



Influence of Alpha-thalassemia –3.7kb Mutation ($\alpha\alpha$ - α and $-\alpha$ - α) upon Clinical Outcome of Homozygous Sickle Cell Disease

Siris Patel ^a^o, Praveen K. Sahu ^{b,c}^{#†} and Preetinanda M. Dash ^{d,e}[‡][¥]

^a Sickle Cell Clinic and Molecular Biology Laboratory, Sickle Cell Institute, VSSIMSAR, Burla, Odisha, India.

^b Department of Molecular Biology and Infectious Diseases, Community Welfare Society Hospital, Rourkela, India.

^c Department of Biotechnology and Bioinformatics, Sambalpur University, Jyotivihar, Burla, Odisha, India.

^d Centre for Advanced Life Sciences, Deogiri College, Aurangabad, Maharashtra, India.

^e Department of Microbiology, COVID-19 Laboratory, VSSIMSAR, Burla, Odisha, India.

Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors. All authors have read and approved the final manuscript.

Article Information

Open Peer Review History:

This journal follows the Advanced Open Peer Review policy. Identity of the Reviewers, Editor(s) and additional Reviewers, peer review comments, different versions of the manuscript, comments of the editors, etc are available here: <https://www.sdiarticle5.com/review-history/90398>

Original Research Article

Received 05 June 2022
Accepted 11 August 2022
Published 30 August 2022

ABSTRACT

Alpha thalassemia (α -thal), fetal haemoglobin (HbF) and beta-globin haplotype are considered classical genetic disease modifiers in Sickle cell disease (SCD) causing clinical heterogeneity. Nevertheless their impact on clinical emergence and disease progression is still elusive. In this retrospective study, we have estimated the correlation of deletional α -thalassemia and associated factors like fetal haemoglobin (HbF) in patients with homozygous SCD from Odisha and Chhatisgarh, two of the central-eastern states of India. Six different types of deletional α -thalassemia were studied by Molecular analysis using gap PCR (N= 267) and HbF% by Cationic exchange High performance Liquid Chromatography (CE- HPLC). Haematological, biochemical and

^o Senior Medical Officer;

[#] Senior Scientist;

[†] Visiting Professor;

[‡] Former DST-WOS-A Fellow;

[¥] Research Scientist;

*Corresponding author: E-mail: preeti.n.dash@gmail.com;

radiological investigations were used to distinguish associated complications in the patients along with an account of malarial infections. Out of the total, 25.3% (n=68) SCD patients had deletional α -thalassemia presented better clinical profiles and haematological indices. Decrease in painful crisis (x2-12.5, p<0.05), chronic renal failure (CRF) along with priapism and leg ulcer were observed in alpha-thalassemia -3.7-kb mutation ($\alpha\alpha/-\alpha$ and $-\alpha/-\alpha$) in comparison to control SCD group. Females with single α - gene deletions ($\alpha\alpha/-3.7\alpha$) had significantly raised HbF% than corresponding males with a better clinical status and less medical consultations or hospitalizations. Thus, elevated level of HbF and presence of α -thalassemia mutations were well correlated with better sickle-cell RBC rheology, indicating an overall improved clinical picture of homozygous SCD.

Keywords: *Alpha thalassemia; homozygous sickle cell disease; genetic characterization; mutations; hemoglobinopathies; fetal haemoglobin; painful crisis; chronic renal failure.*

1. INTRODUCTION

Alpha Thalassemia (α -thal) and fetal haemoglobin (HbF) are well-known genetic modulators of homozygous and compound heterozygotes of Sickle cell Disease (SCD) *i.e.* sickle beta thalassemia (SBT) and HbSD hemoglobinopathies [1-4]. Frequencies of α -thal in many tropical regions be attributed as a selection against malaria, however, its deviation from 4-gene status ($\alpha\alpha/\alpha\alpha$) imposes inconsistent medical deliberation in linkage. Both the said modulators are of high scientific priority research in the same context [5,6]. Nevertheless, genetic variability of α -thal in such endemic population is worthwhile to investigate in cohorts from discrete racial contextual.

