I_{ks} channel blockers: potential antiarrhythmic agents

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Introduction

The cell membrane is made up of an electrically isolating material known as the bilipid layer. To ensure the exchange of ions, channels are inserted. Most channel proteins are specialized in the transport of inorganic ions such as sodium, potassium, calcium and chloride, and connect the intracellular with the extracellular space. Every second more than 10 million ions can pass through an ion channel (1) enabling inorganic ions to diffuse rapidly along the electrochemical gradient through the membrane. However, this does not mean that channels are just water-filled pores in the membrane since they normally exhibit a high selectivity for certain ions. In addition, they are not permanently open but controlled by socalled gates, which are open for a short period of time and then close again. The opening of the gates is controlled by a specific stimulus such as a change in the membrane potential (i.e., voltage-dependent ion channels), mechanical stress (i.e., mechanically controlled ion channels) or binding of a messenger molecule (i.e., ligand-coupled ion channels). These ion channels are responsible for the electrical excitability of nerve and muscle cells (2), the secretion of hormones (3), volume regulation of cells (4), as well as other important life-supporting activities.

Ion channels in the heart

Electrical impulses in cardiac and other excitable cells are generated by local changes in the relative permeability of the surface membrane to various ions. An outward flow of positively charged ions across the cell membrane results in a more negative potential (hyperpolarization) and the inward flow of positive ions, in contrast, makes the intracellular environment positive (depolarization). In the heart, during the normal cardiac cycle, a regular rhythmic pattern must be established in time-dependent changes of cellular permeability to ensure the cycle of events that underlies normal cardiac function. During the cardiac cycle, impulses that originate at the sinoatrial (SA) node are conducted via specialized conducting tracts throughout the atria until they converge at the atrioventricular (AV) node, pass through the bundle of His and the Purkinje fiber-conducting system, and excite the working myocardial cells in the ventricles. Coordination of these cellular events is ensured by the unique electrical properties of the different cell types.

The clinical test of electrical activity in the heart, the ECG (electrocardiogram) gives important information about events during the cardiac cycle, but cannot provide a detailed picture about the possible underlying mechanisms. Impulse spread can be tracked via the QRS complex and ventricular action potential duration can be evaluated by the QT interval. However, changes in either of these waveforms can be due to a complex interaction between perturbations in several ionic channels, thus making extrapolation to a specific ionic channel misleading.

The shape of the action potential of heart cells (Fig. 1) is strongly controlled by the correct interplay of ion channels (5). The main ion channels contributing to the action potential are the sodium, calcium and potassium channels. Potassium channels form the most diverse family and they are responsible for inward rectification (I_{K1}, I_{KACh}, $\mathbf{I}_{\mathrm{KATP}})$ and sustained outward $(\mathbf{I}_{\mathrm{Kur}},~\mathbf{I}_{\mathrm{Kr}},~\mathbf{I}_{\mathrm{Ks}})$ and transient outward (Ito) rectification. The depolarization (upstroke) of the membrane potential caused by an inward sodium current is followed by a partial early repolarization due to an outward potassium current through rapidly activating and inactivating K+ channels. The extent of this early repolarization (notch) affects the time course of the other voltage-gated currents and, therefore, indirectly controls the action potential duration (APD). The plateau phase depends on a balance of inward (depolarizing) and outward (repolarizing) currents. The depolarizing force is mainly due to Ca2+ influx that slowly declines as L-type

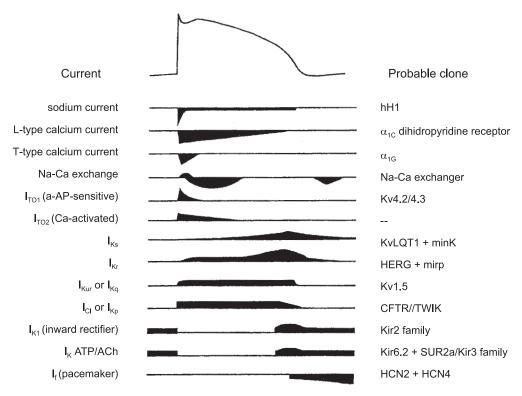


Fig. 1. Cardiac ion currents and their corresponding probable clones.

