



# ACE I/D polymorphism is not a genetic modifier of renal features in sickle cell anemia patients

LVKS Bhaskar<sup>1\*</sup>, Smaranika Pattnaik<sup>2</sup>

## Abstract

**Introduction:** Sickle cell anemia (SCA) exhibits a host of complications that contribute to increased morbidity and mortality at the youngest ages.

**Objectives:** The aim of this investigation is to look into the association between ACE I/D polymorphism and renal function in Indian patients with SCA.

**Patients and Methods:** About 190 SCA patients confirmed by hemoglobin (Hb) electrophoresis were selected for this study. The severity of the disease was determined using anemia, clinical complications, total white blood cells count, and scores of blood transfusion. To define different renal function phases, estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) was computed in adults and children using the CKD-EPI (Chronic Kidney Disease Epidemiology Collaboration) and Schwartz equations respectively. The ACE I/D polymorphism was conducted using polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and separation through agarose electrophoresis.

**Results:** The risk of impaired renal function was not statistically distinct between ACE I/D genotypes and alleles. Further, the genotypes of ACE I/D and the risk of disease severity was not found to be associated with each other.

**Conclusion:** This investigation found that ACE I/D is an insignificant genetic modifier of renal function or severity of disease in patients with SCA.

**Keywords:** Sickle cell anemia, ACE I/D, Renal function, Disease severity

**Citation:** Bhaskar L, Pattnaik S. ACE I/D polymorphism is not a genetic modifier of renal features in sickle cell anemia patients. J Ren Endocrinol. 2022;8:e17069. doi: 10.34172/jre.2022.17069.

**Copyright** © 2022 The Author(s); Published by Nickan Research Institute. 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.

## Introduction

Sickle cell anemia (SCA) is a hereditary blood condition that is triggered due to alteration by a single base pair in the beta globin (HBB) gene at codon 6, subsequently forming a sickle-shaped erythrocytes in the deoxygenated conditions (1). This event leads to an increase in viscosity and sickle erythrocyte adhesion to vascular walls leading to obstruction of blood flow in tiny capillaries (2). Individuals with SCA exhibit several clinical complications, such as vasoocclusive crisis (VOC), splenomegaly, ocular manifestation, hepatomegaly, pulmonary hypertension, leg ulcers, sickle nephropathy, acute chest syndrome (ACS), and stroke, which contribute to mortality at an early age (3-7). Hydroxyurea treatment significantly enhanced the quality of life and survival of SCA patients, leading to an increase in the frequency of various morbidities (8).

Angiotensin II (Ang II) is known to play a greater role in proliferation of erythroid progenitors in vitro (9). The angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) is engaged in converting circulating angiotensin-I (Ang I) to the effector

peptide Ang II. Further, ACE promotes endothelial dysfunction, which stimulates vascular inflammation by inducing vasoconstriction and thrombosis (10). Besides, ACE participates in platelet aggregation, which increases the risk of thrombosis in rats (11). As ACE-inhibition shows renoprotective properties, the ACE inhibitors (ACEIs) are being used in patients with various clinical conditions (12-14). However, there is still confusion regarding the effectiveness and safety of RAAS inhibition in achieving remission of proteinuria and renal function stabilization in SCA patients. The human gene that encodes for ACE is found on chromosome 17 (17q23) and is fundamentally expressed on most epithelial and endothelial cells (15). Intron 16 of the ACE protein sequence contains an insertion/deletion (I/D) polymorphism that is shown to influence circulating plasma and tissue ACE levels (16). Plasma ACE levels are elevated twice in people with the homozygous "D" allele as compared to people with the homozygous "I" allele (17). Multiple lines of evidence indicated that the ACE I/D is a distinct risk factor for arterial thrombotic disorders (18, 19).

Received: 19 June 2022, Accepted: 22 September 2022, ePublished: 8 October 2022

<sup>1</sup>Department of Zoology, Guru Ghasidas Vishwavidyalaya, Koni, Bilaspur, India.

<sup>2</sup>Department of Biotechnology and Bioinformatics, Sambalpur University, Jyoti Vihar, Sambalpur, India.

