ard ratio, 6.9; 95%CI, 1.1–133.5) (**Figure 4A**). In addition, the T-wave amplitude in lead V_1 was associated with a significant (P=0.013) difference in the life-threatening event-free rate between patients (n=16) with an amplitude $<-105\mu V$ and those (n=15) with an amplitude $\geq-105\mu V$ (hazard ratio, not available [because of the lack of events in patients with a T-wave amplitude in lead V_1 $\geq-105\mu V$]) (**Figure 3B**). Because none of the patients in the no-diagnosis group had a life-threatening event, multivariate survival analysis could not be performed.

Discussion

To utilize the convenience of the 12-lead ECG, a spontaneous type 1 Brugada ECG was used to enroll patients in this study. By conducting a computer-processed analysis, the discriminative ECG features of patients diagnosed with BS (diagnosis group), compared with patients not diagnosed with BS (no-diagnosis group), were found. First, atrial conduction was delayed in patients diagnosed with BS as compared with the no-diagnosis group. Second, the T-wave in lead V_1 was more negative in patients diagnosed with BS. Third, the duration of the QRS-complex in the right precordial leads did not show a significant difference between the diagnosed and undiagnosed patients. In addition, the amplitude of the R'-wave, J-point, and STM in the right precordial leads did not show a significant difference between the diagnosed and undiagnosed patients. These ECG findings are novel for differentiating patients at risk of developing life-threatening arrhythmia among patients who show a spontaneous type 1 Brugada ECG. Moreover, the risk-stratification schemes elaborated in this study revealed the patients who needed an ICD.

Risk Determinants

In BS, the transient outward current (I_{to})-mediated phase 1 is much more prominent in the epicardium than in the endocardium, leading to ST-segment elevation in the right precordial leads.[11] However, our data from the present study showed there was no significant difference in either the J-point amplitude or the ST-segment amplitude in the right precordial leads between patients diagnosed or not diagnosed with BS. There are several reasons for this: (1) we enrolled patients with a J-point amplitude ≥2 mm and coved-type ST-segment elevation, (2) the ST-segment elevation could be due to ion channel abnormalities such as a reduction of sodium and calcium currents, and (3) a clinically veiled histological abnormality may affect ventricular repolarization. In contrast to the amplitude of the J-point and the ST segment, the T-wave in lead V_1 was more negative in patients diagnosed with BS than in the undiagnosed patients. This finding is compatible with the inward calcium current overcoming the outward I_{to} during phases 1 and 2, causing a secondary depolarization in the epicardial action potential. Besides, the balance of the 2 ionic currents reverses as the I_{to} current overwhelms the calcium current, resulting in a loss of the action potential dome and an abbreviation of the action potential duration that lead to phase 2 reentry.[13] Consistent with these fundamental mechanisms, Nagase et al[14] demonstrated that prolongation of the epicardial action potential following I_{to}-mediated accentuation of the action potential in the right ventricular outflow tract caused the T-wave in the right precordial leads to become negative, coinciding with a type 1 Brugada ECG. In addition, dynamic instability depicted by the restitution property of the action potential duration in the right ventricular outflow tract may contribute to the occurrence of reentry.[15]

Though the patients diagnosed with BS did not show significant intraventricular conduction delay in the right ventricle, which was different from a previous report,[16] the atrial conduction delay was more pronounced in the diagnosed patients than in the undiagnosed patients. It has been reported that there is an increased atrial vulnerability to fibrillation in BS.[17,18] In those reports, the inter- and intra-atrial conduction delays were associated with atrial fibrillation. In the present study, the PQ interval was longer in the diagnosis group than in the no-diagnosis group, but the QRS-complex duration did not differ between the 2 groups. These findings suggest that a conduction disturbance occurred in the atrium and/or the atrioventricular node rather than in the ventricle. In fact, atrial fibrillation occurred only in 1 patient of each group during the follow-up. We should therefore pay close attention to examining whether atrial fibrillation develops. Furthermore, a P-wave abnormality[19] and a high prevalence of sick sinus syndrome[20] complicated by BS indicate atrial involvement.

Long-Term Prognosis

Brugada et al showed that symptomatic and asymptomatic patients with ST-segment elevation in the right precordial leads shared a similar incidence of cardiac arrest.[21] Other investigators[6,7] also reported that asymptomatic patients with such an ECG characteristic were at risk for sudden death, although the event-free survival rate in those studies was much lower than that of patients in the "Brugada" registry.[13] In contrast, sudden death did not occur in any of patients of the no-diagnosis group and asymptomatic group in our study. This result may be related to not involving family members of proband in the study.

Similar to previous reports,[6,7] we found that most patients of the diagnosis group suffered from ventricular tachyarrhythmia or syncope of unknown origin and approximately one-third patients of the diagnosis group had a recurrence of ventricular tachyarrhythmia. In contrast, none of patients not diagnosed with BS (no-diagnosis group) had sudden death or ventricular tachyarrhythmia. Thus, we emphasize again the importance of medical history-taking: syncope and family history of sudden death.

Study Limitations

First, the ST-segment elevation is not constantly observed in BS patients, because of the so-called "wax and wane" phenomenon, therefore patients with an ST-segment elevation <0.2 mV at the J-point were missed even if they had BS. Second, because of the limited follow-up, it cannot be assumed that asymptomatic patients did not develop SCD. Third, the response bias of the questionnaire should be considered. We must pay further attention to assessing the long-term prognosis in asymptomatic patients with a spontaneous type 1 Brugada ECG.

Study Implications

Despite the fact that a spontaneous type 1 Brugada ECG is diagnostic, the discriminative ECG features associated with a risk for SCD remain undetermined. From the results of the present study, we propose the PQ interval and negative T wave in lead V_1 as valuable ECG markers of BS. In addition, we underscore that medical information, including the family history, is helpful in the management of patients with a spontaneous type 1 Brugada ECG. It may be possible to deduce

the ECG features presented here to locate subjects in wide populations, such as health examinations, who are at risk.

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Disclosures

No conflicts to disclose.

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Supplemental Files

Supplemental File 1

Figure S1. 12-lead ECG of a 49-year-old man who was diagnosed with Brugada syndrome.

Figure S2. 12-lead ECG of a 55-year-old man who was undiagnosed with Brugada syndrome.

Table S1. Comparison of ECG Variables Between Patients With and Without ICD Intervention in the BS Diagnosis Group

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QTc prolongation and antipsychotic medications in a sample of 1017 patients with schizophrenia

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ABSTRACT

Many antipsychotic drugs cause QT prolongation, although the effect differs based on the particular drug. We sought to determine the potential for antipsychotic drugs to prolong the QTc interval (>470 ms in men and >480 ms in women) using the Bazett formula in a "real-world" setting by analyzing the electrocardiograms of 1017 patients suffering from schizophrenia. Using logistic regression analysis to calculate the adjusted relative risk (RR), we found that chlorpromazine (RR for 100 mg = 1.37, 95% confidence interval (CI) = 1.14 to 1.64; $p<.005$), intravenous haloperidol (RR for 2 mg = 1.29, 95% CI = 1.18 to 1.43; $p<.001$), and sultopride (RR for 200 mg = 1.45, 95% CI = 1.28 to 1.63; $p<.001$) were associated with an increased risk of QTc prolongation. Levomepromazine also significantly lengthened the QTc interval. The second-generation antipsychotic drugs (i.e., olanzapine, quetiapine, risperidone, and zotepine), mood stabilizers, benzodiazepines, and antiparkinsonian drugs did not prolong the QTc interval. Our results suggest that second-generation antipsychotic drugs are generally less likely than first-generation antipsychotic drugs to produce QTc interval prolongation, which may be of use in clinical decision making concerning the choice of antipsychotic medication.

1. Introduction

QTc interval prolongation is associated with presyncope, syncope, polymorphic ventricular tachycardia, the subtype torsade de pointes, and sudden cardiac death (Faber et al., 1994). Previous studies have indicated an increased risk of sudden cardiac death in patients treated with antipsychotics (Hennessy et al., 2002; Ray et al., 2001; Straus et al., 2004). A retrospective cohort study of 481,744 Tennessee Medicaid enrollees, of whom 1487 died from sudden cardiac death, found that current moderate-dose antipsychotic use (>100 mg of thioridazine equivalents) increased the rate of sudden cardiac death (multivariate risk ratio of 2.39), when compared with the nonuse of antipsychotics (Ray et al., 2001). A cohort study of three U.S. medical programs found that patients with treated schizophrenia had higher rates of cardiac arrest and ventricular arrhythmia than did controls (patients with glaucoma and those with psoriasis), with risk ratios ranging from 1.7 to 3.2 (Hennessy et al., 2002). A study of 554 sudden cardiac death subjects reported that the current use of antipsychotics was associated with a three-fold increased risk of cardiac death (Straus et al., 2004).

Although torsade de pointes and sudden death are rare, rate-corrected QT (QTc) prolongation serves as a risk factor for these conditions. In a study of 495 psychiatric patients receiving various psychotropic drugs and 101 healthy reference individuals, 8% of patients showed QTc prolongation (>456 ms) (Reilly et al., 2000). Advanced age (>65 years), as well as the use of tricyclic antidepressants, thioridazine, and droperidol were indicated as robust predictors of QTc lengthening (Reilly et al., 2000). High antipsychotic doses were also associated with QTc prolongation (Reilly et al., 2000). In a sample of 111 psychiatric inpatients receiving a median daily dose of more than 600 mg [chlorpromazine (CP) equivalent] of antipsychotics, 90% had schizophrenia or related psychoses, and 23% showed QTc interval of >420 ms, whereas only 2% of unmedicated controls did (Warner et al., 1996). However, there is little clinical data to aid in assessing the

Abbreviations: QTc, rate-corrected QT; 95% CI, 95% confidence interval; HPD, haloperidol; HPDiv, intravenous injection of haloperidol; RR, relative risk; ECG, electrocardiogram; SGAs, second-generation antipsychotics; FGAs, first-generation antipsychotics; DSM-IV, Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 4th ed.; CP, chlorpromazine; LP, levomepromazine; OR, odds ratio.

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risk of QTc prolongation for an individual antipsychotic in a dose-dependent manner, particularly for second-generation antipsychotics (SGAs). Some case reports have indicated that SGAs can induce QTc prolongation (Dineen et al., 2003; Vieweg, 2003). However, such anecdotal reports do not provide clear evidence of whether SGAs increase the risk of QTc prolongation, as in first-generation antipsychotics (FGAs), in a real-world setting. This study examined the risk of QTc prolongation of antipsychotic drugs in a large clinical sample from Japan. Japan is known to use higher doses of antipsychotics (Bitter et al., 2003), providing a unique opportunity to investigate the risk of QTc prolongation in a wide range of antipsychotic doses.

2. Methods

2.1. Patients

Clinical information, including data on QTc intervals, was collected from inpatients with schizophrenia who were diagnosed according to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 4th ed. (DSM-IV) in four independent hospitals. Approval from the ethics committee of each hospital was obtained. Data collection on all inpatients with schizophrenia was begun on the following dates in three psychiatric hospitals Biwako Hospital, Toyosato Hospital, and Minakuchi Hospital: February 2, 2007; February 3, 2007; and July 29, 2007, respectively. In the fourth hospital, the National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry Hospital, clinical records were collected for all patients who were admitted to its psychiatric wards between 1998 and 2007. A total of 1065 inpatients were included from the four hospitals, and all of them underwent ECG screening. Among them, 37 patients were excluded due to hypokalemia (serum potassium <3.5 mEq/L), which can induce QTc interval prolongation (Elming et al., 2003; Taylor, 2003). Two were excluded because of hypothyroidism, and nine because of cardiac disease (four patients with right bundle branch block, two with post-acute myocardial infarction, one with WPW syndrome, one with atrial–ventricular block, and one who underwent surgery for atrial septal defect). The remaining 1017 patients had a mean age of 42.6 years (S.D., 18.2) and were included in the analysis.

