

Free light chains in patients with acute coronary syndromes

Shantsila, Eduard; Tapp, Luke D.; Lip, Gregory Y.h.

DOI:

[10.1016/j.ijcard.2015.03.105](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijcard.2015.03.105)

License:

Other (please specify with Rights Statement)

Document Version

Peer reviewed version

Citation for published version (Harvard):

Shantsila, E, Tapp, LD & Lip, GYH 2015, 'Free light chains in patients with acute coronary syndromes: relationships to inflammation and renal function', *International Journal of Cardiology*, vol. 185, pp. 322-327. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijcard.2015.03.105>

[Link to publication on Research at Birmingham portal](#)

Publisher Rights Statement:

NOTICE: this is the author's version of a work that was accepted for publication. Changes resulting from the publishing process, such as peer review, editing, corrections, structural formatting, and other quality control mechanisms may not be reflected in this document. Changes may have been made to this work since it was submitted for publication. A definitive version was subsequently published as Shantsila Eduard, Tapp Luke D., Lip Gregory Y.H., Free Light Chains in patients with acute coronary syndromes: Relationships to inflammation and renal function, *International Journal of Cardiology* (2015), doi: 10.1016/j.ijcard.2015.03.105

General rights

Unless a licence is specified above, all rights (including copyright and moral rights) in this document are retained by the authors and/or the copyright holders. The express permission of the copyright holder must be obtained for any use of this material other than for purposes permitted by law.

- Users may freely distribute the URL that is used to identify this publication.
- Users may download and/or print one copy of the publication from the University of Birmingham research portal for the purpose of private study or non-commercial research.
- User may use extracts from the document in line with the concept of 'fair dealing' under the Copyright, Designs and Patents Act 1988 (?)
- Users may not further distribute the material nor use it for the purposes of commercial gain.

Where a licence is displayed above, please note the terms and conditions of the licence govern your use of this document.

When citing, please reference the published version.

Take down policy

While the University of Birmingham exercises care and attention in making items available there are rare occasions when an item has been uploaded in error or has been deemed to be commercially or otherwise sensitive.

If you believe that this is the case for this document, please contact UBIRA@lists.bham.ac.uk providing details and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate.

Accepted Manuscript

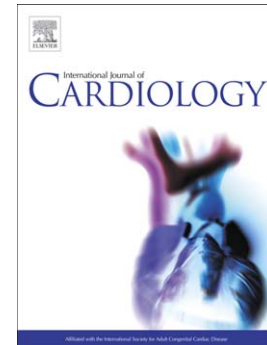
Free Light Chains in patients with acute coronary syndromes: Relationships to inflammation and renal function

Eduard Shantsila, Luke D. Tapp, Gregory Y.H. Lip

PII: S0167-5273(15)00344-7
DOI: doi: [10.1016/j.ijcard.2015.03.105](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijcard.2015.03.105)
Reference: IJCA 19869

To appear in: *International Journal of Cardiology*

Received date: 9 May 2014
Revised date: 23 September 2014
Accepted date: 7 March 2015



Please cite this article as: Shantsila Eduard, Tapp Luke D., Lip Gregory Y.H., Free Light Chains in patients with acute coronary syndromes: Relationships to inflammation and renal function, *International Journal of Cardiology* (2015), doi: [10.1016/j.ijcard.2015.03.105](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijcard.2015.03.105)

This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

Original article

Free Light Chains in patients with acute coronary syndromes:

Relationships to inflammation and renal function

Running title: Free Light Chains in acute coronary syndromes

Eduard Shantsila	PhD	Clinical Postdoctoral Research Fellow
Luke D Tapp	MRCP	Research Fellow
Gregory YH Lip	MD	Professor of Cardiovascular Medicine

University of Birmingham Centre for Cardiovascular Sciences,
City Hospital, Birmingham, B18 7QH, United Kingdom

Correspondence: Prof Gregory YH Lip

Phone: +44 507 5080, Fax: +44 554 4083, Email: g.y.h.lip@bham.ac.uk

Abstract

Aims: We assessed changes of serum combined free immunoglobulin light chains (cFLC) levels, which are associated with increased all-cause mortality, in ST-elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI) in relation to inflammation and renal function indices.

Methods: cFLC were measured in 48 patients with STEMI on days 1, 3, 7 and 30 with assessment of their relationships with monocyte subsets, high sensitivity C-reactive protein (hsCRP), and cystatin C. Day 1 levels in STEMI patients were compared to 40 patients with stable coronary artery disease, and 37 healthy controls.

Results: There were no significant differences in cFLC levels between the study groups. In STEMI patients, cFLC values peaked on day 7 post-MI and remained elevated on day 30 ($p < 0.001$ vs. day 1 for both). hsCRP concentrations peaked on day 3 of STEMI followed by their gradual reduction to the levels seen in the controls ($p < 0.001$). In STEMI cFLC correlated with cystatin C ($r = 0.55$, $p < 0.001$), and negatively correlated with counts of CD14⁺⁺CD16⁻ monocytes ($r = -0.55$, $p < 0.001$). On multivariate Cox regression analysis, cFLC concentrations were associated with increased need for future percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) ($p = 0.019$).