\*Corresponding Author: Prof. LVKS Bhaskar, Email: lvksbhaskar@gmail.com

### ■ Implication for health policy/practice/research/medical education

In a study on 190 sickle cell anemia patients, we found the risk of impaired renal function was not statistically distinct between ACE I/D genotypes and alleles.

### Objectives

The aim of this investigation is to look into the association between ACE I/D polymorphism and renal function in Indian patients with SCA.

### Patients and Methods

#### Study design

This infirmity-based cross-sectional investigation was conducted at the outpatient clinic of Sickle Cell Institute Chhattisgarh (SCIC), Raipur, and the Institutional ethics committee of SCIC approved this study. About 190 SCA patients (validated by Hb electrophoresis) were appended in this investigation. Adult subjects signed written informed consent, and minors were accompanied by their parents or guardians who signed a written consent on their behalf. Information related to hematological variables and hemoglobin (Hb) fractions was obtained from the individual patient's record. From each participant, 3 ml of plasma sample was collected in an EDTA vacutainer. An Ilab 650 automatic analyzer was used for quantifying the serum creatinine and blood urea. The estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) was measured in adults and children (17 years) using the CKD-EPI (Chronic Kidney Disease Epidemiology Collaboration) equation (20) and the Schwartz equation, respectively (21,22). Further, the stage of kidney disease was determined by using eGFR and all the SCA patients were divided into four groups: glomerular hyperfiltration (GHF: eGFR >140 mL/min/1.73 m<sup>2</sup>), chronic kidney disease 1 (CKD 1: eGFR <140 to 90 mL/min/1.73 m<sup>2</sup>), chronic kidney disease 2 (CKD 2: eGFR <89 to 60 mL/min/1.73 m<sup>2</sup>) and chronic kidney disease 3 (CKD 3: eGFR <59 to 30 mL/min/1.73 m<sup>2</sup>) (23). The severity of the disease was determined using anemia, complications, total leukocyte count, and transfusion scores (24). The standard procedure was used to extract DNA from all samples (25).

#### Determination of ACE I/D genotypes

Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) as well as agarose electrophoresis were used to genotype the ACE I/D polymorphism. The subsequent oligonucleotide primers; 5'-CTGGAGACCACTCCCATCCTTCT-3' and 5'-GATGTGGCCATCACATTCGTCAGAT-3' were used to perform amplifications. PCR amplifications were carried with the following conditions: 94°C (5 minutes) for 1 cycle, 94°C (1 minute), 58.5°C (40 seconds) and 72°C (30 seconds) for 35 cycles, and a final extension step of 72°C (7 minutes). The PCR product was resolved on 2% agarose gel. The DD and II genotypes were assigned to

PCR reactions that produced single bands of 190 and 490 base pairs (bp), respectively, whereas the ID genotype was assigned to PCR reactions that produced two bands of 190 and 490 bp. To avoid mistyping the ID genotype as DD genotype, all samples with DD genotype were subjected to an additional PCR using insertion specific primers (26). A 335bp product produced by this PCR is also considered the I allele.

#### Statistical analysis

The distribution of clinical and biochemical variables among ACE I/D genotypes was analyzed using ANOVA. To evaluate the association between ACE I/D and renal function or disease severity, the chi-squared test was conducted. SPSS version 22 was used for all analyses (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY.). A two-tailed *P* value of 0.05 is deemed as statistical significance.

### Results

There were 190 SCA patients investigated, including 106 men (55.8%) and 84 women (44.2%). The average age of the participants in the study was 16.5±9.3 years. According to the outcome of this investigation, ID genotype was the most common among patients with SCA, followed by the II and DD genotypes. Figure 1 depicts the distribution of ACE I/D genotypes in SCA patients based on kidney function. SCA patients with various ACE I/D genotypes had almost similar hematological profile (Table 1). The risk of impaired renal function (GHF, CKD 2 and CKD 3 stages) among SCA patients with distinct ACE I/D genotypes in codominant, dominant, and allelic models was shown in Table 2. No statistically significant variation in the risk of renal impairment among ACE genotypes and alleles was found; suggesting that ACE I/D is an insignificant modifying factor of renal function in SCA patients. Participants with normal kidney function (CKD 1 stage) and different stages of kidney damage had almost similar hematological profile (Supplementary file 1,