2.2. Procedure

A standard 12-lead ECG was recorded at 25 mm/s. Because the QTc interval is influenced by heart rate, it was corrected by Bazett's formula (QTc: $QTc = QT/RR^{1/2}$) (Bazett, 1920). An ECG recording showing the longest QTc interval was selected for each patient whose ECG was recorded two or more times. The QTc was measured automatically by a program on the ECG apparatus (MAC 5500 with 12SL algorithm by GE health care [Amersham Place, Little Chalfont, Buckinghamshire, UK]). For patients with a QTc > 430 ms, QTc and RR intervals were measured manually for the chest lead with the maximal T-wave amplitude, according to Charbit et al. (2006). The end of the T-wave was determined as the intersection between the tangent to the steepest downslope of the T-wave and the isoelectric line. QTc prolongation was defined as a QTc length of more than 470 ms in males and more than 480 ms in females, as 99% of "healthy" people can be excluded by this cut-off value (Taggart et al., 2007). One of the coauthors (M.H.), a cardiologist who specializes in arrhythmias, trained the authors on how to evaluate an ECG recording. Information on drugs administered within 24 h of the ECG recording was obtained. Table 1 shows the distribution of drugs that were administered in more than 3% of the patients and the prevalence of QTc prolongation for each medication. One hundred forty-two patients were drug free when the ECG was recorded, because they were given the test at admission before they had taken any drugs. Two hundred sixty-five patients were on monotherapy. Doses of antipsychotics, antiparkinsonian drugs, and benzodiazepines were converted into those of CP, biperiden, and diazepam equivalents, respectively (Inagaki and Inada, 2006). Subjects who were coadministered medical drugs (i.e., non psychotropic drugs) with an increased risk of producing torsade de pointes were excluded (Chan et al., 2007).

Table 1
Medication and rate of QTc prolongation in 1017 patients. Drugs which were administrated to more than 3% of patients are shown.

Administrated drugs	No. of Patients $n = 1017$ (100%)	Mean dose (SD), mg	No. of patients (%) with QTc prolongation (male: >470 ms, female >480 ms)
Equivalent dose			
CP eq.	875 (86)	963.0 (879.0)	23 (2.6)
Diazepam eq.	672 (66)	14.6 (14.6)	18 (2.7)
Biperiden eq.	645 (63)	3.8 (2.2)	19 (2.9)
Mood stabilizer			
CBZ	74 (7)	478.9 (201.8)	3 (4.1)
VPA	54 (5)	650.0 (334.1)	1 (1.9)
Lithium	47 (5)	587.2 (199.6)	4 (8.5)
Antipsychotics			
HPD	375 (37)	15.9 (12.6)	16 (4.3)
CP	299 (29)	190.5 (198.7)	9 (3.0)
LP	258 (25)	91.9 (94.5)	14 (5.4)
Risperidone	248 (24)	5.6 (3.7)	4 (1.6)
Zotepine	116 (11)	179.9 (124.9)	3 (2.6)
Olanzapine	104 (10)	15.6 (6.4)	0 (0.0)
Quetiapine	60 (6)	375.5 (258.5)	0 (0.0)
Bromperidol	49 (5)	10.7 (8.6)	0 (0.0)
Sultopride	49 (5)	1032.9 (810.2)	10 (20.4)
HPD iv	47 (5)	16.0 (10.5)	8 (17.0)

Abbreviations: eq = equivalent; HPD = haloperidol, CP = chlorpromazine; LP = levomepromazine, CBZ = carbamazepine, VPA = sodium valproate; No. = Number, SD = standard deviation.

2.3. Statistical analyses

First, logistic regression analysis was applied to examine risk factors for QTc prolongation. Age, sex, antipsychotic dose (CP equivalent), benzodiazepine dose (diazepam equivalent), and antiparkinsonian drug dose (biperiden equivalent) were included in the backward stepwise regression model. In the second analysis, age, sex, and individual antipsychotic doses were entered as independent variables in the logistic regression analysis. Then, the adjusted relative risks of important explanatory variables were calculated via the backward stepwise regression analysis. Drugs that were administrated in more than 3% of the patients were analyzed.

Linear regression analysis was used to determine which antipsychotics lengthened the QTc interval in a dose-dependent manner, as the antipsychotic dose was entered as a continuous variable. Then, the adjusted coefficients were calculated using the stepwise selection model. Age, sex, and individual antipsychotic doses were entered as independent variables.

The χ^2 test was used to examine the risk-increasing effect of excessive use of antipsychotics (cut-off points of 1000 or 1500 mg/day of CP equivalent). All statistical analyses were performed using the SPSS, version 13.0 (SPSS Japan, Inc., Tokyo, Japan). All p-values reported are two tailed. Statistical significance was considered when p-value was less than 0.05.

3. Results

The prevalence of QTc prolongation (>470 ms in male and >480 ms in female) was 2.5% (male: 3.7%; female: 1.0%). Logistic regression analysis showed that the antipsychotic dose was a significant risk factor for QTc prolongation (Table 2), whereas antiparkinsonian drugs, benzodiazepines, and mood stabilizers were not risk factors for QTc prolongation. Administration of antipsychotic doses greater than 1000 and 1500 mg/day of CP equivalent was found

Table 2
Result of logistic regression analysis on the risk of QTc prolongation for standardized doses.

	Unadjusted relative risk (95% CI)	Adjusted relative risk (95% CI)
Age	0.97 (0.94–0.99)	
Sex (risk of female)	0.33 (0.12–0.95)	
CP eq. (100 mg)	1.08 (1.05–1.12)*	1.07 (1.04–1.10)*
Diazepam eq. (1 mg)	1.01 (0.98–1.04)	
Biperiden eq. (1 mg)	0.87 (0.72–1.06)	
CBZ (100 mg)	1.00 (1.00–1.00)	
VPA (100 mg)	1.00 (0.99–1.00)	
Lithium (100 mg)	1.00 (1.00–1.01)	
	The Hosmer–Lemeshow Goodness-of-Fit Test $x^2 = 4.77$ df = 8 $p = 0.85$	The Hosmer–Lemeshow Goodness-of-Fit Test $x^2 = 5.15$ df = 8 $p = 0.74$

*$p < 0.001$.
Abbreviations: eq = equivalent, CP = chlorpromazine, CBZ = carbamazepine; VPA = sodium valproate, CI = confidence interval.

to increase the risk of QTc prolongation 1.97 fold (95% CI, 1.48–2.59, $p < 0.001$) and 2.76 fold (95% CI, 1.80–4.18, $p < 0.001$), respectively, when compared to their counterparts. On examination of individual antipsychotics, haloperidol intravenous injection (HPDiv), CP, and sultopride were found to increase the risk of QTc prolongation (Table 3).

In the stepwise selection model of the multiple linear regression analysis, CP, HPDiv, levomepromazine (LP), and sultopride were found to lengthen the QTc interval. Age was also indicated as a risk factor for QTc lengthening. Adjusted coefficients for CP, HPDiv, LP, sultopride, and sex are shown in Table 4. Adding 100 mg of LP, for example, extended the QTc interval by 4.65 ms. Bromperidol, olanzapine, quetiapine, risperidone, and zotepine had no significant lengthening effect on the QTc interval.

Table 3
Result of logistic regression analysis on the risk of QTc prolongation for each antipsychotic drug.

	Unadjusted relative risk (95%CI)	Adjusted relative risk (95%CI)
Age	0.99 (0.96–1.03)	
Sex (risk of female)	0.38 (1.26–1.16)	
HPD (2 mg)	0.99 (0.92–1.06)	
CP (100 mg)	1.37 (1.13–1.67)*	1.37 (1.14–1.64)*
LP (100 mg)	1.55 (0.92–2.61)	
Risperidone (1 mg)	1.01 (0.84–1.12)	
Zotepine (66 mg)	0.91 (0.62–1.34)	
Olanzapine (2.5 mg)	0.00 (0.00 to >100)	
Quetiapine (66 mg)	0.00 (0.00 to >100)	
Bromperidol (2 mg)	0.00 (0.00 to >100)	
Sultopride (200 mg)	1.40 (1.23–1.60)**	1.45 (1.28–1.63)**
HPD iv (2 mg)	1.26 (1.13–1.40)**	1.29 (1.18–1.43)**
	The Hosmer–Lemeshow Goodness-of-Fit Test $x^2 = 5.04$ df = 8 $p = 0.75$	The Hosmer–Lemeshow Goodness-of-Fit Test $x^2 = 17.81$ df = 8 $p = 0.013$

*$p < 0.005$.
**$p < 0.001$.
Abbreviations: HPD = haloperidol, CP = chlorpromazine, LP = levomepromazine, iv = intravenous injection, CI = confidence interval.

4. Discussion

In a large clinical sample, we confirmed that a daily dose of antipsychotics (CP equivalents) was associated with a dose-dependent increased risk of QTc prolongation; however, the use of antiparkinsonian drugs, benzodiazepines, and mood stabilizers did not significantly increase this risk. With regard to individual antipsychotics, CP, HPDiv, and sultopride were shown to significantly increase the risk of QTc prolongation. CP, HPDiv, LP, and sultopride were found to significantly lengthen the QTc interval, whereas HPD, bromperidol, olanzapine, quetiapine, risperidone, and zotepine were not.

Our observation that a daily dose of antipsychotics was associated with a risk of QTc prolongation is consistent with previous studies (Reilly et al., 2000; Warner et al., 1996). In our sample, antipsychotic doses of more than 1000 and 1500 mg/day of CP equivalents were found to increase the risk of QTc prolongation by approximately 2.0 and 3.0 fold, respectively, when compared to their counterparts. Reilly et al. also reported that a high dose (1000 to 2000 mg/day) and a very high dose (>2000 mg/day) predicted QTc prolongation [odds ratio (OR), 5.3 and 8.2, respectively] (Reilly et al., 2000). Warner et al. reported an OR of 4.3 for doses higher than 2000 mg/day (Warner et al., 1996). In contrast to antipsychotics, mood stabilizers showed no significant risk-increasing effect. This is consistent with a previous finding, which showed that lithium or carbamazepine did not significantly increase the risk of QTc prolongation (Reilly et al., 2000). However, a recent study suggested that lithium increases the QTc interval significantly (18.6 ms; 95% CI, 4.8–32.4 ms) (van Noord et al., 2009). Furthermore, lithium is known to cause T-wave changes (Mitchell and Mackenzie, 1982; Reilly et al., 2000) that may lead to torsade de pointes when combined with a QTc-lengthening antipsychotic (Liberatore and Robinson, 1984). Thus, the use of lithium requires careful ECG monitoring. With respect to valproate, our study may be the first to investigate the risk of QTc prolongation for this drug in a clinical setting. With regard to coadministered benzodiazepine and antiparkinsonian drugs, our results suggest no significant effect on QTc prolongation. Although some patients taking diazepam and biperiden equivalent showed QTc interval prolongation (Table 1), the results of logistic regression analysis showed no significant risk-increasing effect of these drugs (Table 2). Therefore, these patients were also taking chlorpromazine equivalent and it was the chlorpromazine equivalent that explained the QTc interval prolongation. Indeed, to our knowledge, there has been no study reporting that these drugs cause QTc prolongation or torsade de pointes.

With respect to individual antipsychotics, previous studies have reported that thioridazine, intravenous droperidol, sertindole, and ziprasidone are associated with a strong risk-increasing effect on QTc prolongation (Czekalla et al., 2001a; Harrigan et al., 2004; Taylor,

Table 4
QTc prolongation effect of each antipsychotic by linear regression model.

