



CODEN [USA]: IAJPBB

ISSN: 2349-7750

**INDO AMERICAN JOURNAL OF
PHARMACEUTICAL SCIENCES**<http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.2562877>Available online at: <http://www.iajps.com>

Research Article

**PATHOGENESIS AND PROPER EVALUATION OF DILATED
CARDIOMYOPATHY**¹Waleed Mohammed Omar Almahaili¹Primary health care center of Al Rashidia - Makkah**Abstract:**

This review highlights some essential concepts in the medical diagnosis of DCM patients, etiology and pathophysiology. The proper diagnosis is important in order to prevent consequences and for adequate treatment. We conducted electronic search for articles concerning dilated cardiomyopathy management, using major biomedical databases (CINAHL, EMBASE, MEDLINE) using comprehensive search strategies for all relevant articles published up to 2018. Dilated cardiomyopathy (DCM) is characterized by dilation and damaged contraction of one or both ventricles. Damaged patients have impaired systolic function and may or may not establish overt heart failure (HF). The here and now indications can include atrial and/or ventricular arrhythmias, and sudden death can happen at any kind of stage of the ailment. A diagnosis of dilated cardiomyopathy calls for proof of extension and damaged contraction of the left ventricle or both ventricles (eg, left ventricular ejection portion <40 percent or fractional shortening less than 25 percent). The disease is considered idiopathic if primary and secondary causes of heart disease (eg, myocarditis and coronary artery disease) are excluded by evaluation including history and physical examination, laboratory testing, coronary angiography (to exclude > 40 percent or fractional shortening less than 25 percent).

Corresponding author:**Waleed Mohammed Omar Almahaili,**

Primary health care center of Al Rashidia – Makkah.

QR code



Please cite this article in press Waleed Mohammed Omar Almahaili ., *Pathogenesis And Proper Evaluation Of Dilated Cardiomyopathy.*, Indo Am. J. P. Sci, 2019; 06(02).

INTRODUCTION:

Cardiomyopathies are ailments of the heart muscle. This group of pathological problems consists of dilated cardiomyopathy, hypertrophic cardiomyopathy, restrictive cardiomyopathy, arrhythmogenic right ventricular cardiomyopathy, and left ventricular noncompaction cardiomyopathy. They can be genetic or acquired later .

Dilated cardiomyopathy (DCM) is a heart muscle mass disease characterized by left ventricular (LV) or biventricular dilatation and systolic disorder in the absence of either stress or volume overload or coronary artery disease enough to clarify the disorder [1]. Although formerly thought about as an uncommon and orphan disorder, modern estimates of the occurrence of DCM range from 1/2500 up to 1/250 people [2].

Generally, the beginning of the disorder occurs in the third or 4th decade of life with a 3:1 man to female predominance. By time the patients are diagnosed, they commonly have serious contractile disorder and renovation of both ventricles, showing an extended period of asymptomatic quiet disorder progression. Nonetheless, the execution of optimum medicinal and non-pharmacological treatment has actually considerably boosted the diagnosis of DCM5 with an estimated survival without death or heart transplantation as much as 85% at 10 years [4]. In addition, the reduced occurrence of co-morbidities when compared to the majority of patients with other types of LV systolic disorder recommends that individuals with DCM have a tendency to have fewer non-cardiovascular events [3]. These boosted outcomes are paralleled by greater rates of LV reverse remodelling (LVRR) with optimum pharmacological and non-pharmacological treatments [3], [4].

In spite of this therapeutic success, emerging evidence recommends that some patients stay vulnerable to sudden cardiac death (SCD) and refractory heart failure (HF) calling for heart transplant or mechanical blood circulation assistance [4].

This review highlights some essential concepts in the medical diagnosis of DCM patients, etiology and pathophysiology. The proper diagnosis is important in order to prevent consequences and for adequate treatment.

METHODOLOGY:

We conducted electronic search for articles concerning dilated cardiomyopathy management, using major biomedical databases (CINAHL, EMBASE, MEDLINE) using comprehensive search strategies for all relevant articles published up to

2018. Our search strategy used following MeSH terms through the biomedical databases; “dilated cardiomyopathy, ventricular arrhythmias and hypertrophy, management, therapy”. And furthermore, references of included studies were screened for more relevant articles. Restriction to English language with human subject was applied .

