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Hemochromatosis classification: update and recommendations by the BIOIRON Society

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Abstract:

Hemochromatosis (HC) is a genetically heterogeneous disorder in which uncontrolled intestinal iron absorption may lead to progressive iron overload responsible for disabling and life-threatening complications such as arthritis, diabetes, heart failure, hepatic cirrhosis, and hepatocellular carcinoma.

The recent advances in the knowledge of pathophysiology and molecular basis of iron metabolism have highlighted that HC is caused by mutations in at least five genes, resulting in insufficient hepcidin production or, rarely, resistance to hepcidin action. This has led to an HC classification based on different molecular subtypes, mainly reflecting successive gene discovery. This scheme was difficult to adopt in clinical practice and therefore needs revision. Here we present recommendations for unambiguous HC classification developed by a working group of the International Society for the Study of Iron in Biology and Medicine (BIOIRON Society) including both clinicians and basic scientists during a meeting in Heidelberg, Germany. We propose to deemphasize the use of the molecular subtype criteria in favor of a classification addressing both clinical issues and molecular complexity. Ferroportin Disease (former type 4a) has been excluded because of its distinct phenotype. The novel classification aims to be of practical help whenever a detailed molecular characterization of HC is not readily available.

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5 **Short Title:** New Hemochromatosis classification by BIOIRON Society

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48 Abstract

Hemochromatosis (HC) is a genetically heterogeneous disorder in which uncontrolled intestinal iron absorption may lead to progressive iron overload responsible for disabling and life-threatening complications such as arthritis, diabetes, heart failure, hepatic cirrhosis, and hepatocellular carcinoma. The recent advances in the knowledge of pathophysiology and molecular basis of iron metabolism have highlighted that HC is caused by mutations in at least five genes, resulting in insufficient hepcidin production or, rarely, resistance to hepcidin action. This has led to an HC classification based on different molecular subtypes, mainly reflecting successive gene discovery. This scheme was difficult to adopt in clinical practice and therefore needs revision. Here we present recommendations for unambiguous HC classification developed by a working group of the International Society for the Study of Iron in Biology and Medicine (BIOIRON Society) including both clinicians and basic scientists during a meeting in Heidelberg, Germany. We propose to deemphasize the use of the molecular subtype criteria in favor of a classification addressing both clinical issues and molecular complexity. Ferroportin Disease (former type 4a) has been excluded because of its distinct phenotype. The novel classification aims to be of practical help whenever a detailed molecular characterization of HC is not readily available.

82 Historical Perspective

It is commonly accepted that the term "hemochromatosis" was coined by the German 83 pathologist von Recklinghausen in 1889. Of note, this was during the Versammlung 84 Deutscher Naturforscher (meeting of German scientists) held in Heidelberg, like the 85 BIOIRON Society (formerly IBIS) meeting in 2019, which led to the current report. 86 87 Following the description of patients with "bronze diabetes and cirrhosis" by French physicians led by Armand Trousseau in the mid-1800s, von Recklinghausen hypothesized 88 that something circulating in the blood ("Hemo-") was responsible for skin and organ 89 damage and pigmentation ("-chromatosis") (HC). Recognizing excess iron as the etiology 90 of organ toxicity took several decades, and was attributable to Joseph Sheldon in 1935, 91 who was also the first to suggest the genetic origin of the metabolic defect (for a 92 comprehensive historical review, see¹). Overall, these pioneers' works clearly defined a 93 clinical-pathological entity caused by progressive iron accumulation and characterized by 94 95 multi-organ damage (mainly in liver, pancreas, joints, heart, and endocrine glands), without signs of anemia (to the contrary, some patients show mildly increased Hb levels)²⁻⁵. In the 96 1950s, ferrokinetic studies revealed abnormally increased intestinal iron absorption as the 97 key pathophysiological feature of HC,⁶ and repeated/frequent phlebotomies were 98 established as the mainstay of treatment⁷. In 1977, the seminal work by Marcel Simon and 99 100 colleagues reported the tight linkage between the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) 101 and the putative hemochromatosis gene on chromosome 6p, definitively demonstrating 102 the genetic origin of the disease⁸. This paved the way to the discovery, in 1996, of the "hemochromatosis gene" *HFE* (alias "high Fe", official full name "homeostatic iron" 103 regulator")⁹, which provided additional information about HC. Initially, it appeared that up to 104 105 95% of HC cases could be attributed to homozygosity for a single nucleotide change (845) $G \rightarrow A$) causing the substitution of cysteine by tyrosine at amino acid 282 (p.Cys282Tyr or 106 107 C282Y variant)¹⁰⁻¹³. A second *HFE* polymorphism, *p.His*63Asp, was detected, whose 108 minor role became clearer later¹⁴. The meaning of the *p.Cys282Tyrlp.His63Asp* compound heterozygosity is discussed in detail below. The high frequency of *p.Cys282Tyr* 109 110 homozygosity in the original studies resulted from the inclusion of patients mostly of Northern European ancestry, a region where the variant had originated around 4,000 111 112 BC.^{15,16} Indeed, the *p.Cys282Tyr* variant, frequent in certain geographical regions,¹⁷ is rare or even absent in large areas of the world, including Asian and African countries, as well 113 as in native Americans.^{18,19} Subsequent studies in Southern Europe, in the Mediterranean 114

area, and in Brazil found that at least one-third of subjects with a defined HC phenotype were negative for *p.Cys282Tyr* at *HFE* genetic testing.^{20,21}

