron. Furthermore, a comparison of thalassaemic individuals' GSH-Px1 enzymatic antioxidant gene expression to that of healthy participants demonstrated significant downstream regulatory expression; in contrast, the expression of the SOD1 and CAT antioxidant enzyme genes did not differ among the people under investigation similar to these findings, [12] discovered that the median serum hepcidin levels were not substantially different among the three groups of thalassaemia patients, supporting the idea that hepcidin down-regulation caused by thalassaemia can lead to iron overload. As a result of the down-regulation of hepcidin, liver production of hepcidin will be reduced, resulting in a fall in serum levels due to excessive erythroid signals [13-15]. This iron overload situation could have occurred from regular blood transfusions in β -thalassaemia minor subjects as opposed to β -thalassaemia major patients [16].

Haeme and iron are powerful oxidising agents. Surprisingly, iron, whether free or coupled to haeme and Hb, can operate as a Fenton reagent in the Haber-Weiss cycle, which produces the extremely reactive hydroxyl radical. Unlike ROS, hydroxyl radicals cannot be removed enzymatically and

can cause significant oxidative damage. Iron chelators have been found to inhibit lipid peroxidation in RBC membranes, implying that iron plays a role in ROS production and oxidative damage [17]. The fluctuation in enzymatic antioxidants gene expression in thalassaemic patients as downregulation could be interpreted due to that the heme is a hydrophobic molecule that links with membrane lipids and proteins, boosting oxidation processes. Heme triggers NF- κ B, redox-sensitive genes that raise inflammation by coupling to receptors, enzymes, and genes. This impacts cell function, metabolism, and gene expression. Haemoglobin may deteriorate DNA, promote caspases and cathepsins, drop mitochondrial activity, and suppress antioxidant enzymes like glutathione reductase. This opinion is more reliable and constant with [18].

Interestingly, because RBCs lack mitochondria, energy production is dependent on the anaerobic breakdown of glucose via the glycolytic route, followed by lactate formation. The main reducing agent in methHb is NADH, which is created during glycolysis and retains Hb ferrous. Higher methHb generation in β -thalassaemia may improve glycolysis by increasing NADH demand. NADPH is the reducing agent used by glutathione reductase to convert oxidised glutathione (GSSG) to two molecules of glutathione (GSH). GSH is an important antioxidant molecule in the glutathione cycle,

and many enzymes use it as a reducing agent. Glutathione peroxidase and peroxiredoxin generate GSSG while reducing peroxides and organic hydroperoxides. This opinion supports our outcomes in this research and is also similar to the findings of previous works by [19-21]. Another option that supports our findings is what [18] found in mice lack of superoxide dismutase 1 (SOD1) or peroxiredoxin (Prx) 2 results in anaemia due to heightened oxidative stress. Thus, some Prxs' redox status is systemically altered to a more oxidised state as a result of SOD1 deficiency, which has been linked to anaemia and numerous ailments.

Molecular analysis of thalassaemias' types revealed that 8.4% and 5.1% had positive α -thalassaemia according to the presence of $\alpha 1$ and $\alpha 2$ mutations in their gDNA samples concerning healthy subjects. Whereas, 33.6%, 36.5%, and 16.4% positive β -thalassaemia based on the presence of codon8/9, codon 41/42, and IVS-I-5 mutations in their gDNA samples. Based on previous works by different researchers [22-35]. Our study found two mutations in α -thalassaemia haemopathy. The $-\alpha 1$ and $-\alpha 2$ deletions made up the majority of the detected alterations. The prevalence of the $-\alpha 3.7$ deletion is comparable with research conducted in the eastern Mediterranean and globally [36-38]. Furthermore, other studies from the Arabian Peninsula show that this mutation is fairly widespread, with 45% of neonates carrying it in the United Arab Emirates. Interestingly, our findings are in constant with other studies in Kuwait and Saudi Arabia. This mutation is the most frequent α mutation reported in Kuwait and eastern Saudi Arabia, with 45% of the population heterozygous. [39, 40]. The current research registers only 6 cases of $\alpha 1$ and 3 cases of $\alpha 2$ haemopathy despite the prevalence of both variants in the population. The low prevalence of α -thal ($\alpha+$ and $\alpha 0$ abnormalities) in our population may explain the sporadic character of Hb H illness and Hb Bart's

