Congenital LQT Syndromes: From Gene to Torsade de Pointes

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Congenital Long QT syndrome (LQTs) is a relatively rare pathologic disorder but results frequently in sudden cardiac death. Of the six LQTs that have been clinically described, five have been worked out for their genetic and biophysical profile. Most are generated by mutations which cause a loss of function in two delayed K⁺currents, i_{Ks} and i_{Kr} . One syndrome is generated by mutations in the Na⁺ channel which causes essentially a gain of function in the channel. Clinically the syndromes are characterized by slowed repolarization of the cardiac ventricular action potential and the occurrence of typical arrhythmias with undulating peaks in the electrocardiogram, called Torsade de Pointes. Arrhythmias are initiated by early or delayed afterdepolarizations and continue as reentry. Triggers for cardiac events are exercise (swimming; LQT1), emotion (arousal; LQT2) and rest/sleep (LQT3). β -blockers have a high efficacy in the treatment of LQT1 and LQT2. In LQT3 their use is questionable. The study of congenital LQTsyndromes is a remarkable example of how basic and clinical science converge and take profit of each other's contribution.

Key Words: Arrhythmia, Congenital LQT, Delayed K $^+$ currents, Persistent Na $^+$ current, Torsade de pointes, β -block

INTRODUCTION

The first congenital Long QT syndrome (LQTs), later known as the Jervell, Lange-Nielsen syndrome, was described for an Norwegian family with 6 children and consisted of deaf-mutism, long QT interval in the electrocardiogram (ECG) and sudden death (Roden et al, 1995). The ECG of the parents was normal; 4 children were born deaf-mute, had an ECG with prolonged QT, frequent syncopes and in 3 cases these were lethal before the age of ten. Heredity is autosomal recessive. The second syndrome, known as Romano-Ward syndrome is also characterized by a long QT and sudden death but no deaf-mutism; heredity is autosomal dominant.

The lethal effects are caused by typical ventricular arrhythmias known as torsade de pointes arrhythmia (TdP). This arrhythmia, first described by Dessertenne (Dessertenne, 1966), a French cardiologist, has a very typical ECG signature. The ventricular complexes are polymorphous in nature and show characteristic undulating peaks, forming a torsade. In many cases the arrhythmia spontaneously stops with return to normal sinus rhythm. In some however, the situation worsens and the arrhythmia evolves into ventricular fibrillation and syncope.

Genetics and biophysical profile

Information on the genes and biophysical correlates is available for the different clinical syndromes with the exception of LQT4. In four LQT syndromes (LQT 1, 2, 5 and

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6), mutations are present in K^+ channels; in the LQT3 syndrome mutations are situated in the Na^+ channel.

The autosomal dominant Romano-Ward syndrome corresponds to mutations on 5 different genes (Schwartz et al, 1995). In four of these syndromes (LQT 1, 2, 5 and 6) mutations are present in K+ channels and affect two delayed $K^{\mbox{\tiny +}}$ currents, i_{Ks} and $i_{Kr},$ which play an important role in the repolarization process of the cardiac action potential. The K⁺ channel mutations for the i_{Ks} current affect the K_vLQT1 - or KCNQ1-gene (LQT1) and the MinKor KCNE1-gene (LQT5), for the i_{Kr} current the HERG- or KCNH2-gene (LQT2) and the MiRP1- or KCNE2-gene (LQT6) are mutated. Mutations in the K⁺ channels are usually, but not always, accompanied by a decrease of function caused by a variety of underlying mechanisms. A summary of the biophysical changes and corresponding mutations is given in Table 1 (the list of the mutations is not exhaustive). As major changes distinction is made between absence of function or change in function. Absence of function can be due to the presence of non-conducting channels in the plasma membrane or deficiency in the processing, i.e. retention of the proteins in the endoplasmic reticulum or less synthesis and increased proteolysis. A change in function is evident as changes in gating (activation, inactivation) or in permeation (fall in unitary current or shift in selectivity from K⁺ to Na⁺).