DISCUSSION:

• RISK FACTORS

Risk elements refer to individual features, characteristics or direct exposure to environmental aspects such as toxic substances that boost the chance of developing or worsening a disease condition when contrasted to the remainder of the populace [5]. Risk variables for DCM are continuous exposure to agents that interfere with the typical LV systolic function. These agents include genetic mutations, myocardial disorders and toxic substances [6]. Under hereditary mutations, offspring of parents with non-ischemic heart failure and other myocardial problems go to a higher threat of establishing DCM as a result of the opportunity of inheritance of the original mutant genes [6]. Myocardial disorders such as myocardial ischemia is also a significant risk aspect, and represent virtually 50% of DCM. Various other disorders such as coronary artery disease, hypertension and valvular illness that lead to worldwide systolic problems likewise raises the likelihood of creating DCM [7]. Toxins such as too much intake of alcohol and chronic exposure to chemotherapeutic agents may predispose an individual to higher opportunity of creating DCM. Lastly, in pediatric medicines, inborn mistake of metabolic rate and malformation disorder are additionally significant threat elements for creating DCM [8].

• PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

The hallmark of DCM suffers LV systolic function brought on by unusual myocardial contractility [9]. The irregular myocardium becomes unable to sustain typical systolic function and cardiac output. Consequently, the LV and RV come to be overloaded with high cavitory blood volume, reduced ejection portion and increased pressure triggering them to dilate-- stretch and to thin [10]. Damaged LV systolic function might bring about RV-ventricular (bi-ventricular) systolic disorder. While LV dysfunction has actually been well developed in DCM patients, recent studies suggest RV dysfunction is additionally

widespread in up to 65% of DCM patients [11]. Increased pressure causes arterial ventricular valves to stretch and lose their synchrony triggering blood to regurgitate into the atria. Subsequently, boosted atrial pressure causes the atria to dilate resulting into raised pressure in the veins around the heart inevitably bring about heart failure, which is the final clinical endpoint of DCM [9].

• ETIOLOGY

Etiology is a study of the cause of illness problems useful for assisting therapeutic management [12]. The etiology of DCM is incredibly heterogeneous. Half (50%) of the cases are idiopathic, triggered mainly by inflammatory and immunological procedures, while the other half results from a wide spectrum of underlying problems, that includes peripartum ailment, heart disease, myocarditis and hypertension [12]. Formerly, DCM etiology was classified according to the causative agent: genetic/familial,

cytotoxic agents, malnutrition, myocarditis/viral and autoimmune disorders. However, genetic abnormalities understood familial DCM continues to be the most dominant etiology accounting for 20-48% of all DCM cases [16].

A lot more just recently, the ESC functioning group on myocardial and pericardial diseases reclassified the etiology of DCM under 2 primary classes: hereditary and non-genetic. Non-genetic etiologies consist of drugs/toxins, infection and peripartum. Nonetheless, in some individuals, more than one etiologic agent may create DCM. In such people, genetic agents engage with environmental (non-genetic) agents to create DCM. Eliminating environmental agents is essential to avoid the stress of DCM. The ESC functioning group on myocardial and pericardial illness classifies sources of DCM right into genetic/familial, drugs/toxins, infection and peripartum [13]. (Table 1).

Table 1. Causes and Agents of DCM [13].

Group	Cause	Etiologic Agents
<i>Genetic/Familial</i>	Main Genes	Titin, lamin A/C, myosin heavy chain, troponin, myosin-binding protein C, RNA-binding Motif-20, Myopalladin, Na ⁺ channel alpha unit and phospholamban
	Neuromuscular Disorders	Duchenne muscular dystrophy, Becker muscular dystrophy, myotonic dystrophy
	Syndromic Disease	Mitochondrial disease, Tafazin
<i>Drugs/ Toxins</i>	Drugs	Antineoplastic/psychiatric drugs
	Toxic Overload	Ethanol, cocaine, amphetamines, ecstasy or iron overload
	Nutritional Deficiency	Selenium, thiamine, zinc/copper and carnitine
	Electrolyte Disturbance	Hypocalcemia, hypophosphatemia
	Endocrinology	Hyper/hypo-thyroidism, Addison disease, pheochromocytoma, acromegaly, diabetes mellitus
<i>Infection</i>	Auto-immune diseases (myocarditis)	Causes frequent AV-block and ventricular arrhythmias
	Inflammatory DCM	Caused by non-infectious myocarditis
<i>Peripartum</i>	Peripartum cardiomyopathy	Related to during or after pregnancy