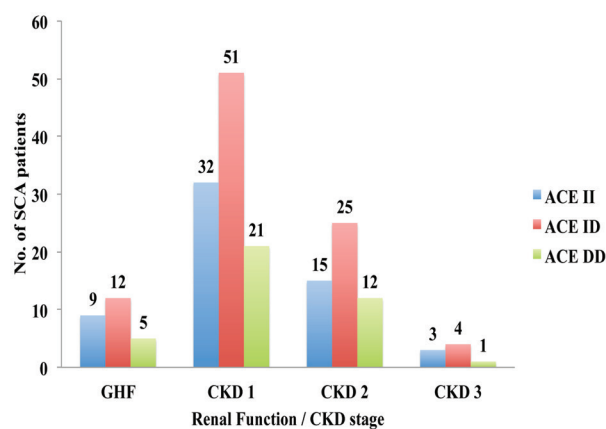


Figure 1. Incidence of ACE I/D genotypes in SCA patients based on renal function.

**Table 1.** Distribution of various hematological variables according to ACE genotypes in SCA patients

	ACE II (n=59)	ACE ID (n=92)	ACE DD (n=39)	F value	P value
Age (y)	16.31±9.10	16.73±10.05	16.33±7.73	0.046	0.955
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	15.73±2.51	16.29±3.12	16.05±4.48	0.516	0.598
Hb (g/dL)	8.27±1.84	8.49±1.64	8.72±1.96	0.782	0.459
HbF %	19.14±6.26	19.82±7.24	19.64±6.73	0.181	0.834
Hematocrit %	24.67±5.71	25.25±5.17	25.57±4.98	0.380	0.685
TLC (×10 <sup>9</sup> /L)	9.76±4.74	11.47±6.02	12.55±5.61	3.238	0.041
PLT (×10 <sup>9</sup> /L)	302.2±172.1	341.7±171.1	334.6±150.9	1.041	0.355
RBC (×10 <sup>12</sup> /L)	2.94±0.66	3.20±2.27	3.02±0.75	0.49	0.614
MCV (fL)	85.38±10.83	86.71±10.17	86.44±9.69	0.309	0.734
MCHC (g/L)	33.70±2.11	33.60±2.01	34.22±2.53	1.149	0.319
MCH (pg)	28.69±4.19	29.04±3.92	29.51±3.83	0.495	0.611
RDW-CV	18.42±2.63	18.26±2.85	17.90±2.70	0.423	0.656
TB (mg/dl)	2.33±1.62	2.33±1.64	2.58±1.99	0.349	0.706
DB (mg/dl)	0.39±0.52	0.40±0.61	0.40±0.36	0.005	0.995
SGPT (U/L)	21.9±12.6	24.3±23.2	20.8±11.0	0.615	0.542
SGOT (U/L)	47.1±26.5	50.3±32.5	45.1±22.5	0.515	0.599
Blood urea (mg/dL)	16.02±6.30	17.36±9.7	18.23±16.03	0.567	0.568
Serum creatinine (mg/dL)	0.63±0.24	0.64±0.21	0.64±0.18	0.083	0.920
eGFR (mL/ min./1.73 m <sup>2</sup> )	107.6±29.7	107.2±29.7	108.2±31.0	0.016	0.984
No. of blood transfusions	7.81±19.03	7.17±11.77	5.26±8.84	0.410	0.664

BMI, body mass index; Hb, hemoglobin; HbF, fetal hemoglobin; TLC, total leukocyte count; PLT, platelets; RBC, red blood cell; MCV, mean corpuscular volume; MCHC, mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration; MCH, mean corpuscular hemoglobin; RDW-CV, variation of red cell volume distribution width; TB, total bilirubin; DB, Direct bilirubin; SGPT, serum glutamic-pyruvic transaminase; SGOT, Serum Glutamic-Oxaloacetic Transaminase; eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate.

Table S1). Individuals with CKD 3 stage had higher HbF levels (22.0 ± 7.4%) than those with normal renal function (18.3 ± 6.3%;  $P = 0.025$ ). Additionally, CKD 2 stage and CKD 3 stage patients had substantially higher blood urea and creatinine levels than the GHF and CKD 1 groups. Higher SGOT and SGPT levels were found in CKD 2 stage and CKD 3 stage patients than CKD 1 and GHF patients.