Alpha Thalassemia is one of the world's most common haemoglobin (Hb) disorder associated with deletion or, point mutation in α -globin gene cluster. Basically, it is characterized by microcytic anemia. The complex effects of the presence of α -thal in patients with SCD may be result of two conflicting factors such as (i) reduced polymerization of HbS(sickle Hb) to less membrane damage, fewer dehydrated and irreversibly sickled cells and improved red cells survival and (ii) higher Hb concentration leading to increased blood viscosity. The two α - globin genes on chromosome 16 are located within 4Kb duplicated region leading to the possibilities of rearrangement including deletion & triplication with many related downstream consequences. A normal α -globin genotype can be represented as $\alpha \alpha / \alpha \alpha$. When both α -globin genes on a chromosome are deleted or otherwise inactivated, the condition is called α^0 thalassemia; because there is no output of α globin from the affected chromosome. When one of the linked α genes is inactivated, the condition is called α^+ thalassemia. In α^0 thalassemia there is no output of α globin and in α^+ thalassemia

there is some output but usually only the product of a single α -globin locus [7].

Presently, the available research data on the population frequencies that accounts for various form of α -thal is still scarce owing to the difficulties in the clinical screening of α -thal phenotypes. Approximately 5% of the World's population carries globin gene mutation, of which 1.7% exhibit symptoms of α -thal [8]. In Africa, $\alpha 3.7$ del has outstanding prevalence ranging from 8-40% and it covers Bantu speaking Africa. Other countries like Australia, China, Cyprus, Egypt, Saudi-Arabia, Taiwan, Thailand has comparatively less prevalence of α -thal than Africa that is ranging from 3-10%. India and Melanesia had highest cumulative frequencies of 50% including maximum alpha 3.7 & 4.2 del. respectively [9].

Fetal Haemoglobin is known to be linked with Arab-Indian haplotype strongly; inhibits sickling, by not participating in polymerization, and by diluting the concentration of HbS inside RBCs. It is still hailed as the first modifiers of SCD severity according to the classical observation long back (Watson 1948). The effect of HbF on the pathophysiology of SCD and HbS polymerization is well understood [10].

In this study, we examined the correlation of deletional α -thal with HbFin patients with homozygous SCD from Odisha and Chhattisgarh, the two high burden central-eastern states of India known for thalassemias and hemoglobinopathies. The cumulative ameliorating factors were investigated using relevant haematological indices and clinical complications in the patients.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

1. Study site, patient Population: Selected sample population belong to the central eastern

states of India *i.e.* Odisha and Chhattisgarh – also known for their high malaria endemicity. The study was undertaken at the Sickle Cell Clinic and Molecular Biology Laboratory, V.S.S. Medical College Hospital (VSSMCH currently known as VIMSAR), Burla, Odisha, India and Department of Biotechnology, Centre For Advanced Life Sciences, Deogiri College, Aurangabad, Maharashtra.

2. Ethical approval: The study was approved by the Institutional Ethics Committee (IEC), VSS Medical College and Hospital, Burla, Sambalpur, Odisha.

3. Patient enrolments and Follow-up: The Study subjects consisted of (a) patients attending the clinic with symptoms of SCD, (b) patients who were referred from other hospitals and (c) those found positive during cross-sectional prevalence studies for SCD (for 4 years). The patients were advised to come for a routine follow-up at the Sickle Cell Clinic at 3 months interval or earlier if they develop any health problem warranting medical attention. They were given a health diary to document any medical problem and treatment received outside. Patients who did not turn up for the scheduled follow-ups were contacted over phone or by personal visit of the Social worker programme associates of the Sickle Cell Clinic. During each visit patients underwent a detailed physical and laboratory examinations. Sickle cell positive samples in screening were subjected to High performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) analysis. For all study subjects, a detailed history was obtained including the current illness, previous state of health, family history and developmental history. Subjects of age ≤ 5 yrs and ≥ 60 yrs, those under hydroxyurea treatment and having taken blood transfusion (within less than 3 months) were excluded from enrollment. Clinical complications were evaluated and analyzed [supplementary data [1,10,11].

4. Hematological Investigations: Hematological, biochemical, radiological investigations and molecular analysis of all the patients were carried out to establish the relationship between the clinical (phenotypic) expressions with the underlying genetic factors. A venous blood sample (5ml) was collected in EDTA containing tubes after informed consent was obtained for each subject (signed by parents and guardians if age ≤ 18 years). RBC indices were measured in an automated blood cell counter (Sysmex K-1000, Kobe, Japan). Quantification of Hb variants (HbA, HbA₂, HbS,

HbF) was done using an automated Hb-variant testing system using β -thal Short Programme (BioRad, Hercules, CA, USA) [12].