Genetic Causes

DCM has a more noticeable diversification in hereditary etiology than any other cardiomyopathy phenotypes. Hereditary etiologies consist of a selection of gene mutations in cytoskeleton, nucleoskeleton or mitochondrial proteins [15]. The primary pattern of genetic transmission is autosomal dominant. Inherited mutations in the sarcomere protein Titin (TTN) is the most regular hereditary cause of DCM, making up about 25% of familial DCM. Familial DCM refers to DCM inherited as

solitary mutated genetics in a Mendelian pattern [16]. Various other common autosomal leading hereditary mutations are Lamin A/C, Myosin Heavy Chain, Troponin, Myosin-binding protein C, RNA-binding Motif-20, myopalladin, Na⁺ channel alpha system, and Phospholamban [14]. Although autosomal recessive anomalies are an unusual root cause of DCM accounting for about 1-2% of familial DCM, raising cases of X-linked recessive inheritance have been reported in tafazin genetics in pediatric populaces. Various other X-linked recessive hereditary causes are

neuromuscular dystrophy and mitochondrial (syndromic) disorder [15].

Non-Genetic Causes Drugs/Toxins

The main non-genetic etiologic agents of DCM are medicines (likewise described as toxic substances), infection and peripartum DCM. Toxic substances, particularly chronic or excessive alcohol intake, or duplicated direct exposure chemotherapeutic agents can cause DCM. Alcohol-induced cardiomyopathy causes the deterioration of LV systolic function and accounts for between 21% and 32% of DCM however reverses upon abstention [17]. Chronic exposure to some chemotherapeutic agents such as anthracyclines can also impact LV function and induce DCM but upon withdrawal, either deals with on its own or continues subclinical form [13].

Infection

Autoimmune viral infections such as myocarditis cause swellings to cause DMC in genetically inclined individuals. In some familial or non-familial patients, infection-negative myocarditis in the absence or presence of DCM phenotype is organ specific autoimmune disorder often discovered in genetically inclined patients. These patients are asymptomatic however present with organ-specific anti-heart antibodies [18]. Anti-heart antibodies have actually been linked to mild LV problems, which predicts DCM development. In DCM caused by viral infection, if acute swelling of myocardium quits and the cause resolves, and the ailment is relatively easy to fix [18].

Peripartum

Peripartum cardiomyopathy (PPCM) is an unusual myocardial problem affecting pregnant women or females that have actually simply delivered. PPCM can generate or co-exist with DCM [19]. There are reported association of PPCM with ethnicity (Afro-Caribbean), age (older adults), several pregnancy and hypertension in the existence or absence of pre-eclampsia. PPCM as an etiology of DCM is complex, entailing autoimmune problems, viral infection, fetal microchimerism, stress-induced cytokines and toxicity because of uncommon production of prolactin [19].

• CLINICAL PRESENTATION

Patients might provide as early as childhood years, though a lot of present during the fourth and fifth decades of life. Generally, signs appear when the disease has actually proceeded to end-stage where considerable myocardial (interstitial) fibrosis happens. Symptoms connected to CHF, such as dyspnoea, tiredness, angina, pulmonary congestion and low cardiac outcome may persist for months to years. Patients might additionally have actually difficulties related to DCM, consisting of arrhythmias (atrial fibrillation, supraventricular and ventricular arrhythmias), and thromboembolic events as a result of dilated cardiac chambers and haemostasis. Illness extent and development vary, as incomplete penetrance has been determined in families with familial DCM (fDCM) in spite of sharing identical mutations. At initial presentation, a thorough family history and pedigree should be recorded to recognize any members that might have been identified with DCM, or who have actually suffered from a thromboembolic event or sudden cardiac death before the age of 30 years. A variety of physical discoveries might be evident if there is moderate-to-severe systolic disorder. If cardiac output is decreased, low arterial pressure, tachycardia and cool extremities would appear. Pulmonary venous congestion may also occur with pulmonary fluid buildup, which might be spotted on auscultation. Upon palpation of the precordium, the apex beat might be displaced side to side due to a dilated left ventricle.

Auscultation of the heart may disclose an S3 and/or a systolic murmur, suggestive of mitral regurgitation, secondary to left ventricular dilatation. If the right ventricle is entailed, a murmur might be detected because of tricuspid regurgitation, and indications of diminished venous return such as elevated jugular venous pulse, hepatomegaly, ascites and pedal oedema would appear [20].