Conclusion: cFLC levels increase during STEMI with peak values on day 7 after presentation and predict the need for future PCI.

Key words: free light chains, heart failure, coronary artery disease, ST-elevation myocardial infarction

Introduction

The biological significance of the adaptive immune system is complex and spreads far beyond just infection control.[1-4] The paramount role of the innate immune system in cardiovascular pathology is very well established with involvement of monocytes/macrophages in atherogenesis and post-injury tissue remodelling being classical examples.[5-7] However, limited data are available on the role of the adaptive immune system in cardiac pathophysiology. Lymphocytes have been found to be involved in atherosclerotic plaque formation, but their low (rather than high) counts are typically associated with poor outcome, for example in heart failure.[5, 8-10] Lymphocyte derived biomarkers, such as immunoglobulin free light chains (FLC) which are produced in excess during antibody production and released into the circulation, may help investigation of the adaptive immune response. [11]

Monoclonal generation of FLC κ and λ is a well-known parameter of plasma cell disorders, such as myeloma.[12] Until recently, limited information was available on polyclonal combined FLC (cFLC, summation of FLC κ and λ) elevations, when there is no obvious predominance of either chain. Polyclonal rise of cFLC predominantly reflects activation and proliferation of B-lymphocytes, although it could be also secondary to their impaired removal by dysfunctional kidneys or reticulo-endothelial system.[13, 14] Elevation of polyclonal cFLC has been reported in inflammatory and autoimmune disorders, diabetes mellitus and chronic kidney disease.[15-18] Also, high cFLC concentrations are associated with activity of autoimmune disorders characterised by B-cell activation, with clearly distinct kinetics for cFLC and a C-reactive protein (CRP), a marker predominantly related to inflammatory responses of innate immunity.[17, 19, 20] cFLC may thus be of clinical value as a biomarker

of the adaptive immunity state. Of note, both the innate and adaptive parts of the immune system work in close interaction.[21] Monocytes and their functional subsets represent a major cellular part of the innate immune system, but limited data are available on their relationship with cFLC.[22]

High cFLC concentrations are highly predictive of mortality in the general population even after adjustment for age, gender and renal function.[23, 24] Raised cFLC were associated with cardiovascular mortality in patients with chronic kidney disease after accounting for CRP levels.[20] Given the pathophysiological relationships discussed above, this biomarker might be related to prognosis in patients with myocardial infarction (MI), there are no data on changes in cFLC in patients with MI at present.

In the present pilot study, we aimed to assess dynamic changes of cFLC levels in STEMI patients over 30 days and their relation to markers of innate immunity (monocyte subsets), inflammation (high sensitivity C-reactive protein [hsCRP]), and an index of renal function, cystatin C, and obtain data on their prognostic significance. cFLC levels in patients with STEMI were compared to levels in patients with stable coronary artery disease ('disease controls') and healthy subjects.

Methods

Cross-sectional analysis

cFLC levels were compared between 48 patients with ST-elevation MI (STEMI) and age- and sex-matched control groups: (i) 40 patients with stable coronary artery disease (CAD) and (ii) 37 healthy volunteers. The STEMI was diagnosed according to the European Society of Cardiology definition[25] and treated with primary percutaneous coronary intervention. Median troponin T values were 2.6 [1.30-5.68] $\mu\text{g/l}$ (normal $<0.01 \mu\text{g/l}$). CAD was confirmed during elective coronary angiography, with no hospital admissions for ≥ 3 months. Exclusion criteria comprised infectious disease, inflammatory disorders and their treatment [including steroids and non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs], cancer, haemodynamically significant valvular heart disease, atrial fibrillation, renal failure and hormone replacement therapy. Additionally, no STEMI patients had a history of previous MI or left ventricular dysfunction.

Longitudinal analysis

In patients with STEMI plasma markers were measured at four time-points: day 1 (during the first 24 h after primary percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI)), day 3, day 7 and day 30. Eighteen patients did not complete follow-up due to withdrawal of consent or death. Thirty patients with cFLC levels available for all time points were included in the longitudinal analysis.

Blood samples were collected from all participants and plasma stored at $-70 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for batched analysis. Fresh blood was used for haematological analysis and quantification of monocyte subsets as described previously.[26, 27]

All study patients received standard treatment according to current guidelines.[25] The study was performed in accordance with the Helsinki declaration and was approved by the Coventry Research Ethics Committee. All participants provided written informed consent.

Outcome analysis

The prognostic significance of cFLC levels in STEMI was assessed with the primary outcome defined as a composite of ‘death, admission for ACS, newly diagnosed HF or HF related hospital admission or new PCI’ and the secondary end-point of ‘need for new PCI’ during follow up.

