

The Heart And HIV/ AIDS

D Olusegun-Joseph, J Ajuluchukwu, C Okany, A Mbakwem, D Oke.

Citation

D Olusegun-Joseph, J Ajuluchukwu, C Okany, A Mbakwem, D Oke.. *The Heart And HIV/ AIDS*. The Internet Journal of Cardiology. 2009 Volume 9 Number 1.

Abstract

HIV/AIDS is one of the leading health problems in the world, especially in sub-saharan Africa, where it is the single greatest health challenge facing the continent. Cardiac involvement impacts on the natural history and prognosis of the disease, however, evidence of cardiac involvement may be clinically quiescent initially. With improved management of opportunistic infections, and the advent of Highly Active AntiRetroviral Therapy (HAART), more organ related manifestations of the disease including heart diseases are emerging. The extra cardiovascular burden will be enormous in view of the increasing prevalence of HIV infection globally. This demands an awareness by clinicians of its cardiovascular manifestations for a complete and rational diagnosis and management. This article presents a concise review of the clinical manifestations, pathophysiology/ pathogenesis and management of Cardiovascular complications in HIV/AIDS.

INTRODUCTION

HIV/AIDS is a multisystemic disease, affecting virtually every organ and system of

the body, resulting in progressive dysfunction of affected areas¹. The heart is not

spared in the exploit of this rampaging entity.

Cardiac manifestation was thought to be a rare feature of HIV presentation in the early periods of the disease, mainly because the presentation of the disease was largely dominated by opportunistic infections, malignancies, and manifestations of symptoms of other systems like the central nervous system (CNS), and respiratory system; however, currently there are evidences of increasing cardiac involvements in patients with the disease²⁻⁵.

Infection with the HIV virus has become one of the leading cause of acquired heart disease and specifically of symptomatic heart failure⁶. Studies have suggested that HIV may exhibit a cardiac tropism, but the heart may also be affected by other opportunistic viruses, fungi, and protozoa. Cardiac disease associated with HIV may therefore be multifactorial, and can be caused by HIV infection itself, opportunistic infections by other viruses, neoplastic complications, drugs used in the treatment of the disease, or any of the established causes of cardiac disease in other patient populations^{1,7}.

The exact prevalence of cardiac involvement in HIV/AIDS is uncertain⁸. Estimates of prevalence vary widely from 28–73% depending on the screening methods selected, the population studied, and the definition of cardiac abnormality^{9,10}. Other workers, however, puts the prevalence at a conservative estimate of 2-10%^{2,11-13}.

DISEASE SPECTRUM AND PATHOGENESIS

A wide range of cardiovascular diseases has been identified in HIV/AIDS patients. The spectrum ranges from myocardial diseases to pericardial, endocardial disease, coronary artery disease, malignancies, vascular disease, cardiac arrhythmias and autonomic dysfunction^{1,4,12-14}.

MYOCARDIAL DISEASE

Myocardial disease is common in HIV/AIDS. Studies have shown that serious clinical cardiac abnormalities are common in patients with AIDS and are associated with myocarditis¹⁵⁻¹⁸. Dilated cardiomyopathy occurs late in the course of HIV infection and is usually associated with a significantly reduced CD4 count^{1,19}.

Cohen et al described the first fatal case of dilated cardiomyopathy in three AIDS patients in 1986²⁰. Post mortem examination in two of the patients revealed a globular heart with dilated cardiac chambers, and histological evidence of focal lymphocytic myocarditis.

The pathogenesis of human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) associated cardiomyopathy include infection of myocardial

cells with HIV type 1 (HIV-1) or coinfection with other cardiotropic viruses, postviral cardiac autoimmunity, autonomic dysfunction, activation of multifunctional cytokines and cardiotoxicity from illicit drugs and pharmacologic agents (such as nucleoside analogues and pentamidine).^{2,19,15-25}.

HIV-1 genomic material has been demonstrated within cardiac myocytes in patients with congestive cardiomyopathy at autopsy and biopsy. The presence of HIV in cardiac tissue has been documented by culture, southern blotting, and in-situ hybridization^{17,25,26}. It is, however, unclear how the virus enters CD4 receptor negative cells such as myocytes. Reservoir cells like dendritic cells are said to play a pathogenic role in the interaction between HIV and the myocyte and in the activation of multi-functional cytokines that contribute to progressive and late tissue damage²⁷.

Malnutrition and wasting are also important predictors of cardiac morbidity and mortality in HIV infection. There is a relationship between vitamins, trace element deficiency (e.g. vitamin E, folic acid, Zinc, and selenium) and cardiomyopathy^{1,2,19}. The cardiac virulence of coxsackie virus appears to be enhanced by selenium deficiency. Indeed, selenium supplementation has been shown to improve cardiac dysfunction in AIDS patients^{1,2,19,28,29}.

Dilated cardiomyopathy in HIV positive patients is associated with poor prognosis¹. When compared with patients with idiopathic dilated cardiomyopathy, those with HIV associated dilated cardiomyopathy have greatly reduced survival³⁰. Median survival is 101 days in patients with left ventricular dysfunction compared with 472 days in HIV patients with a normal echocardiogram at the same stage of infection³¹.

Similarly, a longitudinal, prospective study of HIV infected infants and children found that left ventricular dysfunction was a significant predictor of overall mortality, even after adjustment for age, height, CD4 cell count, and progressive neurological disease³². Asymptomatic left ventricular dysfunction and increased left ventricular mass independently predict accelerated mortality in both adults and children infected with HIV²⁷.

Cardiac dysfunction occurs in all the major risk groups for HIV infection, including homosexual men³³⁻³⁵, intravenous drug users^{36,37}, and in positive children^{32,38}. The

reported prevalence of left ventricular dysfunction in HIV infection from several studies in Europe and America varies from 2% to over 40%^{8,33,34,37,39}, with symptomatic heart failure developing in 6% of these patients^{12,34}, most of whom have end-stage AIDS^{8,12,34}.

