

EDITORIAL COMMENT

# Left Ventricular Atrophy in Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension

## A Sinister Dexter Conundrum\*

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In response to external demands, the myocardium undergoes adaptive changes. This process has been termed cardiac plasticity, and changes at the macroscopic and cellular levels under various environmental conditions have been documented (1). The most basic response to increased volume or pressure loading is an increase in cardiac muscle mass (2). Within this context, concentric left ventricular hypertrophy is the most prevalent and best understood cardiac adaptation, and many of the pathways triggered by pathological hemodynamic and neurohumoral stimuli have been identified (3). The mechanisms that lead to right ventricular hypertrophy in response to pulmonary arterial hypertension (PAH) have undergone less research, but similar basic concepts probably apply. However, in the right ventricle, this adaptive change is frequently associated with eccentric remodeling and contractile dysfunction, especially in patients with congenital heart disease, in whom the development of PAH is often preceded by a chronic volume load.

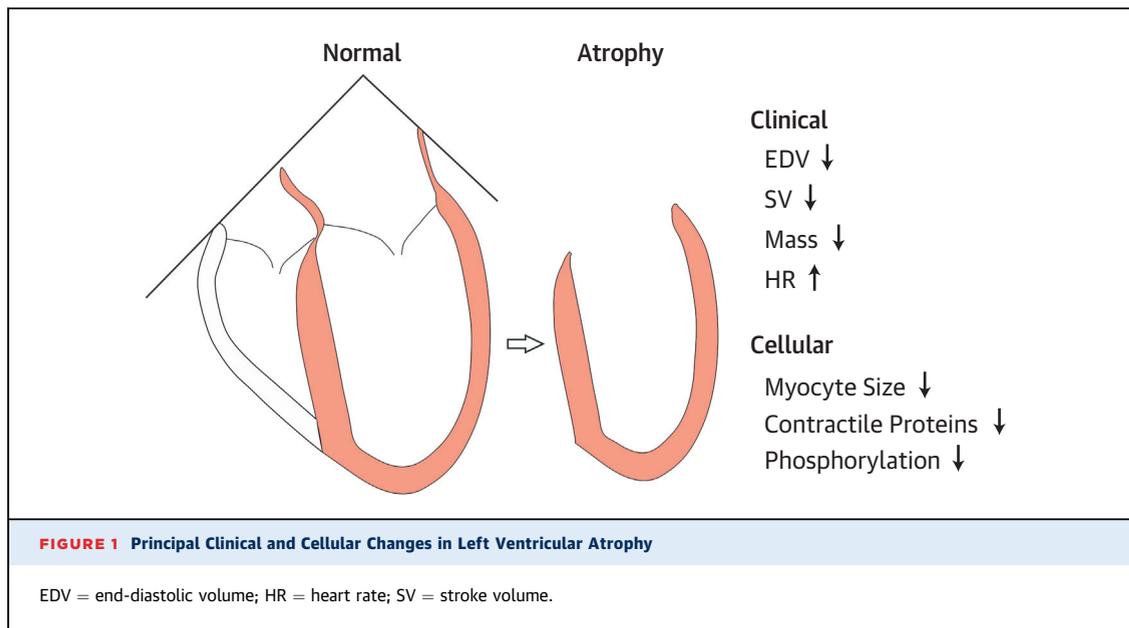
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Ventricular interdependence, which is mandated by a serial circulatory system, pericardial restraints, and the shared myocardium of the septum, affects left ventricular geometry and function. In severe pulmonary hypertension, this is manifest as a flattened ventricular septum, which gives the left ventricle its characteristic D shape. But there are other more subtle changes in left ventricular geometry. In patients with