hydrops fetalis in Mosul. It's possible that we underestimated the prevalence of $\alpha+$ problems. Although α -thal is not a big clinical problem in Mosul, it can have a considerable impact on haematological and clinical phenotypes in populations with a high β -thal rate.

The present investigation documents just 19 cases of codon 8/9, 21 cases of codon 41/42, and 10 cases of IVS-I-5 haemopathy disease in blood samples of thalassaemic children. This result is supported by other studies done in Iraq [22, 24, 27, 29]. The RT-PCR technique utilized in this study produced good results in diagnosing the many varieties of thalassaemia that had recently entered our city of Mosul for diagnosing thalassaemia species. This approach has already been utilized in other research in various countries, and it has been proven that the PCR reactions are multiplex, identifying several genotypes at the same time, decreasing the time and expense of screening and prenatal testing. These technologies should make it easier to test for carriers and identify couples who are at risk for α -thalassaemia [30, 31, 33]. Other works by other researchers used other new approaches that support our approach in the diagnosis of thalassaemia, who found that the real-time gap-PCR and HRM analysis have additional advantages, including less manpower, faster turnaround time, and a lower risk of PCR carryover contamination [25, 30].

Conclusion

Per the current study, hepcidin exhibited little downregulation in thalassaemic patients, although foxO1 showed overexpression. Likewise, the enzymatic antioxidant gene was notably downregulated in thalassaemia patients as opposed to healthy children, and catalase expression was inversely linked with foxO1 expression. Subsequently, the most effective, rapid, and precise way for diagnosing the two forms of thalassaemia is the RT-PCR technique.

Conflict of Interest

The authors had no conflict of interest

References

- [1]. Britton, R. S., Leicester, K. L., Bacon, B. R., 2002, Iron toxicity and chelation therapy. *International journal of hematology*, 76, 219-228, doi: 10.1007/bf02982791.
- [2]. Papanikolaou, G., Tzilianos, M., Christakis, J. I., Bogdanos, D., Tsimirika, K., MacFarlane, J., Nemeth, E., 2005, Hcpidin in iron overload disorders. *Blood*, 105(10), 4103-4105, doi: 10.1182/BLOOD-2004-12-4844.
- [3]. Barisani, D., Pelucchi, S., Mariani, R., Galimberti, S., Trombini, P., Fumagalli, D., Piperno, A., 2008, Hcpidin and iron-related gene expression in subjects with Dysmetabolic Hepatic Iron Overload. *Journal of hepatology*, 49(1), 123-133, doi: 10.1016/J.JHEP.2008.03.011.
- [4]. Latour, C., Kautz, L., Besson-Fournier, C., Island, M. L., Canonne-Hergaux, F., Loréal, O., Roth, M. P., 2014, Testosterone perturbs systemic iron balance through activation of epidermal growth factor receptor signaling in the liver and repression of hepcidin. *Hepatology*, 59(2), 683-694, doi: 10.1002/hep.26648.
- [5]. Roth, M. P., Meynard, D., Coppin, H., 2019, Regulators of hepcidin expression. *Vitamins and hormones*, 110, 101-129, doi: 10.1016/BS.VH.2019.01.005.
- [6]. Kassab-Chekir, A., Laradi, S., Ferchichi, S., Khelil, A. H., Feki, M., Amri, F., Miled, A., 2003, Oxidant, antioxidant status and metabolic data in patients with beta-thalassemia. *Clinica Chimica Acta*, 338(1-2), 79-86, doi: 10.1016/j.cccn.2003.07.010.
- [7]. Meral, A., Tuncel, P., Sürmen-Gür, E., Özbek, R., Öztürk, E., GÜnay, Ü., 2000, Lipid peroxidation and antioxidant status in β -

Acknowledgement

The authors expressed deep thanks to the clinical biochemistry lab of the College of Pharmacy, the molecular lab of veterinary medicine and the Alhadba'a hospital staff for their endless cooperation in the success of this work.