Studies from Africa also reveal that ventricular dysfunction is not uncommon in people living with HIV/AIDS in the continent. Nzuobontane et al⁴ in 2002 reported a 23.3% prevalence of dilated cardiomyopathy in Cameroonian AIDS patients, none in HIV negative patients. The difference was statistically significant when the AIDS group was compared with the HIV negative group. Low CD4 cell counts was associated with dilated cardiomyopathy in that study, a finding similar to that observed by other workers^{14,37,40}.

Longo-Mbenza et al in another study in Congo⁴¹ reported that left ventricular diastolic dysfunction is an important feature of HIV associated heart disease as it was found in 85.7% of HIV-infected patients. Left ventricular diastolic dysfunction was accompanied by left ventricular hypertrophy and was more pronounced in AIDS patients than in HIV positive, non-AIDS patients. Concentric left ventricular hypertrophy was observed in 46.9% of patients with HIV infection, while 24.4% had left ventricular dilatation.

Omotoso et al⁴² in Ilorin, North central part of Nigeria, reported a 32.1% prevalence of HIV infection in patients with heart failure from dilated cardiomyopathy indicating a possible association between HIV infection and dilated cardiomyopathy. The authors concluded that dilated cardiomyopathy is a major cause of heart failure in this environment and that HIV can play a significant role in its pathogenesis.

Okeahialam et al⁴³ in Jos, North central part of Nigeria reported more left ventricular systolic dysfunction in AIDS patients. Most of these patients had normal ventricular size but significantly reduced fractional shortening when compared with the HIV negative controls. Diastolic indices were, however, not reported.

Danbauchi et al⁴⁴ in Zaria, Kaduna state, Northern part of Nigeria reported diastolic dysfunction in 30% of patients with stage III/IV HIV infection. Most of these patients were asymptomatic, further confirming that most cardiac abnormalities in HIV/AIDS patients are clinically quiescent.

Isolated right ventricular dysfunction with right ventricular

hypertrophy is also associated with HIV/AIDS and has been reported at postmortem⁴⁵ and echocardiographic studies^{33,36,46}. Most cases of isolated right ventricular dysfunction are probably not due to primary myocardial disease from HIV, but rather secondary to changes in the pulmonary circulation from recurrent bronchopneumonia⁴⁶, HIV induced pulmonary arteritis⁴⁷, and pulmonary tuberculosis which is common in these patients. Tricuspid regurgitation may also result in volume overload and was a specific cause of right ventricular dysfunction in a man with non-bacterial thrombotic endocarditis and end stage AIDS⁴⁸.

Treatment for HIV related cardiomyopathy is generally similar to that for non-ischaemic cardiomyopathy. Appropriate treatment remains worthwhile despite the seemingly poor prognosis. Angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors are recommended based on general heart failure studies, but may be poorly tolerated because of low systemic vascular resistance from diarrhoeal disease, infection or dehydration²⁷. Palliative therapy with diuretics, digoxin, and inotropes can also be beneficial⁴⁹. Patients with myocarditis, however, have enhanced sensitivity to digoxin which must be taken into consideration when commencing these patients on it¹. The use of immunosuppressive regimens is controversial and no convincing benefits have been reported other than with intravenous immunoglobulin, whose efficacy may reflect inhibition of cardiac autoantibodies by competition with Fc receptors or dampened effects of cytokines and cellular growth factors⁵⁰.

PERICARDIAL DISEASE

Pericardial disease is a frequent cardiovascular manifestation of HIV infection often associated with shortened survival, independent of CD4 count and albumin values.⁵¹⁻⁵³. There is no apparent correlation between clinical stage of HIV infection and severity of pericardial involvement.

The prevalence of pericardial disease at echocardiography ranges from 10–59%¹, although the majority of these are asymptomatic. The prevalence of pericardial effusion in asymptomatic HIV infected patients is estimated at 22%. Cases of massive effusion with cardiac tamponade, and constrictive pericarditis have also been reported^{19,51-54}. In Africa pericardial effusion associated with HIV is now the most frequent cause of pericardial disease^{1,20}, and tuberculosis is the major cause of large pericardial effusion in the continent⁵⁵. In a report from South Africa 96% of HIV patients with large pericardial effusions had tuberculous pericarditis⁵⁶.

Pericardial diseases can be caused directly by the virus^{1,57}, involvement of opportunistic infections such as cytomegalovirus⁵⁸, mycobacterium^{59,60} nocardia,⁶¹ cryptococcus⁶², bacterial infections⁶³ malignancy such as Kaposi Sarcoma⁶⁴, non Hodgkin Lymphoma^{53,65}, or part of a generalized effusive serous process also involving pleural and peritoneal surfaces, and is probably a consequence of enhanced cytokine expression^{53,66}. In some cases of lipodystrophy an increase in the cardiac lipid tissue could simulate an extensive pericardial effusion⁶⁷.

Small asymptomatic pericardial effusion can spontaneously resolve in HIV patients, however, the frequency of resolution varies. In a study by Blanchard et al³³, 42% of the patients studied had spontaneous resolution of their effusion, while in another study by Heidenreich et al⁵³, only 13% had spontaneous resolution. Mortality, however, remains increased in HIV infected patients who develop an effusion, even if the effusion resolves over time^{53,27}.

Echocardiography is regarded as the standard investigative tool for the diagnosis of pericardial effusion^{68,69}. Nevertheless, further diagnosis can be performed by computer tomography and/or magnetic resonance tomography when a neoplasm or an increase in the cardiac lipid tissue is suspected⁶⁹. Pericardiocentesis should be carried out in symptomatic patients and those with cardiac tamponade for relief of symptoms. Culture of pericardial fluid or biopsy from patients with symptomatic effusion can help to identify treatable opportunistic infections or malignancy²⁰.