	Forced entry model	Stepwise selection model
	Coefficient (95% CI)	Coefficient (95% CI)
Age	0.19 (0.10–0.28)*	0.20 (0.11–0.29)*
Sex (risk of female)	3.22 (−0.01–6.44)	
HPD (2 mg)	0.42 (0.09–0.76)	
CP (100 mg)	3.91 (2.69–5.13)*	3.82 (2.62–5.02)*
LP (100 mg)	4.87 (2.14–7.60)*	4.65 (1.94–7.37)*
Risperidone (1 mg)	0.07 (−0.47–0.61)	
Zotepine (66 mg)	−0.36 (−1.91–1.20)	
Olanzapine (2.5 mg)	0.30 (−0.47–1.08)	
Quetiapine (66 mg)	0.11 (−0.87–1.09)	
Bromperidol (2 mg)	0.08 (−1.00–1.16)	
Sultopride (200 mg)	3.65 (2.48–4.82)*	3.56 (2.41–4.72)*
HPD iv (2 mg)	3.16 (2.36–3.96)*	3.13 (2.34–3.93)*

*$p < 0.001$.
Abbreviations: HPD = haloperidol, CP = chlorpromazine, LP = levomepromazine; iv = intravenous injection, CI = confidence interval.

2003). In Japan, commercial use of thioridazine ended in 2005; intravenous droperidol has not been used in psychiatric treatment; and sertindole and ziprasidone have not been introduced. Thus, we could not confirm the effect of these drugs. However, our results provide robust evidence that HPDiv increases the risk of QTc prolongation. This concurs with Hatta et al. who compared the differences in QTc length among psychiatric emergency patients who received intravenous flunitrazepam alone and those who received intravenous flunitrazepam and haloperidol and found that the latter group showed significantly longer QTc intervals than the former (Hatta et al., 2001). Vieweg et al. (2009) reviewed the literature and identified cases of patients aged ≥60 years who developed QTc interval prolongation, polymorphic ventricular tachycardia/torsade de pointes and/or sudden cardiac death while taking antipsychotic or antidepressant drugs or a combination of these medications. Among such cases, most frequently reported medication was HPDiv (14 out of 37 cases). These findings and ours support the recent alert of the U.S. Food and Drug Administration warning that HPDiv increases the risk of QTc prolongation and torsade de pointes based on at least 28 cases reported in the literature (U.S. Food and Drug Administration Cfdear, 2007). Oral HPD, in contrast, was found to have no statistically significant risk-increasing effect on QTc prolongation, although it had a significant QTc-lengthening effect. Previous findings have suggested that oral HPD at low or moderate doses had no clear effect on QTc, but that it is associated with QTc prolongation and torsade de pointes at higher clinical doses (>20 mg/day) (Czekalla et al., 2001a; Taylor, 2003). Taken together, excessively high blood levels of the drug after an intravenous injection or oral intake of high doses may be critical for the effect of HPD. Regarding bromperidol (oral use only), a chemically similar butyrophenone to HPD, we obtained no evidence for its effect on QTc prolongation or lengthening. To our knowledge, this is the first study to examine bromperidol for such effects. Further studies are warranted to confirm our results. With respect to CP, we detected significant effects on both QTc prolongation and QTc lengthening, which is consistent with previous findings, suggesting an intermediate effect of CP on QTc (i.e., a weaker effect than that of thioridazine, but stronger than oral HPD) (Czekalla et al., 2001a; Mehtonen et al., 1991; Witchel et al., 2003), although there have been some reports of no significant risk-increasing effect of CP (Reilly et al., 2000; Strachan et al., 2004). LP, another phenothiazine, was also found to lengthen the QTc interval in the multiple regression analysis. In the logistic regression, statistical significance was nearly achieved ($p=0.06$, Table 3). These results suggest that LP is likely to increase the risk of QTc prolongation. Although there have been little data on LP in relation to QTc in the literature, an association between sudden death and the use of phenothiazines is prominent, and LP might have been involved in such deaths (Mehtonen et al., 1991). Finally, sultopride, a benzamide derivative, was found to significantly increase the risk of QTc prolongation and QTc lengthening. To our knowledge, this is the first time that such evidence has been obtained for sultopride. Further studies are warranted to confirm our results.

Our results provide no evidence for the possible risk-increasing effect of the examined SGAs (olanzapine, quetiapine, risperidone, and zotepine) on QTc prolongation. Recently, Ray et al. (2009) reported that atypical antipsychotics double the risk of sudden cardiac death when compared with nonusers of antipsychotic drugs, a finding that contradicts our data. However, SGAs can induce weight gain, insulin resistance, and dyslipidemia (Tschoner et al., 2009), all of which are risk factors for ischemic heart diseases. Therefore, the increased sudden death observed by Ray et al. (2009) could be attributable to the increased risk of ischemic heart diseases rather than torsade de pointes due to QTc prolongation. The Pfizer 054 study (2000) reported that SGAs, such as risperidone, quetiapine, ziprasidone, and olanzapine, induced QTc interval prolongation. In the review of Czekalla et al. (2001a), it was suggested that risperidone and quetiapine could lengthen the QTc interval, although the effect observed was smaller than that of thioridazine and chlorpromazine. Olanzapine, in particular, was reported to have little effect on the QTc-interval length (Czekalla et al., 2001b). Dineen et al. (2003) reported the case of a patient who was treated with olanzapine and showed an abnormal QTc interval. Vieweg (2003) reviewed the literature and found nine cases in which QTc prolongation was associated with SGA administration (four cases of risperidone [one case was his original case], three cases of quetiapine, and two cases of ziprasidone). Taken together, although our results suggest that the SGAs (olanzapine, quetiapine, risperidone, and zotepine) are less likely to produce QTc interval prolongation than the FGAs examined herein, the SGAs can also cause QTc prolongation. Thus, further investigations with a more refined methodology are warranted. In particular, the current group-derived formula for correcting QT interval measurements to a heart rate of 60 beats per/min (QTc) are unsatisfactory (Malik, 2001), and, as pointed out by Vieweg (2003), determining the effect of drug-induced change amid the noise of random variation (regression to the mean) will require a new technology.

Female gender is known to be a risk factor for QTc prolongation (Taylor, 2003; Vieweg et al., 2009). However, we failed to detect female gender as a significant risk factor in our sample. Moreover, QTc prolongation was found more commonly in male patients than in female patients. One reason for these results was that the antipsychotic dose was substantially lower in female patients than in male patients (mean CP equivalent dose: 841 vs. 1066 mg/day; frequency of >1500 mg/day: 13.9% vs. 20.8%). In addition, because some previous studies in psychotic patients did not detect the gender difference (Chong et al., 2003; Hatta et al., 2000), such populations may have other factors that attenuate the gender difference.

There are several limitations to the study. First, we did not include medications other than psychotropic drugs in the analysis; however, the subjects included in the analysis were not coadministered other medical drugs that increased the risk for torsade de pointes (Chan et al., 2007). We also excluded patients suffering from cardiac diseases. Furthermore, psychotropic drugs that were administrated to 3% or fewer of the patients in the sample were not included in the analysis. The fact that nearly all patients received multiple drugs and a substantial proportion of participants (69%) were treated with antipsychotic polypharmacy may have made it difficult to obtain a clear result for each drug. However, there is great value in assessing the increased risk of QTc prolongation in such a practical setting. Our participants were all inpatients, and therefore individuals with severe symptomatology and those patients on high doses of antipsychotics were likely to be overrepresented. A recent study reported the possibility that an acute psychotic state itself may be a risk factor for QTc prolongation (Bar et al., 2007). Severe symptomatology might have biased the results toward an increased prevalence of the QTc interval in our subjects.

To screen QTc interval, we used an automated program, which may be fraught with errors. However, Charbit et al. (2006), for example, reported that patients with automatic QTc of <430 ms were at very low risk of having a prolonged QT interval where their definition of prolonged QTc interval was >450 ms in women and >440 ms in men. We measured QTc interval manually for patients with an automated QTc of >430 ms, although our definition of QTc prolongation was >480 ms in women and >470 ms in men. Thus, it was unlikely that we missed patients with QTc prolongation in our study. Furthermore, the reliability of the measurement algorithm of the ECG equipment (MAC 5500 with 12SL algorithm by GE health care [Amersham Place, Little Chalfont, Buckinghamshire, UK]) that we used was reported to be high. The data obtained by this algorithm was within 10 ms of the manual measurement in 95.9% of ECGs and within 15 ms in 99.3% of ECGs (Hnatkova et al., 2006). Thus, the possible effect of the use of the automated program is likely minimal. Another limitation might be that we used the chest lead with the maximal T-wave amplitude because clear T-wave leads are needed for precise

manual measurement. However, Bazett generally used limb lead II to determine his formula.

Despite these limitations, we obtained robust evidence among a large clinical sample in a real-world setting that suggested that a daily dose of antipsychotics is associated with a dose-dependent increased risk of QTc prolongation, whereas that of antiparkinsonian drugs, benzodiazepines, and mood stabilizers is not. With regard to individual antipsychotics, our results suggest that FGAs, such as HPDiv, CP, LP, and sultopride, have a risk-increasing effect on QTc prolongation and that SGAs, such as olanzapine, quetiapine, risperidone, and zotepine, are less likely to produce QTc prolongation than the FGAs. Such information may aid in clinical decision making concerning the choice of antipsychotic medication, particularly in patients who have an increased risk for arrhythmias.

5. Conclusions

We confirmed the statistical effect of chlorpromazine, levomepromazine, and HPDiv on QTc prolongation in a sample of 1017 patients with schizophrenia. Furthermore, statistical evidence for sultopride was obtained for the first time. Furthermore, in the range of the antipsychotic drugs that we examined, the data suggest that SGAs are less likely to produce QTc prolongation than FGAs, which may be useful in guiding the choice of antipsychotic drugs.

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KCNE2 modulation of Kv4.3 current and its potential role in fatal rhythm disorders

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BACKGROUND The transient outward current I_{to} is of critical importance in regulating myocardial electrical properties during the very early phase of the action potential. The auxiliary β subunit *KCNE2* recently was shown to modulate I_{to}.

OBJECTIVE The purpose of this study was to examine the contributions of *KCNE2* and its two published variants (M54T, I57T) to I_{to}.

METHODS The functional interaction between Kv4.3 (α subunit of human I_{to}) and wild-type (WT), M54T, and I57T *KCNE2*, expressed in a heterologous cell line, was studied using patch-clamp techniques.

RESULTS Compared to expression of Kv4.3 alone, co-expression of WT *KCNE2* significantly reduced peak current density, slowed the rate of inactivation, and caused a positive shift of voltage dependence of steady-state inactivation curve. These modifications rendered Kv4.3 channels more similar to native cardiac I_{to}. Both M54T and I57T variants significantly increased I_{to} current density and slowed the inactivation rate compared with WT *KCNE2*. Moreover, both variants accelerated the recovery from inactivation.

CONCLUSION The study results suggest that *KCNE2* plays a critical role in the normal function of the native I_{to} channel complex in human heart and that M54T and I57T variants lead to a gain of function of I_{to}, which may contribute to generating potential arrhythmogeneity and pathogenesis for inherited fatal rhythm disorders.

