# Long QT syndrome

## **Key facts**

- Long QT syndrome (LQTS) is an inherited heart rhythm problem, characterised by QT prolongation and T wave abnormalities on an ECG that are associated with tachyarrhythmias, most typically the ventricular tachycardia torsade de pointes (TdP).
- TdP is usually self-terminating, thus causing a syncopal event (fainting): the most common symptom in individuals with LQTS.
- Such cardiac events typically occur during exercise or emotional stress, less frequently during sleep, and often without warning.
- Cardiac events may occur from infancy through to middle age, but are most common from preteen years into the 20s.
- The prevalence of LQTS is estimated to be 1 in 2,500, and occurs across all ethnic groups.
- Approximately 75% of LQTS cases are caused by pathogenic variants in one of 15 known genes, most frequently with autosomal dominant inheritance, though there are also recessive forms.

## **Clinical features**

- Syncope is the most common symptom in individuals with LQTS, often occurring precipitously and without warning.
- In some instances, TdP degenerates to ventricular fibrillation and aborted cardiac arrest, or sudden death.
- Approximately 50% of untreated individuals with a pathogenic variant in one of the 15 known genes are symptomatic.
- Whilst the majority of those affected by LQTS have only cardiac features, some types of LQTS are associated with phenotypes extending beyond the cardiac arrhythmia (Table 1)

### Table 1: Syndromic forms of LQTS with additional clinical features

Syndrome	Principal features	Causative genes
Andersen-Tawil syndrome (LQTS7)	Prolonged QT interval, muscle weakness and facial dysmorphism	Autosomal dominant: KCNJ2
Timothy syndrome (LQTS8)	Prolonged QT interval and hand/ foot, facial and neurodevelopmental features	Autosomal dominant: CACNA1C
Jervell and Lange-Nielson syndrome (JLNS)	Profound sensorineural hearing loss	Autosomal recessive: KCNQ1 or KCNE1





# Diagnosis

- Consider a diagnosis in a patient presenting with:
  - » ECG characteristics;
  - » clinical history of syncope; or
  - » family history of syncope, aborted cardiac arrest, or sudden death in a child or young adult.
- The Schwartz scoring system (Table 2) can be used to estimate probability of diagnosis.

### Table 2: The clinical diagnosis of LQTS (Schwartz et al. (1993), Schwartz and Crotti (2011))

Findings		Points	
QTc	≥480 ms	3	
	= 460-479 ms	2	
	= 450-459 ms (in males)	1	
	≥480 ms during 4th minute of recovery from exercise stress test	1	
ECG	Torsade de pointes	2	
	T wave alternans	1	
	Notched T wave in 3 leads	1	
	Low heart rate for age	0.5	
Clinical history	Syncope with stress	2	
	Syncope without stress	1	
Family history	Family member(s) with definite LQTS	1	
	Unexplained sudden cardiac death at age <30 years in immediate family member	0.5	
Scoring	Outcome		
	≤1.0 point	Low probability of LQTS	
	1.5-3.0 points	Intermediate probability of LQTS	
	≥3.5 points	High probability of LQTS	

The diagnosis of LQTS is established in a proband with one or more of the following (Priori et al. 2013):

- A risk score of  $\geq$ 3.5 in the absence of a secondary cause of QT prolongation.
- The presence of a corrected QT interval ≥500 ms in repeated ECGs in the absence of a secondary cause of QT prolongation.
- The identification of a pathogenic variant in one of the genes known to be associated with LQTS.

# Genetic basis and genetic testing

LQTS is typically inherited in an autosomal dominant manner, except for JLNS (Table 1). Pathogenic variants in *KCNQ1* (LQT1, 30-35% of cases), *KCNH2* (LQT2, 25-30% of cases) and *SCN5A* (LQT3, 5-10% of cases) are the most common causes of LQTS. There are 12 further forms caused by <u>other pathogenic variants</u> (LQTS4-15).





 Molecular genetic diagnostic testing is usually performed by sequencing a panel of genes – a panel test. Approximately 20-25% of families meeting clinical diagnostic criteria for LQTS do not have detectable pathogenic variants in a known gene, however relatives should still be considered at risk of sudden death in these families, and referred to an Inherited Cardiac Conditions (ICC) clinic for clinical evaluation.

### **Clinical management**

The focus in the management of individuals with LQTS is to identify the subset of individuals at high risk of cardiac events. Risk stratification would include:

- ECG evaluation.
- Medical history individuals with syncope or cardiac arrest in the first year of life, or those younger than seven years, are at higher risk.
- Family history consultation with a clinical geneticist and/or genetic counsellor or ICC specialist nurse. Pre-symptomatic diagnosis of at-risk relatives via clinical screening and targeted variant analysis, followed by treatment, is necessary to prevent syncope and sudden death in those individuals who have inherited a pathogenic variant and/or have ECG findings consistent with LQTS. At-risk family members should be alerted to their risk.

Management is focused on the prevention of syncope, cardiac arrest and sudden death using:

- β-blockers;
- implantable cardioverter-defibrillators;
- left cardiac sympathetic denervation; and
- sodium channel blockers.

The postpartum period is associated with increased risk for a cardiac event, especially in individuals with a LQTS2 phenotype. B-blocker treatment and close clinical surveillance has been associated with a reduction of events during the nine month postpartum period.

## Direction to further reading, guidelines and patient groups

- GeneReview: Long QT syndrome
- <u>Romano-Ward syndrome</u>
- Priori SG, Wilde AA, Horie M et al. HRS/EHRA/APHRS expert consensus statement on the diagnosis and management of patients with inherited primary arrhythmia syndromes: document endorsed by HRS, EHRA, and APHRS in May 2013 and by ACCF, AHA, PACES and AEPC in June 2013. Heart Rhythm 2013 10:1932-1963.
- Schwartz PJ, Crotti L, Insolia R. Long-QT syndrome: from genetics to management. Circ Arrhythm Electrophysiol. 2012 Aug 1;5(4):868-77.
- Schwartz PJ and Crotti L. QTc behaviour during exercise and genetic testing for long-QT syndrome. Circulation 2011, 124: 2181-2184.

This information is intended for educational use and was current in September 2019. For clinical management, it is recommended that local guidelines and protocols are used.

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