5. Molecular genetic studies: Alpha Thalassaemia determination was studied using Gap PCR method to identify the deletion break points. According to known DNA sequences around the break points, specific oligonucleotide primers were designed and PCR reactions were performed for single gene deletion (- α 3.7, - α 4.2), South-Asian double gene deletion (-SEA, -FIL) and Mediterranean double gene deletions (- α 20.5, MED) using a modified Multiplex PCR program. (ref: Supplementary File). PCR reactions were conducted using 50 μ L reactions including 5 μ L of DNA template. The reaction conditions were: Initial pre-cycling activation at 96°C for 15 min, Thermocycling : 98°C denaturation for 45 secs, annealing at 66°C for 1min 30 secs, 72°C for 2min 15secs (35 cycles), and final extension at 72°C for 5 mins. All the amplified PCR products were analysed using the same method as described above along with positive controls (kindly provided by Prof. S.S. Chong, McKusick-Nathans Institute of Genetic Medicine and Department of Pediatrics, Johns Hopkins School of Medicine, Baltimore, Maryland, USA on request) [13,14].

6. Statistical analysis: Statistical tests of significance (Chi square analysis, Student's T and one-way ANOVA) were performed using Graph Pad Prism 8.0.

3. RESULTS

1. Age and sex distribution of α -thal in SCD: Out of the total 300 SCD cases studied for β -globin cluster haplotype, 267 cases were amplified successfully for α -globin gene. Amongst them, 74.5% cases (n=199, Male/Female=127/72) had a normal α genotype ($\alpha\alpha/\alpha\alpha$), whereas 25.5% cases (n=68, Male/Female= 43/25) had α -thal. (Table 1) SCD with α -thal (62%) were having age ranging from 5-45 yrs (mean age 23.6 \pm 10.3 yrs.). It was observed that highest number of patients were from the age group (21-30) yrs in both SCD with (38.2%) and without α -thal (38.6%) followed by 32.3% and 34.1% respectively in the age group (11-20) yrs. 76.4% (n=52) of the α -thal cases were from non-tribal and rest 20.5% (n=14) were from Scheduled caste followed by 2.9% (n=2) from Scheduled tribes.

II. Association of deletional α -thal with haemato-clinical indices of SCD: All the study groups shared close pathophysiology i.e. microcytosis. Worthwhile to mention here, that the association of Iron deficiency anemia (by quantitation of serum Iron, Ferritin and TIBC) and β -Thalassemia (Molecular Diagnosis & family study) was excluded from this study due to logistical constraints. A very decent effect was observed which included significantly lower MCV, MCH and higher RBC count ($p < 0.05$) as compared to SCD ($\alpha\alpha/\alpha\alpha$) (Table 1). Associated clinical complications were curtailed except a very few. On comparison of different genotypes of α -thalit was detected that 2-gene deletion ($-\alpha 3.7/-\alpha 3.7$) has better clinical features comparatively. The commonest clinical complications i.e. frequency of repeated painful crisis ($VOC > 2ep$) was comparatively more in SCD ($\alpha\alpha/\alpha\alpha$) ($\chi^2-12.5$ & $p < 0.05$) than in

SCD with α -thal along with frequency of hospitalizations.) There was no frequency of chronic renal failure (CRF), priapism, leg ulcer in SCD with ($-\alpha 3.7/-\alpha 3.7$). However, avascular necrosis (AVN) and cholelithiasis were seen more in SCD α -thal subjects, male & female respectively. The protective effect of deletional α -thalon repeated episodes malaria was too observed (23.6% vs 11.2%) (Table 3 & 4).

IV. Cumulative effect of α -thal and HbF on SCD females: Our analysis of female gender bias in the distribution of α -thal ($\alpha\alpha/-3.7\alpha$, $N=57$) indicated that females with ($\alpha\alpha/-3.7\alpha$) had significant raised HbF levels ($p < 0.05$) and decrease HbS% than males ($p < 0.05$) with a better clinical status except frequency of cholelithiasis and anaemia related issues (Table 5).

Table 1. Prevalence of Deletional α -Thalassemia in SCD

| α -Globin Gene Status in SCD | No. of Cases (%) (N=267) |
|--|--------------------------|
| normal α genotype ($\alpha\alpha/\alpha\alpha$) | 199 (75%) |
| 3.7 heterozygous α -thal ($\alpha\alpha/-\alpha 3.7$) | 57(21%) |
| 4.2 heterozygous α -thal ($\alpha\alpha/-\alpha 4.2$) | 3(1%) |
| 3.7 homozygous α -thal. ($-\alpha 3.7/-\alpha 3.7$) | 8(3%) |