Over time, it became evident that the genetic basis of HC was more heterogeneous 117 than initially assumed, and several variants in other iron-controlling genes (collectively 118 referred to as "non-*HFE* genes") were progressively associated with the disorder. These 119 include variants on genes coding for a second receptor for transferrin (TFR2),²²⁻²⁴ 120 ferroportin (*SLC40A1*),²⁵ hepcidin (*HAMP*),^{26,27} and hemojuvelin (*HJV*).^{28,29} In particular, 121 the discovery of variants in the HAMP and HJV genes made it possible to define a severe 122 early-onset (*juvenile*) form of HC, with early cardiac and endocrine impairments, as a 123 molecularly distinct entity. 124

Hepcidin is the master regulator of iron homeostasis³⁰⁻³³ and its identification has 125 represented a considerable advance in the comprehension of the pathophysiological 126 127 mechanisms underlying HC. For detailed reviews on hepcidin discovery, functions and regulation, readers are referred elsewhere³⁴⁻³⁷. Briefly, hepcidin is a small peptide 128 hormone produced by the liver, that negatively controls circulating iron levels. Through 129 interaction with ferroportin³⁸⁻⁴⁰ (its receptor and the only cellular iron exporter so far 130 131 identified in humans), hepcidin inhibits the absorption of dietary iron in the duodenum and 132 its release by spleen macrophages involved in recycling iron from senescent erythrocytes. 133 Molecular defects causing hepcidin deficiency result in uncontrolled intestinal iron 134 absorption, with progressive iron accumulation in tissues, ultimately leading to HC.¹ In 135 most cases gene defects cause insufficient production of hepcidin, while rarely ferroportin resistance to hepcidin is observed (see below). As illustrated in **Figure 1**, hepcidin 136 regulation by iron is guite complex and involves numerous proteins^{41,42} whose alterations 137 138 can compromise hormone synthesis or function. For this reason, identifying the molecular causes of HC is far from simple and requires a deep knowledge of its pathogenetic basis, 139 which is still not completely clarified. In our view, the term "hemochromatosis" should be 140 reserved for this unique clinical entity caused by genetic lesions that primarily affect the 141 hepcidin-ferroportin system and not used to describe clinically distinct iron overload 142 143 conditions with other causes (see discussion below).

144

145 **The current clinical scenario**

Unlike in the past, fully expressed and potentially lethal HC (with liver cirrhosis,
diabetes, endocrine dysfunction, and heart failure) is seen rarely in current clinical
practice.⁴³ This can be ascribed to increased awareness of the disease, and, mostly, to the

routine assessment of iron biomarkers, particularly serum ferritin. Unfortunately, this is

150 counterbalanced by an increased diagnostic challenge for non-experts in the iron field,

151 primarily due to the lack of specificity of ferritin.

Ferritin is an essentially intracellular protein that serves to store iron safely. It is also 152 present at very low concentration (μ g/L) in serum, likely through secretion by 153 macrophages⁴⁴. Normal values usually range from 30 to 200 or 300 µg/L in females and 154 males, respectively. The function of secreted extracellular ferritin remains largely 155 unknown.^{45,46} Several common conditions lead to increased serum ferritin levels, including 156 virtually all inflammatory disorders, hepatic cytolysis (e.g., during acute or chronic liver 157 disease), or the metabolic syndrome.^{47,48} This translates into a huge number of 158 consultations, overuse of the "first-level" genetic test looking for the presence of the 159 common variants in the *HFE* gene, and even misdiagnosis due to incorrect interpretation 160 of the results.⁴⁹ 161

162 The glycoprotein transferrin is the extracellular carrier of iron that is detectable at high concentration in blood (q/L; the third most abundant protein after albumin). Transferrin 163 saturation (TSAT) is calculated as the ratio between serum iron and transferrin (multiplied 164 165 by the correction factor 1.42) or, less reliably, between serum iron and total iron binding 166 capacity, and expressed as a percentage. TSAT is much less requested in clinical practice but is much more informative about a possible diagnosis of HC. Normal TSAT varies 167 168 between 20 and 45%. It has been estimated that hyperferritinemia with normal TSAT is associated with increased iron stores in less than 10% of cases.⁵⁰ Importantly, TSAT 169 elevation is the hallmark of HC. In HC patients, high TSAT reflects the increased pool of 170 circulating iron due to insufficient hepcidin production and typically precedes the rise of 171 172 serum ferritin by several years.⁵¹ TSAT tends to remain elevated even in subjects 173 effectively iron-depleted by phlebotomies. Occasional reports of normal TSAT in *p.Cys282Tyr* homozygotes with hyperferritinemia should always prompt the search for 174 additional cofactors that raise ferritin, such as metabolic syndrome or alcohol intake.^{52,53} 175 Liver biopsy was once regarded as the gold standard for the diagnosis of HC, because 176 177 it can reveal iron deposition in hepatocytes with the typical decreasing gradient from the 178 periportal zone (most exposed to iron coming from the gut) to the central-lobular zone in the hepatic acinus. However, in current practice the demonstration of *p.Cys282Tyr* 179 homozygosity along with elevated serum ferritin and TSAT is considered sufficient to make 180 the diagnosis of HC. Liver biopsy remains useful for prognostic purposes in HC patients 181 182 with serum ferritin levels repeatedly >1,000 μ g/L, allowing the early identification of