- thalassemia. *Pediatric hematology and oncology*, 17(8), 687-693, doi: 10.1080/08880010050211402.
- [8]. Kattamis, C., Lazaropoulou, C., Delaporta, P., Apostolakou, F., Kattamis, A., Papassotiriou, I., 2011, Disturbances of biomarkers of iron and oxidant-antioxidant homeostasis in patients with beta-thalassemia intermedia. *Pediatric endocrinology reviews: PER*, 8, 256-262.
 - [9]. Nemeth, E., Ganz, T., 2023, Hcpidin and iron in health and disease. *Annual review of medicine*, 74(1), 261-277. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-med-043021-032816>.
 - [10]. Dolai, T. K., Nataraj, K. S., Sinha, N., Mishra, S., Bhattacharya, M., Ghosh, M. K., 2012, Prevalance of iron deficiency in thalassemia minor: a study from tertiary hospital. *Indian Journal of Hematology and Blood Transfusion*, 28, 7-9, doi: 10.1007/S12288-011-0088-9/METRICS.
 - [11]. Rahman, M., Irshadullah, N. M., Ahmed, M., Kabir, A. L., Begum, M., Mostafa, A. G., Khan, A. H., 2014, Prevalence of iron deficiency in thalassemia trait: a study in BSMMU, Dhaka. *Bangladesh Journal of Medicine*, 25(1), 13-16, doi: 10.3329/BJMED.V25I1.25072.
 - [12]. Tantiworawit, A., Khemakapasiddhi, S., Rattanathamthee, T., Hantrakool, S., Chai-Adisaksopha, C., Rattarittamrong, E., Fanhchaksai, K., 2021, Correlation of hepcidin and serum ferritin levels in thalassemia patients at Chiang Mai University Hospital. *Bioscience Reports*, 41(2), BSR20203352, doi: 10.1042/BSR20203352.
 - [13]. Haghpanah, S., Esmacilzadeh, M., Honar, N., Hassani, F., Dehbozorgian, J., Rezaei, N., Karimi, M., 2015, Relationship between serum hepcidin and ferritin levels in patients with thalassemia major and intermedia in Southern Iran. *Iranian Red Crescent Medical Journal*, 17(7), doi:

10.5812/ircmj.17(5)2015.28343.