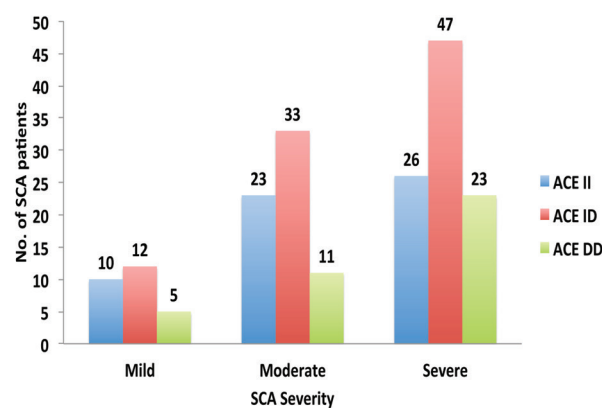
**Table 2.** ACE I/D polymorphism and risk of impaired renal function among SCA patients

	$\chi^2$	OR (95% CI)	P value
<b>CKD1 vs. GHF</b>			
DD versus II	0.071	0.846 (0.248-2.879)	0.790
DD+ID versus II	0.142	0.839 (0.338-2.084)	0.706
D versus I	0.098	0.907 (0.491-1.676)	0.755
<b>CKD1 vs. CKD2</b>			
DD versus II	0.172	1.219 (0.477-3.114)	0.679
DD+ID versus II	0.061	1.096 (0.528-2.276)	0.805
D versus I	0.162	1.102 (0.687-1.766)	0.688
<b>CKD1 vs. CKD3</b>			
DD versus II	0.336	0.508 (0.049-5.216)	0.569
DD+ID versus II	0.157	0.704 (0.167-3.289)	0.693
D versus I	0.313	0.742 (0.260-2.117)	0.577

Figure 2 depicts ACE I/D genotype distribution in SCA patients based on SCA severity. The risk of SCA severity associated with distinct ACE I/D genotypes in different genetic models implies that ACE I/D is not linked with SCA severity (Table 3).

## Discussion

The current study found that the ACE DD genotype is the most common in patients with SCA, followed by the II

**Figure 2.** The incidence of ACE I/D genotypes according to SCA severity groups.

**Table 3.** ACE I/D polymorphism and risk of clinical outcomes of different severity among SCA patients

	$\chi^2$	OR (95% CI)	P value
<b>Moderate vs Mild</b>			
DD versus II	0.005	0.956 (0.263-3.481)	0.946
DD+ID versus II	0.062	1.125 (0.444-2.852)	0.803
D versus I	0.002	1.013 (0.533-1.926)	0.969
<b>Severe vs Mild</b>			
DD versus II	0.864	1.769 (0.527-5.941)	0.356
DD+ID versus II	1.009	1.584 (0.643-3.901)	0.318
D versus I	1.003	1.366 (0.741-2.520)	0.318
<b>Severe vs. Moderate</b>			
DD versus II	1.766	1.850 (0.743-4.603)	0.186
DD+ID versus II	0.958	1.407 (0.716-2.767)	0.322
D versus I	1.740	1.349 (0.864-2.107)	0.188

and DD genotypes. No significant variation in the risk of CKD among ACE I/D genotypes and alleles. Further, the genotypes of ACE I/D polymorphism are not linked to the disease severity.

Sickle nephropathy, characterized by persistent proteinuria, develops early in life, and is linked to disease severity (27). In adults, CKD stage 3 (renal insufficiency) is a primary source of morbidity and fatality. Several lines of evidences indicated that the ACE I/D gene polymorphism is a major risk factor for thrombotic diseases (18,19,28). According to some studies, the ACE polymorphism could be a genetic susceptibility factor in the advancement of CKD. To date, there are only few case-control study that tried to establish the link the ACE I/D polymorphism with the SCA complications. The ACE I/D polymorphism is not associated with the early sickle cell glomerulopathy (29). In African SCA patients, no statistically significant correlation between ACE I/D polymorphism and SCA complications was revealed (30). Renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (RAAS) inhibition, reduce proteinuria and slow kidney disease progression in patients with various clinical conditions (12, 31). Although this strategy has not been thoroughly tested in patients with SCA, these agents were recommended based on their general efficacy in decreasing the intraglomerular pressure in SCA-related CKD (32).