In Africa where the incidence of tuberculous infection is high, patients with pericardial effusion often receive empirical antituberculous chemotherapy. Adjunctive corticosteroids have not been shown to have a significant beneficial effect on mortality in HIV-positive patients with tuberculous pericarditis, thus their use cannot be recommended on a routine basis^{70,71}. The effects of HAART on pericardial effusion are largely unexplored²⁷.

ENDOCARDIAL DISEASE

Three forms of endocarditis have been reported in HIV infected patients: Marantic (non-bacterial thrombotic), bacterial, and fungal¹. Marantic or non-bacterial thrombotic endocarditis (NBTE) is a condition in which friable clumps of platelets and red cells adhere to the cardiac valves²⁰, and it is most common in HIV patients with wasting syndrome²⁸. It can involve all four valves though left sided lesions are more

common¹.

Unlike bacterial endocarditis, NBTE are not infective⁷², and has been reported in AIDS patients at autopsy⁷³⁻⁷⁶. The pathogenesis of NBTE is not fully understood but hypercoagulability, endothelial damage, and immune complex deposition are implicated²⁰. Identification was frequent in early postmortem studies of patients with HIV infection, but the condition is now less commonly encountered, suggesting that its prevalence was possibly overestimated in the past^{1,20}.

Bacterial endocarditis in HIV infection is infrequent, appearing almost exclusively in intravenous drug users where prevalence varies from 6.3–34%²⁷. Intravenous drug abusers have been reported to have a ten to twelve fold increased risk for infective endocarditis than non-intravenous drug abusers⁷⁷. Right sided valves are predominantly affected^{27,78}.

Staphylococcus aureus is the most common organism, detected in more than 50% of cases, followed by *Streptococcus pneumoniae* and *Haemophilus influenzae*. They also have a higher risk of developing salmonella endocarditis than immunocompetent patients because they are more likely to develop salmonella bacteraemia during salmonella infection due to their impaired immune function²⁷. Patients typically present with fever, sweats, weight loss, and co-existing pneumonia and/or meningitis. Infection affecting the left heart with systemic embolism is less common¹.

The prevalence of infective endocarditis in HIV positive patients is similar to that in the general population and they generally have similar presentation. However, patients with late stage HIV disease have higher mortality from infective endocarditis than do asymptomatic HIV infected patients²⁷. Fungal endocarditis is usually the result of systemic fungaemia. *Aspergillus fumigatus*⁷⁹, cryptococcal and other forms of fungal endocarditis can occur in end-stage AIDS⁸⁰.

Incidence of infective endocarditis in HIV positive patients in Nigeria is not known, but it is not a commonly reported finding. However, Okeahialam et al⁸¹ reported a case of endocarditis with vegetations on the aortic valve. Blood culture in that case yielded *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, an unusual pathogen.

Aggressive treatment with conventional antibiotic regimens and surgery when required are appropriate. Medical

treatment is reported to be successful in over 70% of cases and surgery also has good outcome, provided that intravenous drug abuse does not resume in the postoperative period¹. Fortunately, overall incidence of endocarditis in HIV positive patients is falling, a possible benefit of needle exchange and health education schemes^{20,82}.

MALIGNANT DISEASE

Two types of malignancy affect the heart in HIV patients: Kaposi's sarcoma, and malignant lymphoma, of which the former is more common. These malignancies are commoner in patient with AIDS than others, and they often occur in body sites that are unusual in immunocompetent people²⁰.

KAPOSI'S SARCOMA

Kaposi sarcoma (KS) is the commonest AIDS related neoplasia, affecting 12% to 28% in retrospective autopsy findings¹⁴. Autran et al⁸³ in 1983 first described Kaposi's sarcoma of the heart involving the entire anterior cardiac wall without effusion in an HIV/AIDS patient. Male homosexuals appear to be most at risk⁸⁴, with very aggressive form, often disseminated with potentially fatal visceral involvement in these patients, unlike the classical dermatological form which is more benign⁸⁴.

Myocardial KS usually occurs as part of a disseminated process. This endothelial cell neoplasm shows a predilection for the subpericardial fat around coronary arteries⁷⁵. Visceral and parietal pericardial lesions are most common though involvement of the myocardium, coronary arterial adventitia, great vessels, and epicardium have also been reported⁸⁵. Generally, KS is seldom associated with cardiac symptoms; however, cases of fatal tamponade^{64,86} and constrictive pericarditis have been reported¹⁴.

Primary cardiac lymphoma and disseminated lymphoma involving the myocardium as part of widespread tumour involvement has been reported in AIDS patients^{87,88}. Most non-Hodgkin's lymphomas affecting the heart in HIV infection are high grade, with Burkitt-like cells, reticular cell sarcomas, or large cell immunoblastic sarcomas. The majority originate from B cells and display monoclonal immunoglobulin staining with patchy involvement of the epicardium, myocardium, and endocardium in the form of focal circumscribed nodules, most frequently affecting the right atrium¹.

In contrast to KS, cardiac lymphoma commonly give rise to clinical symptoms like tamponade, congestive heart failure,

arrhythmias or progressive heart block²⁰. Outcome is usually poor and the optimal approach to treatment is yet to be determined, though clinical remission has been obtained with combination chemotherapy⁸⁹.

PULMONARY HYPERTENSION

Human immunodeficiency virus-associated pulmonary hypertension was first described by Kim and Factor in 1987⁹⁰. The incidence of HIV-associated pulmonary hypertension is 1 in 200 compared with 1 in 200 000 in the general population and it is more common in male and young patients⁹¹. The common risk factors were intravenous drug use, homosexual contacts, and hemophilia⁹¹. Development and progression bear no relationship to the stage of underlying HIV disease. It affects about 0.5% of hospitalized AIDS patients and is a cause of severe cardiac impairment with associated cor pulmonale and death¹⁴.