Flow cytometry

Monocytes and their subsets, as cellular markers of innate immunity and inflammation, were analysed by flow cytometry (BD FACSCalibur™ flow cytometer, Becton Dickinson [BD], Oxford, UK) as previously described.[26, 27] Absolute count of monocyte subsets was established using mouse anti-human monoclonal fluorochrome conjugated antibodies anti-CD16-Alexa Fluor 488 (clone DJ130c; AbD Serotec, Oxford, UK), anti-CD14-PE (clone M/P9; BD), and anti-CCR2- APC (clone 48607, R&D Systems, Abingdon, UK) in 50 µL of fresh EDTA anticoagulated whole blood in TruCount™ tubes (BD). Monocyte subsets were defined as CD14⁺⁺CD16⁺CCR2⁺ (classical), CD14⁺⁺CD16⁺CCR2⁺ (intermediate) and CD14⁺CD16⁺⁺ CCR2 (non-classical) in accordance with contemporary nomenclature.

Plasma markers

cFLC concentrations were determined using the Combylite™ assay on the SPAPLUS® turbidimeter (The Binding Site Group Ltd, Birmingham, UK, 95% percentile reference range 9.3-43.3mg/L (determined in serum samples), following the manufacturers recommendations.

[23] Combylite quantifies the combined FLC κ and FLC λ concentration in a single assay.[28] Cystatin C (The Binding Site Group Ltd, reference range 0.56-0.99 mg/L) and hsCRP (Roche/Hitachi Tina-quant® cardiac C-reactive protein high sensitive, Switzerland, reference range 0-3mg/L) concentrations were measured on the BNII™ nephelometer (Siemens, Germany) following the manufacturers recommendations.

Power calculation

As there are no data for FLC, we calculated that minimum number of participants required to achieve 80% power to detect changes of 0.5 standard deviation in non-classical monocytes subsets was n=35 for the cross-sectional study and n=25 for the longitudinal study.

Statistical analysis

Normal data are presented as mean [standard deviation - SD] non-normal data are shown as median [interquartile range, IQR]. Cross-sectional comparisons between the three study populations were made using a chi-square test (for categorical variables), one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey post-hoc test (for normal data) or Kruskal Wallis test with Dunn's post-hoc test (for non-normal data). Longitudinal analysis was performed using repeated measures ANOVA with Bonferroni adjustment (normal data) or Friedman test with Dunn's post-hoc test (non-normal data). Only STEMI patients who had blood samples for all time-points were included in the longitudinal analysis. For STEMI patients, correlation coefficients were calculated by Spearman tests (non-normal data). Linear regression analysis was used to establish predictive value of cFLC for LVEF measured 6-weeks post-STEMI. Predictive value of the cFLC for the study outcome parameters in STEMI was assessed using a Cox regression analysis and the Kaplan-Meier log-rank test. In the multivariable Cox regression analysis adjustments were made for parameters showing significant predictive

value (or a strong trends towards significant predictive value) in multivariate analysis. Additionally the multivariable Cox regression analysis included cystatin C (a marker of renal function) and troponin concentrations (a marker of myocardial damage). Data analysis was carried out using SPSS 18.0 (SPSS Inc, Chicago, IL, USA) and a two-sided p-value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

Results

The 3 patient groups were well matched for age, gender, current blood pressure level and body mass index, creatinine and estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) (Table 1). Patients with acute STEMI had increased counts of monocytes and neutrophils compared to other groups ($p<0.001$). Healthy controls included a smaller proportion of smokers than other groups ($p<0.001$).

Increased hsCRP and Cystatin C levels were evident in patients with acute STEMI compared to the control groups (Table 1). No significant difference was observed in cFLC values at day 1 between STEMI patients and the two control groups.

In acute STEMI, cFLC correlated with cystatin C (Spearman $r=0.55$, $p=0.00009$), and negatively correlated with counts of 'classical' CD14⁺⁺CD16⁻ monocyte counts (Spearman $r=-0.55$, $p=0.00005$). There was no correlation between cFLC and other monocyte subsets, troponin T, or CRP. Absolute values of the monocyte subsets in this study population have been reported previously.[27]

Longitudinal analysis

In STEMI patients there was a significant increase in cFLC during the period of observation with highest values seen on day 7 post MI ($p<0.001$ vs. day 1) with increased levels persisting at day 30 ($p<0.001$ vs. day 1) (Table 2 Figure 1). hsCRP concentrations peaked on day 3 of the MI followed by their gradual reduction to the levels seen in controls ($p<0.001$). Cystatin C concentrations were significantly increased (as compared to day 1) values on day 3 ($p=0.006$) and day 30 ($p=0.002$), but not on day 7 ($p>0.05$).

Outcome analysis

Sixteen primary outcome events were recorded during a (median) follow up period of 39 [19-43] months (Table 2). Cox regression analysis, cFLC levels at presentation in acute STEMI were not predictive of the primary outcome (Hazard Ratio 1.03 [0.98-1.09], $p=0.29$). On Kaplan-Meier analysis, high ($>$ median levels, 24 [20-34] mg/L) cFLC levels were not predictive of the primary outcome (log-rank test $p=0.23$). Nine secondary outcome events of new PCI occurred during a median follow up of 40 [37-44] months. cFLC concentrations were 23 [19-30] mg/L in patients free from new PCI and 30 [27-41] mg/L in patients who had new PCI [$p=0.033$, Mann-Whitney test]. On univariate Cox regression analysis, cFLC concentrations were associated with an increased risk for new PCI and remained predictive on multivariate analysis (Table 4). On Kaplan-Meier analysis, there was a trend for high cFLC levels to be related new PCI which did not reach statistical significance (log-rank test, $p=0.066$) (Figure 2).