- [14]. Susannah, S., Rakhmilla, L. E., Ghozali, M., Trisaputra, J. O., Moestopo, O., Sribudiani, Y., Maskoen, A. M., 2021, Iron Status in Newly Diagnosed β -Thalassemia Major: High Rate of Iron Status due to Erythropoiesis Drive. *BioMed Research International*, 2021(1), 5560319, doi: 10.1155/2021/5560319.
- [15]. Eshagh Hossaini, S. K., Haeri, M. R., 2019, Association between serum levels of hepcidin and ferritin in patients with thalassemia major and intermedia, the role of iron chelator. *Journal of Hematopathology*, 12, 143-147, doi: 10.1007/S12308-019-00363-X/FIGURES/4.
- [16]. Lim, W. F., Muniandi, L., George, E., Sathar, J., Teh, L. K., Lai, M. I., 2015, HbF in HbE/ β -thalassemia: A clinical and laboratory correlation. *Hematology*, 20(6), 349-353, doi: 10.1179/1607845414Y.0000000203.
- [17]. Voskou, S., Aslan, M., Fanis, P., Phylactides, M., Kleanthous, M., 2015, Oxidative stress in β -thalassaemia and sickle cell disease. *Redox biology*, 6, 226-239, doi: 10.1016/J.REDOX.2015.07.018.
- [18]. Rifkind, J. M., Mohanty, J. G., Nagababu, E., 2015, The pathophysiology of extracellular hemoglobin associated with enhanced oxidative reactions. *Frontiers in physiology*, 5, 500, doi: 10.3389/FPHYS.2014.00500/BIBTEX.
- [19]. Johnson, R. M., Ho, Y. S., Yu, D. Y., Kuypers, F. A., Ravindranath, Y., Goyette, G. W., 2010, The effects of disruption of genes for peroxiredoxin-2, glutathione peroxidase-1, and catalase on erythrocyte oxidative metabolism. *Free Radical Biology and Medicine*, 48(4), 519-525, doi: 10.1016/J.FREERADBIOMED.2009.11.021.
- [20]. Nagababu, E., Mohanty, J. G., Friedman, J. S., Rifkind, J. M., 2013, Role of peroxiredoxin-2 in protecting RBCs from hydrogen peroxide-induced oxidative stress. *Free radical research*, 47(3), 164-171, doi: 10.3109/10715762.2012.756138.
- [21]. Homma, T., Okano, S., Lee, J., Ito, J., Otsuki, N., Kurahashi, T., Fujii, J., 2015, SOD1 deficiency induces the systemic hyperoxidation of peroxiredoxin in the mouse. *Biochemical and biophysical research communications*, 463(4), 1040-1046, doi: 10.1016/J.BBRC.2015.06.055.
- [22]. Al-Allawi, N., Al Allawi, S., Jalal, S. D., 2021, Genetic epidemiology of hemoglobinopathies among Iraqi Kurds. *Journal of Community Genetics*, 12(1), 5-14, doi: 10.1007/s12687-020-00495-z.
- [23]. Suwannakhon, N., Pangeson, T., Seeratanachot, T., Mahingsa, K., Pingyod, A., Bumrungrakdee, W., Sanguansermstri, T., 2019, Noninvasive prenatal screening test for compound heterozygous beta thalassemia using an amplification refractory mutation system real-time polymerase chain reaction technique. *Hematology Reports*, 11(3), doi: 10.4081/hr.2019.8124.
- [24]. Al-Allawi, N. A., Puehringer, H., Raheem, R. A., Oberkanins, C., 2015, Genetic modifiers in β -thalassemia intermedia: a study on 102 Iraqi Arab patients. *Genetic testing and molecular biomarkers*, 19(5), 242-247, doi: 10.1089/gtmb.2014.0310.
- [25]. Kho, S. L., Chua, K. H., George, E., Tan, J.A.M. A., 2015, A novel gap-PCR with high resolution melting analysis for the detection of α -thalassaemia Southeast Asian and Filipino β -thalassaemia deletion. *Scientific Reports*, 5, doi: 10.1038/srep13937.
- [26]. Lazarte, S. S., Mónaco, M. E., Haro, A. C., Jiménez, C. L., Ledesma Achem, M. E., Issé, B. A., 2014, Molecular characterization and phenotypical study of β -thalassemia in Tucumán, Argentina. *Hemoglobin*, 38(6), 394-401, doi: 10.3109/03630269.2014.968784.
- [27]. Saud, A. M., 2012, Molecular and biochemical study on β -thalassemia patients in Iraq. University of Baghdad.pdf
- [28]. Marashi, S. J., Eshkoor, S. A., saed Mirinargesi, M., Sarookhani, M. R., Rahmat, A. B., Ismail, P. B., 2012, Detection of eight common [beta]-globin gene mutation in thalassemia major patients using real time polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-high resolution melting and EvaGreen (TM) dye. *African Journal of Biotechnology*, 11(2), 448, doi: 10.5897/ajb10.1167.
- [29]. Al-Allawi, N. A., Badi, A. I., Imanian, H., Nikzat, N., Jubrael, J. M., Najmabadi, H., 2009, Molecular characterization of α -thalassemia in the Dohuk region of Iraq. *Hemoglobin*, 33(1), 37-44, doi: 10.1080/03630260802626053.