advanced fibrosis or even subclinical cirrhosis. These conditions require close surveillance 183 for hepatocellular carcinoma even after iron depletion.⁵¹ Nowadays, liver biopsy is seldom 184 performed due to its invasiveness, costs, and the increasing availability of non-invasive 185 tools. Indeed, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) techniques have largely replaced it for 186 the determination of liver iron concentration (LIC). This is obtained indirectly by using 187 188 various MRI protocols, for which there is still no consensus on the best one. The choice of the protocol mainly depends on local expertise, as well as on the available equipment and 189 software (for detailed reviews, see ⁵⁴⁻⁵⁶). Moreover, hepatic transient elastography 190 (Fibroscan) is a reliable non-invasive method for detecting liver fibrosis in HC patients, 191 limiting the need for liver biopsy to those with indeterminate results.⁵⁷ 192 Currently, HC is typically suspected in subjects with no or minimal symptoms, increased 193 194 serum ferritin levels without alternative explanation, high TSAT, and evidence of increased liver iron stores by MRI. Making the diagnosis at this preclinical early stage⁵¹ has the 195 196 undoubted advantage of preventing organ damage by a relatively simple and costeffective treatment (phlebotomy), as well as of allowing normal life expectancy.^{58,59} 197 The HFE genetic test, available in most laboratories, identifies the commonest inherited 198 defect in Caucasians predisposing to *HFE*-related HC, i.e. *p.Cys282Tyr* homozygosity. 199 200 Therefore, in Caucasians, an HFE genetic test is indicated when high TSAT is confirmed 201 irrespective of parenchymal IO demonstration. p.Cys282Tyr homozygosity has a variable and difficult to predict clinical penetrance,60-64 with several inherited and acquired modifiers 202 203 potentially contributing to the final phenotype. For this reason, HFE-related HC should not be viewed as a simple monogenic disorder, but rather as the complex result of the 204 interplay of environmental, lifestyle, and still unidentified genetic cofactors.¹ 205 206 Regarding the compound p.Cys282Tyr and p.His63Asp heterozygosity, compelling 207 evidence exists that this genotype *per se* is characterized by minimal or no clinical

penetrance ^{65,66}. Thus, it cannot be considered diagnostic for HC (for a detailed discussion 208 see¹⁴), but at most as a susceptibility factor that can be associated with mild-to-moderate 209 210 IO only in case of digenic inheritance⁶⁷ (see below) or when other predominant causes of 211 liver disease are present, namely non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD), alcohol, or HCV. Of note, the latter two are known to cause acquired hepcidin suppression^{41,68,69}. 212 213 According to existing guidelines, whenever a subject with p.Cys282Tyr/p.His63Asp compound heterozygosity has evidence of IO, a secondary cause of liver disease should 214 be sought and treated^{70,71}, with phlebotomies possibly considered as an adjunctive 215 treatment. On the other hand, the negative effects of an automatic HC (mis)diagnosis in 216

p.Cys282Tyr/p.His63Asp compound heterozygotes are commonly seen at referral centers.
 They include patients' and family members' unnecessary anxiety, incomplete prior
 investigations (e.g., serum ferritin but neither TSAT nor MRI), overlooking of other causes,
 and/or unnecessary treatment by phlebotomies.

Clinical elements that should raise a definite suspicion of HC are reported in **Table 1**. In 221 Caucasians with a negative first-level *HFE* test (i.e., *p.Cys282Tyr* homozygosity is not 222 detected) and in non-Caucasians, a second-level genetic test should be considered in 223 224 order to identify rarer variants in the *HFE* or in other genes known to be linked to hepcidin 225 control. In general, these types of HC are less influenced by cofactors, and characterized by a more severe and homogeneous clinical picture appearing at a younger age.⁷² Their 226 molecular diagnosis is often complex, since variants in HC genes other than HFE are 227 228 typically private, i.e. restricted to members of only one or a few families. To this end, 229 modern approaches based on Next-Generation-Sequencing (NGS) have greatly expanded 230 the diagnostic possibilities in rarer HC, while at the same time opening enormous challenges of interpretation of the results. NGS is generally available only at referral 231 232 centers and requires specific expertise to avoid misdiagnosis, with long wait time for 233 results (see below). Nonetheless, treatment of patients with a defined HC phenotype 234 should not be delayed pending the result of the genetic test. Recently, NGS methods have 235 also made it possible to estimate the global prevalence of HFE and non-HFE HC in different populations,¹⁹ as summarized in **Table 2**. 236

Figure 2 illustrates a possible algorithm for diagnosis of HC, starting from clinical,
 biochemical and imaging studies to molecular confirmation.

239

240 The nomenclature of genetic disorders

HC nomenclature suffers from a common problem of classifying genetic diseases. In 241 contrast to genes, diseases lack a standardized way to review official names and symbols 242 by formal committees (https://ghr.nlm.nih.gov/primer/mutationsanddisorders/naming). 243 Disease nomenclature is often derived from the name(s) of the physician(s) who first 244 described the condition, one major sign or symptom, or the biochemical/genetic underlying 245 defect. However, the growing comprehension of the pathophysiological or molecular 246 247 mechanisms that regulate diseases, as well as the identification of new phenotypes, may 248 require revision of the initial name by experts, in order to improve its usefulness in clinical 249 practice.

Proper nomenclature, in fact, is an essential prerequisite for clear and effective
communication about a particular condition. Ideally, it should unequivocally evoke
disorders sharing the same pathogenesis and treatment, eventually helping clinicians to
provide an accurate diagnosis and management.