Discussion

This pilot study provides the first analysis of cFLC in patients with STEMI. During acute phase of the disease cFLC values were similar to those in stable CAD and healthy individuals. However cFLC levels showed a relatively small but significant increase during the follow up period with peak concentrations determined on day 7 and were still increased on day 30. Secondly, cFLC concentrations measured at presentation were associated with an increased risk for new PCI even on multivariate analysis.

Median cFLC concentrations remained within the normal range even at day 7 post MI; however the analysis matched the data from individual patients and showed a highly statistically significant and consistent increase in most patients, as shown in figure 1. The observed changes can involve several mechanisms. First, they could be reflective of progressive dysfunction of the adaptive immune system soon after MI onset (i.e., B-cell activation and proliferation).[15] For example, Zougari et al. have shown that mobilization of proinflammatory monocytes following experimental acute MI was mediated by activity of mature B lymphocytes (ie, their CCL7 production).[29] The animal experiments were further supported by evidence from patients with acute MI where high plasma levels of CCL7 and BAFF in patients with acute MI were associated with increased risk of death or recurrent MI.[29] Second, raised cFLC could be due to their delayed removal from circulation. Indeed, our study shows a significant correlation between cFLC and cystatin C, a marker of kidney dysfunction. However it is unlikely that renal impairment is the sole explanation of cFLC elevation, and the changes reflect different dynamics in the biomarkers. For instance, on day 7 of STEMI when highest cFLC levels were noted, cystatin C concentrations on day 7 were not significantly different from those on day 1 of STEMI. No correlation was found between

cFLC and troponin levels suggesting that the extent of myocardial damage may not be of paramount importance for cFLC production. Of note, cystatin C and BNP levels fall by 30 days, whilst cFLC levels remain elevated. This may indicate a relation of cFLC to longer-term processes related to myocardial healing/remodelling.

As expected, there was no significant correlation between cFLC, which is a marker of activity of the adaptive immune system and hsCRP, a liver-derived marker of inflammatory responses related to the innate immune response.[20] However there was a significant negative correlation between cFLC and counts of ‘classical’ CD14⁺⁺CD16⁻ monocytes, a cellular marker of innate immunity.

Despite their primary role in innate immune responses, monocytes have diverse functions being involved in numerous inflammatory and reparative responses.[30] FLC can bind directly to human monocytes and can induce mast cell degranulation and neutrophil activation. [31, 32] Monocytes are diverse and include several subsets with specific functions, of which ‘classical’ monocytes are characterised by high phagocytic activity and proinflammatory phenotype.[22, 26, 33] Although the study does not provide direct insight into the mechanisms of the association between the cFLC and ‘classical’ monocytes the observed negative correlation between these biomarkers could potentially be related to specific capacity of this monocyte subset to bind cFLC. However it is unclear whether these interactions simply represent a mode of elimination of cFLC from the circulation or they have functional consequences for monocyte activity.

The function and clinical consequences of the cFLC rise post-STEMI remains unclear. Immune abnormalities are known to play an important role in atherosclerosis and cFLC

upregulation post STEMI may reflect arterial processes within unstable coronary artery lesions characteristic of acute coronary syndromes. Of note, cFLC levels are predictive of future need for repeat PCI and thus could be related to accelerated disease progression in ACS patients already in a 'high risk' category (eg, post STEMI). The association remains significant even after adjustment for status of renal function and inflammation as assessed by hsCRP. The mechanistic insight(s) in these associations is still to be provided, but it is likely that cFLC could be implicated in immune responses related to progression of atherosclerosis, particularly in settings post ACS events. These data accord with previous evidence of predictive role of high cFLC concentrations in general population.[23]

Limitations

This pilot study is relatively small and has limited power to establish the prognostic role of cFLC in STEMI, but allows hypothesis generation. Also, our data provide only limited information on possible mechanisms related to changes in cFLC post-MI and specifically designed pathophysiological studies will be required to address the issue.

In conclusion, cFLC levels increase during STEMI with peak values on day 7 after presentation and on multivariate analysis, predict the need for future PCI. The precise pathophysiological and clinical significance of this phenomenon remains unclear but may reflect post-STEMI inflammatory responses or renal reserve changes in these patients, which deserve further exploration.

Acknowledgements:

The Binding Site Group Ltd. (Birmingham, UK) provided the Combylite immunoassay kits and measured cFLC, cystatin C and CRP free of charge.