Ca²+ channels inactivate, but a noninactivating Na+ current can also support the plateau phase. The repolarizing action depends on K+ efflux due to activation of several voltage-gated potassium channels, mainly the rapid delayed rectifier ($I_{\rm Kr}$) and the slowly delayed rectifier ($I_{\rm Ks}$) potassium currents (Fig. 1). Several other conductances maintain or modulate the resting potential, most of which are inwardly rectifying K+ channels which carry (almost) no current during the plateau phase.

The ATP-sensitive K⁺ current, I_{KATP}, is important under some metabolic conditions. ATP-sensitive K⁺ channels are inhibited by increased levels of intracellular ATP and are activated during ischemia, when ATP falls and ADP rises. Therefore, this channel has received attention because of the considerable role it plays in pathological conditions in which cellular ATP is likely to fall. These channels are probably responsible for shortening the action potential in severe ischemia (6). Most of these ion currents and their ion channels have been a target of antiarrhythmic therapy.

Ion channel blockers as antiarrhythmic agents

Cardiac arrhythmias are still a major cause of death in the Western world, especially in patients with ischemic heart disease. These irregularities are caused by abnormalities in electrical activity which may result from excessive sympathetic stimulation and or changes in the ionic mechanism responsible for the generation and propagation of the normal action potential.

The existing antiarrhythmic agents have been classified mechanistically into 4 main classes: class I (sodium channel blockade), class II (β -adrenergic blockade), class III (potassium channel blockade) and class IV (calcium channel blockade) (7). Some antiarrhythmic drugs, however, are not specific to one mechanism or ion channel, but instead act on several systems. A prominent example is the frequently used antiarrhythmic drug, amiodarone. It exerts a multiplicity of pharmacological effects which could be associated in part with each of the class I-IV antiarrhythmic agents and is an effective agent in the control of ventricular tachyarrhythmias and fibrillation (VT/VF) (8, 9).

Each of the antiarrhythmic classes have undergone several clinical trials in recent years which resulted in surprising and, in part, disappointing outcomes. In the 1980s, CAST (Cardiac Arrhythmic Suppression Trial) involving encainide and flecainide uncovered the inefficacy and even proarrhythmic risk of sodium channel blockers in patients with a relatively low long-term risk for cardiac death (10-13). The elevated mortality in the treated group was associated with agent-induced blockade of the sodium channel and the study was terminated.

To circumvent the problems associated with class I antiarrhythmics, pharmacological and clinical research shifted toward class III agents which act on the delayed rectifier potassium current and therefore prolong the AP. Dofetilide, *d*-sotalol, E-4031 and MK-499 are examples of

so-called pure class III compounds (14). All of these compounds act selectively on the rapid form of the delayed rectifier potassium channel (I_{Kr}), but not on the slowly activating potassium channel $I_{\rm Ks}$. This class of agents also underwent a series of clinical trials which were quite disastrous for the patients and the drugs. The clinical study ESVEM (Electrophysiological Study versus Electrocardiographic Monitoring) provided positive evidence for the racemate d,l-sotalol which, in addition to I_{Kr} activity also possesses β -blocking properties (15). In contrast, the SWORD-trial (Survival With Oral d-sotalol) was terminated because of an increase in mortality in the treated patients using the pure I_{kr} channel blocker *d*-sotalol (16). In the recent DIAMOND (Danish Investigation of Mortality on Dofetilide) study (17) conducted in patients with a higher risk of mortality than the SWORD population, the outcome was neutral at the best. The negative outcome of these clinical trials has resulted in the discontinuation of some developmental compounds (e.g., MK-499).