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- 255

What hemochromatosis is (and what it is not)

Nomenclature and case definition of HC have long been recognized as a potential source 256 of confusion⁷³, especially when dealing with the report of genetic tests ¹⁴. Among experts, 257 there was a common feeling that the HC classification needs to be revised in view of the 258 increasing awareness and knowledge of IO disorders. To this end, the BIOIRON Society 259 260 promoted a two-step process. The starting point was the preparation of a survey that was sent to working group participants, including both expert clinicians and basic scientists 261 262 actively involved in the iron metabolism field, and consisting of nearly all who discovered 263 the hemochromatosis genes and hepcidin. The survey guestions and the summary of 264 responses are available in the Supplementary Materials (S1). This was followed by a critical collegial discussion during a specific session of the most recent Biennial Meeting of 265 the BIOIRON Society in Heidelberg. The recommendations reported here are the result of 266 267 such discussion, where the panelists eventually agreed on the novel classification. As an 268 integral part of the process, the panelists agreed on a robust definition of HC, based on 269 clinical presentation and widely available tools, as a prerequisite for genetic testing. The 270 main clinical, biochemical and imaging studies for the suspicion of HC are reported in 271 **Table 1.** Rigorously speaking, the term "hemochromatosis" should be reserved for a unique genetic clinical-pathological condition characterized by increased TSAT. IO in the 272 273 liver (but not in the spleen), prevalent involvement of peri-portal hepatocytes with iron-274 spared Kupffer cells, and signs and/or symptoms associated with IO. The panelists also emphasized that the term "hemochromatosis" itself implies an IO of genetic origin, which is 275 276 why they would recommend avoiding the unnecessary use of qualifiers such as 277 "hereditary", "genetic" or "primary". Indeed, genetic defects in the hepcidin/ferroportin regulatory axis (caused by variants in hepcidin regulators, the hepcidin gene itself, or in 278 279 ferroportin) are responsible for inadequate production or activity of hepcidin, or lack of 280 hepcidin responsiveness of ferroportin. Finally, the panelists agreed that the definition of 281 HC should also include the absence of hematological signs of a primary/predominant red blood cell disorder, such as anemia or reticulocytosis (see **Table 1** for some exceptions to 282 283 this rule). This is needed to distinguish HC from other iron overload conditions, often

referred to as "iron-loading anemias",^{74,75} which are similarly characterized by increased 284 TSAT and are nearly always genetically determined. In these conditions, the hepcidin 285 286 suppression is caused by factors released by erythropoietin-stimulated erythroblasts (e.g. erythroferrone or ERFE),⁷⁶ as a consequence of ineffective erythropoiesis or compensated 287 chronic hemolysis, and not by variants in genes affecting the hepcidin-ferroportin axis. The 288 prototype of this group is non-transfusion dependent thalassemia (NTDT).⁷⁷ IO also occurs 289 in transfusion dependent inherited anemias, but in this case, it is mainly due to 290 transfusions *per* se, and hepcidin levels tend to be increased.⁷⁸ especially immediately 291 after the transfusion because of suppression of erythropoiesis.⁷⁹ Figure 3 illustrates the 292 293 main mechanisms underlying the development of IO in hemochromatosis and iron loading anemias. As mentioned above, the majority of iron loading anemias are inherited (for 294 recent comprehensive reviews, see^{36,80-82}), including forms caused by variants in the 295 hemoglobin genes, in genes coding for red blood cell enzymes or membrane structures, 296 as well as congenital sideroblastic⁸¹ or dyserythropoietic⁸² anemias. Sometimes, variants 297 in genes directly regulating iron transport and utilization (such as DMT1, transferrin, 298 ceruloplasmin, and others) may be implicated as well.⁸⁰ Finally, IO due to hepcidin 299 inhibition can also occur independently of transfusions in some forms of myelodysplastic 300 syndromes⁸³, especially those characterized by ringed sideroblasts and increased 301 ineffective erythropoiesis associated with acquired somatic mutations in SF3B1⁸⁴. In any 302 303 case, all these conditions should never be regarded as hemochromatosis because of the 304 distinct pathogenesis and treatment (e.g., phlebotomies are often not feasible).

305

306 The former classifications: strengths and shortcomings

307 The HC classifications reported by authoritative textbooks and recent reviews and guidelines are based on a schema (Table 3), in which numbers and letters reflect the 308 chronology of first descriptions of genotype-phenotype correlations.^{51,71,85,86} Four types are 309 included, with type 2 and type 4 further subdivided into subtypes A and B. They have the 310 advantage of being very informative from a molecular point of view, and officially endorsed 311 by OMIM (the Online Mendelian Inheritance of Man database), but also present several 312 caveats and inconsistencies. The main limitations of the current classifications are listed 313 314 below.

a. Poor applicability in clinical practice (Limitations due to costs and lack of
 widespread expertise).

Apart from the genetic test looking for the common *HFE* variants, the identification of 317 the molecular defect causing rarer forms of HC is currently offered by few laboratories, 318 heterogeneously distributed and scattered worldwide. This requires that patients should 319 travel, or DNA should be sent to referral centers, with inevitable discomforts, delays and 320 costs. Moreover, although the second-level genetic test (mainly based on NGS approach) 321 322 has recently improved, with gradually decreasing costs, it demands advanced experience for a rigorous interpretation, which can take several weeks.^{14,87-89} Moreover, some cases 323 of HC still remain molecularly undiagnosed even after NGS, suggesting the possibility of 324 unknown gene(s) yet to be discovered.⁸⁹⁻⁹¹ For this reason, the cooperation between 325 geneticists, bioinformaticians, and clinicians is necessary to resolve the most difficult 326 327 cases. EuroBloodNet, the network connecting experts on rare hematological diseases, is making great efforts in this direction (for details, see www.eurobloodnet.eu). 328

b. Numerical subtypes do not capture the complex molecular pathogenesis of HC.

