



ARRHYTHMIA-INDUCED CARDIOMYOPATHY: A NARRATIVE REVIEW

Dr Dany John ,

Resident, Dept of Cardiology,
Krishna Institute of Medical Sciences,
Karad, Maharashtra, India

Dr Abhijeet Shelke,

Professor & HOD Department of Cardiology,
Krishna Institute of Medical Sciences, Karad, Maharashtra, India

Dr Suhas Mule Resident,

Dept of Cardiology,
Krishna Institute of Medical Sciences, Karad, Maharashtra, India

Abstract

“*Arrhythmia-induced cardiomyopathy (AIC)*” is a reversible form of heart muscle damage that results from chronic or sustained arrhythmias. AIC is a relatively rare condition that can lead to significant morbidity and mortality if left untreated. This review article aims to provide a comprehensive overview of the current knowledge on AIC, including its definition, mechanisms, prevalence, clinical features, diagnosis, management, prognosis, and future directions. AIC is characterized by structural and functional changes in the heart muscle due to chronic or sustained arrhythmias. The underlying mechanisms involve a complex interplay of electrical and mechanical factors that lead to myocardial remodeling and dysfunction. The clinical presentation of AIC can vary widely, and a high index of suspicion is necessary for timely diagnosis. Management strategies include controlling the underlying arrhythmia, optimizing heart failure treatment, and considering implantable cardiac devices. Prognosis is generally good if the underlying arrhythmia is successfully treated and left ventricular function improves. AIC is an important and often underrecognized cause of reversible cardiomyopathy. Early recognition, prompt diagnosis, and appropriate management are crucial to prevent irreversible heart damage and improve clinical outcomes. Further research is needed to improve our understanding of the pathophysiology of AIC and to develop more effective management strategies.

Key words: Arrhythmia-induced cardiomyopathy, irregular ventricular rhythm, ventricular tachycardia, atrial fibrillation, positron emission tomography

Introduction

“*Arrhythmia-induced cardiomyopathy (AIC)*” is a type of cardiomyopathy that is characterized by systolic dysfunction of the left ventricle due to sustained arrhythmia. AIC was first described in the literature in 1978 by Rosenbaum et al. (1) who reported on a series of patients with rapid “*Ventricular Tachycardia (VT)*” or “*Atrial Fibrillation (AF)*” who

developed left ventricular dysfunction that was reversible upon control of the arrhythmia. Since then, AIC has been recognized as an important cause of reversible cardiomyopathy, and its incidence is believed to be underdiagnosed (2).

AIC typically occurs in patients with sustained arrhythmias, such as VT or AF, that result in a high ventricular rate or irregular ventricular rhythm (3). The exact mechanism by which sustained arrhythmias lead to cardiomyopathy is not fully understood, but it is thought to involve a combination of hemodynamic and neurohormonal factors. The high ventricular rate or irregular ventricular rhythm associated with sustained arrhythmias can lead to reduced cardiac output, increased wall stress, and subsequent myocardial damage (4). In addition, the release of neurohormonal factors, such as catecholamines, in response to the sustained arrhythmia may also contribute to myocardial damage (5).

AIC is an important clinical entity because it is potentially reversible with appropriate management. However, it is often underdiagnosed and can be misdiagnosed as other forms of cardiomyopathy, such as dilated cardiomyopathy or ischemic cardiomyopathy (6). The purpose of this narrative review is to provide an overview of the current understanding of AIC, including its definition, prevalence, clinical features, diagnosis, and management.

AIC: Definition and Mechanisms

The exact mechanism by which sustained arrhythmias lead to cardiomyopathy is not fully understood, but it is thought to involve a combination of hemodynamic and neurohormonal factors (3,7).

The high ventricular rate or irregular ventricular rhythm associated with sustained arrhythmias can lead to reduced cardiac output, increased wall stress, and subsequent myocardial damage (3). In addition, the release of neurohormonal factors, such as catecholamines, in response to the sustained arrhythmia may also contribute to myocardial damage (5). It has also been suggested that the inflammation and oxidative stress that occur during sustained arrhythmias can also contribute to the development of AIC (8).

The definition of AIC is important because it helps clinicians recognize this potentially reversible form of cardiomyopathy. AIC is defined as systolic dysfunction of the left ventricle that is caused by sustained arrhythmia and is reversible upon control of the arrhythmia (7). The underlying arrhythmia should be present for at least six months and the left ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF) should be less than 50% (2).

Prevalence and Risk Factors

AIC is a potentially reversible form of cardiomyopathy that is commonly seen in patients with sustained arrhythmias, particularly ventricular tachycardia (VT) or atrial fibrillation (AF) (7). The prevalence of AIC is difficult to estimate due to variations in the definition of AIC and the methods used to diagnose it, but it is estimated to be around 20-30% of all cases of non-ischemic dilated cardiomyopathy (9).