Treatment with ACE inhibitor, enalapril was shown to decrease the urinary protein excretion as well as controlled serum albumin level in infants and children with sickle nephropathy. Addition of hydroxyurea therapy stabilized the urine protein/creatinine ratio levels in these patients (33). A year ACEIs or ARB therapy in SCA patients was associated with trends for reducing urine albumin and systolic blood pressure (34, 35). ACEIs are safe and effective in providing cardio-renal protection by decreasing albuminuria in SCA patients (36). However,

ACEIs have been linked to some side effects, including a dry, irritating cough and a higher risk of lung cancer (37). According to American Society of Hematology guideline, ACEIs and ARBs use require proper follow-ups and observing toxic effects such as hyperkalemia, cough, and hypotension in SCA patients (38).

## Conclusion

In summary, this investigation demonstrated that ACE I/D polymorphism is an insignificant genetic modifier of renal function or severity of the disease in patients with SCA.

## Limitations of the study

The scope of the present study is limited, as we have not measured creatinine in SCA patients based on isotope dilution mass spectrometry. In addition, the nested study design adopted results in selection bias. However, unlike previous studies, the present study used well-characterized SCA patients.

## Authors' contribution

Conceptualization: LVKSB; Methodology: LVKSB; Data analysis: LVKSB; Writing original manuscript: LVKSB; Review and revising manuscript: SP; Funding acquisition: LVKSB. Both authors reviewed and approved the final manuscript.

## Availability of data and materials

All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this article and its supplementary information file.

## Conflicts of interest

The authors declare that they have no competing interests

## Consent to Publish

Written informed consent obtained from each study participant is having statement to publish data without the identifiers.

## Ethical issues

The research followed the tenets of the Declaration of Helsinki. Written informed consent was obtained from each study participant. This study was approved by the Institutional Ethics Committee (IEC) of the Sickle Cell Institute of Chhattisgarh. (Letter No.29/SCIC/Ethical/2015 Raipur, Dated 16, January 2015). Ethical issues (including plagiarism, data fabrication, double publication) have been completely observed by the authors.

## Funding/Support

This work was supported by the Chhattisgarh Council of Science & Technology minor research project (No.2740/CCOST/MRP/2015).

## Supplementary files

Supplementary file 1 contains Table S1.

## References

1. Bhaskar LVKS, Patra PK. Sickle cell disease is autochthonous and unique in Indian populations. *Indian J Phys Anthropol Hum Genet.* 2015;34:201-10.
2. Lakkakula BVKS. Association between MTHFR 677C>T polymorphism and vascular complications in sickle cell disease: A meta-analysis. *Transfus Clin Biol.* 2019;26:284-288. doi: 10.1016/j.trcli.2019.01.003.