KEYWORDS Cardiac arrhythmia; M54T variation; I57T variation; *KCNE2*; Kv4.3; Sudden cardiac death

ABBREVIATIONS CHO = Chinese hamster ovary; **HERG** = human ether-a-go-go related gene; **WT** = wild type

Introduction

Classic voltage-gated K^+ channels consist of four pore-forming (α) subunits that contain the voltage sensor and ion selectivity filter[1,2] and accessory regulating (β) subunits.[3] *KCNE* family genes encode several kinds of β subunits consisting of single transmembrane-domain peptides that co-assemble with α subunits to modulate ion selectivity, gating kinetics, second messenger regulation, and the pharmacology of K^+ channels. Association of the *KCNE1* product minK with the α subunit Kv7.1 encoding *KCNQ1* forms the slowly activating delayed rectifier K^+ current I_{Ks} in the heart.[4,5] In contrast, association of the *KCNE2* product MiRP1 with the human ether-a-go-go related gene (HERG) forms the cardiac rapid delayed rectifier K^+ current I_{Kr}.[6]

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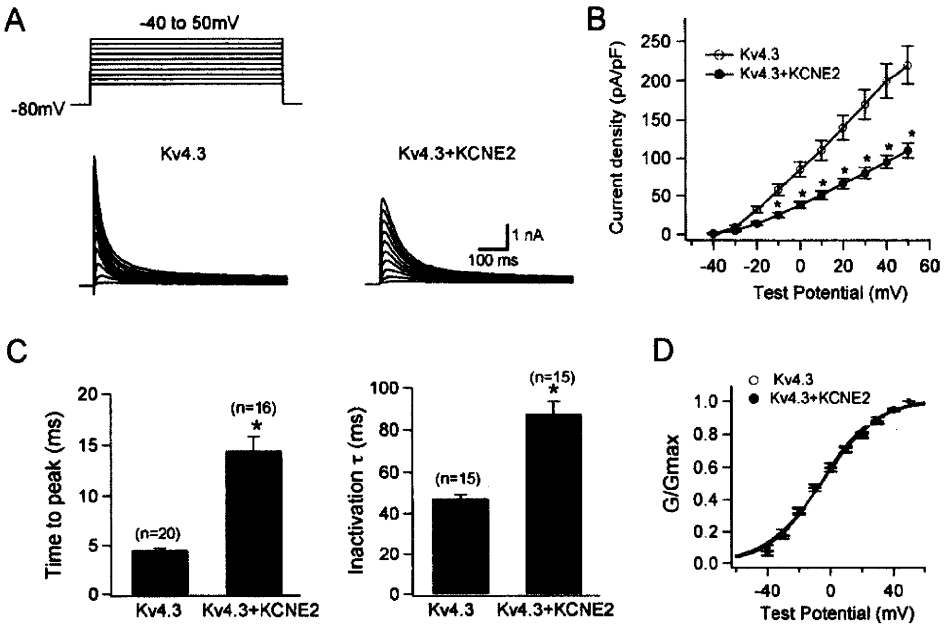

Figure 1 *KCNE2* co-expression with Kv4.3 produces smaller I_{to}-like currents with slower activation/inactivation kinetics. **A:** Representative current traces recorded from Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cells expressing Kv4.3 **(left)** and Kv4.3 + *KCNE2* **(right).** As shown in the **inset** in panel A, depolarizing step pulses of 1-second duration were introduced from a holding potential of −80 mV to potentials ranging from −40 to +50 mV in 10-mV increments. **B:** Current–voltage relationship curve showing peak current densities in the absence and presence of co-transfected *KCNE2* (*P <.05 vs Kv4.3). **C:** Bar graphs showing the kinetic properties of reconstituted channel currents: time to peak of activation course **(left)** and inactivation time constants **(right)** measured using test potential to +20 mV (*P <.05 vs Kv4.3). Numbers in parentheses indicate numbers of experiments. **D:** Normalized conductance–voltage relationship for peak outward current of Kv4.3 and Kv4.3 + *KCNE2* channels.

Abbott et al reported that three *KCNE2* variants (Q9E, M54T, I57T) caused a loss of function in I_{Kr} and thereby were associated with the congenital or drug-induced long QT syndrome.[6,7] However, the reported QTc values in two index patients with M54T and I57T variants, both located in the transmembrane segment of MiRP1, were only mildly prolonged (390–500 ms and 470 ms).[6] We recently identified the same missense *KCNE2* variant, I57T, in which isoleucine was replaced by threonine at codon 57, in three unrelated probands showing a Brugada type 1 ECG. These findings are difficult to explain on the basis of a loss of function in I_{Kr}, thus leading us to explore other mechanisms.

Recent studies have demonstrated that interaction between α and β subunits (*KCNE*s) of voltage-gated K^+ channel is more promiscuous; for example, MiRP1 has been shown to interact with Kv7.1,[8–10] HCN1,[11] Kv2.1,[12] and Kv4.2.[13] These studies suggest that MiRP1 may also co-associate with Kv4.3 and contribute to the function of transient outward current (I_{to}) channels.[14] Indeed, a recent study reported that I_{to} is diminished in *kcne2* (–/–) mice.[15]

In the human heart, I_{to} currents are of critical importance in regulating myocardial electrical properties during the very early phase of the action potential and are thought to be central to the pathogenesis of Brugada-type ECG manifestations.[16] Antzelevitch et al demonstrated that a gain of function in I_{to} secondary to a mutation in *KCNE3* contributes to a Brugada phenotype by interacting with Kv4.3 and thereby promoting arrhythmogenicity.[14]

We hypothesized that mutations in *KCNE2* may have similar actions and characterize the functional consequences of interaction of wild-type (WT) and two mutant (I57T, M54T) MiRP1 with Kv4.3[17,18] using heterologous co-expression of these α and β subunits in Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cells.

Methods

Heterologous expression of hKv4.3 and β subunits in CHO cells

Full-length cDNA fragment of *KCNE2* in pCR3.1 vector[10] was subcloned into pIRES-CD8 vector. This expression vector is useful in cell selection for later electrophysiologic study (see below). Two *KCNE2* mutants (M54T, I57T) were constructed using a Quick Change II XL site-directed mutagenesis kit according to the manufacturer's instructions (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA, USA) and subcloned to the same vector. Two *KCNE2* mutants were fully sequenced (ABI3100x, Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) to ensure fidelity. Full-length cDNA encoding the short isoform of human Kv4.3 subcloned into the pIRES-GFP (Clontech, Palo Alto, CA, USA) expression vector was kindly provided by Dr. G.F. Tomaselli (Johns Hopkins University). Full-length cDNA encoding Kv channel-interacting protein (*KCNIP2*) subcloned into the PCMV-IRS expression vector was a kind gift from Dr. G.-N. Tseng (Virginia Commonwealth University). *KCND3* was transiently transfected into CHO cells together with *KCNE2* (or M54T or I57T) cDNA at equimolar ratio (*KCND3* 1.5 μg,

Table 1 Effects of *KCNE2* on Kv4.3 and Kv4.3 + KChIP2b

Parameter	Kv4.3	Kv4.3 *KCNE2*	Kv4.3 KChIP2b	Kv4.3 KChIP2b *KCNE2*
Current density at +20 mV (pA/pF)	142.0 ± 16.0 (n = 12)	66.0 ± 6.6* (n = 12)	191.5 ± 33.8 (n = 15)	77.8 ± 5.9† (n = 20)
Steady-state activation ($V_{0.5}$ in mV)	−6.5 ± 2.1 (n = 9)	−5.5 ± 1.7 (n = 11)	−7.5 ± 1.7 (n = 8)	−7.4 ± 1.4 (n = 8)
Steady-state inactivation ($V_{0.5}$ in mV)	−46.0 ± 1.3 (n = 10)	−40.8 ± 1.7* (n = 8)	−49.8 ± 1.4 (n = 7)	−44.5 ± 1.9† (n = 7)
τ of inactivation at +20 mV (τ_{inact} in ms)	47.3 ± 2.0 (n = 15)	87.2 ± 6.2* (n = 15)	47.5 ± 2.2 (n = 15)	66.6 ± 3.5† (n = 15)
Time to peak at +50 mV (TtP in ms)	4.5 ± 0.2 (n = 20)	14.4 ± 1.4* (n = 16)	4.1 ± 0.2 (n = 15)	6.1 ± 0.5† (n = 21)
τ of recovery from inactivation (ms)	419.6 ± 18.8 (n = 6)	485.6 ± 74.8 (n = 6)	89.2 ± 5.3 (n = 6)	60.2 ± 6.9† (n = 6)

*Significantly different from Kv4.3.
†Significantly different from Kv4.3 + KChIP2b.

KCNE2 1.5 μg) using Lipofectamine (Invitrogen Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. In one set of experiments, we also co-transfected equimolar levels of KChIP2b (*KCND3* 1.5 μg, *KCNE2* 1.5 μg, *KCNIP2* 1.5 μg). The transfected cells were then cultured in Ham's F-12 medium (Nakalai Tesque, Inc., Kyoto, Japan) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (JRH Biosciences, Inc., Lenexa, KS, USA) and antibiotics (100 international units per milliliter penicillin and 100 μg/mL streptomycin) in a humidified incubator gassed with 5% CO_2 and 95% air at 37°C. The cultures were passaged every 4 to 5 days using a brief trypsin-EDTA treatment. The trypsin-EDTA treated cells were seeded onto glass coverslips in a Petri dish for later patch-clamp experiments.

Electrophysiologic recordings and data analysis

After 48 hours of transfection, a coverslip with cells was transferred to a 0.5-mL bath chamber at 25°C on an inverted microscope stage and perfused at 1 to 2 mL/min with extracellular solution containing the following (in mM): 140 NaCl, 5.4 KCl, 1.8 $CaCl_2$, 0.5 $MgCl_2$, 0.33 NaH_2PO_4, 5.5 glucose, and 5.0 HEPES; pH 7.4 with NaOH. Cells that emitted green fluorescence were chosen for patch-clamp experiments. If co-expressed with *KCNE2* (or its mutants), the cells were incubated with polystyrene microbeads precoated with anti-CD8 antibody (Dynabeads M450, Dynal, Norway) for 15 minutes. In these cases, cells that emitted green fluorescence and had attached beads were chosen for electrophysiologic recording. Whole-cell membrane currents were recorded with an EPC-8 patch-clamp amplifier (HEKA, Lambrecht, Germany), and data were low-pass filtered at 1 kHz, acquired at 5 kHz through an LIH-1600 analog-to-digital converter (HEKA), and stored on hard disk using PulseFit software (HEKA). Patch pipettes were fabricated from borosilicate glass capillaries (Narishige, Tokyo, Japan) using a horizontal microelectrode puller (P-97, Sutter Instruments, Novato, CA, USA) and the pipette tips fire-polished using a microforge. Patch pipettes had a resistance of 2.5 to 5.0 MΩ when filled with the following pipette solution (in mM): 70 potassium aspartate, 50 KCl, 10 KH_2PO_4, 1 $MgSO_4$, 3 Na_2-ATP (Sigma, Japan, Tokyo), 0.1 Li_2-GTP (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Mannheim, Germany), 5 EGTA, and 5 HEPES (pH 7.2).

Cell membrane capacitance (C_m) was calculated from 5 mV-hyperpolarizing and depolarizing steps (20 ms) applied from a holding potential of −80 mV according to Equation 1[19]:

$$C_m = \tau_c I_0 / \Delta V_m (1 - I_\infty / I_0), \quad (1)$$

where τ_c = time constant of capacitance current relaxation, I_0 = initial peak current amplitude, ΔV_m = amplitude of voltage step, and I_∞ = steady-state current value. Whole-cell currents were elicited by a family of depolarizing voltage steps from a holding potential of −80 mV. The difference between the peak current amplitude and the current at the end of a test pulse (1-second duration) was referred to as the transient outward current. To control for cell size variability, currents were expressed as densities (pA/pF).

Steady-state activation curves were obtained by plotting the normalized conductance as a function of peak outward potentials. Steady-state inactivation curves were generated by a standard two-pulse protocol with a conditioning pulse of 500-ms duration and obtained by plotting the normalized current as a function of the test potential. Steady-state inactivation/activation kinetics were fitted to the following Boltzmann equation (Eq. 2):

$$Y(V) = 1/(1 + \exp[(V_{1/2} - V)/k]), \quad (2)$$

where Y = normalized conductance or current, $V_{1/2}$ = potential for half-maximal inactivation or activation, respectively, and k = slope factor.