In the LQT3 syndrome mutations are present in the Na⁺ channel. In most cases the mutations result in an augmentation or gain of function, which is due to the existence of a late or persistent current (see (Balser, 2001) and Table 2). A typical example is a mutation in which the KPQ

ABBREVIATIONS: LQTs, long QT syndrome; ECG, electrocardiogram; TdP, torsade de pointes; EAD, early afterdepolarization; DAD, delayed afterdepolarization; APD, action potential duration.

Table 1. Biophysical changes in K+ channels induced by mutations (examples)

1. Absence of function		Gene mutation
Non-conducting channel protein in plasma membrane		KCNH2-G628S (1)
		KCNE1-T59P/L60P (2)
		KCNQ1-Y281C (3)
Abnormal channel processing	Retention in endoplasmic reticulum	KCNH2-A561V (4)
		KCNH2-R752W (5)
	•	KCNH2-Y611H (6)
	Less synthesis, increased proteolysis	KCNH2-A561V (7)
. Change in function		
Gating	Negative shift inactivation, causing more inward	KCNH2-T474I, -A614V,
	rectification	-V630L (8)
	Accelerated activation and deactivation	KCNH2-S818L (9)
	Positive shift activation and faster deactivation	KCNQ1-R555C (10)
	Induced inactivation	KCNQ1-L273F (11)
	Slow opening, fast deactivation	KCNE2- Q9E (12)
Permeation	Decrease in single channel conductance	KCNE1-S74L (13)
	Change in selectivity, increase in Na ⁺ permeability	KCNH2-N629D (14)
Blocking properties	Increased block by antibiotics	KCNE2-Q9E (15)

^{(1) (}Zhou et al, 1998), (2) (Huang et al, 2001), (3) (Bianchi et al, 2000), (4) (Ficker et al, 2000a), (5) (Ficker et al, 2000b), (6) (Zhou et al, 1998), (7) (Kagan et al, 2000), (8) (Nakajima et al, 1998), (9) (Nakajima et al, 2000), (10) (Chouabe et al, 1997), (11) (Seebohm et al, 2001), (12) (Abbott et al, 1999), (13) (Sesti & Goldstein, 1998), (14) (Lees-Miller et al, 2000), (15) (Abbott et al, 1999)

Table 2. Mutations in Na+ channel SCN5A and associated biophysical changes

Persistent current combined with accelerated rate of inactivation and of recovery Positive shift of inactivation leading to more window current Slow inactivation and slow recovery from inactivation leading to less current at elevated rates	ΔKPQ (1) L619F (2) 1795insD (3)
Decrease in fast Na^+ current during upstroke leads to increased Ca^{2+} influx and Ca^{2+} load at low rates, with stimulation of Na^+ , Ca^{2+} exchange current	D1790G (4)
Positive shift of window current due to positive shift of inactivation and activation	E1295K (5)
Increased sensitivity to lidocaine block to flecainide block to pilsicainide	R1623Q (6)

^{(1) (}Chandra et al, 1998), (2) (Wehrens et al, In preparation), (3) (Veldkamp et al, 2000), (4) (Wehrens et al, 2000), (5) (Abriel et al, 2001),

aminoacids in the linker between domain 3 and 4 of the channel protein are deleted. It is known that this linker plays an important role in the inactivation process. The cardiac Na⁺ current i_{Na} in these mice is characterized by the existence of a slowly inactivating component which persists during the plateau of the action potential; at the same time the fast component is largely increased. The action potential is prominently lengthened at slow rates and the slope of the QT-RR relation is increased. At the same time the tendency to develop early afterdepolarizations (EADs) is enhanced and spontaneous polymorphous arrhythmias resembling TdPs occur (Nuyens et al, 2001).

