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**Early diagnosis of AL amyloidosis in Haematology, Cardiology, Neurology, Renal
and general clinics: A British Society for Haematology Good Practice Paper**

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27 **Methodology**

28 This Good Practice Paper was compiled according to the BSH process at [[https://b-s-](https://b-s-h.org.uk/media/16732/bsh-guidance-development-process-dec-5-18.pdf)
29 [h.org.uk/media/16732/bsh-guidance-development-process-dec-5-18.pdf](https://b-s-h.org.uk/media/16732/bsh-guidance-development-process-dec-5-18.pdf)]. The Grading of
30 Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE) nomenclature
31 was used to evaluate levels of evidence and to assess the strength of recommendations.
32 The GRADE criteria can be found at <http://www.gradeworkinggroup.org>.

34 **Literature review details**

35 The literature search was undertaken with the help of BSH on 11th August 2023 using the
36 PubMed database. The keywords used were: Amyloidosis with one or more of the
37 following; cardiac failure HFpEF, nephrotic syndrome, peripheral neuropathy, autonomic
38 neuropathy, MGCS, MGRS, MGUS, coagulopathy, macroglossia, soft tissue involvement,
39 and hepatomegaly. The time period covered was from 1st January 1993 to 11th August
40 2023 and was further filtered using the following: inclusion criteria (Human, clinical trial),
41 exclusion criteria (no papers published in non-English journals, no publications without an
42 abstract).

44 **Review of the manuscript**

45 Review of the manuscript was performed by the British Society for Haematology (BSH)
46 Guidelines Committee Haem-Onc, the BSH Guidelines Committee and the sounding board
47 of BSH. It was also on the members section of the BSH website for comment. It has also
48 been reviewed by UKMS and Myeloma UK; these organisations do not necessarily
49 approve or endorse the contents.

51 **Introduction**

52 Amyloidoses are conformational diseases caused by misfolding and aggregation of
53 proteins that deposit in tissues in the form of amyloid fibrils.(1, 2) AL amyloidosis accounts
54 for more than half of the patients with amyloidosis and is caused by a plasma cell clone
55 that produces abnormal light chains that misfold and deposit as amyloid fibrils in tissues
56 and thus affect organ function. The majority of patients with AL amyloidosis have plasma
57 cell infiltration of the bone marrow of less than 10% (i.e. monoclonal gammopathy of
58 uncertain significance (MGUS)-like phenotype). These low-grade, otherwise benign,
59 clones that cause life-threatening end organ damage have been termed “small dangerous
60 plasma cell clones”.(3)

61 The survival of patients with systemic AL amyloidosis largely depends on the extent
62 of end organ damage. Patients with early stage disease can expect approximately 80%
63 survival at 5 years with contemporary treatment, compared to less than 30% for those with
64 advanced disease.(4, 5) Cardiac involvement remains the main cause of mortality but
65 renal amyloidosis nonetheless causes significant morbidity, due to progressive renal
66 failure; dialysis is required in 75% of patients with stage III renal disease at presentation
67 (Table 3). (6, 7) AL amyloidosis is often diagnosed late: in a patient experience survey the
68 diagnosis was made at least a year after the onset of symptoms in nearly 40% of the
69 patients.(8)

70 At the UK National Amyloidosis Centre, 45% of all newly diagnosed patients
71 with AL amyloidosis have stage III disease and 20% have very advanced stage IIIb
72 disease. (9) These patients presenting with advanced irreversible organ involvement have
73 a very high risk of death in the first few months despite modern treatments. No
74 improvement has yet been seen in early mortality in these patients due to established
75 advanced cardiac damage. (2)

76 The availability of highly sensitive biomarkers of clonal and organ involvement as
77 well as better imaging have allowed for accurate risk stratification of the disease and is
78 reshaping the approach to patients with AL amyloidosis (10, 11). Biomarkers can also be
79 used as tools for early identification of the disease.