Disclosure of interests:

ES, LDT, GYHL – no conflict of interest

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

REFERENCES

- [1] Sun JC, Ugolini S, Vivier E. Immunological memory within the innate immune system. *EMBO J.* 2014;33:1295-303.
- [2] Nauseef WM, Borregaard N. Neutrophils at work. *Nat Immunol.* 2014;15:602-11.
- [3] Silva MT. When two is better than one: macrophages and neutrophils work in concert in innate immunity as complementary and cooperative partners of a myeloid phagocyte system. *J Leukoc Biol.* 2010;87:93-106.
- [4] Goldszmid RS, Trinchieri G. The price of immunity. *Nat Immunol.* 2012;13:932-8.
- [5] Libby P, Lichtman AH, Hansson GK. Immune effector mechanisms implicated in atherosclerosis: from mice to humans. *Immunity.* 2013;38:1092-104.
- [6] Randolph GJ. Mechanisms that regulate macrophage burden in atherosclerosis. *Circ Res.* 2014;114:1757-71.
- [7] Ait-Oufella H, Sage AP, Mallat Z, Tedgui A. Adaptive (T and B cells) immunity and control by dendritic cells in atherosclerosis. *Circ Res.* 2014;114:1640-60.
- [8] Vaduganathan M, Greene SJ, Butler J, Sabbah HN, Shantsila E, Lip GY, et al. The immunological axis in heart failure: importance of the leukocyte differential. *Heart Fail Rev.* 2012.
- [9] Witztum JL, Lichtman AH. The influence of innate and adaptive immune responses on atherosclerosis. *Annu Rev Pathol.* 2014;9:73-102.
- [10] Sakakura K, Nakano M, Otsuka F, Ladich E, Kolodgie FD, Virmani R. Pathophysiology of atherosclerosis plaque progression. *Heart Lung Circ.* 2013;22:399-411.
- [11] Sell H, Habich C, Eckel J. Adaptive immunity in obesity and insulin resistance. *Nature reviews Endocrinology.* 2012;8:709-16.

- [12] Dispenzieri A, Kyle R, Merlini G, Miguel JS, Ludwig H, Hajek R, et al. International Myeloma Working Group guidelines for serum-free light chain analysis in multiple myeloma and related disorders. *Leukemia*. 2009;23:215-24.
- [13] Waldmann TA, Strober W, Mogielnicki RP. The renal handling of low molecular weight proteins. II. Disorders of serum protein catabolism in patients with tubular proteinuria, the nephrotic syndrome, or uremia. *J Clin Invest*. 1972;51:2162-74.
- [14] Marshall G, Tate J, Mollee P. Borderline high serum free light chain kappa/lambda ratios are seen not only in dialysis patients but also in non-dialysis-dependent renal impairment and inflammatory states. *Am J Clin Pathol*. 2009;132:309.
- [15] Hutchison CA, Harding S, Hewins P, Mead GP, Townsend J, Bradwell AR, et al. Quantitative assessment of serum and urinary polyclonal free light chains in patients with chronic kidney disease. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2008;3:1684-90.
- [16] Hutchison CA, Cockwell P, Harding S, Mead GP, Bradwell AR, Barnett AH. Quantitative assessment of serum and urinary polyclonal free light chains in patients with type II diabetes: an early marker of diabetic kidney disease? *Expert Opin Ther Targets*. 2008;12:667-76.
- [17] Aggarwal R, Sequeira W, Kokebie R, Mikolaitis RA, Fogg L, Finnegan A, et al. Serum free light chains as biomarkers for systemic lupus erythematosus disease activity. *Arthritis Care Res (Hoboken)*. 2011;63:891-8.
- [18] Gottenberg JE, Aucouturier F, Goetz J, Sordet C, Jahn I, Busson M, et al. Serum immunoglobulin free light chain assessment in rheumatoid arthritis and primary Sjogren's syndrome. *Ann Rheum Dis*. 2007;66:23-7.
- [19] Kormelink TG, Tekstra J, Thurlings RM, Boumans MH, Vos K, Tak PP, et al. Decrease in immunoglobulin free light chains in patients with rheumatoid arthritis upon rituximab

(anti-CD20) treatment correlates with decrease in disease activity. *Ann Rheum Dis.* 2010;69:2137-44.

[20] Burmeister A, Assi LK, Ferro CJ, Hughes RG, Barnett AH, Bellary S, et al. The relationship between high-sensitivity CRP and polyclonal Free Light Chains as markers of inflammation in chronic disease. *Int J Lab Hematol.* 2013;In press.

[21] Borghesi L, Milcarek C. Innate versus adaptive immunity: a paradigm past its prime? *Cancer Res.* 2007;67:3989-93.

[22] Ziegler-Heitbrock L, Ancuta P, Crowe S, Dalod M, Grau V, Hart DN, et al. Nomenclature of monocytes and dendritic cells in blood. *Blood.* 2010;116:e74-80.

[23] Dispenzieri A, Katzmann JA, Kyle RA, Larson DR, Therneau TM, Colby CL, et al. Use of nonclonal serum immunoglobulin free light chains to predict overall survival in the general population. *Mayo Clin Proc.* 2012;87:517-23.

[24] Anandram S, Assi LK, Lovatt T, Parkes J, Taylor J, Macwhannell A, et al. Elevated, combined serum free light chain levels and increased mortality: a 5-year follow-up, UK study. *J Clin Pathol.* 2012;65:1036-42.