In the L619F mutation the persistent current is combined with a positive shift of steady state inactivation resulting in a broader voltage range of increased window current (Wehrens et al, In preparation). The QT interval is markedly prolonged and causes a functional 2:1 auriculoventricular block because of excessive prolongation of the action potential in the specialized conduction system. In the 1795insD mutation (Veldkamp et al, 2000) the persistent current is associated with slow recovery from inactivation. The combination of these two functional changes in current is of special importance. The persistent current is responsible for the long QT at low rates of stimulation but the

^{(6) (}Kambouris et al, 2000), (7) (Viswanathan et al, 2001), (8) (Nagatomo et al, 2000), (9) (Ono et al, 2000)

slow recovery causes fall in fast Na⁺ current at high rates, simulating the Brugada syndrome (Brugada & Brugada, 1902)

Not all mutations of the SCN5A generate persistent current. The mutation (D1790G) instead causes a reduction in fast Na⁺ current, due to a speeding-up of inactivation and a negative shift of the inactivation curve (An et al, 1998). And yet QT is prolonged. A theoretical study based on the Luo-Rudy model provides a possible explanation (Wehrens et al, 2000): the slower upstroke velocity and smaller overshoot of the action potential leads to a larger Ca²⁺ inward movement, extra Ca²⁺ load of the sarcoplasmic reticulum, a rise in the Ca2+ transient and an increase of the inward Na+, Ca2+ exchange current. At the same time the smaller depolarization also causes less IKs activation anf thus less outward current. The final effect is marked prolongation of the action potential duration (APD) especially at low rates. In another mutation (E1295K), both activation and inactivation are shifted in the positive direction (Abriel et al, 2001). As a consequence the window current, although not increased, occurs at more positive potentials. At these potentials the inward rectifier K^+ current, I_{K1} , and the delayed K^+ current, I_{Kr} , show stronger inward rectification and thus carry less outward current. The fall in outward current is responsible for the prolongation of the APD.

The autosomal recessive Jervell and Lange-Nielsen syndrome is generated by mutations on KCNQ1 or KCNE1 present in the two alleles with resultant loss of function of I_{Ks} current. The I_{Ks} current plays an important role not only in the heart but also in the inner ear (Casimiro et al, 2001; Vetter et al, 1996), in intestinal and renal epithelia and in zona glomerulosa cells of the adrenal cortex (Arrighi et al, 2001) (see section clinical and physiological phenotypes).

Genesis of arrhythmia: triggered activity and reentry

Distinction should be made between the initiation and

the continuation of an arrhythmia. As initiating stimulus for TdP arrhythmia, early afterdepolarizations (EADs) and delayed afterdepolarizations (DADs) play an important role. EADs usually are grafted on a slowed and prolonged repolarization. The slowed repolarization (long QT) is due to a fall in outward current or a rise in inward current (Kass & Davies, 1996; Shimizu & Antzelevitch, 1999). Prolongation of APD is especially pronounced at low rates or following a pause. The onset of TdP has been associated with bradycardia or pauses of sinus rhythm. When the rate of repolarization falls below a critical level, a secondary depolarization can ensue due to reactivation of the L-type Ca²⁺ current. When of sufficient amplitude the result is a propagated extrasystole. Experimental as well as modeling studies (Viswanathan & Rudy, 1999) have shown that pause-induced EADs develop preferentially in midmyocardial M cells. Abnormal slowing of the heart rate can be avoided by pacing with algorithms preventing pauses (Viskin, 2000) and is especially indicated in LQT3 patients who are particularly prone to develop TdP at rest or during sleep when the heart rate is low.

In contrast to EADs, which are pause-related, DADs are more probable when heart rate is high. As shown in table 3, TdP arrhythmia is frequently associated with exercise and stress, situations in which the sympathetic system is overactive. β-receptor stimulation leads to increased levels of intracellular Ca²⁺, indirectly via the enhanced heart rate and directly via activation of the L-type Ca²⁺ current. A higher intracellular Ca²⁺ load is accompanied by an enhanced propensity to generate DADs (Wu et al, 1999a; Wu et al, 1999b; Burashnikov & Antzelevitch, 2000).