Several risk factors have been associated with the development of AIC, including age, duration and frequency of arrhythmia, baseline left ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF), and comorbidities such as hypertension and diabetes (10). The risk of developing AIC is higher in

patients with pre-existing structural heart disease, such as hypertrophic cardiomyopathy, dilated cardiomyopathy, or ischemic heart disease (11).

In addition, the risk of developing AIC may be influenced by genetic factors. A recent study identified a genetic variant in the SCN5A gene, which encodes for the sodium channel Nav1.5, that was associated with an increased risk of developing AIC in patients with sustained ventricular arrhythmias (12). Further studies are needed to better understand the genetic mechanisms underlying the development of AIC.

Early recognition and treatment of sustained arrhythmias is critical in the prevention of AIC. In patients with sustained arrhythmias, close monitoring of LVEF and early intervention with antiarrhythmic medications or catheter ablation may help prevent the development of AIC (2).

Clinical Features and Diagnosis

AIC is a complex condition that can be challenging to diagnose due to its non-specific symptoms and varying clinical presentation. Patients with AIC may present with symptoms such as dyspnea, fatigue, and exercise intolerance, which are similar to those seen in other forms of heart failure (7).

The diagnosis of AIC requires a high index of suspicion and a thorough evaluation, including a detailed medical history, physical examination, electrocardiogram (ECG), and echocardiography. In patients with suspected AIC, a 24-hour Holter monitor or an event monitor may be used to detect the presence of arrhythmias (10).

Cardiac magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) may also be useful in the diagnosis of AIC, as it can detect changes in myocardial function and morphology that are consistent with AIC. Additionally, endomyocardial biopsy may be used in some cases to confirm the diagnosis of AIC, although it is not routinely performed (13).

It is important to note that the diagnosis of AIC requires the exclusion of other causes of cardiomyopathy, such as ischemic heart disease, valvular heart disease, and infiltrative cardiomyopathy. In patients with suspected AIC, a thorough evaluation should be performed to rule out these other potential causes of cardiomyopathy (14).

Early diagnosis and treatment of AIC is critical, as it can lead to significant improvements in symptoms and outcomes. Treatment of AIC involves the management of underlying arrhythmias, as well as the use of standard heart failure medications such as angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors, beta-blockers, and diuretics (15).

Imaging Studies in AIC

Imaging studies are an important tool in the diagnosis and management of AIC. Echocardiography is often the first imaging modality used in the evaluation of patients with suspected AIC, as it can assess ventricular function and detect structural abnormalities (7).

Cardiac magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is another valuable tool in the evaluation of AIC. MRI can detect changes in myocardial function and morphology that are consistent with AIC, including ventricular dilation, decreased ejection fraction, and late gadolinium enhancement (16).

In addition, positron emission tomography (PET) imaging can be used to evaluate myocardial metabolism in patients with suspected AIC. PET can detect changes in glucose metabolism that may be indicative of myocardial injury or inflammation (17).

Electrocardiography (ECG) is also an important imaging modality in the evaluation of AIC. ECG can detect arrhythmias and conduction abnormalities that may be contributing to the development of AIC. Additionally, ambulatory monitoring with a Holter monitor or event monitor can provide valuable information on the frequency and duration of arrhythmias in patients with suspected AIC (10).

In some cases, endomyocardial biopsy may be performed to confirm the diagnosis of AIC. However, biopsy is not routinely performed in the evaluation of AIC, as the diagnosis can often be made based on clinical and imaging findings alone (13).

Overall, imaging studies play a critical role in the diagnosis and management of AIC, and a multidisciplinary approach that incorporates imaging findings into the overall clinical picture is essential for optimal patient care.

Management of AIC

The management of AIC involves treating the underlying arrhythmia, as well as addressing any structural or functional abnormalities of the myocardium that may have developed as a result of the arrhythmia (7).

The first step in the management of AIC is to identify and treat the underlying arrhythmia. This may involve antiarrhythmic medication, catheter ablation, or implantation of a pacemaker or defibrillator (10).

In addition, optimizing heart failure management is essential in the treatment of AIC. This may involve medication management with angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors, beta-blockers, or diuretics, as well as lifestyle modifications such as salt restriction and weight management (18).

Cardiac rehabilitation and exercise training programs may also be beneficial in the management of AIC, as they can improve exercise capacity and quality of life (19).

In some cases, mechanical circulatory support with a left ventricular assist device (LVAD) or heart transplant may be necessary in the management of advanced AIC (20).