Recent applications of NGS have highlighted that some patients with a provisional diagnosis of *non-HFE* HC cannot be ascribed to any of the numerical subtypes listed in the previous classification (**Table 3**). Essentially there are two reasons:

1) Some show a "digenic" inheritance, deriving from the combination of pathogenic variants in two different genes involved in iron metabolism (e.g., single p.Cys282Tyr + heterozygous variants in *HJV*, *HAMP* or *TFR2*).^{90,92-95} Although there are still only few cases reported, digenic inheritance must also be considered in cases whose *HFE* genotype *per se* does not fully explain the clinical picture, for example in patients with p.Cys282Tyr homozygosity and very early/severe IO.

2) Others do not display variants in any of the five classical hemochromatosis genes (i.e., *HFE*, *HAMP*, *HJV*, *TFR2*, and *SLC40A1*). Recently, some small case-series⁹⁶⁻⁹⁸ have reported moderate late-onset IO in patients carrying variants in the *BMP6* gene, encoding one of the major activators of hepcidin expression in response to iron⁹⁹. The role of such variants is still controversial, as they have been detected mostly in patients with a substantial burden of acquired cofactors.¹⁰⁰ Nonetheless, they broaden the spectrum of genetic defects potentially responsible for HC.

347 c. Former Type 4A HC

Former Type 4A HC actually represents an IO syndrome characterized by distinctive clinical, biochemical, and pathological features, which do not fit the definition of HC.^{101,102} They include normal to low TSAT, iron retention in spleen and hepatic macrophages, and,

sometimes, poor tolerance to standard phlebotomies. The underlying molecular defect is 351 the presence of loss-of-function (LOF) variants in the SLC40A1 gene, that reduce 352 353 expression or iron export capability of ferroportin at the cell surface. Therefore, iron is trapped inside iron-recycling macrophages (primarily in the spleen), resulting in a reduction 354 of circulating iron, and a tendency to iron-restricted erythropoiesis. The corresponding 355 356 clinical features are normal-to-low TSAT and, sometimes, the development of mild anemia after phlebotomies. Both these elements are clearly at variance with the case definition of 357 358 HC according to **Table 1**. Another peculiarity is represented by autosomal dominant inheritance. Taking into consideration all these aspects, many authors have suggested 359 adopting a specific terminology for this condition, such as Ferroportin disease (FD).^{14,102} In 360 spite of very high ferritin levels which may be evident even in young-adult subjects, FD 361 phenotype is generally milder than in *HFE*-related HC, possibly because of the lower 362 toxicity of iron accumulation in macrophages as compared to hepatocytes.¹⁰³.^{102,103} 363 364 On the other hand, very rare gain-of-function (GOF) variants in the SLC40A1 gene lead to ferroportin resistance to hepcidin, and cause IO conditions phenotypically and 365 biochemically indistinguishable from hepcidin-deficient HC (former Type 4B HC).¹⁰⁴ 366 367 Variants that interfere with hepcidin binding to ferroportin and also impair ferroportin 368 stability or ability to export iron are also possible, potentially leading to a mixed or 369 intermediate phenotype variably influenced by age or environmental factors.

d. Former Type 2 molecular subtypes are not always Juvenile forms and vice versa

As mentioned before, the term *juvenile* hemochromatosis classically designates an 372 early-onset (within the second or third decades of life), fully-expressed HC phenotype 373 374 showing similar penetrance in both genders and a tendency to present with cardiac and endocrine dysfunctions.^{27,105} This phenotype is generally due to variants in HJV and 375 376 HAMP genes causing much more severe iron hyperabsorption than the HFE mutations. 377 However, recent studies have highlighted some age-overlap at diagnosis between the various molecular subtypes of HC.⁷² Therefore, the term *juvenile* HC can be ambiguous if 378 invariably attributed to variants in the HAMP and HJV genes, because in some of these 379 patients the disease is diagnosed in adulthood. Similarly, the term can be misleading in 380 381 HC patients with defects in genes other than HJV or HAMP, but with early-onset severe 382 phenotypes.

383

384 New classification of HC proposed by the working group

As a result of the two-step process described previously, the panelists propose a new 385 classification of HC (shown in **Table 4**), addressing both clinical issues (thereby 386 387 addressing the needs of general clinicians and subspecialists) and molecular precision. The emphasis on clinical features obviates the current challenges represented by second-388 389 level genetic testing for detecting rare variants in the *HFE* and non-*HFE* genes, which 390 could lead to delayed diagnosis and treatment. When criteria listed on **Table 1** are fulfilled, the diagnosis of *HFE*-related HC can be made in the presence of *p.Cys282Tyr* 391 392 homozygosity. If an appropriately investigated patient has an unequivocal HC phenotype without cofactors but is not a p.Cys282Tyr homozygote (and this includes compound 393 p.Cys282Tyr and p.His63Asp heterozygosity or p.His63Asp homozygosity), a provisional 394 diagnosis of "molecularly undefined" HC can be made, and phlebotomies started. In this 395 case, quantification of the total amount of iron removed by phlebotomies will serve as an 396 397 additional marker of IO. The panelists agree that, whenever possible, an accurate 398 molecular characterization remains important in these patients, especially for cascade screening of asymptomatic siblings, or other first-degree relatives. To this end, patients 399 400 should be referred (or DNA should be sent) to a specialized center. Indeed, second-level 401 genetic tests have limitations that include costs, time-delay, and poor availability in certain 402 regions, and require a high level of expertise for interpretation. Based on NGS results, 403 some cases could be reclassified into *HFE*-related, digenic or non-*HFE* HC (as shown in 404 Figure 2).