80 The clinical manifestations of systemic AL amyloidosis are protean and a
81 consequence of advanced organ damage. Most organs can be involved by AL amyloidosis
82 (Figure 1) and a key diagnostic clue is the involvement of two or more systems. The
83 clinical presentation and outcomes depend upon the pattern and severity of organ
84 involvement by the amyloidogenic monoclonal protein i.e. light chain. (11) Diagnosis can
85 be difficult as symptoms can mimic more common conditions. (12)

86 The aim of this guideline is to facilitate recognition or suspicion of amyloidosis. It is
87 important to recognise that amyloidosis can present in any clinic, including general
88 medicine/care of the elderly and general practice. The screening investigations for
89 amyloidosis are listed in Table 1. Early diagnosis is paramount in improving outcomes as
90 shown in tables 2 and 3..

91 ***Figure 1: Clinical manifestations of AL amyloidosis***

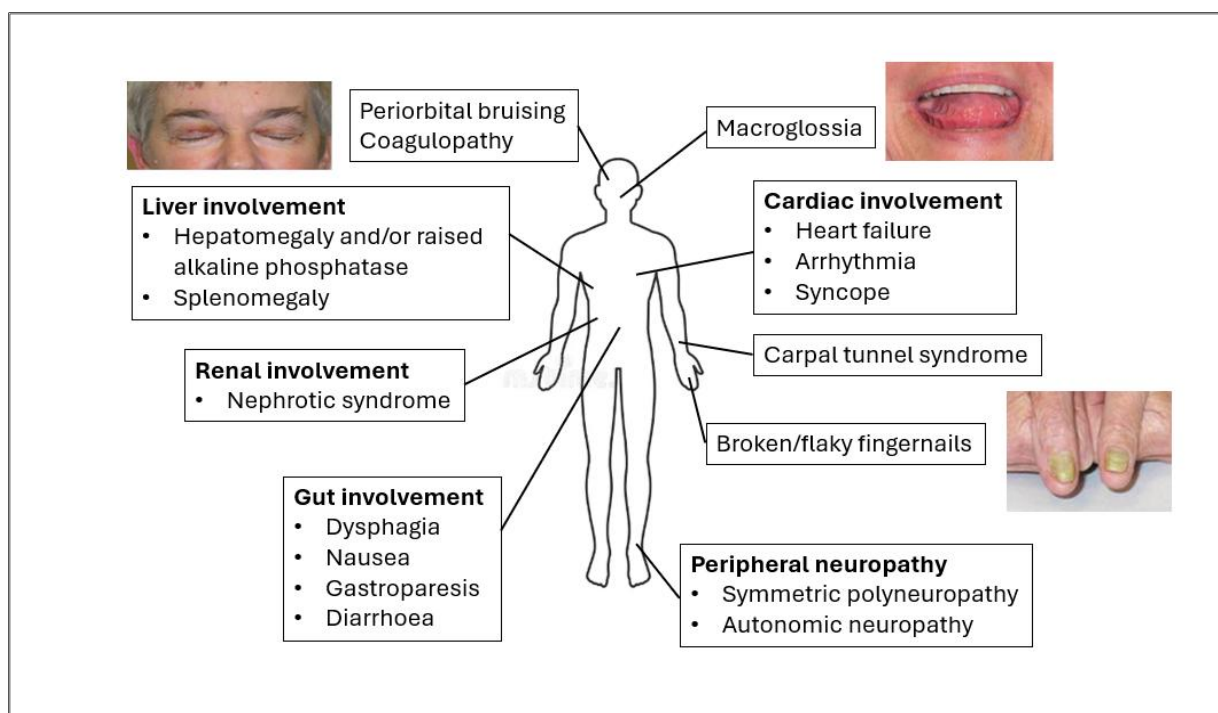


Table 1. Screening investigations for AL amyloidosis in non-haematology

clinics

- Immunoglobulin levels and serum protein electrophoresis (SPE) and immunofixation (IFE)
- Serum free light chain (FLC) assay to measure serum kappa and lambda levels and calculate the FLC ratio
- Urine electrophoresis and immunofixation looking for urinary Bence Jones protein (BJP)
- Urine albumin:creatinine ratio (ACR) & protein:creatinine ratio (PCR)
- U&E (urea and electrolytes)
- LFTs (liver function tests)
- Bone profile
- Coagulation screen (PT/APTT)
- NT-proBNP (N-terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide) or BNP
- Troponin (TnT or TnI)*
- ECG (electrocardiogram)

* The scoring systems for AL predominantly used TnT, however many centres will now use alternative assays e.g. TnI and we recommend using whichever test is available locally. For the purposes of screening, elevation above the reference range of your local test (corrected for renal function) should raise concern. Care should be taken if TnT is requested outside of a specialist clinic setting as a raised result may prompt concern about acute coronary syndromes. The patient should also be informed that this test is being used as a staging blood test for a different condition.

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Table 2:	STAGING OF CARDIAC AMYLOIDOSIS (23)	Median Survival
Stage I	NT-proBNP <332 ng/L and Troponin T <0.035 ng/L	Not reached at 5 years
Stage II	NT-proBNP > 332 ng/L but < 8500 ng/L OR Troponin T $\geq$ 0.035 ng/L	Not reached at 5 years