Data relative to inactivation time constants, time to peak, and mean current levels were obtained by using current data recorded at +50 mV or +20 mV. Recovery from inactivation was assessed by a standard paired-pulse protocol: a 400-ms test pulse to +50 mV (P1) followed by a variable

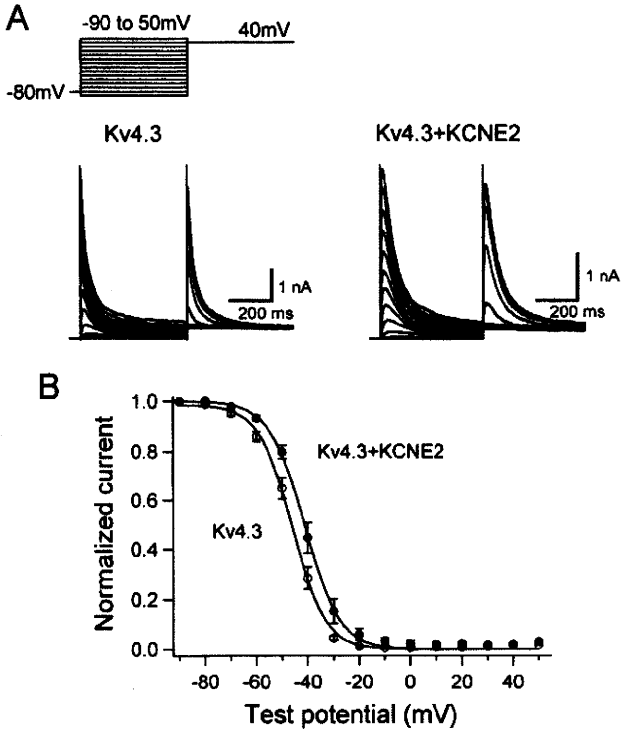

Figure 2 *KCNE2* co-expression with Kv4.3 causes a positive shift of voltage dependence of steady-state inactivation. **A:** Representative Kv4.3 and Kv4.3 + *KCNE2* current traces induced by 500-ms pulses (P1) from −90 to +50 mV applied from the holding potential −80 mV in 10-mV steps followed by a second pulse (P2) to +40 mV. **B:** Steady-state inactivation curves for Kv4.3 *(open circles)* and Kv4.3 + *KCNE2 (closed circles)* channels.

recovery interval at −80 mV and then a second test pulse to +50 mV (P2). Both the inactivation time constants and the time constant for recovery from inactivation were determined by fitting the data to a single exponential (Eq. 3):

$$I(t) \text{ (or P2/P1)} = A + B_{exp}(-t/\tau), \quad (3)$$

where I(t) = current amplitude at time t, A and B = constants, and τ = inactivation time constant or time constant for recovery from inactivation. For measurement of recovery from inactivation, the plot of P2/P1 instead of I(t) was used.

All data were given as mean ± SEM. Statistical comparisons between two groups were analyzed using Student's unpaired t-test. Comparisons among multiple groups were analyzed using analysis of variance followed by Dunnett test. $P < .05$ was considered significant.

Results

Effects of *KCNE2* on Kv4.3 currents and its gating kinetics

WT *KCNE2* initially was co-expressed with *KCND3*, the gene encoding Kv4.3, the α subunit of the I_{to} channel,[17,18] in CHO cells. Figure 1A shows representative whole-cell current traces recorded from cells transfected with *KCND3* and co-transfected with (right) or without (left) *KCNE2*. Cells expressing Kv4.3 channels alone showed rapidly activating and inactivating currents. Co-expression of *KCNE2* significantly reduced peak current densities as summarized in the current–voltage relationship curve shown in Figure 1B and slowed both activation and inactivation kinetics (Table 1). Figure 1C (left) shows mean time intervals from the onset of the pulse to maximum current (time to peak), whereas the right panel shows time constants of inactivation (at +20 mV) obtained using Equation 3. Thus, co-transfection of *KCNE2* significantly increased both the time to peak and the time constant.

In contrast, *KCNE2* did not affect the voltage dependence of steady-state activation as assessed by plotting the normalized conductance as a function of test potential (Figure 1D). Fitting to the Boltzmann equation (Eq. 2) yielded half-maximal activation potentials of −6.5 ± 2.1 mV for Kv4.3 alone (open circles) and −5.5 ± 1.7 mV for Kv4.3 + *KCNE2* channels (filled circles, P = NS; Table 1). These findings are consistent with those previously reported for studies using *Xenopus* oocytes, CHO cells, and HEK293 cells.[20,21]

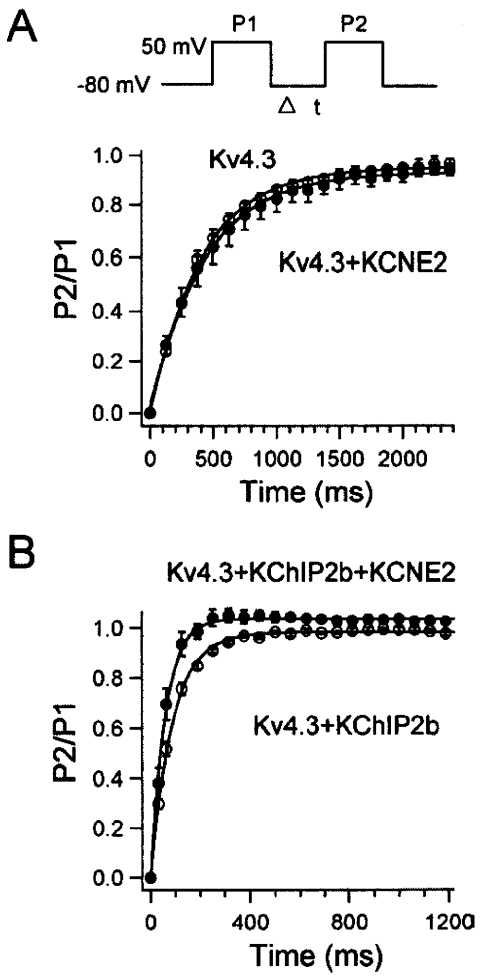

Figure 3 Effects of *KCNE2* co-expression on recovery from inactivation of Kv4.3 **(A)** and Kv4.3 + KChIP2b **(B)** currents. Recovery from inactivation was assessed by a two-pulse protocol **(A, inset):** a 400-ms test pulse to +50 mV (P1) followed by a variable interval at −80 mV, then by a second test pulse to +50 mV (P2). Data were fit to a single exponential.

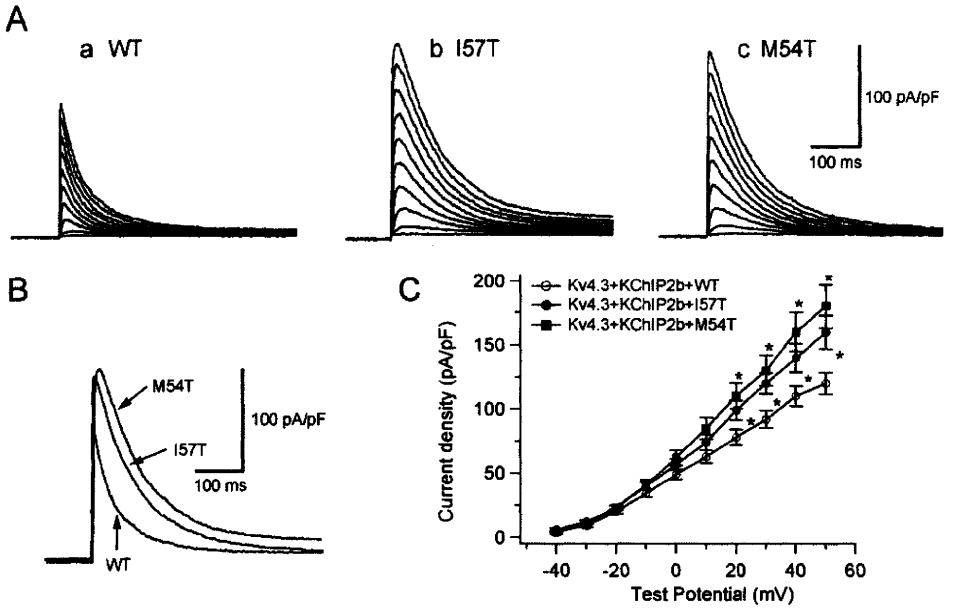

Figure 4 Two *KCNE2* transmembrane variants, I57T and M54T, increase the reconstituted Kv4.3 + KChIP2b channel current and slow its inactivation. **A:** Three sets of current traces elicited by depolarizing pulses for 500 ms from a holding potential of −80 mV to potentials ranging between −40 and +50 mV in 10-mV increments (same protocol as in experiments of Figure 1A). **B:** Superimposition of three original current traces recorded upon depolarization showing variant-related increase in peak outward current density. **C:** Current–voltage relationship curve showing average peak outward current densities (*P <.05 vs Kv4.3 + KChIP2b + WT). WT = wild type.

KCNE2 co-expression also caused a positive shift (approximately +5 mV) of voltage dependence of steady-state inactivation. Steady-state inactivation was assessed using a double-step pulse method (Figure 2A, inset). Peak outward currents recorded at various levels of prepulse (Figure 2A) were normalized by that measured after a 500-ms prepulse at −90 mV and are plotted as a function of prepulse test potentials (Figure 2B). Half-inactivation potentials of steady-state inactivation, determined by fitting data to the Boltzmann equation (Eq. 2), were −46.0 ± 1.3 mV for Kv4.3 (open circles) and −40.8 ± 1.7 mV for Kv4.3 + *KCNE2* (filled circles, P <.01), consistent with the observation of Tseng's group.[13]

A double-pulse protocol (Figure 3A, inset) was used to test the effect of *KCNE2* co-expression on the time course for recovery from inactivation. Figure 3A shows the time course of recovery of Kv4.3 alone (open circles) and Kv4.3 + *KCNE2* (filled circles). Mean time constants for recovery from inactivation were not significantly different, indicating that co-transfection of *KCNE2* did not affect the time course of recovery from inactivation.

Effects of *KCNE2* on Kv4.3 + KChIP2b current and its gating kinetics

For human native cardiac I_{to}, KChIP2 has been shown to serve as a principal β subunit.[22–25] Accordingly, in another series of experiments, we examined the effect of WT and mutant *KCNE2* on Kv4.3 + KChIP2b current. Consistent with previous reports, in the presence of KChIP2, Kv4.3 currents showed a significantly faster recovery from inactivation (Figure 3B and Table 1).[26,27] Co-expression of WT *KCNE2* produced similar changes on Kv4.3 + KChIP2b current as on Kv4.3 current (Table 1). Kv4.3 + KChIP2b current recovery from inactivation was further accelerated: average time constant was 89.2 ± 6.5 ms for Kv4.3 + KChIP2b alone (open circles) and 60.2 ± 8.4 ms for Kv4.3 + KChIP2b + *KCNE2* (filled circles, P <.05). In 16 of 21 cells transfected with *KCNE2*, we observed an "overshoot" phenomenon, which is commonly seen during recording of native I_{to} in human ventricular myocytes.[28]

KCNE2 variants increase Kv4.3 + KChIP2b current and alter its gating kinetics

The I57T variant was first identified in an asymptomatic middle-aged woman with very mild QT prolongation.[6] In addition to this variant, the authors reported another *KCNE2* variant of the transmembrane segment (M54T) that was associated with ventricular fibrillation during exercise in a middle-aged woman. This patient appeared to show a wide range of QTc interval (390–500 ms). Therefore, we tested the functional effects of these two transmembrane *KCNE2* variants on Kv4.3 + KChIP2b currents.