- [30]. Pornprasert, S., Phusua, A., Suanta, S., Saetung, R., Sanguansermsri, T., 2008, Detection of alpha-thalassemia-1 Southeast Asian type using real-time gap-PCR with SYBR Green1 and high resolution melting analysis. *European journal of haematology*, 80(6), 510-514, doi: 10.1111/j.1600-0609.2008.01055.x.
- [31]. Gaafar, T. M., ELBeshlawy, A. M., Aziz, M. I., Abdelrazik, H. N., 2006, Rapid screening of β -Globin gene mutations by Real-Time PCR in Egyptian thalassemic children. *African Journal of Health Sciences*, 13(3), 70-77, doi: 10.4314/ajhs.v13i3.30839.
- [32]. Al-Allawi, N. A., Jubrael, J. M., Hughson, M., 2006, Molecular characterization of β -thalassemia in the Dohuk region of Iraq. *Hemoglobin*, 30(4), 479-486, doi: 10.1080/03630260600868097.
- [33]. Sun, C. F., Lee, C. H., Cheng, S. W., Lin, M. H., Wu, T. L., Tsao, K. C., Chu, D. C., 2001, Real-time quantitative PCR analysis for α -thalassemia-1 of Southeast Asian type deletion in Taiwan. *Clinical genetics*, 60(4), 305-309, doi: 10.1034/j.1399-0004.2001.600409.x.
- [34]. Oron-Karni, V., Filon, D., Oppenheim, A., Rund, D., 1998, Rapid detection of the common Mediterranean α -globin deletions/rearrangements using PCR. *American journal of hematology*, 58(4), 306-310, doi: 10.1002/(SICI)1096-8652(199808)58:4<306::AID-AJH10>3.0.CO;2-5.
- [35]. Chang, J. G., Liu, H. J., Huang, J. M., Yang, T. Y., Chang, C. P., 1997, Multiplex mutagenically separated PCR: diagnosis of β -thalassemia and hemoglobin variants. *Biotechniques*, 22(3), 520-527, doi: 10.2144/97223rr03.
- [36]. Rosnah, B., Rosline, H., Zaidah, A. W., Noor Haslina, M. N., Marini, R., Shafini, M. Y., Nurul Ain, F. A., 2012, Detection of Common Deletional Alpha-Thalassemia Spectrum by Molecular Technique in Kelantan, Northeastern Malaysia. *International Scholarly Research Notices*, 2012(1), 462969, doi: 10.5402/2012/462969.
- [37]. Farra, C., Badra, R., Fares, F., Muwakkit, S., Dbaibo, G., Dabbous, I., Abboud, M. R., 2015, Alpha thalassemia allelic frequency in Lebanon. *Pediatric Blood & Cancer*, 62(1), 120-122, doi: 10.1002/PBC.25242.
- [38]. Hadavi, V., Taronchi, A. H., Malekpour, M., Gholami, B., Law, H. Y., Almadani, N., Najmabadi, H., 2007, Elucidating the spectrum of α -thalassemia mutations in Iran. *haematologica*, 92(7), 992-993, doi: 10.3324/HAEMATOL.10658.
- [39]. Adekile, A., Sukumaran, J., Thomas, D., D'Souza, T., Haider, M., 2020, Alpha thalassemia genotypes in Kuwait. *BMC Medical Genetics*, 21, 1-5, doi: 10.1186/S12881-020-01105-Y/TABLES/4.
- [40]. Baysal, E., 2011, α -Thalassemia syndromes in the United Arab Emirates. *Hemoglobin*, 35(5-6), 574-580, doi: 10.3109/03630269.2011.634698.