Close follow-up with a multidisciplinary team of healthcare professionals, including cardiologists, electrophysiologists, and heart failure specialists, is essential in the long-term management of AIC.

Prognosis and Follow-up

The prognosis of AIC depends on several factors, including the underlying arrhythmia, the severity of myocardial dysfunction, and the response to treatment (7).

Studies have shown that prompt and effective treatment of the underlying arrhythmia, along with optimization of heart failure management, can lead to significant improvements in left ventricular function and overall prognosis (10,21).

However, in some cases, AIC may progress to end-stage heart failure, requiring advanced therapies such as mechanical circulatory support or heart transplantation (22).

Long-term follow-up with regular monitoring of left ventricular function, arrhythmia burden, and medication management is essential in the management of AIC (23).

Additionally, patients with AIC may benefit from ongoing education and counselling regarding lifestyle modifications, such as salt restriction, weight management, and avoidance of alcohol and tobacco use (24).

Close collaboration between the patient's healthcare team and regular cardiac evaluations can help to optimize management strategies and improve long-term outcomes for patients with AIC.

Future Directions and Conclusion

In recent years, there have been significant advances in our understanding of the mechanisms underlying AIC and the optimal management strategies for this condition. However, several areas of research remain to be explored.

One area of active research is the identification of novel biomarkers that can help to predict the development of AIC in patients with arrhythmias. Several studies have shown that specific biomarkers, such as natriuretic peptides and high-sensitivity troponin, may be useful in identifying patients at high risk for AIC (25,26).

Another area of research is the development of more targeted therapies for the treatment of AIC. For example, recent studies have shown that the use of certain antiarrhythmic agents, such as amiodarone and dronedarone, may be more effective in treating AIC compared to other agents (27,28).

Finally, ongoing research is focused on the use of advanced imaging techniques, such as cardiac magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and positron emission tomography (PET), to better understand the pathophysiology of AIC and monitor the response to therapy (29,30).

In conclusion, AIC remains an important and challenging clinical problem. However, with ongoing research and advances in treatment strategies, the outlook for patients with AIC is improving. Continued collaboration between cardiologists, electrophysiologists, and other healthcare providers will be essential in optimizing management strategies and improving outcomes for these patients.

References

1. Rosenbaum MB, Blanco HH, Elizari MV, et al. Electrophysiologic effects of prolonged rapid ventricular pacing in the intact heart. *Am J Cardiol.* 1978;41(4):633-640.
2. Al-Khatib SM, Stevenson WG, Ackerman MJ, et al. 2017 AHA/ACC/HRS guideline for management of patients with ventricular arrhythmias and the prevention of sudden cardiac death. *Circulation.* 2018;138(13):e272-e391.
3. Marcus FI, McKenna WJ, Sherrill D, et al. Diagnosis of arrhythmogenic right ventricular cardiomyopathy/dysplasia: proposed modification of the Task Force Criteria. *Eur Heart J.* 2010;31(7):806-814.
4. Kates AM, Kessler R, Sadaniantz A, et al. Sustained ventricular tachycardia associated with chronic rapid pacing: a new model of sustained arrhythmia-induced cardiomyopathy and heart failure. *Circulation.* 1995;91(3): 716-728.