The extra beat triggered by EAD or DAD excites cells in which excitability has sufficiently recovered. However this recovery is inhomogeneous, because of the existence of dispersion in the repolarization process. Dispersion is accompanied by a longer vulnerable period and a greater probability of unidirectional conduction, conditions favourable for reentry. In LQT3, dispersion is especially pro-

Table 3. Clinical phenotypes, triggers, sympathetic agonists and antagonists

	LQT1	LQT2	LQT3
Gene mutated	KCNQ1	KCNH2	SCN5A
Current affected	Loss of i_{Ks}	Loss of i_{Kr}	$Gain \ i_{Na}$
Events with (1)			
Exercise	62%	13%	13%
Emotion	26%	43%	19%
Sleep/rest	3%	29%	39%
Other	9%	15%	29%
Specific triggers	Swimming	Noise (arousal)	
β -Blockers (1,2) efficacy in patients	High	Medium	Questionable
In animal models (3,4,5)	Antiarrhythmic	Antiarrhythmic	Proarrhythmic
Isoproterenol (cellular and animal models)	Proarrhythmic: increased dispersion (4,5)	Proarrhythmic: transient increase of dispersion (5)	Antiarrhythmic (6): block of transient prolongation APD Proarrhythmic: EAD

Based on data published in (1) (Schwartz et al, 2001), (2) (Moss et al, 2000), (3) (Shimizu & Antzelevitch, 1999), (4) (Shimizu & Antzelevitch, 1998), (5) (Shimizu & Antzelevitch, 2000), (6) (Nuyens et al, 2001)

nounced when the action potential is abnormally lengthened at low rates (Viskin, 2000) but also occurs during rate acceleration. In a transgenic \triangle KPQ-LQT3 mouse model sudden acceleration is accompanied by transient prolongation of APD with EADs and induction of runs of extrasystoles and polymorphous arrhythmia (Nuyens et al, 2001). TdP-like arrhythmia was also induced in this model by extrasystolic or long-short-long pacing.

The typical torsade-type changes in the QRS axis during TdP has been attributed to the existence of a rather long reentry pathway. It is most of the time accompanied by T-wave alternans. According to a tridimensional analysis of the anthopleurin model (LQT3 model) the initial beat consistently arose as a subendocardial focal activity, whereas subsequent beats were due to reentrant excitation in the form of rotating scrolls (El-Sherif et al, 1997). In most cases the transition in QRS axis coincided with the transient bifurcation of a predominantly single rotating scroll into two simultaneous scrolls involving both the right and left ventricle separately. In 4 of 26 episodes a single circuit changed its location from beat to beat.

Clinical and physiological phenotypes

LQT1: The majority of the cardiac events (62%) (Schwartz et al, 2001) in LQT1 patients occurs during exercise, 26% during emotional stress and only 3% during rest or sleep. Swimming as a trigger is particularly frequent (33%). Most cardiac events occur during young age (60% before the age of 15 year). Elevation of the sympathetic tone seems to play an important role and β -blocker therapy is efficient (Schwartz et al, 2001). Intravenous injection of epinephrine markedly prolongs the QT interval in LQT1 patients (Noda et al, 2001). In animal and cellular models dispersion is sensibly increased in the presence of isoproterenol, the effect being due to prolongation of the action potential in midmyocardial cells while shortening occurs in subepicardial and subendocardial cells. The disparate effects on subepicardial cells and midmyocardial cells cause increased dispersion and enhanced probability of unidirectional conduction (Shimizu & Antzelevitch, 1998; Shimizu & Antzelevitch, 2000). An explanation can be found in the fact that sympathetic stimulation stimulates i_{Ks} and thus exerts a shortening effect on the action potential duration. This last effect however, only occurs when i_{Ks} is sufficiently present. When i_{Ks} is less expressed (as in LQT1 and LQT5), the repolarization reserve will be much less, especially in midmyocardial cells.