The pathogenesis of pulmonary hypertension is multifactorial and poorly understood⁹². HIV may cause endothelial damage and vasoconstriction through release of endothelin-1, interleukin-6, and tumour necrosis factor. HIV may also be identified in alveolar macrophages which release tumour necrosis factor, oxide anions, and proteolytic enzymes in response to infection⁹². Treatments with oxygen, steroids, calcium channel blockers, epoprostenol, and nitric oxide have all been proposed though efficacy has not been confirmed in controlled clinical trials⁹³. Effects of HAART on pulmonary artery endothelial cells are unknown for now¹.

CARDIAC ARRHYTHMIAS

Rhythm abnormalities and sudden death are well recognized in HIV infection, and they account for more than 20% of cardiac-related deaths^{13,15}. These may be secondary to other cardiac pathologies^{8,38} or may be a consequence of treatment.

Ventricular arrhythmias are associated with some drugs used in the treatment of opportunistic infections. Pentamidine, used for the treatment of *Pneumocystis carinii* infection, is structurally similar to procainamide and can cause torsade de pointes ventricular tachycardia when used intravenously and intramuscularly⁹⁴⁻⁹⁶.

Castillo et al reported a case of acquired long QT syndrome in a patient placed on efavirenz, a novel nonnucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor. The temporal relationship between the initiation of treatment and the onset of electrocardiographic abnormalities, the absence of other apparent precipitating factors, as well as the normalization of

QT interval and the resolution of the arrhythmia after discontinuation of the drug, strongly suggest a causal relationship between efavirenz and this adverse clinical event⁹⁷.

Cardiac arrhythmias can also occur as a result of autonomic dysfunction which is common in HIV patients⁹⁸. This may predispose to syncopal attacks or even death⁹⁹.

CORONARY ARTERY DISEASE

Patients with HIV infection have been shown to have an increased risk of coronary artery disease (CAD)^{100,101}. Accelerated coronary artery disease in HIV infected patients may result from atherogenesis stimulated by virus infected monocyte-macrophages, possibly caused by altered leucocyte adhesion or arteritis¹⁰².

Inflammatory reaction in coronary vessels which may initiate endothelial dysfunction (ED) and promote atherosclerosis have been reported in HIV patients¹⁰³. Solages et al reported that HIV infected persons have a substantial impairment of endothelial vasomotor function which is worse among a subset with elevated levels of viral replication particularly intravenous drugs users (IDU)¹⁰⁴. Also HIV-1 genomic sequences have been demonstrated in the coronary vessels of HIV infected patients who died of coronary arteritis and acute myocardial infarction¹⁰⁵.

HIV infection has been associated with increasing metabolic abnormalities like insulin resistance, hyperglycemia, dyslipidemia and hypertension which are traditional risk factors for coronary artery disease^{57,106-110}. Furthermore, coronary artery disease is observed with increasing frequency among HIV patients following the introduction of highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART), especially among patients receiving protease inhibitors¹¹¹⁻¹¹⁵.

Despite the clinical benefits of protease inhibitors, complications such as lipodystrophy, insulin resistance, and high concentrations of low density lipoprotein and triglycerides have been described in up to 60% of patients treated with HAART regimens. Friis-Moller et al¹¹⁶, in a study that included more than 23,000 patients, found a 26% increase in the incidence of myocardial infarction with each year of antiretroviral therapy.

HIV patients with cardiovascular risk factors should undergo annual cardiac evaluation, including ECG and echocardiography. Symptomatic patients should have further evaluation including exercise ECG, stress echocardiography,

coronary angiography if needed⁶⁹.

Prevention of CAD in HIV patients is based on the guidelines for non HIV infected individuals. Lifestyle modifications such as cessation of smoking, regular isotonic exercises and healthy diets play an important role and can be effective as an initial step in managing these complications without causing further side effects¹¹⁷. The consumption of fruits, vegetable and low cholesterol products should be encouraged. Even modest reductions in body weights, in the obese HIV patients, may improve dyslipidaemia, hypertension, insulin resistance and the levels of inflammatory and thrombotic markers¹¹⁸. This may be followed by the use of lipid lowering drugs, but with a caution as some of these drugs may interact with the HAART^{57,118}.

VASCULAR DISEASE

A number of vascular diseases, both infective and non infective have been reported in the setting of HIV infection¹¹⁹. Polyarteritis nodosa, Henoch-Schönlein purpura, and drug-induced hypersensitivity vasculitis have been reported¹²⁰. Features similar to those in Kawasaki syndrome, coronary arteritis, and Takayasu arteritis also have been described¹²¹.

Young Africans who have no evidence of atherosclerosis, syphilis or any other cause of vascular disease are increasingly been found to have large vessel vasculitis involving the aorta and its major branches^{122,123}. The typical pathologic process has been described as either an idiopathic focal necrotizing vasculitis with aneurysmal dilatation or a granulomatous vasculitis with fibroproliferative occlusion^{70,119}.