Based on all the above considerations, we suggest adopting a new, more workable
classification of HC (shown in **Table 4**) capable of capturing the growing genetic
complexity of HC highlighted by NGS. In fact, the type-numerical classification does not
allow assignation of any subtypes to patients with complex genotypes deriving from
variants in two genes ("digenic" HC), nor to those who remain undefined after sequencing
of known HC genes.

Finally, the panelists agreed to abandon the current terminology of Type 4A and 4B HC, 411 related to LOF and GOF variants in the ferroportin gene, respectively. While Type B is in 412 all respects a form of HC (and it should be referred to as ferroportin-related HC), Type 4A 413 414 has the unique characteristics we described previously. Thus, it should be definitively renamed as "Ferroportin Disease" and included in inherited rare disorders of iron 415 416 metabolism other than HC. It is important to recall that ferroportin mutations are characterized by an autosomal dominant inheritance pattern, with important implications 417 418 for genetic testing of family members.

419	In summary, the novel classification proposed here is based on a pathophysiological
420	cornerstone (hepcidin deficiency) and a distinct clinical/biochemical phenotype. It
421	recognizes the difficulties of a complete molecular characterization and has the potential of
422	being easily shareable between practicing physicians and referral centers. Avoiding any
423	ambiguity is essential for clear and effective communication, that will facilitate proper
424	diagnosis and treatment of HC.
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510 Authorship and conflict-of-interest statements

511 PBr, DG, GP, MM and IC led the panel and conceived the manuscript. DG and FB co-

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516 The other authors declare no competing financial interests.

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776 **Table 1. Main clinical, biochemical and imaging elements for the suspicion of Hemochromatosis**

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Leading

- + TSAT >45% (mainstay)
- + S-Ferritin >200 µg/L (females) or >300 µg/L (males)
- + imaging evidence of liver IO (MRI* and/or biopsy**)
- + Iron deposits in hepatocytes (if biopsy is performed)

+ Absence of "predominant" acquired risk factors for hepcidin deficiency (e.g., alcohol abuse or end-stage liver disease) and iatrogenic iron overload (e.g. regular transfusions)

+ Absence of hematological signs of a primary red blood cell disorder, such as anemia*** (i.e. Hb>120 g/L in females, >130 g/L in males) and/or reticulocytosis

Not always present

 \pm Signs and/or symptoms associated with IO:

- skin pigmentation, asthenia
- persistent increase of aminotransferases, hepatomegaly, cirrhosis, hepatocellular carcinoma
- joint pain, arthritis, chondrocalcinosis, reduced bone mineral density
- diabetes mellitus, hypopituitarism, hypoparathyroidism, hypogonadotropic hypogonadism
- cardiomyopathy, heart failure, cardiac arrhythmias
- TSAT = transferrin saturation; IO = iron overload; MRI = Magnetic Resonance Imaging.
- *Liver Iron Content (LIC) quantification by MRI can be obtained using different protocols, which vary
- 780 depending on local expertise and equipment. With these limitations, any LIC value higher than the upper
- normal limit (generally set at 36-40 µmol/g dry weight) should lead to consideration of phlebotomies in HC
- patients. Similarly, LIC >100-120 µmol/g and >240-300 µmol/g are generally considered as overt and severe
- 783 IO, respectively (see text and ref.^{55,56}).
- **Liver biopsy should be considered in patients with ferritin >1,000 μ g/L or signs of liver damage.
- 785 *** Exceptions may occur, e.g. in HC patients with diagnosis delayed after the appearance of liver cirrhosis, in
- 786 whom anemia may be observed because of hypersplenism or gastrointestinal bleeding, or subjects with
- 787 beta-thalassemia trait, whose coexistence is not rare in Mediterranean countries.
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- Table 2. Combined pathogenic allele frequency for HC genes in the 1000 Genomes Project (1000G),
- Exome Sequencing Project (ESP), and Exome Aggregation Consortium (ExAc) datasets (modified by

Wallace et al.)19

Gene	1000G	ESP6500	ExAc	Geographical distribution
HFE	0.013	0.048	0.0324	Highest prevalence in Northern Europe
(p.Cys282Tyr)				
HFE (non-	0.001	0.0002	0.000307	
p.Cys282Tyr)				
HJV		0.00074	0.000316	Highest prevalence in Southern Asia
TFR2	0.0004	0.0003	0.000102	Most frequent among non-Finnish European
				populations
HAMP	0.0002		0.0000165	Several populations
SLC40A1	0.0008	0.0009	0.00034	Several populations (highest prevalence
				among Africans)

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Table 3. Former classification of HC

Classification	Gene involved and location	Inheritance	TSAT	Other clinical features
Type 1	HFE; chr.6	AR	Increased	Adult-onset; more severe in
				males; highly variable clinical
				expression, with predominant
				liver damage and arthritis
Type 2A	HJV (hemojuvelin);	AR	Increased	Earlier onset (e.g.<30 years old);
	chr.1			similar severity in both sexes;
				prevalent cardiac and endocrine
				involvement
Type 2B	HAMP (hepcidin);	AR	Increased	Earlier onset (e.g.<30 years old);
	chr.19			similar severity in both sexes;
				prevalent cardiac and endocrine
				involvement
Туре 3	TFR2 (transferrin	AR	Increased	Very rare (look for parental
	receptor 2); chr.7			consanguinity); clinically similar
				to Type 1, with an earlier onset
Type 4A	SLC40A1	AD	Low-	Adult-onset; IO in the spleen;
	(ferroportin); chr.2		normal	mild anemia; possible low
				tolerance to venesection
Type 4B	SLC40A1	AD	Increased	Very rare; in general, clinically
	(ferroportin); chr.2			similar to Type 1, but more
				severe/early onset forms are
				reported