Table 2. Comparison of Hematological features among SCD without and with α -thal

| Parameter | SCD ($\alpha\alpha/\alpha\alpha$) n=199 | SCD ($\alpha\alpha/-\alpha 3.7$) n=57 | SCD ($-\alpha 3.7/-\alpha 3.7$) n=8 | SCD ($\alpha\alpha/-\alpha 4.2$) n=3 | F | P-Value |
|-------------------------|--|--|--|---|------|---------|
| Hb(g/dl) | 8.4 \pm 2.2 | 8.9 \pm 2.2 | 8.2 \pm 2.5 | 8.7 \pm 1.6 | 0.8 | NS |
| RBC $\times 10^6$ /cumm | 3.09 \pm 1.01 | 3.56 \pm 1.19 | 3.51 \pm 1.12 | 4.02 \pm 0.19 | 3.8 | 0.01 |
| HCT (%) | 25.7 \pm 7.7 | 27.9 \pm 8.3 | 26.1 \pm 9.7 | 29.1 \pm 7.0 | 0.9 | NS |
| MCV (fl) | 84.5 \pm 10.2 | 78.7 \pm 10.8 | 74.5 \pm 5.2 | 72 \pm 15.7 | 30 | 0.001 |
| MCH (pg) | 28.3 \pm 5.03 | 25.9 \pm 4.9 | 24.08 \pm 3.1 | 21.7 \pm 3.1 | 5.23 | 0.01 |
| MCHC(g/dl) | 33.2 \pm 5.1 | 32.8 \pm 4.1 | 32.2 \pm 4.6 | 30.4 \pm 3.4 | 0.3 | NS |
| HbA ₂ (%) | 2.4 \pm 0.9 | 2.7 \pm 0.9 | 2.6 \pm 0.8 | 2.9 \pm 0.7 | 1.79 | NS |
| HbF (%) | 22.3 \pm 7.0 | 21.9 \pm 8.7 | 17.3 \pm 5.0 | 14.9 \pm 10.7 | 0.5 | NS |
| HbS (%) | 72.4 \pm 7.0 | 71.6 \pm 7.3 | 74.88 \pm 7.18 | 80.9 \pm 10.0 | 0.68 | NS |

*One way Anova test

Table 3. Comparison of Clinical Features among SCD without and with α -thal

| Clinical Parameters | SCD without α -thal ($\alpha\alpha/\alpha\alpha$) N=199 | SCD with α -thal N=68 |
|------------------------------|---|---------------------------------|
| Incidence of Painful Crisis | 164 (86%) | 57 (83.8%) |
| Hospitalization for VOC | 108(54%) | 23(34%) |
| VOC > 2ep/Yr | 54(27%) | 5(8%) |
| Transfusion Dependent Anemia | 115(58%) | 39(57.3%) |
| Splenomegaly | 97(49%) | 37(55%) |
| Splenic Atrophy | 29(14%) | 5 (7.3%) |
| Hepatomegaly | 76(38%) | 25(36.7%) |

| Clinical Parameters | SCD without α -thal ($\alpha\alpha/\alpha\alpha$) N=199 | SCD with α -thal N=68 |
|-----------------------------------|---|---------------------------------|
| Repeated episodes of Malaria (>1) | 47(23.6%) | 8(11.7%) |
| PTB | 13(6.5%) | 2(2.9%) |
| Jaundice | 46(23.1%) | 9(13.2%) |
| AVN | 18(9%) | 4(5.8%) |
| Cholelithiasis | 37(18.5%) | 6(9.4%) |
| CRF | 5(2.5%) | 1(1.4%) |
| Leg Ulcer | 5(2.5%) | 2 (2.9%) |
| Priapism | 2(1%) | 0(0%) |

Table 4. Comparison of Clinical Features among SCD without and with different α -genotypes