Stage III A	NT-proBNP < 8500 ng/L and Troponin T $\geq$ 0.035 ng/L	76 months
Stage III B	NT-proBNP >8500 ng/L and Troponin T $\geq$ 0.035 ng/L	26 months
Stage III C (25)	NT-proBNP >8500 ng/L, Troponin T $\geq$ 0.035 ng/L and global longitudinal strain >-9%	4 months

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Table 3:	STAGING OF RENAL AMYLOIDOSIS (24)	Risk of going on dialysis/renal survival
Stage 1	Proteinuria $\leq$ 5 g/24h and eGFR $\geq$ 50	none
Stage 2	either proteinuria >5 g/24 h or eGFR <50	11-25% at 2 years
Stage 3	both proteinuria >5 g/24 h and eGFR <50	60- 75% at 2 years

100

101 ***When to suspect AL amyloidosis in patients with a paraprotein or abnormal free***
102 ***light chains:***

103 AL amyloidosis is commoner than often appreciated and is a well-established
104 complication of monoclonal gammopathies. Patients with lambda light chain disease are
105 at particular risk, but AL amyloidosis can occur in those with kappa light chain disease or
106 an intact paraprotein without light chain excess. (2)

107 Biomarker based screening can help identify pre-symptomatic patients with
108 monoclonal gammopathies who are developing AL amyloidosis.(13) Initial investigations
109 for patients referred with a paraproteinemia should include urine protein:creatinine ratio
110 and albumin:creatinine ratio (PCR & ACR), N-terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide (NT-
111 proBNP) and a troponin assay to screen for early renal and cardiac involvement. A
112 detailed clinical history to identify other organ involvement should be part of the
113 assessment.

114 NT-proBNP is always raised in cardiac AL amyloidosis and high levels can precede
115 development of clinically evident cardiac AL amyloidosis by many years. In an
116 MGUS/myeloma clinic, unexplained high NT-proBNP, or progressively rising levels, should
117 raise a high suspicion of cardiac amyloidosis. (14)

118 The first manifestation of renal amyloidosis is frequently albuminuria. Urine PCR
119 and ACR have superseded 24-hour urine collection as easier tests in practice. Urine PCR
120 is non-specific and will detect all proteinuria (including monoclonal light chains i.e. Bence
121 Jones protein). In contrast, ACR specifically detects albuminuria and is a better test for
122 assessing glomerular disease. (15, 16)

123 Healthcare professionals who monitor patients with MGUS for progression should
124 be aware that patients can progress to AL amyloidosis with minimal or no increase in
125 clonal light chains and clinical vigilance is of the utmost importance.