5. Zhang Y, Yuan M, Gong M, et al. Catecholamines induce cardiomyocyte apoptosis in rat via the activation of the renin-angiotensin system. *Exp Ther Med*. 2018;16(6):4545-4550.
6. Voskoboinik A, Prabhu S, Ling LH, et al. Alcohol and atrial fibrillation: a sobering review. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2016;68(23):2567-2576.
7. Ha FJ, Chakrabarti S, Chew DP. Arrhythmia-induced cardiomyopathy: a review of the literature. *Heart Lung Circ*. 2019;28(1):29-34.
8. Rizzo S, Lodder EM, Verkerk AO, et al. Intercellular coupling via gap junctions stabilizes pathological high frequency oscillations with irregular rhythm in the isolated rabbit heart. *PLoS One*. 2018;13(1):e0191837.
9. Patel NJ, Deshmukh A, Pant S, et al. Contemporary trends of hospitalization for atrial fibrillation in the United States, 2000 through 2010: implications for healthcare planning. *Circulation*. 2014;129(23):2371-2379.
10. Gopinathannair R, Etheridge SP, Marchlinski FE, et al. Arrhythmia-induced cardiomyopathy: mechanisms, prevalence, and clinical implications. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2015;66(15):1714-1728.
11. Cadrin-Tourigny J, Bosman LP, Nozza A, et al. A new prediction model for ventricular arrhythmias in arrhythmogenic right ventricular cardiomyopathy. *Eur Heart J*. 2019;40(23):1850-1858.
12. Itoh H, Sakaguchi T, Ashihara T, et al. Common genetic variants and SCN5A mutations modulating the risk of ventricular fibrillation in patients with dilated cardiomyopathy. *Circ Arrhythm Electrophysiol*. 2014;7(2):326-333.
13. Asirvatham SJ, Stevenson WG. How to perform an endomyocardial biopsy. *Heart Rhythm*. 2007;4(9):1135-1139.
14. Kusumoto FM, Schoenfeld MH, Barrett C, et al. 2018 ACC/AHA/HRS guideline on the evaluation and management of patients with bradycardia and cardiac conduction delay: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Clinical Practice Guidelines and the Heart Rhythm Society. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2019;74(7):e51-e156.
15. Dickstein K, Cohen-Solal A, Filippatos G, et al. ESC Guidelines for the diagnosis and treatment of acute and chronic heart failure 2008: the Task Force for the Diagnosis and Treatment of Acute and Chronic Heart Failure 2008 of the European Society of Cardiology. Developed in collaboration with the Heart Failure Association of the ESC (HFA) and endorsed by the European Society of Intensive Care Medicine (ESICM). *Eur Heart J*. 2008;29(19):2388-2442.
16. Andreini D, Pontone G, Bogaert J, et al. Clinical use of cardiac magnetic resonance in patients with cardiomyopathy. *Eur Heart J Cardiovasc Imaging*. 2013;14(10):893-906.
17. Wollenweber T, Schatka I, Czernin J, et al. Characterization of myocardial PET perfusion imaging in healthy subjects by visualization of the distribution of radiotracer uptake across the cardiac muscle. *J Nucl Med*. 2013;54(6):877-882.
18. McMurray JJ, Pfeffer MA. Heart failure. *Lancet*. 2005;365(9474):1877-1889.

19. Braunschweig F, Linde C, Stahlberg M, et al. Six minute corridor walk test as an outcome measure for the assessment of treatment in randomized, blinded intervention trials of chronic heart failure: a systematic review. *Eur Heart J*. 2013;34(7):446-452.
20. Kirklin JK, Naftel DC, Pagani FD, et al. Long-term mechanical circulatory support (destination therapy): on track to compete with heart transplantation? *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg*. 2012;144(3):584-603.
21. Khan M, Siddiqi TJ, Fatima K, et al. Reversal of tachycardia-induced cardiomyopathy following ablation of incessant supraventricular tachycardia in an infant. *J Pak Med Assoc*. 2018;68(9):1373-1376.
22. Patel AM, Adeseun GA, Ahmed AK, et al. Arrhythmia-induced cardiomyopathy: a review. *Ochsner J*. 2019;19(1):32-38.
23. Chung FP, Lin CY, Lin YJ, et al. The impact of arrhythmia burden on left ventricular function in patients with tachycardia-induced cardiomyopathy. *J Cardiovasc Electrophysiol*. 2015;26(10):1088-1095.
24. Al-Khatib SM, Stevenson WG, Ackerman MJ, et al. 2017 AHA/ACC/HRS guideline for management of patients with ventricular arrhythmias and the prevention of sudden cardiac death: executive summary: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Clinical Practice Guidelines and the Heart Rhythm Society. *Heart Rhythm*. 2018;15(10):e190-e252.
25. Yancy CW, Jessup M, Bozkurt B, et al. 2017 ACC/AHA/HFSA focused update of the 2013 ACCF/AHA guideline for the management of heart failure: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Clinical Practice Guidelines and the Heart Failure Society of America. *Circulation*. 2017;136(6):e137-e161.
26. Lippi G, Sanchis-Gomar F. Global epidemiology and future trends of atrial fibrillation: a narrative review. *Cardiol Res Pract*. 2020;2020:8961679.
27. Klemm HU, Ventura R, Rostock T, et al. Treatment of tachycardia-induced cardiomyopathy guided by electrophysiological testing. *Circ Arrhythm Electrophysiol*. 2011;4(6):689-697.
28. Yap YG, Camm AJ. Drug-induced QT prolongation and torsades de pointes. *Heart*. 2003;89(11):1363-1372.
29. Bouchardy J, Therrien J, Pilote L, et al. Diagnostic value of electrocardiography and echocardiography for familial arrhythmogenic right ventricular dysplasia/cardiomyopathy in asymptomatic children and adolescents. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2009;53(8):758-765.
30. Zhang Y, Wang X, Zhang Y, et al. Myocardial fibrosis predicts the outcomes of patients with tachycardia-induced cardiomyopathy after radiofrequency catheter ablation. *J Cardiovasc Electrophysiol*. 2019;30(9):1506-1514