• DIAGNOSIS

Diagnosis of DCM in patients with one influenced first-degree relative can be made with a full background, together with ECG and echocardiographic (two-dimensional) research studies. The analysis requirements for fDCM can be found in box 1. If there is no background symptomatic of fDCM or any type of second causes, iDCM might be considered a feasible diagnosis. The diagnostic requirements for idiopathic DCM (iDCM) can be discovered in box 2.

Box 1. Diagnostic criteria for a patient suspected of a familial dilated cardiomyopathy with one affected first-degree relative [21],[22].

Diagnosis of familial dilated cardiomyopathy (DCM) if one of the following criteria is met. Presence of two or more affected first-degree relatives in a single family (to diagnose first-degree relatives, one of the following criteria must be met)

- Diagnosis of DCM is already established
- Unexplained sudden death or stroke <30 years
- Two major two-dimensional echocardiographic (2DE) criteria:
 - Left ventricular end diastolic dimension (LVEDD) .117% of predicted value
 - Fractional shortening (FS) ,25%
- Three minor 2DE and/or ECG criteria:
 - LVEDD>112% of predicted value
 - FS<28%
 - Pericardial effusion
 - Unexplained conduction defects such as II ° or III ° atrioventricular block, bundle branch block or unexplained (supra-)ventricular arrhythmia <50 years)

OR

Presence of a first-degree relative of a DCM patient with a well-documented unexplained sudden cardiac death <35 years

Box 2. Diagnostic criteria for idiopathic dilated cardiomyopathy [23],[24].

Diagnosis if all of the following criteria are met

Criteria

- Ejection fraction < 0.45 and/or a fractional shortening of <25%
- Left ventricle end diastolic diameter of >117% (corrected for age and body surface area using the formula = $(45.3 \times (\text{body surface area})^{1/32} - (0.03 \times \text{age}) - 27.2) \pm 12\%$)

Exclusion criteria

- Absence of systemic hypertension (>160/100 mmHg)
- Coronary artery disease (50% in one or more branches)
- Chronic excess alcohol (>40 g/day female, >80 g/day for male)
- Systemic disease known to cause idiopathic dilated cardiomyopathy
- Pericardial disease
- Congenital heart disease
- Cor pulmonale

Echocardiography

2D Echocardiography (2DE) stays the mainstay of diagnosis, as it has the ability to measure the systolic and diastolic dimensions of the heart. The analysis standards make use of criteria that are determined by 2DE, including left ventricular end diastolic dimension (LVEDD), fractional shortening (FS), and ejection fraction (EF). This method is additionally able to evaluate valvular function and identify the extent of mitral or tricuspid regurgitation additional to ventricular dilatation.

Electrocardiography

Provided their non-invasive nature, ECG is the first examination finished with any kind of uncertainty of underlying illness. ECG findings vary for each patient; some patients might be without abnormalities while

others might have isolated T wave modifications, septal Q waves as a result of extensive fibrotic damage, prolonged atrioventricular conduction, bundle branch blocks, and/or atrial or ventricular tachyarrhythmias [24]. The reduced uniqueness for DCM may warrant the demand for extra investigations, including 2DE.

Exercise testing

Exercise screening with respiratory system gas analysis serves to examine disorder seriousness and develop a standard exercise capability. It can be employed to keep track of the ailment progression, assess diagnosis, and prepare for further therapies, consisting of cardiac transplant [24].

Viral serology

Viral serology and culture need to be done to eliminate myocarditis. Neutralising antibody titres to flowing infections are usually raised 4 times above normal, over a duration of 2- 4 weeks ^[25]. Virus-specific IgM class antibodies to enteroviruses such as coxsackie B virus may be determined and, if favorable, are a sign of recent infection ^[24].

Endomyocardial biopsy

Endomyocardial biopsy might be utilized to eliminate pathologies with a similar clinical presentation as iDCM, but which might require various therapy. These problems include haemochromatosis, sarcoidosis, storage space disorders and deadly diseases. Though biopsies might result in problems such as appropriate pneumothorax, air embolism, atrial arrhythmias, transient nerve palsies and paralysis, cardiac perforation and tamponade, they ought to still be finished if there is any type of clinical uncertainty of these other problems complying with evaluation of the clinical history, physical examination, and initial non-invasive investigations ^[26]. A current retrospective analysis from our institution compared the pathological diagnosis post-transplantation with the clinical diagnosis, established by a selection of investigations, excluding endomyocardial biopsy. The authors located, omitting those with a pathological diagnosis of ischemic cardiomyopathy, 46% (n = 152) were misdiagnosed before transplant. A majority of these patients did not get an endomyocardial biopsy as part of their management prior to orthotopic heart transplant ^[27].