References

- Prendergast B.D .HIV and Cardiovascular Medicine. Heart 2003;89:793-800.
- Sani MU, Okeahialam BN. Epidemiology and Pathogenesis of Human Immunodeficiency Virus {HIV}. Related heart disease: A review. Niger J. Med 2005;14(3):255-260.
- Yunis NA, Stone VE . Cardiac manifestations of HIV/AIDS: A review of Disease Spectrum and Clinical Management. J.Acquir Immune Defic Syndr. Hum Retrovirol 1998;18:145 -154.
- Nzuobontane D, Blackett KN , Kuaban C. Cardiac Involvement in HIV Infected people in Yaounde Cameroon . Postgrad Med J 2002;78:678-681.
- Milei J, Grana D, Fernandez A, et al . Cardiac involvement in Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome – a review to push action. Clin Cardiol 1998;21:465-72.
- Hecht SR, Berger M, VanTosh A, et al. Unsuspected cardiac abnormalities in the acquired immune deficiency syndrome: an echocardiographic study. Chest. 1989;96:805-808.
- Martínez-García T, Sobrino JM, Pujol E, et al. Ventricular mass and diastolic function in patients infected by the human immunodeficiency virus. Heart 2000; 84: 620–624.
- Levy WS, Simon GL, Rios JC, et al. Prevalence of Cardiac abnormality in HIV Infection. AM J Cardiol 1989;63: 86-89.
- Lewis W. Cardiomyopathy in AIDS: a pathophysiological perspective. Prog Cardiovasc Dis 2000;43:151–70.
- Silva-Cardoso J, Moura B, Martins L et al. Left ventricular dysfunction in HIV- infected patients. Int J. Cardiol 1998; 63: 37-45.
- Arshad A, Bansal A, Patel RC. Cardiac complications of human immunodeficiency Virus infection: diagnostic and therapeutic considerations. Heart disease 2000;2:133-145.
- Herskowitz A, Vlahov D, Willoughby S et al. Prevalence and Incidence of Left Ventricular Dysfunction in Human Immunodeficiency Virus Infection. Am J Cardiol 1993;71:955-958.
- Anderson DW, Virmani R. Emerging Patterns of heart disease in Human Immunodeficiency Virus Infection. Hum Pathol 1990;21:253-259.
- Rerkpattanapipat P, Wongpraput N, Jacobs L, et al. Cardiac manifestations of acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. Arch Intern Med 2000; 160: 602-608.
- Reilly JM, Cunnion RE, Anderson DW, et al. Frequency of myocarditis, left ventricular dysfunction and ventricular tachycardia in the acquired immune deficiency syndrome. Am J Cardiol 1988;62:789-793.
- Anderson DW, Virmani R, Reilly JM, et al. Prevalent myocarditis at necropsy in the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. J Am Coll Cardiol 1988;11:792- 799.
- Grody WW, Cheng L, Lewis W. Infection of the heart by the human immunodeficiency virus. Am J Cardiol 1990;66:203-206.
- Herskowitz A, Willoughby SB, Vlahov K, et al. Dilated heart muscle disease associated with HIV infection. Eur Heart J 1995;16(supplO):50-55.
- Barbaro G. Cardiovascular manifestations of HIV infection. Circulation. 2002;106: 1420–1425.
- Currie PF, Boon NA. Human immunodeficiency virus infection and the heart. In McMurray JJV, Cleland JGF eds. Heart failure in clinical practice. Martin Dunitz 1996;2:85-108.
- Currie PF, Goldman JH, Caforio AL, et al. Cardiac autoimmunity in HIV related heart muscle disease. Heart1998; 79:599
- <http://jrm.rsmjournals.com/cgi/ijlink?linkType=ABST&journalCode=heartjnl&resid=79/6/599>
- Herskowitz A, Willoughby SB, Baughman KL, et al. Cardiomyopathy associated with anti-retroviral therapy in patients with human immunodeficiency virus infection: a report of six cases. Ann Intern Med. 1992;116:311-313.
- Kaul S, Fishbein MC, Siegel RJ. Cardiac manifestations of acquired immune deficiency syndrome: a 1991 update. Am Heart J 1991;122:535-544.
- Baroldi G, Corallo S, Moroni M, et al. Focal lymphocytic myocarditis in acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS): a correlative morphologic and clinical study in 26 consecutive fatal cases. J Am Coll Cardiol 1988;12: 463- 469.
- Calabrese LH, Proffitt MR, Yen-Lieberman B, et al. Congestive cardiomyopathy and illness related to the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) associated with isolation of retrovirus from myocardium. Ann Intern Med 1987;107:691-692.
- Myocarditis and cardiotropic viral infection associated with severe left ventricular dysfunction in late-stage