| Clinical Features | SCD ($\alpha\alpha/\alpha\alpha$) n=199 | SCD ($\alpha\alpha/-\alpha3.7$) n=57 | SCD ($-\alpha3.7/-\alpha3.7$) n=8 | SCD ($\alpha\alpha/-\alpha4.2$) n=3 | χ^2 | p-Value |
|--|--|---|--|---------------------------------------|----------|---------|
| Incidence of Painful crisis | 164(86%) | 46(80%) | 8(100%) | 3(100%) | 2.4 | 0.4 |
| Frequency of Painful crisis (VOC/Pt/yr) | 1.08 \pm 1.2 | 1.05 \pm 1.2 | 1.08 \pm 0.9 | 1.6 \pm 1.0 | NS | NS |
| Hospitalisations for Painful crisis | 103(54%) | 30(52%) | 5(71%) | 2(67%) | 0.6 | 0.89 |
| VOC>2Ep | 51(27%) | 4(8%) | 1(14%) | 1(33%) | 12.35 | 0.006 |
| Transfusion dependent Anemia | 115(58%) | 30(53%) | 7(88%) | 2(67%) | 3.6 | 0.3 |
| Frequency of Blood transfusion (BT/Pt/Yr) | 0.2 \pm 0.5 | 0.1 \pm 0.4 | 0.1 \pm 0.1 | 0.05 \pm 0.06 | NS | NS |
| History of Total Hospitalisations | 144(72.3%) | 37(64.9%) | 7(87.5%) | 2(67%) | NS | NS |
| Frequency of Hospitalisations (Hospitalisations/Pt/Yr) | 0.2 \pm 0.5 | 0.1 \pm 0.1 | 0.1 \pm 0.1 | 0.3 \pm 0.3 | NS | NS |
| Infections | 85(43%) | 24(43%) | 3(43%) | 1(33%) | 0.1 | 0.9 |
| Splenomegaly | 97 (49%) | 30 (52%) | 3(38%) | 2(67%) | 6.5 | 0.16 |
| Splenic Atrophy | 28(14%) | 2 (3%) | 2 (25%) | 1(33%) | 6.5 | 0.16 |
| Hepatomegaly | 76 (38%) | 22(38.5%) | 3(37.5%) | 0(0%) | 1.8 | 0.6 |
| Avascular necrosis | 18 (9%) | 2(3%) | 1(12.5%) | 1(33%) | 4.5 | 0.2 |
| Cholelithiasis | 37(18.5%) | 9(15.7%) | 1 (12.5%) | 0(0%) | 1.04 | 0.7 |
| Chronic Renal Failure | 5 (2.5%) | 1(1.7%) | 0(0%) | 0(0%) | 0.5 | 0.9 |
| Leg Ulcer | 5(2.5%) | 2(3.5%) | 0(0%) | 0(0%) | 0.4 | 0.9 |
| Priapism | 2(1%) | 0(0%) | 0(0%) | 0(0%) | 0.6 | 0.8 |

*Chi square test **One-way Anova test, # NS- Not Significant

Table 5. Sex wise distribution of Alpha thalassaemia ($\alpha\alpha/-3.7\alpha$) and its probable

Comparison of abnormal Hb%

| Abnormal Hb% | Male (N=37) | Female (N=20) | p-Value |
|------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------|--------------|
| HbA | 2.32 \pm 0.5 (3.7-1.4) | 2.13 \pm 0.24 (3.2-0.0) | 0.24 |
| HbA ₂ | 2.8 \pm 0.8 (4.6-0.8) | 2.45 \pm 0.9 | 0.07 |
| HbS | 73.7 \pm 7.67(87.6-54.5) | 60.5 \pm 5.6 (83.0-69.8) | 0.046 |
| HbF | 20.71 \pm 8.3 (40.9-5.8) | 25.52 \pm 5.8 (35.0-10.10) | 0.02 |

*Unpaired t-test

Comparison of clinical profiles

| Clinical Complications | Male (N=37) | Female (N=20) |
|-------------------------------|-------------|---------------|
| History of Hospitalization | 27 (72.9%) | 10(50%) |
| Avg. rate of hospitalizations | 2.35 | 1.5 |
| Bone Problem | 02(5%) | 0 (0%) |
| Splenomegaly | 19 (51.3%) | 13 (65%) |
| Hepatomegaly | 15 (40.5%) | 07(35%) |
| Multiple Infections | 02 (5%) | 02(10%) |
| Episodes of Malaria | 18(48.6%) | 7(35%) |
| Cholelithiasis | 02(5%) | 07(35%) |
| Leg Ulcer | 02 (5%) | 0 (0%) |