The three panels of Figure 4A show three sets of current traces elicited by depolarizing pulses from a holding potential of −80 mV in cells co-transfected with WT (a), I57T (b), or M54T (c) *KCNE2*. Neither variant caused a significant shift of half-maximal activation voltage: −7.4 ± 1.4 mV (n = 8) for co-expression of WT *KCNE2*, −6.1 ± 1.5 mV (n = 8) for I57T, and −6.6 ± 1.6 mV (n = 8) for M54T. Both variants significantly increased I_{to} density: 125.0 ± 10.6 pA/pF in WT *KCNE2* (n = 21), 178.1 ± 12.1 pA/pF with I57T (n = 9), and 184.3 ± 27.9 pA/pF with M54T (n = 9, Figure 4C).

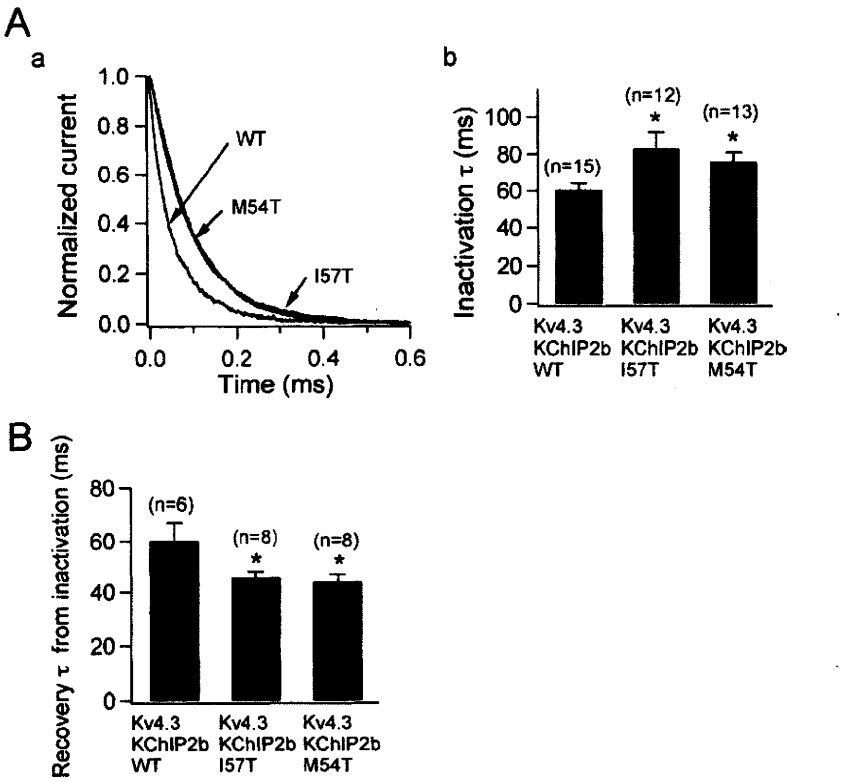

Figure 5 Two *KCNE2* variants slow inactivation kinetics and accelerate recovery from inactivation. **A, a:** Three current traces obtained from Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cells transfected with wild-type (WT), I57T, and M54T *KCNE2* variant co-expressed with Kv4.3 and KChIP2b. Traces, which are normalized and superimposed, show that the variants slow inactivation. **A, b:** Time constants of decay at +20 mV for WT and variant *KCNE2* (*P <.05 vs Kv4.3 + KChIP2b + WT). Numbers in parentheses indicate numbers of observations. **B:** Time constants of recovery from inactivation recorded using a double-pulse protocol (*P <.05 vs Kv4.3 + KChIP2b + WT). Numbers in parentheses indicate numbers of observations.

Figure 5A shows the three traces depicted in Figure 4B normalized to their peak current level. This representation shows that the time course of inactivation of the two variant currents is slowed. The current decay was fitted by Equation 3 and the time constants (at +20 mV) summarized in Figure 5A, panel b. Finally, Figure 5B shows that the time constants of recovery of the two mutant channels from inactivation were significantly reduced. Thus, compared to WT *KCNE2*, recovery of reconstituted Kv4.3 + KChIP2b channels from inactivation was significantly accelerated with both I57T and M54T mutants.

Discussion

Kv4.3/KChIP2/MiRP1 complex can recapitulate the native I_{to}

In the present study, co-expression of WT *KCNE2* produced changes in kinetic properties (Figures 1–3 and Table 1) that led to close recapitulation of native cardiac I_{to}.[28,29] Notably, in addition to causing a positive shift of steady-state inactivation (Figure 2), *KCNE2* co-expression hastened the recovery of Kv4.3 + KChIP2b channels from inactivation (Figure 3). These modifications rendered Kv4.3 + KChIP2b channels more similar to native cardiac I_{to}, suggesting that *KCNE2* may be an important component of the native I_{to} channel complex. In contrast to a previous observation in HEK293 cells,[21] *KCNE2* co-expression decreased the current density of Kv4.3 and Kv4.3 + KChIP2b channel current in the present study, which seems to be a more reasonable result as the native I_{to} density reportedly was smaller in isolated human heart.[28] *KCNE2* co-expression has also been shown to reduce the density of Kv7.1[8,9] and HERG[6,7] channels.

Similar to the result of Deschenes and Tomaselli,[21] we failed to observe an overshoot during recovery from inactivation when *KCNE2* was co-expressed with Kv4.3 (Figure 3A), which is in contrast to the report of another group.[13] However, co-expression of *KCNE2* with Kv4.3 + KChIP2 channels produced an overshoot (Figure 3B), consistent with the report of Wettwer's group.[25] Wettwer et al also found that other *KCNE* subunits either were ineffective or induced only a small overshoot in CHO cells. Therefore, both MiRP1 and KChIP2 subunits are sufficient and necessary to recapitulate native I_{to} in the heart. Considering that the overshoot phenomenon has been described only in human ventricular I_{to} channels of the epicardial but not endocardial region,[28] these results may further implicate participation of MiRP1 and KChIP2 in the I_{to} channel complex in epicardium.

KCNE2 variants may alter the arrhythmogenic substrate by modulating I_{to}

Heterologous expression in CHO cells was conducted to examine the functional effects of I57T and M54T variants on Kv4.3 + KChIP2 channels. Both I57T and M54T

KCNE2 variants significantly (1) increased peak transient outward current density (Figure 4), (2) slowed the decay of the reconstituted I_{to} (Figure 5A), and (3) accelerated its recovery from inactivation (Figure 5B). Both variants thus caused an important gain of function in human I_{to}. These sequence changes may play a role in modulating I_{to} and thereby predispose to some inherited fatal rhythm disorders.

Functional effects on I_{to} induced by I57T and M54T resemble each other, increasing I_{to} density and accelerating its recovery from inactivation. The gain of function in I_{to} opposes the fast inward Na^+ currents during phase 0 of the action potential, leading to all or none repolarization at the end of phase 1 and loss of the epicardial action potential dome, thus promoting phase 2 reentry and fatal ventricular arrhythmias.[30]

Another *KCNE2* variant (M54T) associated with fatal arrhythmias was first identified in a woman who had a history of ventricular fibrillation and varied QT intervals.[6] It is possible that her arrhythmia was also related to a gain of function in I_{to} secondary to this variation in *KCNE2*. Interestingly, the I57T variant has been reported to produce a loss of function of HERG or Kv7.1 channels, thereby predisposing to long QT syndrome,[6,8] indicating that the same *KCNE2* variant could cause two different cardiac rhythm disorders, similar to long QT syndrome and Brugada syndrome caused by *SCN5A* mutations.[31,32]

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Clinical Characteristics and Genetic Background of Congenital Long-QT Syndrome Diagnosed in Fetal, Neonatal, and Infantile Life

A Nationwide Questionnaire Survey in Japan

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Background—Data on the clinical presentation and genotype-phenotype correlation of patients with congenital long-QT syndrome (LQTS) diagnosed at perinatal through infantile period are limited. A nationwide survey was conducted to characterize how LQTS detected during those periods is different from that in childhood or adolescence.

Methods and Results—Using questionnaires, 58 cases were registered from 33 institutions. Diagnosis (or suspicion) of LQTS was made during fetal life (n=18), the neonatal period (n=31, 18 of them at 0 to 2 days of life), and beyond the neonatal period (n=9). Clinical presentation of LQTS included sinus bradycardia (n=37), ventricular tachycardia/torsades de pointes (n=27), atrioventricular block (n=23), family history of LQTS (n=21), sudden cardiac death/aborted cardiac arrest (n=14), convulsion (n=5), syncope (n=5), and others. Genetic testing was available in 41 (71%) cases, and the genotype was confirmed in 29 (71%) cases, consisting of LQT1 (n=11), LQT2 (n=11), LQT3 (n=6), and LQT8 (n=1). Ventricular tachycardia/torsades de pointes and atrioventricular block were almost exclusively observed in patients with LQT2, LQT3, and LQT8, as well as in those with no known mutation. In LQT1 patients, clues to diagnosis were mostly sinus bradycardia or family history of LQTS. Sudden cardiac death/aborted cardiac arrest (n=14) was noted in 4 cases with no known mutations as well as in 4 genotyped cases, although the remaining 6 did not undergo genotyping. Their subsequent clinical course after aborted cardiac arrest was favorable with administration of β-blockers and mexiletine and with pacemaker implantation/implantable cardioverter-defibrillator.

Conclusions—Patients with LQTS who showed life-threatening arrhythmias at perinatal periods were mostly those with LQT2, LQT3, or no known mutations. Independent of the genotype, aggressive intervention resulted in effective suppression of arrhythmias, with only 7 deaths recorded. (***Circ Arrhythm Electrophysiol.* 2010;3:10-17.)**

Key Words: arrhythmia ■ long-QT syndrome ■ genes ■ death (sudden)

Congenital long-QT syndrome (LQTS) is an inherited disorder characterized by polymorphic ventricular tachycardia (VT), or torsades de pointes (TdP), syncope, and sudden cardiac death.[1] LQTS is often diagnosed in children from school age to young adulthood[2] and sometimes during fetal, neonatal, and infantile life.[3–5] Previous case reports

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Table 1. Questionnaire Items

1. Patient: Serial No. in each institution, initials, birth year, and month, sex
2. Age at diagnosis or suspicion (including gestational age for a fetus)
3. Clinical symptoms: Fetal arrhythmias, fetal heart failure, syncope, convulsion, heart failure, aborted cardiac arrest, others
4. ECG findings and arrhythmias (heart rate, QTc on ECG at presentation, sinus bradycardia, VT/TdP, atrioventricular block, other arrhythmias)
5. Family history of LQTS or other arrhythmias or sudden cardiac death (which member, and their outcome?)
6. Genotype
7. Treatment (acute therapy and maintenance therapy)
   pharmacotherapy (which drug, dose, age at initiation, and duration)
   device therapy (pacemaker implantation/implantable cardioverter-defibrillator) and age at application
8. Duration of follow-up
9. Outcome (alive or death, and neurological sequels of cardiac arrest)

suggest that the latter cases are at higher risk of development of life-threatening arrhythmias necessitating emergency treatment[3–5] and show higher mortality rates than the former age groups.[3,5–11] For example, recent progress in molecular biology has clarified that LQTS partly contributes to sudden infant death syndrome (SIDS).[12,13] Unfortunately, prenatal diagnosis of LQTS has been extremely difficult to confirm except for a limited number of cases for which prenatal gene screening[14] or fetal magnetocardiography (fMCG)[15–17] was applied.

Clinical Perspective on p 17

Thus, the clinical presentation, the genotype-phenotype correlation, and the outcome of patients with fetal, neonatal, or infantile presentation of LQTS remain to be elucidated. The purposes of this study were first, to report the findings of a nationwide survey conducted to define the clinical characteristics and the genotype-phenotype correlation, and second, to report the outcome of patients with LQTS diagnosed before birth and in the first year of life.