- infection with human immunodeficiency virus. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 1994;24:1025-1032.
27. Barbaro G, Fisher SD, Pellicelli AM, et al. The expanding role of the cardiologist in the care of HIV infected patients. *Heart* 2001;86:365-7.
28. Barbaro G. Cardiovascular manifestation of HIV infection. *J R Soc Med* 2001;94:384-90.
29. Chariot P, Perchert H, Monnet I. Dilated cardiomyopathy in HIV Patients. *N Engl J Med* 1999;340:732-5.
30. Barbaro G, Di Lorenzo G, Soldini M, et al. The intensity of myocardial expression of inducible nitric oxide synthase influences the clinical course of human immunodeficiency virus-associated cardiomyopathy. *Circulation* 1999;100:633-639.
31. Lipshultz SE. Dilated cardiomyopathy in HIV-infected patients [editorial]. *N Engl J Med* 1998;339:1153-1155.
32. Lipshultz SE, Easley KA, Orav EJ, et al. Cardiac dysfunction and mortality in HIV-infected children. The prospective P2C2 HIV multicenter study. *Circulation* 2000;102:1542-8.
33. Blanchard DG, Hagenhoff C, Chow LC, et al. Reversibility of cardiac abnormalities in human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)-infected individuals; a serial echocardiographic study. *J Am coll Cardiol* 1991; 17:1270-1276.
34. Himelman R, Chung W, Chernoff N, et al. Cardiac manifestations of human immunodeficiency virus infection : a two dimensional echocardiography study. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 1989; 13: 1030-6.
35. Akhras, F, Dubrey, S, Gazzard, B, et al (1994) Emerging patterns of heart disease in HIV infected homosexual subjects with and without opportunistic infections: a prospective color flow Doppler echocardiographic study. *Eur Heart J* 15,68-75.
36. Jacob AJ, Sutherland GR, Bird AG, et al. Myocardial dysfunction in patients infected with HIV:prevalence and risk factors. *Br Heart J* 1992;68:549-553.
37. Corallo S, Mutinelli MR, Moroni M, et al. Echocardiography detects myocardial damage in AIDS: prospective study in 102 patients. *Eur Heart J* 1988;9:887-892.
38. Lipshultz SE, Chanock S, Sanders SP, et al. Cardiovascular manifestations of Human immunodeficiency virus infection in infants and children. *Am J Cardiol* 1989;63:1489-1497.
39. Kinney EL, Brafman D, Wright RJ. Echocardiographic findings in patients with Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) and AIDS related complex(ARC). *Cathet cardiovasc Diag* 1989;16:182-185.
40. Curie P, Ashok J, Foreman A, et al. Heart muscle disease related to HIV infection; prognostic implications. *BMJ* 1994; 390: 1605-7.
41. Longo-Mbenza B, Seghers L, Vita E, et al. Assessment of ventricular diastolic function in AIDS patients from Congo: a Doppler echocardiographic study. *Heart* 1998;80:184-9.
42. Omotoso ABO, Opadijo OG, Araoye MA. The evolving role of HIV infection in Dilated Cardiomyopathy in Nigerians. *Trop Card* 2000;26: 85-87.
43. Okeahialam BN, Anjorin FL. Echocardiographic study of the heart in AIDS. The Jos experience. *Trop Card* 2000; 26:3-6.
44. Danbauchi SS, Sani SG, Alhassan MA et al. Cardiac manifestations of stage III/IV HIV/AIDS compared to subjects on ARV in Zaria, Nigeria. *Nig J Cardiol* 2006; 3:5-10.
45. Lewis W. AIDS: cardiac findings from 115 autopsies. *Prog Cardiovasc Dis* 1989; 32: 207-215.
46. Himelman RB, Dohrmann M, Goodman P, et al. Severe pulmonary hypertension and cor pulmonale in the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. *Am J Cardiol* 1989;64: 1396-1399.
47. Coplan NL, Shimony RY, Ioachim HL, et al. Primary pulmonary hypertension associated with human immunodeficiency viral infection. *Am J Med* 1990; 89:906-909.
48. Fink L, Reichek N, Sutton MG. Cardiac abnormalities in acquired immune deficiency syndrome. *Am J Cardiol* 1984; 54:1161-1163.
49. Barbaro G, Lorenzo G, Grisorio B, et al. Incidence of dilated cardiomyopathy and detection of HIV in myocardial cells of HIV positive patients. *N Engl J Med* 1998;339:1093-9.
50. Gullestad L, Aass H, Fjeld J G, et al. Immunomodulating therapy with intravenous immunoglobulin in patients with chronic heart failure. *Circulation* 2001; 103:220-225.
51. Silva –Cardoso J, Moura B, Martins L, et al. Pericardial involvement in Human Immunodeficiency Virus infection. *Chest* 1999;115:418-22.
52. Cegielski JP, Ramiya K, Lallinger GJ, et al. Pericardial disease and Human Immunodeficiency Virus in Dares Salaam, Tanzania. *Lancet* 1990;335:209-212.
53. Heidenreich PA, Eisenberg MJ, Kee LL, et al. Pericardial effusion in AIDS: Incidence and Survival. *Circulation* 1995;92:3229-34.
54. Sa I, Moco R, Cabral S, et al. Constrictive pericarditis of tuberculous etiology in the HIVpositive patient: case report and review of the literature. *Rev Port Cardiol.* 2006 Nov;25(11):1029-38.
<http://amedeo.com/lit.php?id=17274459>.
55. Maqula NP, Mayosi BM. Cardiac involvement in HIV-infected people living in Africa: a review. *Cardiovasc J S Afr* 2003; 14(5): 231-237.
56. Reuter H, Burgess LJ, Doubell AF. Epidemiology of pericardial effusions at a large academic hospital in South Africa. *Epidemiol Infect.* 2005; 133:393-399.
57. Busari OA, Opadijo OG, Adeyemi OA: Cardiac diseases in HIV and AIDS. *The Internet Journal of Cardiology* 2008. <http://www.ispub.com/ostia/index.php?xmlFilePath=journals/ijc/vol5n2/aids.xml>.
58. Nathan PE, Arsura EL, Zappi M. Pericarditis with Tamponade due to Cytomegalovirus in the Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome. *Chest* 1989;95:1355-1357.
59. Sunderam G, McDonald RJ, Maniatis T, et al. Tuberculosis as a manifestation of the Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome(AIDS). *JAMA* 1986;256:362-366.
60. Woods GL, Goldsmith JC. Fatal pericarditis due to Mycobacterium avium-intracellulare in acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. *Chest*. 1989;95:1355-1357.
61. Holtz H, Lavery D, Kapila R. Actinomycetales infection in AIDS. *Ann Intern Med.* 1985;102:203-205.
62. Schuster M, Valentine F, Holzman R. Cryptococcal pericarditis in an intravenous drug abuser. *J Infect Dis.* 1985;152:842.
63. Karve MM, Murali MR, Shah HM, et al. Rapid evolution of cardiac tamponade due to bacterial pericarditis in two patients with HIV-1 infection. *Chest.* 1992;101:1461-1463.
64. Stotka JL, Gord CB, Downer WR, et al. Pericardial effusion and Tamponade due to Kaposi sarcoma in Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome. *Chest* 1989; 95:1359-1361.
65. Holladay AO, Siegel RJ, Schwartz DA. Cardiac malignant lymphoma in acquired immune deficiency syndrome. *Cancer.* 1992;70:2203-2207.
66. Silva-Cardoso J, Miranda AM, Moura B, et al. Cardiac