[25] Van de Werf F, Bax J, Betriu A, Blomstrom-Lundqvist C, Crea F, Falk V, et al. Management of acute myocardial infarction in patients presenting with persistent ST-segment elevation: the Task Force on the Management of ST-Segment Elevation Acute Myocardial Infarction of the European Society of Cardiology. *Eur Heart J.* 2008;29:2909-45.

[26] Shantsila E, Wrigley B, Tapp L, Apostolakis S, Montoro-Garcia S, Drayson MT, et al. Immunophenotypic characterization of human monocyte subsets: possible implications for cardiovascular disease pathophysiology. *J Thromb Haemost.* 2011;9:1056-66.

[27] Tapp LD, Shantsila E, Wrigley BJ, Pamukcu B, Lip GY. The CD14⁺⁺CD16⁺ monocyte subset and monocyte-platelet interactions in patients with ST-elevation myocardial infarction. *J Thromb Haemost.* 2012;10:1231-41.

- [28] Faint JM, Basu S, Sutton D, Showell PJ, Kalra PA, Gunson BK, et al. Quantification of polyclonal free light chains in clinical samples using a single turbidimetric immunoassay. *Clin Chem Lab Med*. 2014.
- [29] Zougari Y, Ait-Oufella H, Bonnin P, Simon T, Sage AP, Guerin C, et al. B lymphocytes trigger monocyte mobilization and impair heart function after acute myocardial infarction. *Nat Med*. 2013;19:1273-80.
- [30] de Boer OJ, Li X, Teeling P, Mackaay C, Ploegmakers HJ, van der Loos CM, et al. Neutrophils, neutrophil extracellular traps and interleukin-17 associate with the organisation of thrombi in acute myocardial infarction. *Thromb Haemost*. 2013;109:290-7.
- [31] Hutchinson AT, Jones DR, Raison RL. The ability to interact with cell membranes suggests possible biological roles for free light chain. *Immunol Lett*. 2012;142:75-7.
- [32] Braber S, Thio M, Blokhuis BR, Henricks PA, Koelink PJ, Groot Kormelink T, et al. An association between neutrophils and immunoglobulin free light chains in the pathogenesis of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2012;185:817-24.
- [33] Ziegler-Heitbrock L. The CD14+ CD16+ blood monocytes: their role in infection and inflammation. *J Leukoc Biol*. 2007;81:584-92.

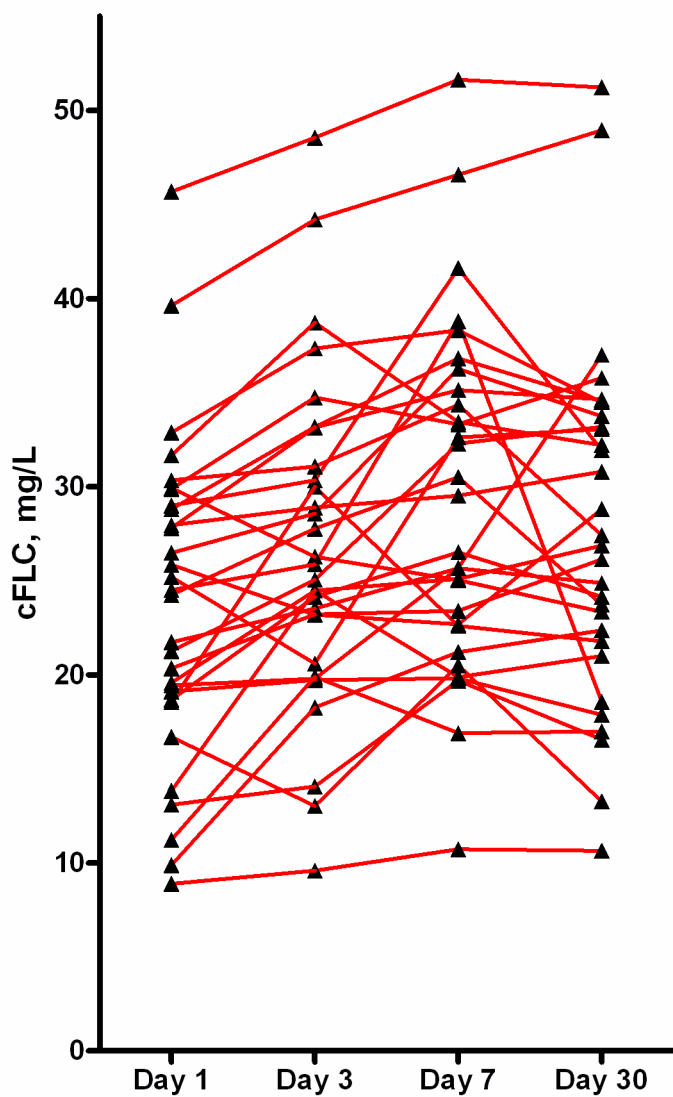


Figure 1. Dynamics of the cFLC in STEMI

cFLC, combined free light chains.