4. DISCUSSION

An estimated 7million babies are born each year either with a congenital abnormality or, a genetic disease, of which 90% belong to low or, middle income countries like India. A breakdown of the estimated annual births of the major Hb disorder observed that the major frequency of the severe forms of α -thalis restricted mainly to southeast Asia[15]. Deletional α -thalis a common blood genetic disorder throughout the globe. In India alone, it has an average prevalence of 13% and the commonest is 3.7 Kb deletions. On the other hand, India is also a major harbour to Sickle cell disease (SCD)the highly variable clinical expressions of which, is influenced by a number of genetic and environmental factors[16]. Under deoxygenated conditions, HbS polymerizes within the red blood cell (RBC), causing the RBC to be denser and less deformable, leading to increase in blood viscosity. Blood viscosity is affected by red cell aggregation impacted by reduced red cell deformability. HbS polymerization mediated through hypoxia and enhanced viscosity leads to vaso-occlusion and haemolytic anemia- central players of the pathophysiology of SCD, they precipitate a cascade of pathologic event, which in turn lead to a wide range of complications [17,18]. Moreover, the geographical interception of the prevalence of SCD, deletional α -thal has scarcely been looked together in support for the malaria hypothesis in India. The present study has explored the possible correlation of deletional α -than. with HbF in patients with homozygous SCD from two high burden central-eastern states of India – Odisha and Chattisgarh, also known malaria endemicity.

Earlier, several research groups have reported controversial findings about the protective effect of α -thalassemia. The protective effects of α -thalassemia on painful crisis, cholecystitis and epistatic factors like malarial infection and better

haematological indices is well documented. The patients used to experience fewer hemolysis associated complications, such as stroke, leg ulcers, pulmonary hypertension, and priapism [19-22]. In this investigation, we too have noted the better effect of less MCV and MCH upon a number of clinical events except leg ulcer, transfusion dependent anemia. Renoux et al. in one subset of population demonstrated higher rates of VOCs in sickle cell patients with homozygous alpha-thalassemia [23]. indices comparable to earlier published reports to show a difference in blood viscosity at high shear rates as compared to patients without alpha-globin deletions [24]. These are different from our findings, where we have documented the controlling effect on repeated painful crisis along with associated hospitalizations. However, inter-individual variations in clinical presentations were found to be associated with sex, non-genetic factors and socioeconomic status along with deformability of RBC and viscosity. Amongst different α -globin genotypes, 2 α gene deletions were associated with better clinical presentation, absence of CRF, leg ulcer and priapism along with distinct haematological indices comparable to earlier published reports [21-25]. Contrasting observation is also documented in α -thal deletion which was associated with substantial risk of complications such as leg ulcers and kidney dysfunctions such as acute renal failure and chronic renal failure.

Frequency of patients with HbF> 20% in the SCD (α -thal) group appeared as a competent influencer which were associated with better clinical indices. In-vitro studies suggest that 20% HbF levels is necessary to prevent polymerization of HbS and it is the threshold level needed to prevent acute clinical events and prevent organ damage [26,27,28]. Thus, elevated levels of HbF% improved sickle RBC rheology, which, in turn resulted in an overall better clinical picture of SCD in our subset of

population which harboured deletional α -thal mutations. Yet again, the sex based HbF increment need to be analyzed more in therapeutic context.

In summary, the findings of this study clearly shows that SCD patients with deletional α -thal presented with better clinical profiles and haematological indices. Reduced frequencies of painful crisis, no chronic renal failure (CRF), priapism and leg ulcer were noted in male patients, whereas females featuring $\alpha\alpha$ -3.7 α had significantly raised HbF% and decreased HbS% supporting better clinical status, and less medical consultations or hospitalizations against males. Nevertheless, cholelithiasis and infections were comparatively higher in female group which were with anemia- associated, owing to short life-span of rigid RBCs in comparison to same age-matched males. The chronic hemolysis caused by this condition often causes the formation of gallstones that can migrate and block the common bile duct leading to acute abdomen. Although the HbF% is comparatively higher, it didn't show any beneficial effect upon the defined set of clinical events characteristics of SCD. The protective effect of deletional α -thal in SCD patients having repeated episodes of malaria was significantly evident. Female gender bias was indicated in the frequency distribution of α -thal. mutations with significantly higher HbF% levels and lower HbS% in females than males, and an overall better clinical status.

5. CONCLUSION

Our findings infer that the presence of deletional α -thalassemia mutations along with elevated fetal haemoglobin in sickle cell disease patients were associated with better clinical and haematological features in the study cohort. According to reports from WHO, at least 30% of the world population is α -thal carrier. Thus, it should be considered in the differential diagnosis of hypochromic, microcytic anaemia specially to rule out iron-deficiency anaemia and β -thalassemias in clinically suspected and geographically relevant communities. Prenatal screening of α -thal should be advocated along with genetic counselling of high-risk couples of SCD for prenatal diagnosis, for specific geographical population with silent α -thal.