- morbidity in the HIV infection. *Rev Port Cardiol* 1994; 13(12): 901-911.
67. Neumann T, Canbay A, Barkhausen M, et al. Paracardial lipodystrophy versus pericardial effusion in HIV positive patients. *Heart* 2002; 87: e4. <http://amedeo.com/lit.php?id=11997434>.
68. Cheitlin MD, Alpert JS, Armstrong WF, et al. ACC/AHA Guidelines for the Clinical Application of Echocardiography: A Report of the American College of Cardiology/ American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines (Committee on Clinical Application of Echocardiography) . *Circulation*.1997; 95:1686-1744.
69. Hoffmann C, Rockstroh JK, Kamps BS. HIV medicine 2007:1-818. <http://hivmedicine.com/textbook/cr.htm>.
70. Ntsekhe M, Hakim J. Impact of Human Immunodeficiency Virus Infection on Cardiovascular Disease in Africa. *Circulation* 2005;112:3602-3607.
71. Ntsekhe M, Wiysonge C, Volmink JA, et al. Adjuvant corticosteroids for tuberculous pericarditis: promising, but not proven. *QJM* 2003; 96: 593– 599.
72. Karchmer AW. Infective Endocarditis. In Braunwald's Heart Disease: A textbook of Cardiovascular Medicine. Elsevier 2005;7:1633-1658.
73. Guarda LA, Luna MA, Smith JL, et al. Acquired immune deficiency syndrome: post mortem findings. *Am J Clin Pathol* 1984;81:549-557.
74. Pathology of the heart in acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. *Arch Pathol Lab Med* 1987;111:943-946.
75. Cammarosano C, Lewis W. Cardiac lesions in acquired immune deficiency syndrome(AIDS). *J Am Coll Cardiol* 1985;5:703-706.
76. Klatt EC, Meyer PR. Pathology of the heart in acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS). *Arch Pathol Lab Med* 1988;122:114.
77. Nahass RG, Weinstein MP, Bartels J et al. Infective endocarditis in intravenous drug users: a comparison of HIV type 1 negative and positive patients. *J Infect Dis*. 1990; 162:967-970.
78. Barbaro G, Di Lorenzo G, Grisorio B, et al. Cardiac involvement in acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. A multi-centre clinical-pathological study. *AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses* 1998;14:827-38.
79. Henochowicz S, Mustafa M, Lawrinson WE, et al. Cardiac aspergillosis in acquired immune deficiency syndrome. *Am J Cardiol* 1985;55:1239- 1240.
80. Cox JN, di Dio F, Pizzolato GP, et al. Aspergillus endocarditis and myocarditis in a patient with the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS). *Virchows Archiv[A]* 1990;417:993-996.
81. Okeahialam BN, Babashani MB. Infective endocarditis in acquired immuno- deficiency syndrome. *Trop Card* 2001; 27: 68-69.
82. Currie PF, Sutherland GR, Jacob AJ, et al. A review of endocarditis in acquired immunodeficiency syndrome and human immunodeficiency syndrome. *Eur Heart J* 1995;16(suppl B):15–18.
83. Austran B, Gorin I, Leibowitch M et al. AIDS in a Haitian woman with cardiac Kaposi's sarcoma and Whipple disease. *Lancet* 1983; 1: 767-768.
84. Ambrose RA, Eun-Young L, Sharer LR, et al. The acquired immunodeficiency syndrome in intravenous drug abusers and patients with a sexual risk. *Hum Pathol* 1987;18:1109-1114.
85. Silver MA, Macher AM, Reichert CM, et al. Cardiac involvement by kaposi's sarcoma in acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS). *Am. J. Cardiol* 1984;53:983-985.
86. Steigman CK, Anderson DW, Macher AM, et al. Fatal cardiac tamponade in acquired immunodeficiency syndrome with epicardial kaposi's sarcoma. *Am Heart J* 1988;116:1105-1107.
87. Constantino A, West TE, Gupta M, et al. Primary cardiac lymphoma in a patient with acquired immune deficiency syndrome. *Cancer* 1987;60:2801-2805.
88. Goldfarb A, King CL, Rosenzweig BP, et al. Cardiac lymphoma in the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. *Am Heart J* 1989;118:1340-134.
89. Duong M, Dubois C, Buisson M, et al. Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma of the heart in patients infected with human immunodeficiency virus. *Clin Cardiol* 1997;20:497–502.
90. Kim KK, Factor SM. Membranoproliferative glomerulonephritis and plexogenic pulmonary arteriopathy in a homosexual man with acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. *Hum Pathol*. 1987;18:1293-1296.
91. Mesa RA, Edell ES, Dunn WF, et al. Human immunodeficiency virus infection and pulmonary hypertension. *Mayo Clin Proc*. 1998; 73:37- 44.
92. Barbaro G. Pathogenesis of HIV-associated heart disease. *AIDS*. 2003;17: S12–S20.
93. Mehta NJ, Khan IA, Mehta RN, et al. HIV-related pulmonary hypertension: analytic review of 131 cases. *Chest* 2000; 118:1133–41.
94. Stein KM, Haronian H, Mensah GA, et al. Ventricular tachycardia and torsades de pointes complicating pentamidine therapy of *Pneumocystis carinii* pneumonia in the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. *Am J Cardiol* 1990;66:888-889.
95. Wharton JHM, Dermopulos PA, Goldschlager N. Torsades de pointes during administration of pentamidine isethionate. *Am J Med* 1987;83:571-576.
96. Mitchell P, Dodek P, Lawson L, et al. Torsades de pointes during intravenous pentamidine isethionate therapy. *Can Med Assoc J* 1989; 140: 173-174.
97. Castillo R, Pedalino RP, El-Sherif N, et al. Efavirenz-associated QT prolongation and Torsade de Pointes arrhythmia. *Ann Pharmacother* 2002; 26:1006-1008.
98. Freeman R, Roberts MS, Friedman LS, et al Autonomic function and human immunodeficiency virus infection. *Neurology* 1990;40:575-580.
99. Craddock C, Pasvol G, Bull R, et al. Cardiorespiratory arrest and autonomic neuropathy in AIDS. *Lancet* 1987;i:16-18.
100. Neumann T, Woiwod T, Neumann A et al. Cardiovascular risk factors and probability for cardiovascular events in HIV infected patients: Part I: Differences due to the acquisition of HIV infection. *Eur J Med Res* 2004a; 9: 55-60.
101. Neumann T, Woiwod T, Neumann A et al. Cardiovascular risk factors and probability for cardiovascular events in HIV infected patients: Part II: Gender differences. *Eur J Med Res* 2004b; 9: 267-272.
102. Paton P, Tabib A, Loire R, et al. Coronary artery lesions and human immunodeficiency virus infection. *Res Virol* 1993;144:225-231.
103. Barbaro G, Barbarini G, Pellicelli AM. HIV associated coronary arteritis in a patient with fatal myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med* 2001; 344: 1799-1800.
104. Solages A, Vita JA, Thornton DJ, et al. Endothelial function in HIV infected persons. *Clin Infect Dis* 2006; 42: 1325-1332.
105. Hoffman C, Jaegar H. Cardiology and AIDS-HAART and the consequences. *Annals of New York Academy of Sciences* 2001; 946:130-144.
106. Riddler SA, Smit E, Cole SR, et al. Impact of HIV infection and HAART on serum lipid in men. *JAMA* 2003; 289: 2978-2982.