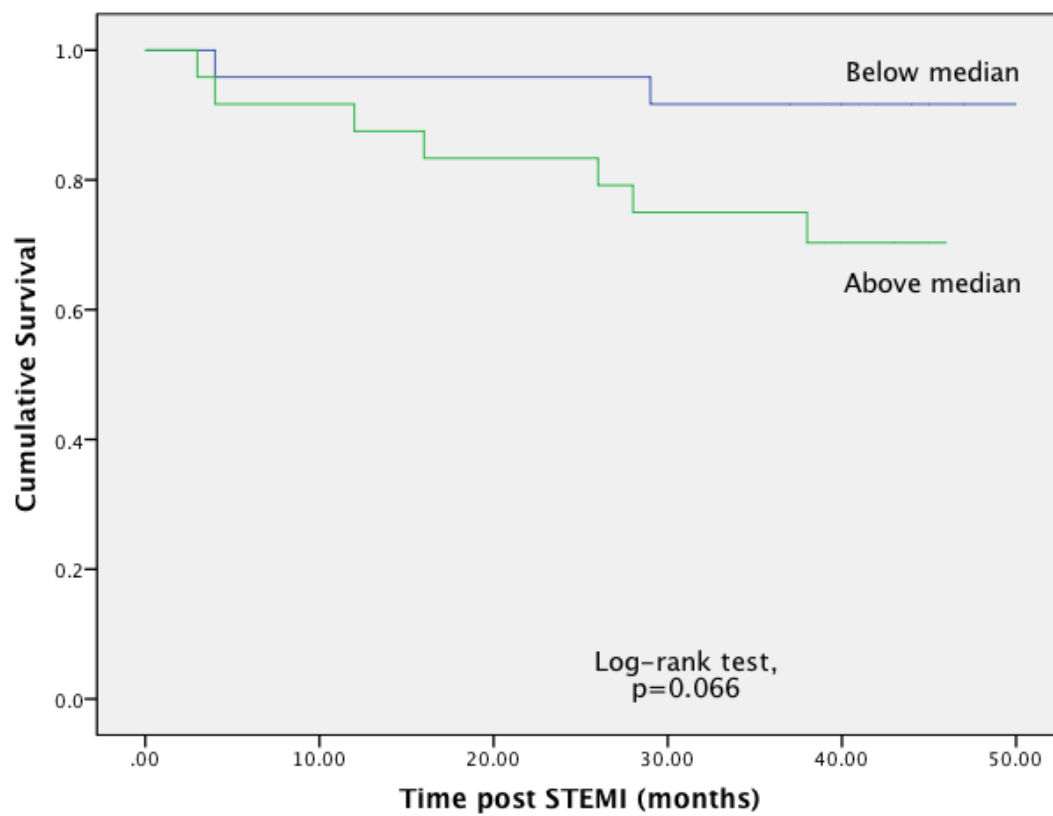


Figure 2. Predictive value of the above median cFLC levels for the secondary outcome (Kaplan-Meier analysis)

Table 1. Characteristics of the study groups

	STEMI (n=48)	Stable CAD (n=40)	Healthy (n=37)	p
Demographic and clinical characteristics				
Age, years	58 [12]	60 [11]	60 [14]	0.54
Male gender, n [%]	41 [85]	33 [83]	31 [84]	0.93
Systolic BP, mmHg	132 [18]	133 [15]	128 [17]	0.74
BMI, kg/m ²	30 [6]	29 [5]	27 [4]	0.30
LVEF, %	54 [14]	67 [8]	-	0.24
Creatinine, μmol/L	92 [19]	90 [18]	78 [17]	0.26
eGFR, ml/min/1.73m ²	75 [15]	73 [14]	83 [10]	0.34
Hypertension, n [%]	23 [48]	20 [50]	5 [14]	0.001
Diabetes, n [%]	16 [33]	8 [20]	0	0.001
COPD, n [%]	3 [6]	3 [8]	0	0.26
Smoking, n [%]	28 [58]	17 [43]	1 [3]	<0.001
Medications				
Aspirin, n [%]	48 [100]	36 [90]	5 [14]	<0.001
Clopidogrel, n [%]	48 [100]	20 [50]	0	<0.001
B-blockers, n [%]	33 [69]	27 [68]	0	<0.001
ACEI/ARA, n [%]	43 [90]	29 [73]	4 [11]	<0.001
Statins, n [%]	46 [96]	34 [85]	5 [14]	<0.001
Blood leucocytes				
WBC, 10 ³ per μL	10.8 [3.1]*†	6.6 [1.8]	5.9 [1.3]	<0.001
Neutrophils, 10 ³ per μL	8.1 [2.9]*†	3.9 [1.2]	3.6 [1.1]	<0.001

Lymphocytes, 10 ³ per μ L	1.7 [0.7]	2.0 [0.6]	1.8 [0.7]	0.24
Total monocytes, per μ L	952 [375]*†	599 [165]	514 [196]	<0.001
CD14 ⁺⁺ CD16 ⁻ monocytes, per μ L	765 [322]*†	494 [146]	422 [169]	<0.001
CD14 ⁺⁺ CD16 ⁺ monocytes, per μ L	98 [30-161]	35 [22-50]	27 [9-54]	<0.001
CD14 ⁺ CD16 ⁺⁺ monocytes, per μ L	61 [40-89]	56 [42-82]	48 [35-62]	0.069
Platelets, 10 ³ per μ L	266 [98]	226 [69]	254 [67]	0.094
Plasma biomarkers				
cFLC, mg/L	26 [19-32]	24 [20-34]	25 [21-34]	0.70
Cystatin C, mg/L	1.06 [0.25]†	1.12 [0.29]	0.95 [0.15]	0.008
hsCRP, mg/L	8.3 [1.9-17]*†	1.5 [0.8-3.3]	1.0 [0.6-2.1]	<0.001