INFORMED CONSENT

Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

ETHICAL APPROVAL

All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institution with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The authors sincerely thank all the patients whose kind participation helped the research successful. This research was supported by Department of Science & Technology, Govt. of India for financial support (DST-WOS-A LS-662/2016) under Women Scientist Scheme.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

1. Mashon RS, Dash PM, Khalkho J, et al. Higher fetalhemoglobin concentration in patients with sickle cell disease in eastern India reduces frequency of painful crisis. *European. J Haematol.* 2009;83;383-84.
2. Dash PM, Sahu PK, Patel S et al. Effect of assorted globin haplotypes and α -Thalassemia on the clinical heterogeneity of Hb S- β -Thalassemia. *International Journal of Hemoglobin Research.* 2018; 42(4):236-242.
3. Pandey SK, Pandey S, Rajan R, Shah V, Mishra RM, Sharna M, Saxena R, et al. Phenotypic Effect of α -Globin Gene Numbers on Indian Sickle β -Thalassemia Patients. *JCLA.* 2014;28:110-13.
4. Patel DK, Purohit P, Dehury S, et al. Fetalhemoglobin and alpha thalassemia modulate the phenotypic expression of HbSD-Punjab. *Int J Lab Hematol.* 2014; 36(4):444-50.
5. Hoban M D, Orkin SH, & Bauer DE. Genetic treatment of a molecular disorder: Gene therapy approaches to sickle cell disease. *Blood.* 2016;127(7):839-848. DOI:10.1182/blood-2015-09-618587
6. Habara AH, Shaikho EM, Steinberg MH. Fetalhemoglobin in sickle cell anemia: The Arab-Indian haplotype and new therapeutic agents, *Am J Hematol.* 2017;92(11): 1233-42.
7. Weatherall DJ, Clegg JB. The thalassaemia syndromes The

- thalassaemia syndromes. 4th ed. Oxford: Blackwell Science; 2001.
8. Harteveld CL, Higgs DR. Alpha-thalassaemia. *Orphanet J Rare Dis.* 2010; 5:13. Published 2010 May 28. DOI:10.1186/1750-1172-5-13
 9. Serjeant GR, Serjeant BE. *Sickle Cell Disease 2001*, 3rdedn. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
 10. Steinberg MH. Predicting clinical severity in sickle cell anemia. *Br J Haematol.* 2005;129(4):465-481.
 11. Ballas SK, Leiff S, Benjamin LJ, et al. Definitions of the phenotypic manifestations of sickle cell disease. *Am J Hematol.* 2010;85:6-13.
 12. Lewis SM, Bain JB, Bates I Dacie, Lewis. *Practical haematology practical haematology 2006*, 10thedn, Churchill Livingstone Elsevier publications.
 13. Sambrook J. and Russell DW, *Molecular cloning: A laboratory manual 2001*, third ed. Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory.
 14. Tan ASC, Quah TC, Low PS, Chong SS, et al. A rapid and reliable 7-deletion multiplex polymerase chain reaction assay for α -thalassaemia. *Blood.* 2001;98(1): 250-251.
 15. Nadkarni AH, Gorakshakar AC, Sawant PM, et al. The phenotypic and molecular diversity of hemoglobinopathies in India: A review of 15 years at a referral center. *Int J Lab Hematol.* 2019;41(2):218-226.
 16. Saraf SL, Akingbola TS, Shah BN, et al. Associations of α -thalassaemia and BCL11A with stroke in Nigerian, United States, and United Kingdom sickle cell anemia cohorts. *Blood Adv.* 1(11): 693–698.
 17. Piel FB, Hay SI, Gupta S, Weatherall DJ et al. Global burden of sickle cell anaemia in children under five, 2010–2050: Modelling Based on Demographics, Excess Mortality, and Interventions. *PLoS Med.* 2013; 10(7):e1001484.
 18. Galanello R, Cao A. Alpha-thalassaemia. *Genet. Med.* 2011;13:83–88.
 19. Fucharoen S, Winichagoon P. Haemoglobinopathies in Southeast Asia. *Indian J. Med. Res.* 2011;134:498–506.
 20. Steinberg MH. Genetic etiologies for phenotypic diversity in sickle cell anemia. *Sci World J.* 2009;9:46-67.
 21. Mukherjee MB., Lu CY, Duerocq R, et al. Effect of α -thalassaemia on sickle cell anemia linked to the Arab-Indian haplotype in India. *Am J Hematol.* 1997;55:104-109.
 22. Ballas SK. Effects of α -globin genotype on the Pathophysiology of sickle cell disease. *Pediatric Pathology and Molecular Medicine.* 2001;20:107-121.
 23. Renoux C, Romana M, Joly P, et al. Effect of age on blood rheology in sickle cell anaemia and sickle cell haemoglobin C disease: A cross-sectional study. *PLoS One.* 2016;11(6):e0158182.
 24. Pontes RM, Costa ES, Siqueira PFR, et al. Protector effect of α -thalassaemia on cholecystitis and cholecystectomy in sickle cell disease. *Hematology.* 2017;22(7): 444-449.
 25. Ballas SK, Connes P. Rheological properties of sickle erythrocytes in patients with sickle-cell anemia: The effect of hydroxyurea, fetal hemoglobin, and α -thalassaemia, *EJH* 2018;101(6): 798-803.
 26. Rumaney MB, Ngo Bitoungui VJ, Vorster AA, et al. The co-inheritance of alpha-thalassaemia and sickle cell anemia is associated with better hematological indices and lower consultations rate in Cameroonian patients and could improve their survival. *PLoS One.* 2014;9(6).
 27. Kate Gardner K, Fulford T, Silver N, Rooks H, Angelis N et al. *g(HbF)*: A genetic model of fetal hemoglobin in sickle cell disease *Blood Advances.* 2018;2:235-239.
 28. M.H. Steinberg, D.H. Chui, G.J. Dover, et al., Fetal hemoglobin in sickle cell anemia: A glass half full? *Blood.* 2014;123:481-5.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Suppl Table 1: Primers for single-tube multiplex-PCR analysis of common α -thalassemia deletions