842 Table 4. New classification of HC proposed by the working group

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Novel	Molecular pattern	Note
classification		
<i>HFE</i> -related	<i>p.Cys282Tyr</i> homozygosity or compound heterozygosity of <i>p.Cys282Tyr</i> with other rare <i>HFE</i> pathogenic variants ¹⁰⁶⁻¹⁰⁹ or <i>HFE</i> deletion ¹¹⁰	Low penetrance; consider presence of host-related or environmental cofactors for IO In subjects with other HFE genotypes (e.g. <i>p.Cys282Tyr/His63Asp</i> compound heterozygosity or <i>p.His63Asp</i> homozygosity) consider second-line genetic testing for rarer variants.
Non HFE-related	Rare pathogenic variants in " <i>non-HFE</i> " genes: - <i>HJV</i> -related - <i>HAMP</i> -related - <i>TFR2</i> -related - <i>SLC40A1</i> (GOF)-related	Potentially, mutations in any hepcidin-regulatory gene may be causative (the effects of novel mutations should be confirmed through functional and epidemiological studies). Molecular subtypes characterization only at specialized centers, but the diagnosis of non- <i>HFE</i> related HC is sufficient to start phlebotomies at non-specialized centers*.
Digenic**	Double heterozygosity and/or double homozygosity/heterozygosity for mutations in two different genes involved in iron metabolism (<i>HFE</i> and/or <i>non-HFE</i>)	More commonly, <i>p.Cys282Tyr</i> mutation in <i>HFE</i> gene might coexist with mutation in other genes; rarely, both mutations involve <i>non-HFE</i> genes
Molecularly undefined	Molecular characterization (still) not available after sequencing of known genes (provisional diagnosis)	Patients should be referred (or DNA should be sent) to specialized centers

*Providing that iron overload is confirmed by MRI. If this is not accessible, close monitoring of Hb level is
needed to avoid the occurrence of anemia.

** Caution is needed to interpret as digenic inheritance results from NGS outputs reporting several variants

in gene panels. Whenever possible, strict criteria for defining pathogenic variants should be adopted, and

848 corroborated by family segregation and/or functional studies.

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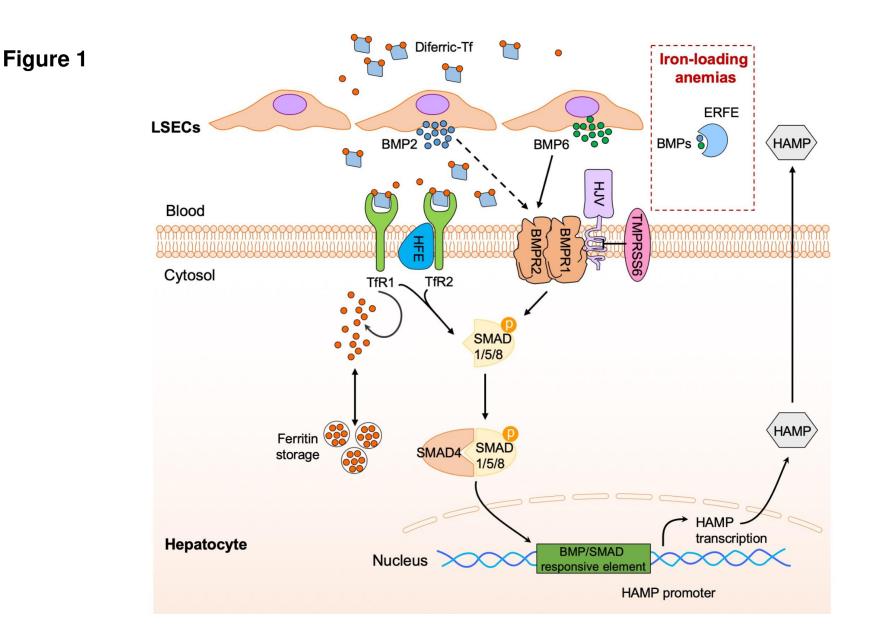
Figure 1. Hepcidin regulation by iron. Increase in transferrin saturation induces 850 hepcidin transcription via the BMP/SMAD signaling pathway. Diferric transferrin binds to 851 TfR2, while BMP6 and BMP2 secreted by liver sinusoidal endothelial cells (LSECs) bind to 852 BMP receptors on hepatocytes. These events trigger phosphorylation of regulatory 853 SMAD1/5/8, recruitment of SMAD4, and translocation of the SMAD complex to the nucleus 854 855 for activating hepcidin transcription upon binding to BMP/SMAD responsive element in the HAMP promoter. BMPs can be trapped by ERFE, leading to hepcidin inhibition in iron 856 857 loading anemias. Efficient iron signaling requires the BMP co-receptor HJV and the protein HFE, and is negatively regulated by the transmembrane serine protease matriptase-2 858 (TMPRSS6). The complex molecular pathogenesis of HC reflects the numerous proteins 859 involved in regulation of the hepcidin-ferroportin axis. 860