126 Therefore, in addition to monitoring for more usual criteria for progression to
127 myeloma such as bone pain, anaemia and renal impairment, one must be watchful for
128 unexpected symptoms, signs or investigation findings that could be consistent with AL
129 amyloidosis as described in Figure 1. For example, new symptoms such as pedal
130 oedema, unexplained severe fatigue, weight loss, dry mouth, difficulty in chewing or
131 swallowing, postural hypotension, frothy urine and shortness of breath are of equal
132 importance as the classical features of myeloma. We advise adding urine ACR and PCR,
133 and NT-proBNP to standard tests for assessment and monitoring of MGUS (serum protein
134 electrophoresis (SPE), immunofixation (IFE) and serum free light chains (SFLC), full blood
135 count (FBC), Urea and Electrolytes (U&E), bone profile and liver function tests (LFT)), as
136 recommended by the recent MGUS and smouldering myeloma Good Practice Papers. A
137 troponin assay should be considered if the NT-proBNP is abnormal. (17, 18)

138 If AL amyloidosis is suspected, a histological diagnosis should be sought and
139 appropriate amyloid typing undertaken. Congo red positivity in biopsy from any site
140 (including bone marrow) should prompt detailed assessment for end organ involvement.
141 Although beyond the specific remit of this guideline, other M-protein associated disorders
142 should also be borne in mind such as monoclonal gammopathy of renal significance
143 (MGRS), light chain deposition disease (LCDD) and POEMS syndrome (polyneuropathy,
144 oedema/organomegaly, endocrinopathy, monoclonal gammopathy, skin changes).

145

146 ***When to suspect AL amyloidosis in patients with unexplained cardiac***
147 ***impairment:***

148 The key features that should raise a suspicion for amyloidosis in patients with heart
149 failure with or without a known monoclonal gammopathy:

- 150 • Low serum albumin (<30 g/L)
- 151 • Unexplained persistent proteinuria (urine PCR or ACR >50 mg/mmol)

- Autonomic or peripheral neuropathy
- Unexplained persistent high (or rising) troponin without significant coronary artery disease
- Significant persistent hypotension or unexplained worsening of heart failure symptoms after starting angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors (ACE-I) or angiotensin receptor blockers (ARBs), beta-blockers or angiotensin receptor-neprilysin inhibitor (ARNi)
- Previously hypertensive patient developing unexplained low or low normal blood pressure despite reduction of anti-hypertensives
- Heart failure with preserved ejection fraction (HFpEF) on echocardiogram (ECHO)
- Low voltage complexes on electrocardiogram
- History of bilateral carpal tunnel surgery; biceps (or other) tendon rupture; spinal canal stenosis
- Echocardiographic features:
 - “Left ventricular hypertrophy” with normal or low voltage ECG
 - Loss of longitudinal function i.e. abnormal global longitudinal strain (GLS) with apex to base gradient with a preserved apical compared to basal function)

A high index of suspicion should be maintained whilst interpreting echocardiograms and cardiac magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). Radiographic changes may be subtle, and it is important that imaging is undertaken by a practitioner with expertise in imaging of cardiac amyloidosis. An alternative aetiology for cardiac amyloidosis is transthyretin amyloidosis (ATTR). ATTR and MGUS may co-exist. There are guidelines for differentiation and evaluation of types of cardiac amyloidosis.(19) Screening investigations

176 for monoclonal gammopathy should be undertaken in all patients with suspected AL
177 amyloidosis, as listed in Table 1.