*p<0.05 vs. stable coronary artery disease; †p<0.05 vs. healthy controls; ACEI, angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitor; ARA, angiotensin receptor antagonists; BMI, body mass index, BNP, brain natriuretic peptide; CAD, coronary artery disease; COPD, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate; cFLC, combined free light chains; hsCRP, high sensitivity C-reactive protein; LVEF, left ventricular ejection fraction; WBC, whole blood count. Data are presented as mean [SD] for normally distributed variables and median [IQR] for non-normally distributed variables.

Table 2. Longitudinal analysis of the study parameters.

N=30	Day1	Day3	Day7	Day 30	P value
cFLC, mg/L	24 [19-29]*†‡	25 [20-32]	28 [22-35]	27 [22-34]	0.00000008
Cystatin C, mg/L	1.01 [0.22]*‡	1.08 [0.17]	1.06 [0.18]	1.09 [0.22]	0.001
hsCRP, mg/L	5.9 [1.7-12]*‡	16.9 [5.3-41]†‡	4.4 [1.6-11]‡	1.3 [0.6-2.7]	0.0000000003
'Classical' CD14++CD16- monocytes, per μ L	810 [58]‡	785 [59]‡	712 [63]	557 [31]*	< 0.0001

*p<0.05 vs. day 3, †p<0.05 vs. day 7; ‡p<0.05 vs. day 30. cFLC, combined free light chains;

hsCRP, high sensitivity C-reactive protein.

Table 3. Characteristics of patients with and without the primary outcome event

	Primary outcome event occurred		p
	Yes (n=16)	No (n=32)	
Demographic and clinical characteristics			
Age, years	64 [11]	54 [11]	0.006
Male gender, n [%]	15 [94]	26 [81]	0.25
Systolic BP, mmHg	128 [15]	135 [20]	0.48
BMI, kg/m ²	26 [4]	32 [6]	0.049
LVEF, %	46 [12]	56 [14]	0.039
Creatinine, $\mu\text{mol/L}$	100 [23]	88 [15]	0.062
eGFR, ml/min/1.73m ²	70 [17]	77 [14]	0.16
Hypertension, n [%]	9 [56]	14 [44]	0.41
Diabetes, n [%]	7 [44]	9 [28]	0.28
COPD, n [%]	0	3 [9]	0.21
Smoking, n [%]	6 [38]	22 [69]	0.04
Medications			
Aspirin, n [%]	16 [100]	32 [100]	1.00
Clopidogrel, n [%]	8 [50]	15 [47]	0.84
B-blockers, n [%]	11 [69]	22 [69]	1.00
ACEI/ARA, n [%]	13 [81]	30 [94]	0.18
Statins, n [%]	15 [94]	31 [97]	0.61
Plasma biomarkers			
cFLC, mg/L	26 [21-38]	25 [19-31]	0.42

Cystatin C, mg/L	1.05 [0.89-1.15]	0.96 [0.86-1.16]	0.33
hsCRP, mg/L	4.6 [1.2-9.6]	9.1 [2.6-21.3]	0.14

ACEI, angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitor; ARA, angiotensin receptor antagonists;

BMI, body mass index, BNP, brain natriuretic peptide; CAD, coronary artery disease; COPD, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate; cFLC, combined free light chains; hsCRP, high sensitivity C-reactive protein; LVEF, left ventricular ejection fraction; WBC, whole blood count. Data are presented as mean [SD] for normally distributed variables and median [IQR] for non-normally distributed variables.

Table 4. Cox regression analysis of the predictive value of cFLC for new PCI.

Parameter	Hazard ratio [95% confidence interval]	p value
Univariate analysis		
cFLC, mg/L	1.10 [1.02-1.19]	0.018
Cystatin C, mg/L	3.65 [0.30-43.7]	0.31
hsCRP, mg/L	0.86 [0.73-1.01]	0.065
Age, years	1.01 [0.95-1.07]	0.77
Gender	0.04 [0.00-88.7]	0.41
Troponin, ng/mL	1.06 [0.88-1.27]	0.53
Multivariate analysis		
cFLC, mg/L [*]	1.10 [1.02-1.19]	0.019
cFLC, mg/L [†]	1.25 [1.02-1.52]	0.031
cFLC, mg/L [‡]	1.76 [1.02-3.02]	0.041

cFLC, combined free light chains; hsCRP, high sensitivity C-reactive protein.

*Adjusted for age, cystatin C and hsCRP;

†Adjusted for age, cystatin C, hsCRP and troponin.

‡Adjusted for age, cystatin C, hsCRP, troponin and left ventricular ejection fraction