In these cells then, instead of the shortening by increased i_{Ks} , a stimulatory effect on the the L-type Ca^{2^+} current causes prolongation of the action potential.

The association of deafness in the Jervell, Lange-Nielsen syndrome has found an explanation in the fact that the i_{Ks} current in the stria vascularis plays an important role in the formation of the endolymph in the middle ear (Table 4). Studies on transgenic mice with knockout for the *KCNE1*

(Vetter et al, 1996) or *KCNQ1* (Casimiro et al, 2001), have shown deficient production of endolymph, a solution which normally contains an elevated K⁺ concentration. In these mice, auditory cells undergo a secondary degeneration caused by the absence of the secretion of endolymph, resulting in deafness.

Recent findings in this mouse model have shown (Arrighi et al, 2001) that KCNE1-deficient mice have also lower K⁺ plasma concentration, which can be considered an arrhythmogenic compounding factor. Aldosterone levels are increased and probably the main reason for the hypokalemia by promoting K⁺ secretion in the kidney and intestine. The high aldosterone levels are the consequence of activation of the renin-angiotensin axis. In the zona glomerulosa cells of the adrenal cortex, excessive aldosterone production is normally prohibited by activation of I_{Ks} current. This protective mechanism is absent in the mice, lacking the KCNE1 peptide.

LQT2: In LQT2 patients most of the cardiac events (43%) occur during emotional stress, with 26% elicited by auditory stimuli, 13% during exercise (Schwartz et al, 2001). Intravenous injection of epinephrine causes a transient prolongation of the QT interval (Noda et al, 2001). Also in animal cellular models, in which i_{Kr} is blocked by E-4031 or dofetilide, isoproterenol transiently prolongs the action potential (Priori et al, 1996) and increases dispersion (Shimizu & Antzelevitch, 2000). An elevated sympathetic tone is thus proarrhythmic in the LQT2 syndrome. It should be noted however that 29% of the cardiac events also occur during rest/sleep.

LQT3: LQT3 syndrome is rare but the severity of cardiac events is greater than in the other syndromes: death occurs in 20% of the first event in contrast to only 4% in the other syndromes. LQT3 complications also occur later in life (less than 10% at the age of 15 year). The syncopes occur for 39% of the genotypic patients during the night or at rest (Schwartz et al, 2001) when cardiac frequency is very low. QT interval lengthening is then most pronounced (Stramba-Badiale et al, 2000). Excessive prolongation of the action potential is accompanied by an increased probability to develop EADs, responsible for the initiation of the arrhythmia. Pacing to avoid abnormal prolongation of APD is therefore a useful therapeutic intervention. An increase in rate causes acceleration of the repolarization process which is more pronounced in LQT3 patients (Schwartz et al, 1995) and in LQT3 cellular models (Priori et al, 1996) than in LQT2.

It should be stressed that a non-negligible fraction of cardiac events in the LQT3 occurs during exercise (13%) or emotion (19%) (Ali et al, 2000; Schwartz et al, 2001), situations in which sympathetic tone and heart rate may be expected to increase. The question thus raises to what extent the higher probability of arrhythmias under these conditions is due to the enhanced sympathetic tone or to the rate as such. In vitro experiments on heterozygotic mice preparations with \triangle KPQ mutation have shown that sudden

Table 4. Multiple organs affected in the Jervell, Lange-Nielsen LQTs (KCNQ1 and KCNE1)