These disappointing results have been attributed to what is referred to as negative use dependence which has been observed preclinically with various I_{Kr} blockers (18). Negative use dependence has two effects. First, an extended prolongation of the AP of heart cells at low heart rate frequencies and in a low β-adrenergic state. This prolongation of the AP may lead to early after depolarizations (EADs) and, under certain circumstances, to fatal torsades de pointes (TdP) (19, 20). The second effect is a weak prolongation of the AP under high heart rate frequency (21) and high β -adrenergic stimulation (22, 23). This unsatisfactory activity reduces the antiarrhythmic effect of these drugs and the positive effect of the AP prolongation expected from the activity on the AP at a normal heart frequency. Negative use dependency has been attributed to an increased contribution of the I_{Ks} channel on the repolarization under an elevated heart rate (21) and β -adrenergic activation (22).

The antiarrhythmic benefit afforded by class III agents is proposed to be the result of a sufficient prolongation of myocardial refractoriness such that the wavelength of activation exceeds the path length of the reentrant circuit, thereby preventing the initiation or maintenance of reentrant excitation (24). On the other hand, there is evidence that β-adrenergic sympathetic activity is an important factor in the genesis of malignant ventricular tachyarrhythmias (25-27). It has been demonstrated that β -adrenergic stimulation attenuates or even reverses the electrophysiological and antiarrhythmic effects of various class I antiarrhythmic agents (28) and class III antiarrhythmics such as d-sotalol (29), E-4031 (22) and sematilide (30). Since this may be due to an increase of I_{Ks} under these conditions, I_{Ks} channel blockers seem to offer a more desirable class III antiarrhythmic profile than I_{kr} channel blockers.

Molecular structure and function of the I_{Ks} channel

The prominent features of the I_{Ks} current are the slow activation upon depolarization and no inactivation even

under a long period of depolarization (31). This slow opening of the delayed rectifier channels is believed to be mainly responsible for the repolarization of the excitable cells and therefore for the duration of the plateau phase of the cardiac AP. This ensures optimal cardiac function by regulating the relationship between systolic ejection and diastolic filling (32). It was proposed as early as 1969 with the first quantitative description of time-dependent outward currents, that the delayed rectifier current $\rm I_{\rm K}$ in Purkinje fibers of sheep consists of more than one component (33). This was the first description of the $\rm I_{\rm Ks}$ current. Later, the $\rm I_{\rm K}$ of guinea pigs myocytes was found to be composed of two currents (34-36) and the slow component was called $\rm I_{\rm Ks}$.

Ever since the 1990s, the molecular basis of I_{Ks} has been controversial. When the I_{sK} (also called minK) protein, which was originally cloned from rat kidney (31) and expressed in Xenopus oocytes, was isolated, a potassium current with a striking similarity to the native current was found (31). This is the reason for considering the $\rm I_{sK}$ a channel protein on which the $\rm I_{\rm Ks}$ should be based (37). On the other hand, $I_{\rm sK}$ encoded a protein of 130 amino acids (129 in humans) and with a pore domain unique from other voltage-dependent channels and only one transmembrane domain. The question as to whether Isk alone may create a voltage-gated potassium channel was raised particularly because functional I_{sk} expression in a number of eukaryotic cell lines failed (38-40). Very early it was suggested that I_{sk} is not a channel by itself, but a regulator of a dormant endogenous Xenopus oocyte potassium channel (41). Soon after the discovery of KvLQT1 gene by positional cloning (42), it was shown that the KvLQT1 gene product was a potassium channel subunit that generated a potassium current similar to an I_{Ks} current when expressed together with the Isk protein in different systems (43, 44). However the interaction of $I_{\rm sK}$ with KvLQT1 subunits is unusual. It has been shown that there is a direct interaction of the C-terminus domain of the $I_{\rm sK}$ protein (residues 67-129) with the pore region of the KvLQT1 protein (45). These data explain both the increase in amplitude of the current when Isk is coexpressed with KvLQT1 as well as the slowing down of the activation kinetics. The ratio of I_{sk} to KvLQT1 subunits is still unknown although it was proposed that a tetramer of KvLQT1 proteins could associate with 1-4 I_{sk} proteins (34). It was shown that the $I_{\rm sK}$ protein has a significant influence on the inhibitory potency of $I_{\rm Ks}$ channel blockers like the chromanoles (see below) (40, 46, 47). Recently, KCNQ1 is the name used to replace KvLQT1 and KCNE has substituted minK (I_{sk}) (48).