3. Sundd P, Gladwin MT, Novelli EM. Pathophysiology of Sickle Cell Disease. *Annu Rev Pathol.* 2019;14:263-92. doi: 10.1146/annurev-pathmechdis-012418-012838.
4. Lakkakula BVKS, Sahoo R, Verma H, Lakkakula S. Pain Management Issues as Part of the Comprehensive Care of Patients with Sickle Cell Disease. *Pain Manag Nurs.* 2018;19:558-572. doi: 10.1016/j.pmn.2018.06.004.
5. Shukla P, Verma H, Patel S, Patra PK, Bhaskar LVKS. Ocular manifestations of sickle cell disease and genetic susceptibility for refractive errors. *Taiwan J Ophthalmol.* 2017;7:89-93. doi: 10.4103/tjo.tjo\_3\_17.
6. Lakkakula BVKS, Verma HK, Choubey M, Patra S, Khodiar PK, Patra PK. Assessment of renal function in Indian patients with sickle cell disease. *Saudi J Kidney Dis Transpl.* 2017;28:524-531. doi: 10.4103/1319-2442.206440.
7. Alghasi A, Hassanpour Z, Bahadoram M, Ashrafi S, Nourbakhsh SMK. Examination of IQ in 7 to 14 years old children with sickle cell disease compared with healthy children. *J Prev Epidemiol.* 2020;5:e13-e. doi: 10.34172/jpe.2020.13.
8. Henu Kumar V, Saikrishna L, Bhaskar VKSL. Retrospection of the effect of hydroxyurea treatment in patients with sickle cell disease. *Acta Haematologica Polonica.* 2018;49:1-8. doi: 10.2478/ahp-2018-0001.
9. Mrug M, Stopka T, Julian BA, Prchal JF, Prchal JT. Angiotensin II stimulates proliferation of normal early erythroid progenitors. *J Clin Invest.* 1997 Nov 1;100:2310-4. doi: 10.1172/JCI119769.
10. Pacurari M, Kafoury R, Tchounwou PB, Ndebele K. The Renin-Angiotensin-aldosterone system in vascular inflammation and remodeling. *Int J Inflamm.* 2014;2014:689360. doi: 10.1155/2014/689360.
11. Brambilla M, Gelosa P, Rossetti L, Castiglioni L, Zara C, Canzano P, et al. Impact of angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibition on platelet tissue factor expression in stroke-prone rats. *J Hypertens.* 2018;36:1360-1371. doi: 10.1097/HJH.0000000000001702.
12. Sasongko TH, Nagalla S, Ballas SK. Angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors for proteinuria and microalbuminuria in people with sickle cell disease. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2013:CD009191. doi: 10.1002/14651858.CD009191.pub2.
13. Chukwukadibia Onuigbo MA, Samuel E, Agbasi N. Late onset renal failure from angiotensin blockade (LORFFAB) and the syndrome of rapid onset endstage renal disease (SORO-ESRD) revisited – Two case reports from Mayo Clinic Health System, Northwestern Wisconsin, USA; a review paper. *J Renal Inj Prev.* 2018;7:58-63. doi: 10.15171/jrip.2018.15.
14. Nematbakhsh M. Renoprotective impact of angiotensin 1-7: Is it certain? *J Nephropathol.* 2019;8:e01-e. doi: 10.15171/jnp.2019.01.
15. Kryukova OV, Tikhomirova VE, Golukhova EZ, Evdokimov VV, Kalantarov GF, Trakht IN, et al. Tissue Specificity of Human Angiotensin I-Converting Enzyme. *PloS one.* 2015;10:e0143455. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0143455.
16. Rahimi Z. ACE insertion/deletion (I/D) polymorphism and diabetic nephropathy. *J Nephropathol.* 2012;1:143-51. doi: 10.5812/nephropathol.8109.
17. Rigat B, Hubert C, Alhenc-Gelas F, Cambien F, Corvol P, Soubrier F. An insertion/deletion polymorphism in the angiotensin I-converting enzyme gene accounting for half the variance of serum enzyme levels. *J Clin Invest.* 1990;86:1343-6. doi: 10.1172/JCI114844.
18. González Ordóñez AJ, Fernández Carreira JM, Medina Rodríguez JM, Martín Sánchez L, Alvarez Díaz R, Alvarez Martínez MV, et al. Risk of venous thromboembolism associated with the insertion/deletion polymorphism in the angiotensin-converting enzyme gene. *Blood Coagul Fibrinolysis.* 2000;11:485-90. doi: 10.1097/00001721-200007000-00011.
19. Schäfer E, Weger M, Birgül T, Renner W, Stanger O, Steinbrugger I, et al. Angiotensin-converting enzyme insertion/deletion polymorphism and retinal artery occlusion. *Acta Ophthalmol Scand.* 2006;84:305-8. doi: 10.1111/j.1600-0420.2006.00656.x.
20. Zhu Y, Ye X, Zhu B, Pei X, Wei L, Wu J, et al. Comparisons between the 2012 new CKD-EPI (Chronic Kidney Disease Epidemiology Collaboration) equations and other four approved equations. *PloS one.* 2014;9:e84688. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0084688.
21. Schwartz GJ, Brion LP, Spitzer A. The use of plasma creatinine concentration for estimating glomerular filtration rate in infants, children, and adolescents. *Pediatric clinics of North America.* 1987;34:571-90. doi: 10.1016/s0031-3955(16)36251-4.
22. Arlet JB, Ribeil JA, Chatellier G, Eladari D, De Seigneux S, Souberbielle JC, et al. Determination of the best method to estimate glomerular filtration rate from serum creatinine in adult patients with sickle cell disease: a prospective observational cohort study. *BMC Nephrol.* 2012 Aug 6;13:83. doi: 10.1186/1471-2369-13-83.
23. National Kidney Foundation. K/DOQI clinical practice guidelines for chronic kidney disease: evaluation, classification, and stratification. *Am J Kidney Dis.* 2002;39:S1-266.
24. van den Tweel XW, van der Lee JH, Heijboer H, Peters M, Fijnvandraat K. Development and validation of a pediatric severity index for sickle cell patients. *Am J Hematol.* 2010;85:746-51. doi: 10.1002/ajh.21846.
25. Sambrook J, Russell DW. *Molecular cloning : a laboratory manual.* 3rd ed. Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.: Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press. 2001.
26. Shanmugam V, Sell KW, Saha BK. Mistyping ACE heterozygotes. *PCR Methods Appl.* 1993;3:120-1. doi: 10.1101/gr.3.2.120.
27. Wigfall DR, Ware RE, Burchinal MR, Kinney TR, Foreman JW. Prevalence and clinical correlates of glomerulopathy in children with sickle cell disease. *J Pediatr.* 2000;136:749-53. PMID: 10839871.
28. Jackson A, Brown K, Langdown J, Luddington R, Baglin T. Effect of the angiotensin-converting enzyme gene deletion polymorphism on the risk of venous thromboembolism. *Br J Haematol.* 2000;111:562-4. doi: 10.1046/j.1365-2141.2000.02408.x.
29. Rebała S, Muralidharan K, Eckman JR, Elsas LJ, Guasch A. Lack of association between the insertion/deletion (I/D) polymorphisms of the angiotensin converting enzyme gene (ACE) and early sickle cell glomerulopathy. *J Am Soc Nephrol.* 2002;13:132A-A.
30. Mahjoub SA, Abdelrhman E, El-Deen ME, Mustafa MS, Ali EW. Angiotensin-converting enzyme insertion/deletion polymorphism is not associated with vasoocclusive complications of sickle cell anemia. *Int J Appl Basic Med Res.* 2016;6:267-270. doi: 10.4103/2229-516X.192594.
31. Falk RJ, Scheinman J, Phillips G, Orringer E, Johnson A, Jennette JC. Prevalence and pathologic features of sickle cell nephropathy and response to inhibition of angiotensin-converting enzyme. *N Engl J Med.* 1992;326:910-5. doi: 10.1056/nejm199204023261402.
32. Roy NB, Fortin PM, Bull KR, Doree C, Trivella M, Hopewell S, et al. Interventions for chronic kidney disease in people with sickle cell disease. *The Cochrane database of systematic reviews.* 2016;2016. doi: 10.1002/14651858.CD012380.
33. Fitzhugh CD, Wigfall DR, Ware RE. Enalapril and hydroxyurea therapy for children with sickle nephropathy. *Pediatric blood & cancer.* 2005;45:982-5. doi: 10.1002/pbc.20296.