Methods

Population

The study population included fetuses, neonates, and infants (<1 year of age) diagnosed with LQTS based on ECG findings including prolonged QTc >0.46 seconds (using Bazett formula), with or without VT/TdP, who had no structural heart disease, family history of LQTS, or had undergone genetic testing. Those with normal QTc duration and no gene mutation known to cause LQTS were excluded. Patient data were collected using questionnaires. The form was sent to those councilors of the Japanese Society of Pediatric Cardiology and Cardiac Surgery who responded to a preliminary survey that they had 1 or more cases of LQTS diagnosed during fetal, neonatal, and infantile life. The items obtained from the responders are presented in Table 1.

The study protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee of the University Hospital of Tsukuba, and informed consent was obtained from each patient (or parents, if the patient was younger than 15 years of age) by a coordinator in charge in each institution before the patient's data were registered.

Genetic Analysis and Genotype-Phenotype Correlation

Genetic analyses were performed in 4 established laboratories in Japan. DNA was isolated from blood samples in each patient. Screening for mutations of at least 3 major genes causing LQTS (*KCNQ1, KCNH2, SCN5A*) was performed using polymerase chain reaction (PCR)/single-strand conformation polymorphism or denatured high-performance liquid chromatography analysis. For aberrant PCR products, DNA sequencing was conducted with a DNA sequencer (ABI 3700 and ABI 3130xl, Applied Biosystems, Foster City, Calif). For those subjects in whom genotype was confirmed and those who underwent genetic analysis but found to have no mutation, genotype-phenotype correlations (or mutation-negative phenotype correlations) with the aforementioned items (Table 1) were investigated.

Statistical Analysis

All statistical calculations were conducted using the R software. Quantitative variables (heart rate [HR] and QTc) are presented as mean±SD and categorized variables (presence of FH, sinus bradycardia, VT/TdP, and atrioventricular block [AVB]) as proportions (percentages). One-way ANOVA was applied for comparisons of continuous variables, followed by pairwise comparisons with Bonferroni adjustment of probability values among 4 groups (LQT1, LQT2, LQT3, and mutation-negative groups). The equality of proportions for categorical variables among the 4 groups was examined by the χ^2 test (global test). When there was a significant difference in proportions, we performed pairwise comparisons between pairs of proportions with correction for multiple testing using Bonferroni inequality of probability values. Tests were 2-sided, and a probability value <0.05 was considered significant.

The authors had full access to the data and take responsibility for its integrity. All authors have read and agreed to the manuscript as written.

Results

Population

A total of 58 cases (all Japanese; males 30, females 28) were registered from 33 institutions. Forty-one were born during the last 10 years (between 1999 and 2008), 14 between 1989 and 1998, 1 in 1986, and 2 in 1984. LQTS was diagnosed or suspected during fetal life at 18 to 40 weeks of gestation in 18 individuals, during neonatal life at 0 to 28 days in 31, and in infancy (<1 year) at 1 to 9 months in 9.

Clinical Features

For 18 fetuses with LQTS, clinical presentation (or clues to diagnosis or suspicion of LQTS) included bradycardia (15 cases), AVB (8 cases), VT/TdP (7 cases), and family history of LQTS (6 cases), including 1 family with a previous intrauterine death (items overlapped in some cases). Two fetuses were confirmed to be LQTS by fMCG, with QTc values of 570 and 680 on fMCG, and 590 and 700 on ECG soon after birth, respectively (these 2 cases have been reported previously).[16,17] No fetal death was noted in this group.

For 31 neonates with LQTS, the most frequent feature was sinus bradycardia (17 cases), followed by VT/TdP (15 cases), positive family history of LQTS (15 cases), including 1 with previous intrauterine death and 1 with infantile death, AVB (10 cases), syncope (5 cases), convulsion (5 cases), and others (items overlapped in some cases). Among the 31 neonatal cases, 18 (70%) were diagnosed within 2 days of life, and 8 of them had some significant fetal presentation (4 bradycardia or bradyarrhythmias, 4 tachyarrhythmias, and 1 hydrops), retrospectively.

As described above, the number of patients with LQTS diagnosed during infancy beyond the neonatal period was only 9. The clinical presentation of these patients included sinus bradycardia (5 cases), sudden cardiac death (SCD)/

aborted cardiac arrest (ACA) (5 cases), AVB (5 cases), VT/TdP (5 cases), and other miscellaneous abnormalities.

The ECG on diagnosis, or immediately after birth for fetal cases, showed that the HR and QTc interval (corrected using Bazett formula) ranged from 50 to 160 (102±28) bpm, and from 360 to 774 (563±70) ms, respectively.

Genotype-Phenotype Correlation

Among 41 patients who underwent genetic testing, mutations were identified in 29 (71%) cases; including *KCNQ1* gene mutations (LQT1) in 11, *KCNH2* mutations (LQT2) in 11, *SCN5A* mutations (LQT3) in 6, and *CACNA1C* (LQT8) in 1. Twelve patients also underwent genotyping, but no mutation was found. Table 2 lists the demographic and clinical features of these subjects (references 16, 17, and 23 reported the same cases 2, 12, and 27 in Table 2) and of those with no known mutations.

The remaining 17 subjects (6 fetuses, 8 neonates, 3 infants) did not undergo genetic analysis due to lack of such analysis at that time, death soon after birth, or refusal by parents. Five had SCD/ACA (Table 3), including a 1-day-old neonate who had AVB and died at 57 days of age in 1984. This case was later assumed to be LQT8, based on characteristic phenotypes such as syndactyly. AVB and VT/TdP were observed in 7 and 5 cases, respectively, in this group.

Although HR and QTc values were not different among LQT1, LQT2, LQT3, and mutation-negative groups, the incidence of VT/TdP was higher in LQT2 and LQT3 compared with LQT1 (Table 4). The incidence of AVB tended to be higher in LQT3 compared with LQT1 but statistically insignificant. On the other hand, the presence of family history of LQTS was more frequent in LQT1 than the mutation-negative group. The incidence of sinus bradycardia was comparable among the 4 groups (Table 4).

Table 3 lists cases with SCD/ACA; only 4 genetically confirmed cases were included, and 4 were mutation-negative, although the remaining 6 cases did not undergo genotyping. These individuals showed bradycardia (97±31 bpm; 10/14 showed HR <110 bpm) and markedly prolonged QTc (617±81 ms).

Treatment

With regard to the treatment of fetal VT/TdP, antiarrhythmic agents were administered transplacentally in 4 of 18 fetal cases (propranolol in 3 cases, lidocaine in 1, mexiletine in 1, flecainide in 1, and magnesium in 1), using the method described in detail in our previous report.[17] None of the 4 cases was genetically confirmed prenatally. When 2 or 3 of the following findings of sinus bradycardia, VT, and AVB were observed in a structurally normal heart, LQTS was strongly suggested, and β-blockers, sodium channel blockers (lidocaine, mexiletine), and magnesium (Mg) were selected as typical antiarrhythmic agents, instead of amiodarone or sotalol, which may prolong the QT interval. These drugs were used in combination until VT/TdP was controlled and proved effective in all 4 cases. However, preterm delivery was conducted in 2 cases both at 33 weeks of gestation due to recurrent VT/TdP and depression of fetal physical activity in one and to fetal hydrops and distress in the other. In the remaining 14 cases, pharmacotherapy was initiated after confirmation of the type of arrhythmias after birth. However, no fetal death was noted.

For 15 neonatal cases who presented with VT/TdP (including those who did not undergo genotyping), acute pharmacotherapy consisted of 2 or more of the following drugs: β-blockers, mexiletine, lidocaine, Mg, phenytoin, and others, except for 2 cases who were treated with phenytoin alone and 1 with mexiletine alone. Most of these cases were judged to respond the combination therapy. In 5 neonates in whom LQT3 was strongly suggested based on a typical ECG finding called late-appearing T wave, mexiletine was first administered but proved insufficient, and β-blockers were also added in all 5.

For those with LQTS presenting in infancy, 6 cases received acute pharmacotherapy (2 or all of propranolol, mexiletine, and Mg). No additional agent was administered. Thus, in all age groups, the acute therapy for VT/TdP consisted of a single drug to which 1 or more drugs was then added until the arrhythmia was controlled, independent of the genotype. Actually, the genotype was not identified during the acute phase in most cases. Furthermore, genotyping was not conducted in those 17 cases who presented before 1999.

Maintenance therapy consisted mainly of β-blockers (or no therapy) for LQT1 and mostly of mexiletine/β-blockers for LQT2 and LQT3 (Table 2). β-Blockers were added in 8 LQT2 cases after confirmation of the genotype. In all 6 LQT3 cases, mexiletine was maintained (combined with β-blockers) from acute through chronic phase after determination of the genotype.

Nine patients underwent pacemaker implantation (PMI), 5 with ventricular pacing mode (VVI) and 1 with atrial pacing mode (AAI), from age 1 day to 8 years due to severe bradycardia caused by AVB, inducing VT/TdP. In 6 cases, VT was completely suppressed after PMI. Only 2 patients had an implantable cardioverter-defibrillator (ICD) at ages 4 (LQT3) and 25 months (mutation negative), respectively, due to recurrent VT/TdP with satisfactory results.

Outcome

During the follow-up period of 8 days to 23.5 years (median, 4.25 years), 7 SCD and 7 ACA were registered (age at SCD or ACA range, 8 days to 10 years; median, 10.5 months); 6 did not have genetic testing, whereas 4 showed no mutation. Only 4 were genetically confirmed (Table 3). One case was later suspected to be LQT8, based on the phenotype including syndactyly. Among the 14 SCD/ACA cases, 12 had been under pharmacotherapy, 5 with both β-blockers and sodium channel blockers, and 2 had had PM or ICD. Four cases developed significant neurological deficits after cardiorespiratory resuscitation.

Discussion

The noteworthy finding of the present study was that 49 of 58 cases (84%) were diagnosed at the fetal or neonatal period, although this survey covered the entire infantile period. Remarkably, two thirds of the neonatal cases were diagnosed within 2 days of life; this period should be recognized as the most vulnerable period. The number of cases diagnosed after the neonatal period was only 9. Considering that the average age at appearance of symptoms in LQT2 and LQT3 is after