Coronary angiography

To rule out ischaemic cardiomyopathy, coronary angiography must be done to analyze the patency of the coronary arteries. This examination is done to figure out the presence of coexistent coronary artery ailment, which might contribute to systolic dysfunction. Nevertheless, it must just be done if the patient shows clinical proof of angina or has a history of myocardial infarction ^[20].

CONCLUSION:

Dilated cardiomyopathy (DCM) is characterized by dilation and damaged contraction of one or both ventricles. Damaged patients have impaired systolic function and may or may not establish overt heart failure (HF). The here and now indications can include atrial and/orventricular arrhythmias, and sudden death can happen at any kind of stage of the ailment. A diagnosis of dilated cardiomyopathy calls for proof of extension and damaged contraction of the left ventricle

or both ventricles (eg, left ventricular ejection portion <40 percent or fractional shortening less than 25 percent).The disease is considered idiopathic if primary and secondary causes of heart disease (eg, myocarditis and coronary artery disease) are excluded by evaluation including history and physical examination, laboratory testing, coronary angiography (to exclude > 40 percent or fractional shortening less than 25 percent). The illness is taken into consideration idiopathic if primary and secondary sources of cardiovascular disease (eg, myocarditis and coronary artery illness)are left out by evaluation consisting of background and checkup, laboratory testing, coronary angiography(to exclude > 50 percent obstruction of several coronary arteries), echocardiography, and endomyocardial biopsy when suggested. Most patients are between the ages of 20 and 60, but dilated cardiomyopathy can take place in youngsters and older adults. Affected patients can provide in a variety of various ways. Signs of heart failure (progressive dyspnea with exertion, damaged workout capacity, orthopnea, paroxysmal nocturnal dyspnea, and outer edema) are most common. Various other discussions include the subordinate detection of asymptomatic cardiomegaly and symptoms related to coexisting arrhythmia, transmission disturbance, thromboembolic complications, or sudden death.

REFERENCE:

1. Pinto YM, Elliott PM, Arbustini E, Adler Y, Anastasakis A, Böhm M, Duboc D, Gimeno J, de Groote P, Imazio M, Heymans S, Klingel K, Komajda M, Limongelli G, Linhart A, Mogensen J, Moon J, Pieper PG, Seferovic PM, Schueler S, Zamorano JL, Caforio AL, Charron P. Proposal for a revised definition of dilated cardiomyopathy, hypokinetic non-dilated cardiomyopathy, and its implications for clinical practice: a position statement of the ESC Working Group on Myocardial and Pericardial Diseases. *Eur Heart J* 2016;37:1850–1858.
2. Hershberger RE, Hedges DJ, Morales A. Dilated cardiomyopathy: the complexity of a diverse genetic architecture. *Nat Rev Cardiol* 2013;10:531–547.
3. Merlo M, Pivetta A, Pinamonti B, Stolfo D, Zecchin M, Barbati G, Di Lenarda A, Sinagra G. Long-term prognostic impact of therapeutic strategies in patients with idiopathic dilated cardiomyopathy: changing mortality over the last 30 years. *Eur J Heart Fail* 2014;16:317–324.
4. Merlo M, Pyxaras SA, Pinamonti B, Barbati G, Di Lenarda A, Sinagra G. Prevalence and prognostic significance of left ventricular reverse remodeling in dilated cardiomyopathy receiving tailored