178

179 ***When to suspect AL amyloidosis in patients with renal impairment***

180 Testing for myeloma and screening for AL amyloidosis (see box 1) should be undertaken
181 in all the following groups:

- 182 • Unexplained persistent proteinuria
- 183 • Urine PCR/ACR >50 mg/mmol
- 184 • Progressive renal impairment after the age of 40
185 (<https://bestpractice.bmj.com/topics/en-gb/875>)
- 186 • High clinical suspicion of AL amyloidosis

187

188 Up to 50% of patients with a monoclonal gammopathy with proteinuria >1.5 g/L or
189 microscopic haematuria (for non-AL MGRS), particularly associated with an abnormal FLC
190 ratio, will have a monoclonal protein related renal disorder. Unless there is a
191 contraindication or a high suspicion of AL amyloidosis, all patients should be referred for a
192 kidney biopsy. In suspected non-AL MGRS, a kidney biopsy is more informative than a
193 bone marrow biopsy, whereas, in AL a bone marrow test or fat pad biopsy is less invasive
194 and can be undertaken before a kidney biopsy. A renal biopsy is not routinely indicated in
195 patients with monoclonal gammopathy and a significant proteinuria, if the bone marrow
196 shows congo red positivity and the amyloid type is confirmed to be AL type as the kidney
197 involvement is most likely to be due to renal amyloidosis. Unexpected features like blood
198 in the urine or non proteinuric chronic kidney disease (CKD) need further investigations.

199 A known monoclonal gammopathy should lower the threshold for screening for
200 myeloma, AL amyloidosis and MGRS. However, in a large published series of patients
201 with unexplained proteinuria undergoing a kidney biopsy who subsequently were

202 diagnosed with MGRS, 29% of patients were not known to have a monoclonal paraprotein
203 prior to the biopsy and >70% patients with a subsequent diagnosis of amyloidosis were not
204 known to have a monoclonal protein prior to biopsy.(20)

205
206 ***When to suspect AL amyloidosis in unexplained neuropathy***

207
208 Both AL amyloidosis and ATTR can involve the peripheral nervous system. In
209 addition, monoclonal gammopathies, particularly IgM gammopathies, may result in
210 paraproteins with direct anti-neuronal antibody activity. (21) We therefore recommend that
211 assessment for a monoclonal protein (see table 1) forms part of the routine diagnostic
212 work-up for patients with unexplained polyneuropathy. A clinical haematologist should be
213 involved if AL amyloidosis is suspected.

214 A combination of peripheral and autonomic neuropathy is a hallmark of systemic
215 amyloidosis (AL or ATTR). The presence of both without an apparent cause (e.g. long
216 standing uncontrolled diabetes), should prompt a detailed search for amyloidosis.
217 Conversely, isolated non-progressive or very slowly progressive neuropathy with a
218 monoclonal protein but normal serum free light chains is rarely caused by amyloid
219 deposition. .

220
221 ***When to refer urgently to a haematology clinic:***

222 Consideration should be given to referring patients urgently for haematology review
223 with a confirmed (or highly likely) diagnosis of AL amyloidosis with the following clinical
224 manifestations:

- 225 • Hypoalbuminaemia <25 g/L
- 226 • Falling estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) <50 mL/min/1.73 m²
- 227 • All cases of cardiac amyloidosis.

- 228 • Autonomic neuropathy with postural hypotension >20 mmHg
- 229 • Hepatic amyloidosis with high bilirubin (>2 × upper limit of normal) (22)
- 230 • Factor X deficiency

231

232 **Summary**

233 AL amyloidosis is a chameleon of clinical medicine; its aetiology is complex,
234 manifestations myriad and management subspecialised. It is not, however, particularly
235 rare. It is therefore important that clinicians who may encounter patients with this disorder
236 are aware of the disease and able to detect it. We have here summarised key features of
237 the disease and outlined suggested investigations that will aid diagnosis and enable early
238 referral which improves outcomes for patients with this condition.

239

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244

245 **Disclaimer**

246 While the advice and information in this guidance is believed to be true and accurate at the
247 time of going to press, neither the authors, the BSH nor the publishers accept any legal
248 responsibility for the content of this guidance.

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