107. Reeds DN, Mittendorfer B, Patterson BW, et al. Alterations in lipid kinetics in men with HIV-dyslipidemia. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab* 2003;285: E490-497.
108. Hadigan C, Meigs JB, Corcoran C, et al. Metabolic abnormalities and cardiovascular disease risk factors in adults with Human Immunodeficiency Virus infection and lipodystrophy. *Clin Infect Dis* 2001;32(1):130-9.
109. Grinspoon S, Carr A. Cardiovascular risk and body fat abnormalities in HIV infected adults. *N Eng J Med* 2005; 352:48-62.
110. Umeh OC, Currier JS. Lipids, metabolic syndrome, and risk factors for future cardiovascular disease among HIV-infected patients. *Curr HIV/AIDS Rep* 2005;2:132-9.<http://amedeo.com/lit.php?id=1609>.
111. Mooser M. Atherosclerosis and HIV in highly active antiretroviral therapy era: towards an epidemic of cardiovascular disease? *AIDS* 2003; 17: S65- S69.
112. The Data Collection on Adverse Events of Anti-HIV Drugs (DAD) Study Group. Combination antiretroviral therapy and risk of myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med* 2003; 349: 1993-2003.
113. Noor MA, Lo JC, Mulligan K, et al. Metabolic effects of indinavir in healthy HIV seronegative men. *AIDS* 2001; 15: F11-18.
114. Mulligan K, Grunfeld C, Tai VW, et al. Hyperlipidaemia and insulin resistance are induced by protease inhibitors independent of changes in body composition in patients with HIV infection. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr* 2000; 23: 35-43.
115. Purnell JQ, Zambon A, Knopp RH et al. Effects of Ritonavir on lipid and post-heparin lipase activities in normal subjects. *AIDS* 2000; 14: 51-57.
116. Friis-Moller N, Sabin CA, Weber R et al. Combination antiretroviral therapy and the risk of myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med* 2003; 349: 1993-2003.
117. Dube MP, Sprecher D, Henry WK, et al. Preliminary guidelines for the evaluation and management of dyslipidemia in adults infected with human immunodeficiency virus and receiving antiretroviral therapy: Recommendations of the adult AIDS clinical trial group cardiovascular disease focus group. *Clin Infect Dis* 2000;31:1216-1224.
118. Rakhlin N, Hsue P, Cheitlin MD. Cardiac Manifestations of HIV. *HIV InSite Knowledge Base Chapter* 2005. <http://hivinsite.ucsf.edu/InSite/?page=kb-04-01-06>.
119. van Marle JTL, Wier G, Botes K. Vascular disease in HIV/AIDS patients. *S Afr Med J* 2002; 92: 974-976.
120. Restrepo CS, Diethelm L, Lemos JA, et al. Cardiovascular Complications of Human Immunodeficiency Virus Infection. *RadioGraphics* 2006;26:213-231.
121. Johnson RM, Barbarini G, Barboro G. Kawasaki-like syndromes and other vasculitic syndromes in HIV infected patients. *AIDS*. 2003; 17:S77-S82.
122. Nair R, Robbs JV, Naidoo NG, et al. Clinical profile of HIV-related aneurysms. *Eur Vasc Endovasc Surg* 2000; 20: 235-240.
123. Chetty R, Batitang S, Nair R. Large artery vasculopathy in HIV positive patients: another vasculitic enigma. *Hum Path* 2000; 31: 374-379.

Author Information

D.A. Olusegun-Joseph

Consultant Physician/ Cardiologist, Lagos University Teaching Hospital

J.N.A. Ajuluchukwu

Associate Professor of Medicine/ Consultant Physician/ Cardiologist, University of Lagos

C.C. Okany

Associate Professor of Haematology/ Consultant Haematologist, University of Lagos

A. Mbakwem

Senior Lecturer/ Consultant Physician/ Cardiologist, University of Lagos

D.A. Oke.

Professor of Medicine/ Consultant Physician/ Cardiologist, University of Lagos