Table 2. Clinicogenetic Details

Case	LQT Type	Mutation	Age at Diagnosis/Sex	Clinical Presentation	FH	HR, bpm	QTc, ms
1	LQT1	Thr587Met	Fetus/M	FH, brady	+	109	561
2	LQT1	Ala341Val	Fetus/M	Brady	+	110	590
3	LQT1	Ala341Val	Neonate/M	FH	+	110	520
4	LQT1	Ile313Lys	Neonate/M	FH	+	102	589
5	LQT1	Ile313Lys	Neonate/M	FH	+	115	554
6	LQT1	276delSer	Neonate/M	Prolonged QT	+	115	570
7	LQT1	Asp611Tyr	Neonate/M	Brady	+	80	550
8	LQT1	Asp611Tyr	Neonate/F	FH	+	ND	ND
9	LQT1	Thr458Met	Neonate/M	FH	+	126	530
10	LQT1	Gly643Ser	Infant/M	ACA	−	109	554
11	LQT1	Gly269Ser	Infant/F	Cyanosis	−	113	586
					82%	109±12	560±24
12	LQT2	Gly628Ser	Fetus/M	VT/TdP, AVB	−	50	631
13	LQT2	del(7)(q32qter)	Fetus/F	TdP	−	111	492
14	LQT2	Ser243+112X	Fetus/F	FH	+	160	360
15	LQT2	Gly628Ala	Fetus/F	Syncope, VT/TdP, AVB	+	78	570
16	LQT2	Thr613Met	Fetus/M	VT/TdP, AVB	−	60	578
17	LQT2	Ala561Val	Neonate/M	Cyanosis, VT/TdP	−	86	520
18	LQT2	Gly628Ser	Neonate/M	TdP, brady	−	111	550
19	LQT2	Thr613Met	Neonate/M	convulsion, VT	−	140	599
20	LQT2	Gly572Ser	Neonate/F	TdP, AVB	−	91	520
21	LQT2	Ala614Val	Neonate/F	Syncope, VT	+	98	500
22	LQT2	Asn633Ser	Infant/F	VT/TdP, AVB	−	60	600
					27%	95±34	538±74
23	LQT3	Ala1186Thr	Fetus/M	AVB	+	78	679
24	LQT3	Asn1774Asp	Fetus/M	convulsion, VT/TdP, AVB	−	115	670
25	LQT3	Val176Met	Neonate/F	TdP, AVB	+	63	600
26	LQT3	Asn406Lys	Neonate/M	Syncope, TdP	+	129	598
27	LQT3	Arg1623Gln	Neonate/F	Heart failure	−	79	483
28	LQT3	Leu1772Val	Infant/M	ACA	−	138	520
					50%	100±31	592±79
29	LQT8	Gly406Arg	Neonate/M	AVB	−	141	581
30	Unidentified	−	Fetus/F	Brady	+	80	554
31	Unidentified	−	Fetus/M	Brady	−	100	510
32	Unidentified	−	Fetus/M	VT	−	85	590
33	Unidentified	−	Fetus/M	AVB	−	80	600
34	Unidentified	−	Neonate/F	Syncope	−	100	647
35	Unidentified	−	Neonate/F	Arrhythmia	−	126	586
36	Unidentified	−	Neonate/F	ACA	−	111	638
37	Unidentified	−	Neonate/M	Brady	−	93	550
38	Unidentified	−	Neonate/F	FH	+	120	520
39	Unidentified	−	Infant/F	ACA	−	160	470
40	Unidentified	−	Infant/F	ACA	−	100	774
41	Unidentified	−	Infant/F	PAC with block	−	60	460
					17%	104±32	575±86

(Continued)

Cases 2, 12, and 27 are reported in references 16, 17, and 23, respectively. ACA indicates aborted cardiac arrest; AVB, atrioventricular block; BB, β-blocker; brady, bradycardia; FH, family history; HR, heart rate; ICD, implantable cardioverter-defibrillator; Isp, isoproterenol; Lido, lidocaine; Mexil, mexiletine; Mg, magnesium; Nifed, nifedipine; PAC, premature atrial contraction; Pheny, phenytoin; PM, pacemaker; SCD, sudden cardiac death.

Table 2. Continued

Sinus Brady	VT/TdP	AVB	Acute Therapy	Maintenance Therapy	PMI/ICD	Follow-Up	Outcome
+	–	+	–	–	–	0 mo	Alive
+	–	–	–	BB	–	9 y	Alive
+	–	–	–	BB	–	4 y, 1 mo	Alive
+	–	–	–	BB	–	11 y, 10 mo	Alive
+	–	–	–	BB	–	10 mo	Alive
+	–	–	–	–	–	11 mo	Alive
+	–	–	–	–	–	7 y, 3 mo	Alive
+	–	–	–	–	–	5 y, 8 mo	Alive
–	–	–	–	–	–	4 y, 5 mo	Alive
+	–	–	Lido, Mexil	Mexil	–	9 y, 1 mo	Alive
+	–	–	–	–	–	7 y, 8 mo	Alive
73%	0%	9%				Median 68 mo	
+	+	+	Lido, Mg, BB, Mexil, Pacing	BB, Mexil	PM	3 y	Alive
+	+	–	–	BB	–	1 y	Alive
–	–	–	–	BB	–	2 y, 2 mo	Alive
+	+	+	Lido, Mg, BB, Mexil, pacing	BB, Mexil	PM	8 y, 1 mo	Alive
+	+	+	Mg, Mexil	BB, Mexil	–	8 mo	Alive
+	+	–	Lido, Mg, Mexil	BB, Mexil	–	11 y, 4 mo	Alive
+	+	+	Mexil	BB, Mexil	–	7 mo	Alive
–	+	–	Mg, BB	BB	–	8 y	Alive
+	+	+	Pheny	BB, Mexil	–	18 y, 5 mo	Alive
+	+	–	Pheny, DC	Pheny, BB	–	23 y, 6 mo	Alive
+	+	+	–	BB, Mexil	PM	15 y, 4 mo	Alive
82%	91%	55%				Median 96 mo	
+	+	+	Mexil	Mexil	PM ICD	3 y, 4 mo	Alive
+	+	+	BB, Mexil, Mg	BB, Mexil, Flecainide	PM	11 y, 4 mo	Alive
+	+	+	Lido, Mg, BB, Mexil	BB, Mexil	–	1 y, 3 mo	Alive
+	+	–	Lido, BB	BB, Mexil	–	11 mo	Alive
+	+	+	BB, Mexil, Lido	BB, Mexil	PM	8 y	Alive
–	+	+	Mg, BB, Mexil	BB, Mexil	–	3 y, 2 mo	Alive
83%	100%	83%				Median 39 mo	
–	+	+	BB, Mexil, Nifed	BB, Mexil, Nifed	–	3 y, 2 mo	Alive
+	–	+	–	BB, Mexil	–	2 y, 5 mo	Alive
+	–	–	–	BB	–	6 y, 5 mo	Alive
+	+	–	Lido, Mg	Mexil	–	5 y, 5 mo	Alive
+	–	+	BB, Mexil, Mg	BB, Mexil	–	4 mo	Alive
+	–	–	Lido, Mg, Isp	Mexil	–	4 y, 3 mo	Died
+	+	–	BB, Mg	BB	–	9 y, 5 m	Alive
–	+	–	Lido, BB, pheny, Mexil	Mexil	–	11 y, 9 mo	Alive
+	–	–	–	–	–	9 y, 6 mo	Alive
–	–	–	–	–	–	6 mo	Alive
–	+	–	BB, Mexil	BB, Mexil	ICD	7 y, 2 mo	Alive
+	+	+	Mexil	Mexil	–	4 y3 mo	Alive
+	–	–	BB, Mexil	BB, Mexil	–	7 y, 5 mo	Alive
75%	42%	25%				Median 71 mo	

Table 3. Clinicogenetic Details of Cases With Sudden Cardiac Death or Aborted Cardiac Arrest

Case	Case No. in Table 2	Genotyping	Age at Diagnosis	Age at SCD or ACA	HR, bpm	QTc, ms	Maintenance Therapy Until SCD/ACA	Acute Therapy for SCD/ACA Event
1	23	LQT3 (Ala1186Thr)	Fetus (28 wk)	1 y, 10 mo (aborted)	78	679	Mexil	Mexil, DC
2	...	No gene test	Fetus (31 wk)	8 d	60	570	...	Lido, Isp, Pacing, DC
3	...	No gene test	Fetus (36 wk)	57 d	90	600	BB, Mexil	DC
4	29	LQT8 (Gly406Arg)	Neonate (0 d)	1 y, 5 mo (aborted)	141	581	BB, Nifed	Mexil, Mg
5	...	Negative result	Neonate (0 d)	4 y	100	647	Mexil	DC
6	...	Negative result	Neonate (0 d)	<1 mo (aborted)	111	638	Mexil	Lido, Mexil, BB, Pheny
7	17	LQT2 (Ala561Val)	Neonate (1 d)	10 y (aborted)	86	520	BB, Mexil	Lido, Mexil, Mg, DC
8	...	No gene test (possible LQT8)*	Neonate (1 d)	57 d	70	640	BB	...
9	...	No gene test	Neonate (4 d)	5 y, 4 mo	60	590	... (refused)	...
10	...	No gene test	Infant (1 mo)	2 y	130	640	BB, Mexil	Lido, Mg
11	...	No gene test	Infant (1 mo)	1 y, 10 mo	60	740	BB, Mexil, PM	Lido, Mexil, BB, Mg, Pacing
12	10	LQT1 (Gly643Ser)	Infant (1 mo)	1 mo (aborted)	109	554	Mexil	Lido
13	39	Negative result	Infant (2 mo)	4 mo (aborted)	160	470	BB, Mexil, ICD	(aborted by ICD)
14	40	Negative result	Infant (2 mo)	2 mo (aborted)	100	774	Mexil	Mexil
				median 10.5 mo	97±31	617±81		

ACA indicates aborted cardiac arrest; BB, β-blocker; ICD, implantable cardioverter-defibrillator; Isp, isoproterenol; Lido, lidocaine; Mexil, mexiletine; Mg, magnesium; Nifed, nifedipine; Pheny, phenytoin; SCD, sudden cardiac death.

*LQT8 was retrospectively possible because phenotype included syndactyly.

school age,[2] we speculate a considerable number of patients are considered to go through infancy uneventfully.

Garson et al[4] reported 287 patients with LQTS age <21 years; their mean±SD age at presentation was 6.8±5.6; and 9% presented with cardiac arrest, 26% with syncope, and 10% with seizures. Although 20% of their subjects were <1 month of age, they did not investigate that age group separately. In the present study, confined to the subjects age <1, clinical features were largely different; that is, the incidence of malignant arrhythmias and bradycardia was high[6,7] whereas that of syncope and seizures was low.

Regarding genotype-phenotype correlations, Zareba et al[18] investigated child and adult LQTS and reported that LQT1 was associated with the highest risk of first cardiac event among the 3 most typical genotypes (LQT1–3). By the age of 15, syncope, ACA, or SCD was noted in 53% of their patients with LQT1 compared with 29% of LQT2 and 6% of LQT3, although cardiac events occurred in LQT3 were more lethal compared with those in LQT1 or LQT2. In contrast, the present study demonstrated that patients complicated by VT/TdP or AVB were almost exclusively those with LQT2 or LQT3 (and LQT8). LQT3 patients in the present study showed the most severe clinical course, similar to those in later-presenting LQT3. Further, patients with LQT1 mostly showed an uneventful clinical course apart from sinus bradycardia,[6] and the reason for diagnosis was bradycardia or prolonged QT interval itself on ECG identified on family screening. Another remarkable feature in our young age group was that a considerable number of patients with malignant arrhythmias were mutation-negative as far as LQT1–3 genes were typically examined. This suggests that this age group includes individuals with rare known mutations that were not examined in the present study as well as those with currently unidentifiable mutations.

Table 4. Comparison of Parameters Among the Groups

Parameter	LQT1 (n=11)	LQT2 (n=11)	LQT3 (n=6)	Negative (n=12)	Global Test	Pairwise Comparison
HR, bpm	109±12 (n=10*)	95±34	100±31	104±32	NS	
QTc, ms	560±24 (n=10*)	538±74	592±79	575±86	NS	
Proportion with family history, %	82	27	50	17	$P<0.05$	LQT1–Negative, $P<0.05$
Proportion with sinus bradycardia, %	73	82	83	75	NS	
Proportion with VT/TdP, %	0	91	100	42	$P<0.05$	LQT1–LQT2, $P<0.001$ LQT1–LQT3, $P<0.005$
Proportion with AVB, %	9	55	83	25	$P<0.05$	(LQT1–LQT3, $P=0.068$)

Data are mean±SD or %. One-way ANOVA was used to compare mean values of HR and QTc. χ^2 test was used to test differences in proportions of subjects with family history, sinus bradycardia, VT/TdP, and AVB among the 4 groups. Pairwise comparisons were conducted using Bonferroni adjustment and Bonferroni inequality of P value. NS indicates not significant; Negative, gene mutation-negative group.

*No. of cases is 10 because data were not available in 1 case.