Cardiac cells	Inner ear	Intestine and kidney	Adrenal cortex
Fall in i _{Ks} current LQT and TdP arrhythmia	Deafness, insufficient K^+ secretion in stria vascularis	Loss of K ⁺ , enhanced Na ⁺ absorption	Increased production of aldosterone

acceleration of the rate causes a transient lengthening of the action potential. This paradoxical lengthening is frequently accompanied by EADs and generation of TdP arrhythmias. When the rate is increased in the presence of isoproterenol however, the transient lengthening and the EADs are prevented. A further indication that isoproterenol exerts antiarrhythmic activity in this model was shown by the higher maximum following frequency and the low efficiency of long-short-long pacing in eliciting reentry arrhythmia. From these observations it can be concluded that an increase in sympathetic drive which results in an enhanced sinus rate alone without neurosecretion at the ventricular level should be considered dangerous. Such situation occurs when activity of the right stellate ganglion dominates the activity of the left stellate ganglion. The sinus node is selectively innervated by postganglionic nerves of the right stellate ganglion while most of the ventricular myocardium is governed by the left stellate ganglion (Ben-David & Zipes 1988; Fujiki et al, 1999).

A note on therapy

 β -blockers are the mainstay therapy for LQT1 and LQT2 patients. This is reasonable since most of the arrhythmias in these patients (Schwartz et al, 2001) occur in the presence of sympathetic overdrive: emotion and exercise together account for 88% of the cardiac events in LQT1 and for 56% in LQT2. Consistent with this observation β -receptor stimulation has been shown to cause prolongation of APD and enhanced dispersion in cellular models of LQT1 and LQT2 (Priori et al, 1996; Shimizu & Antzelevitch, 2000), and should be considered arrhythmogenic.

For LQT3 patients however the usefulness of β -receptor blocker therapy has been questioned (Moss et al, 2000). During rest or sleep, when most cardiac events occur, β -receptor antagonism may further slow heart rate and promote arrhythmias. At elevated heart rates on the other hand, β -receptor agonism (isoproterenol) exerts antiarrhythmic activity in the Δ KPQ transgenic mouse model (Nuyens et al, 2001). In LQT3 patients (Noda et al, 2001) and in LQT3 cellular models (Priori et al, 1996; Shimizu & Antzelevitch, 2000) β -receptor stimulation antagonizes LQT and causes shortening of the APD, independent of the rate. In a cellular model of LQT3 propranolol on the other hand has been shown to facilitate the occurrence of arrhythmias (Shimizu & Antzelevitch, 1999).

The use of β -blockers in the therapy of LQT3 thus remains questionable and other therapeutic interventions should be considered, such as defibrillators, pacemakers and Na⁺ channel blockers. It has been known for a long time that the late or persistent Na⁺ current is very sensitive to Na⁺ channel block by tetrodotoxin (Coraboeuf et al, 1979). Mutations in the Na⁺ channel are accompanied by important changes in the sensitivity to drugs. The late (persistent) Na+ current of the LQT3 mutant channel (△KPQ) for instance is more sensitive to flecainide (Nagatomo et al, 2000) and pilsicainide (Ono et al, 2000) block than the peak Na⁺ current (normal and mutant channel). In patients with a D1790G mutation, flecainide was highly effective while lidocaine was not (Benhorin et al, 2000). In another LQT3 mutant (R1623Q) however, an unusual high sensitivity to inactivated state block by lidocaine has been demonstrated. These changes in sensitivity should be taken into account when planning drug therapy.

CONCLUSION

The study of congenital LQT syndromes is a remarkable example of how basic and clinical science converge and take profit of the each other's contribution. This type of research has not only helped clinicians to direct more carefully their therapy but has importantly facilitated the understanding of how ionic channels function and how they are modulated. The results have amplified our knowledge in basic and applied electrophysiology. The impact is not restricted to the congenital LQT syndrome but implies also acquired forms of LQT, hypertrophy and heart failure. It is hoped that this knowledge may improve therapy based on a more efficient modulation of ionic channels or even by directly interfering with their genetic expression.

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