- medical treatment. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2011;57:1468–1476.
5. Unverferth DV, Magorien RD, Moeschberger ML, Baker PB, Fetters JK (1984). Factors influencing the one-year mortality of dilated cardiomyopathy. *Am J Cardiol*, 54: 147-152.
 6. Haas J, Frese KS, Peil B, Kloos W, Keller A, et al. (2014). Atlas of the clinical genetics of human dilated cardiomyopathy. *Eur Heart J*, 36: 1123-1135.
 7. McNally EM, Golbus JR, Puckelwartz MJ (2013) Genetic mutations and mechanisms in dilated cardiomyopathy. *J Clin Invest* 123: 19-26.
 8. Towbin JA, Lowe AM, Colan SD, Sleeper LA, Orav EJ, et al. (2006) Incidence, causes, and outcomes of dilated cardiomyopathy in children. *JAMA* 296: 1867-1876.
 9. Rihal CS, Nishimura RA, Hatle LK, Bailey KR, Tajik AJ (1994). Systolic and diastolic dysfunction in patients with clinical diagnosis of dilated cardiomyopathy. Relation to symptoms and prognosis. *Circulation*, 90: 2772-2779.
 10. Belloni E, De Cobelli F, Esposito A, Mellone R, Perseghin G, et al. (2008) MRI of cardiomyopathy. *AJR Am J Roentgenol* 191: 1702-1710.
 11. La Vecchia L, Zanolla L, Varotto L, Bonanno C, Spadaro GL (2001). Reduced right ventricular ejection fraction as a marker for idiopathic dilated cardiomyopathy compared with ischemic left ventricular dysfunction. *Am Heart J*, 142: 181-189.
 12. Gulati A, Ismail TF, Jabbour A, Alpendurada F, Guha K, et al (2013). The prevalence and prognostic significance of right ventricular systolic dysfunction in non-ischemic dilated cardiomyopathy. *Circulation*, 113, 1-37.
 13. Pinto YM, Elliott PM, Arbustini E, Adler Y, Anastasakis A, et al. (2016). Proposal for a revised definition of dilated cardiomyopathy, hypokinetic non-dilated cardiomyopathy, and its implications for clinical practice: a position statement of the ESC working group on myocardial and pericardial diseases. *Eur Heart J*, 37: 1850-1858.
 14. Merlo M, Gentile P, Naso P, Sinagra G (2017). The natural history of dilated cardiomyopathy: how has it changed? *J Cardiovasc Med (Hagerstown)*, 18, e161-e165.
 15. McNally EM, Golbus JR, Puckelwartz MJ (2013) Genetic mutations and mechanisms in dilated cardiomyopathy. *J Clin Invest* 123: 19-26.
 16. Sisakian H (2014) Cardiomyopathies: Evolution of pathogenesis concepts and potential for new therapies. *World J Cardiol* 6: 478-494.
 17. George A, Figueredo VM (2011) Alcoholic cardiomyopathy: a review. *J Card Fail* 17: 844-849.
 18. Caforio AL, Mahon NG, Baig MK, Tona F, Murphy RT, et al. (2007). Prospective assessment in dilated cardiomyopathy: cardiac autoantibodies predict disease development in asymptomatic relatives. *Circulation* 115, 115:76-83.
 19. Hilker-Kleiner D, Haghikia A, Nonhoff J, Bauersachs J (2015). Peripartum cardiomyopathy: current management and future perspectives. *Eur Heart J*, 36: 1090–1097.
 20. Chen YB, Dec GW, Lilly LS. The cardiomyopathies. In: Lilly LS, ed. Pathophysiology of heart disease: a collaborative project of medical students and faculty. New York: Lippincott Williams and Wilkins, 2007.
 21. Portig I, Wilke A, Freyland M, et al. Familial inflammatory dilated cardiomyopathy. *Eur J Heart Failure* 2006;8:816–25.
 22. Mestroni L, Maisch B, McKenna WJ, et al. Guidelines for the study of familial dilated cardiomyopathies. Collaborative Research Group of the European Human and Capital Mobility Project on Familial Dilated Cardiomyopathy. *Eur Heart J* 1999;20:93–102.
 23. Henry WL, Gardin JM, Ware JH. Echocardiographic measurements in normal subjects from infancy to old age. *Circulation* 1980;62:1054–61.
 24. Elliott P. Diagnosis and management of dilated cardiomyopathy. *Heart* 2000;84:106–12.
 25. Kawai C. From myocarditis to cardiomyopathy: mechanisms of inflammation and cell death: learning from the past for the future. *Circulation* 1999;99:1091–100.
 26. Mason JW. Techniques for right and left ventricular endomyocardial biopsy. *J Cardiol* 1978;41:887–92.
 27. Luk A, Metawee M, Ahn E, et al. Do clinical diagnoses correlate with pathological diagnosis in cardiac transplant patients? The importance of endomyocardial biopsy. *Can J Cardiol*. In press.