| Name | 5' → 3' Sequence | GenBank ID: Nucleotides | Amplicon (Size) |
|-------------------|--------------------------------------|----------------------------|--|
| LIS1-F | GTCGTCACCTGGCAGCGTAGATC | HSLIS10: 407 → 428 | LIS1 3'UTR frag (2503 bp) |
| LIS1-R | GATTCCAGGTTGTAGACGGACTG | HSLIS10: 2909 → 2887 | (Control for amplification) |
| 3.7/20.5-R | AAAGCACTCTAGGGTCCAGCG | HUMHBA4: 5676 → 5694 | $-\alpha^{3.7}$ jxn frag (2022 bp) |
| $\alpha 2/3.7$ -F | CCCCTCGCCAAGTCCACCC | HUMHBA4: 11514 → 11494 | Normal $\alpha 2$ gene (1800 bp) |
| $\alpha 2/3.7$ -R | CCCCTCGCCAAGTCCACCC | HUMHBA4: 11514 → 11494 | |
| $\alpha 2$ -R | AGACCAGGAAGGGCCGGTG | HUMHBA4: 7475 → 7457 | $-\alpha^{4.2}$ jxn frag (1628 bp) |
| 4.2-F | GGTTTACCCATGTGGTGCCTC | HUMHBA4: 3064 → 3084 | |
| 4.2-R | CCCGTTGGATCTTCTCATTTCCC | HUMHBA4: 8942 → 8920 | $-\text{SEA}$ jxn fragment (1349 bp) |
| SEA-F | CGA TCT GGG CTC TGT GTT CTC | HSGG1: 26120 → 26140 | |
| SEA-R | AGC CCA CGT TGT GTT CAT GGC | HSCOS12: 3817 → 3797 | $-\text{THAI}$ jxn fragment (1153 bp) |
| THAI-F | GAC CAT CCT CAG CGT GGG TG | HSGG1 9592 → 9612 | |
| THAI-R | CAA GTG GGC TGA GCC CTT GAG | HSCOS12 3817 → 3797 | $-(\alpha)20.5$ jxn fragment (1007 bp) |
| 20.5-F | GCC CAA CAT CCG GAG TAC ATG | HSGG1 17904 → 17924 | |
| 3.7/20.5-R | AAAGCACTCTAGGGTCCAGCG | HUMHBA4: 5676 → 5694 | $-\text{MED}$ jxn fragment (807 bp) |
| MED-F | TAC CCT TTG CAA GCA CAC ACG TAC | HSGG1 23123 → 23144 | |
| MED-R | TCA ATC TCC GAC AGC TCC GAC | HSGG1 41203 → 41183 | $-\text{FIL}$ jxn fragment (546 bp) |
| FIL-F | TTT AAA TGG GCA AAA ACA GGC CAG G | HSGG1 12304 → 12327 | |
| FIL-R | ATA ACC TTT ATC TGC CAC ATG TAG C | HSCOS12 570-546 | |

© 2022 Patel et al.; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Peer-review history:

The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here:

<https://www.sdiarticle5.com/review-history/90398>