severe pulmonary hypertension, the left ventricle often appears “small and underfilled.” This observation has been recently confirmed and quantified in patients with pulmonary hypertension from occlusive pulmonary vascular disease. The most prominent findings from these studies are reductions in left ventricular end-diastolic volume, stroke volume, and ejection fraction (4,5). Some studies also suggest that the mass of the left ventricular free wall may be reduced (6). As a result, it has been proposed that the left ventricle in patients with severe PAH undergoes an adaptive atrophic change that is opposite to the hypertrophy of the right ventricle. This coexistence of a diametrically opposed growth response provides a revealing insight into the mechanisms and pathways that govern myocardial adaptation. The work load imposed on the ventricle must be the primary determinant of the growth response, as systemic variables (i.e., neurohumoral factors) would unlikely trigger a disparate response. This, however, raises the question of why the left ventricle appears to atrophy in severe PAH. One possible explanation is a reduction in left ventricular filling or at the minimum a reduction in the normal variation in left ventricular inflow. Normally, the pulmonary vascular bed can readily accommodate a several-fold increase in blood flow. This allows a normal cardiac output reserve, and the associated fluctuations in volume load provide a growth stimulus. This variation in flow is reduced in patients with PAH, which results in a sheltered and unchallenged left ventricle. Further progression of the underlying pulmonary vasculopathy and right ventricular failure will ultimately reduce left ventricular filling and cardiac output at rest. Other growth stimuli and contributors to cardiac work load, such as preload and heart rate, undoubtedly also influence this process in less predictable ways. However, chronic underutilization provides the most plausible explanation for left ventricular atrophy in PAH, as similar

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changes are reported in mitral stenosis and in other settings (7). Extreme physical inactivity induced by bed rest or zero-gravity conditions in healthy subjects has been demonstrated to reduce left ventricular chamber volume and myocardial mass within days to weeks (8,9). These studies demonstrated that the reduction in left ventricular cavity size typically precedes the loss in left ventricular mass (Fig. 1). The reported reductions in end-diastolic volume are approximately 10% to 20%, and the reductions in mass are 5% to 15%, depending on the duration of the exposure. A potential maximum in mass reduction of 25% to 35% has been reported in patients with tetraplegia, as this occurs in the context of a complete cessation of all physical activity (10). Left ventricular atrophy also appears to play a role in aging and a sedentary life-style (11).

Besides the clinically measurable changes in left ventricular structure and function, not much is known about the mechanisms and pathways that lead to myocardial atrophy. This is due in part to the inherent difficulty in obtaining myocardial tissue from patients and the fact that the majority of animal models do not reproduce the chronicity of the human disease process. Sufficient quantities of human myocardium typically only become available when patients with end-stage conditions undergo cardiac transplantation, which also provides an opportunity to procure donor tissue. Despite some experimental limitations, these studies have been very valuable to our understanding of various myocardial disease processes. In a laudable undertaking, Manders et al.

(12) provide us with a first insight into the cellular and molecular alterations associated with left ventricular atrophy in patients. At the morphometric cellular level, they found that left ventricular cardiac myocytes from patients with end-stage PAH are thinner compared with myocytes from donor hearts. The investigators explain this finding by a lower cellular content of the contractile protein myosin, which dominates the protein composition of the cardiac myocyte. In the next set of experiments, the investigators confirmed that the atrophied, smaller cells have indeed a reduced force-generating capacity. They also determined that the relative force generation at submaximal calcium concentrations is greater, which is manifest as a leftward shift in the calcium-force curve. In other words, the interaction of myosin and actin appears to be more sensitive to calcium, which is the main mediator of force generation. Under the assumption that there is no change in calcium cycling, this may represent a partially compensatory mechanism but also could explain the impairment in left ventricular diastolic function that has been reported with this condition (13). The investigators also provide us with a potential explanation as to why cardiac troponin I and cardiac myosin-binding protein C, which both regulate the contractile proteins, are less phosphorylated. These results have clinical relevance because patients with end-stage PAH who receive donor lungs can develop left ventricular failure, which is believed to be due to the re-exposure of the left ventricle to higher workloads (14).

However, similar to related transplantation-based myocardial tissue studies, there are some inevitable limitations in the experimental approach, mainly a small sample size and the pooling of World Health Organization group 1 patients with variable initiating etiologies.

Nonetheless, this study demonstrates left ventricular atrophy at the cellular and molecular levels in patients. It appears likely that other mechanisms and pathways will be found, and it is certain that many new questions will arise as we better understand this

principally reversible physiological adaptation (10,11). An interesting question that came to mind concerns the adaptive response and functional affiliation of septal myocytes in this setting of a conflicting growth stimulus. Left, right, or both?

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