34. Choi J, Singh N, Han J, Gowhari M, Hassan J, Jain S, et al. Effect of Angiotensin Converting Enzyme Inhibitors and Angiotensin Receptor Blockers on Kidney Function in Patients with Sickle Cell Disease. *Blood*. 2016;128:3666. doi: 10.1182/blood.V128.22.3666.3666.
35. Nazar CMJ. Mechanism of hypertension in diabetic nephropathy. *J Nephropharmacol*. 2014;3:49-55.
36. Haymann JP, Hammoudi N, Stankovic Stojanovic K, Galacteros F, Habibi A, Avellino V, et al. Renin-angiotensin system blockade promotes a cardio-renal protection in albuminuric homozygous sickle cell patients. *Br J Haematol*. 2017;179:820-828. doi: 10.1111/bjh.14969.
37. Asgharpour M, Ebrahimi Kalan M, Mirhashemi SH, Alirezaei A. Lung cancer risk and the inhibitors of angiotensin converting enzyme: A mini-review of recent evidence. *Immunopathol Persa*. 2019;5:e16-e. doi: 10.15171/ipp.2019.16.
38. Liem RI, Lanzkron S, D.Coates T, DeCastro L, Desai AA, Ataga KI, et al. American Society of Hematology 2019 guidelines for sickle cell disease: cardiopulmonary and kidney disease. *Blood Adv*. 2019;3:3867-97. doi: 10.1182/bloodadvances.2019000916.