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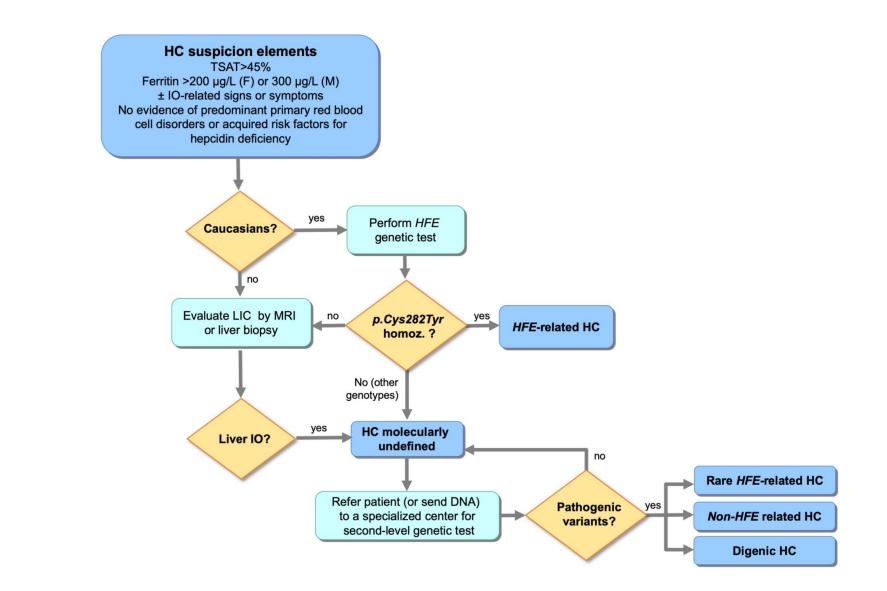
862 Figure 2. Proposal of an algorithm for the diagnosis of HC, from clinical/biochemical 863 and imaging studies to molecular confirmation. Important note: in Caucasians, HFE genotyping is indicated with the specific purpose of detecting p.Cys282YTyr homozygosity 864 865 and, if confirmed, to recommend appropriate preventive treatment by phlebotomies. Asian, 866 African, and native American subjects with defined HC phenotype could be directly 867 referred to second-level genetic test. In populations with a frequent component of northern 868 European ancestry, such as African-Americans and Hispanics, there may be still a role for 869 *HFE* genetic testing.

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Figure 3. Iron homeostasis in normal conditions (A) and mechanisms leading to iron 871 accumulation in HC (B) and in iron-loading anemias (C: non-transfusion dependent; 872 873 **D: transfusion-dependent).** In HC, iron hyperabsorption through the portal vein leads to 874 iron accumulation in liver parenchymal cells, initially with a typical portal-central gradient (see histology) and sparing of macrophages (Kupffer cells). In non-transfusion dependent 875 876 anemias with ineffective erythropolesis hepcidin insufficiency is also central to the pathogenesis of IO, but it is due to suppression by soluble factors (e.g. ERFE) produced by 877 ineffective/expanded erythroblasts, rather than to a genetic defect in pathways regulating 878 879 hepcidin synthesis. In transfusion dependent anemias, regular red blood cells (RBCs) transfusions represent the major contributing factor to IO; in these conditions, hepcidin is 880 881 relatively upregulated by iron, but fluctuates in response to intermittent erythropoiesis 882 suppression by transfusions.

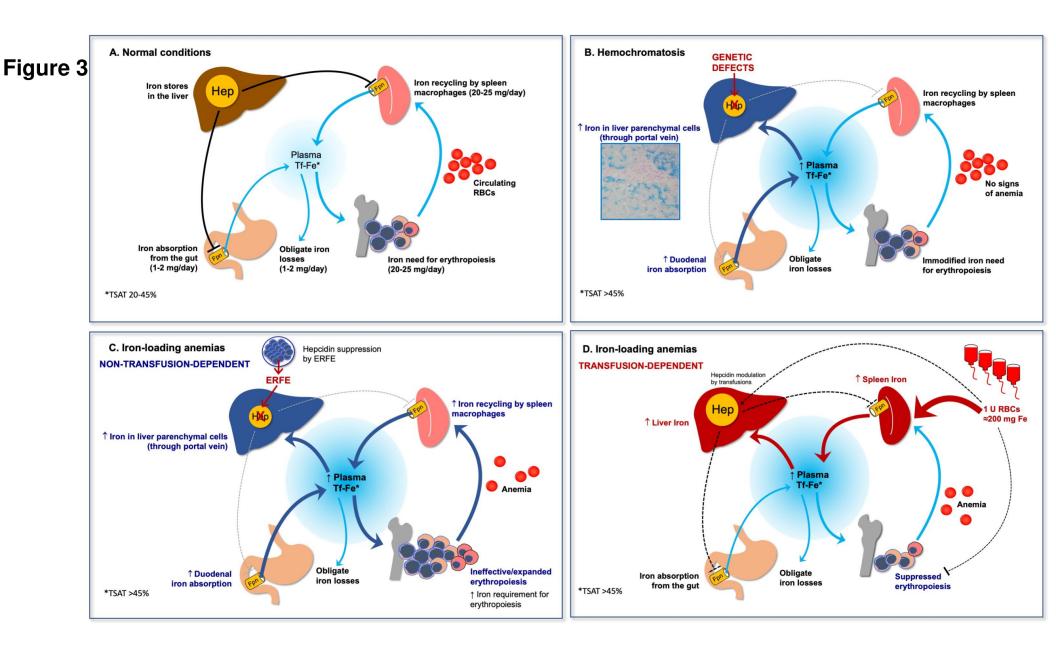


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Figure 2



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