Tissue and species distribution of the I_{Ks} channel

The I_{KS} channel and its underlying proteins KvLQT1 and I_{SK} have been found in several species and tissues using molecular biology and electrophysiological techniques. Table I gives a representative overview of these findings. For the sake of simplicity, no differentiation has

Table I: Species	and	tissue	distribution	of	the	slowly	delayed
rectifier current (I,	ر _د).						

Species	Tissue	Ref.
Human	Heart	93, 94
Dog	Heart	95, 96
Rabbit	Heart	97, 98
Guinea pig	Heart	34-36
Mouse	Heart (not adult)	99-101
Rat	Heart (neonatal)	37
Frog	Heart (atrium)	102
Gerbil	Inner ear	103, 104
Rat	Uterus	37, 105
Rat	Colon	49, 50
Rat	Tracheal epithelia	106
Rat	Kidney	107
Rat	Pancreas	108

been made as to whether the channel is functional or just one of the proteins.

Selective I_{Ks} channel blockers

The first selective blockers of the $I_{\rm KS}$ channel were published in 1995 and 1996 by two groups who employed two different approaches and found two different chemical structures to be active (49-52). One group modified benzodiazepines from MSD (52) while the other modified chromanols (49, 50, 51) from Hoechst. Both the structures of these compounds and the information obtained from their use concerning the $I_{\rm KS}$ channel will be discussed in detail, with special attention given to the widely distributed chromanol 293B. Just recently, a third highly potent $I_{\rm KS}$ channel blocker was described by BMS although little data is available (53).

Fig. 2. $\rm K_{ATP}$ channel opener (HOE-234) and $\rm I_{Ks}$ channel blocker (chromanol 293B).

Chromanols

The I_{Ks} channel blocking ability of 293B was found to be a side activity in another research program. In the 1980s, many K_{ATP} channel openers such as HOE-234 were synthesized (54); sulfonamide analogs were also prepared (Fig. 2). Although these structures were inactive on the intended target K_{ATP} channel, they were tested for their activity on chloride transport. Surprisingly, high activity on Cl-transport was discovered (50). A prominent compound in this series was chromanol 293B. The first publication proposed that the compounds act only indirectly on the Cl-transport by blocking an associated cAMP-regulated potassium channel (50). This potassium conductance was responsible for the secondary phase of the voltage and conductance transit. The exact nature of this potassium channel was not clear in this early publication. Subsequent studies on cloned potassium channels from the guinea pig demonstrated that chromanol 293B specifically blocks $I_{\rm sK}$ channels expressed in $\it Xenopus$ oocytes with an IC_{50} value of 6.2 μ M (51). The (3R,4S)enantiomer was found to be more potent than the (3S,4R)-enantiomer (IC₅₀ = 5 and 39 μ M, respectively) (49). In contrast, 293B had negligible effects on cloned potassium channels (Kv1.1, Kir2.1, HERG) expressed in Xenopus oocytes, proving the selectivity of the compound on I_{sk} channels (49, 51) and other closely related potassium channels (55).

Several studies have been conducted to elucidate the site of blockade at the molecular level. There are conflicting data concerning the discrepancy in block of homomeric KvLQT1 and heteromeric KvLQT1/minK channels by chromanol 293B (49). While I_{Ks} and KvLQT1 were blocked in a similar manner in COS-7 cells (56), significantly different values were obtained for the two channels in *Xenopus* oocytes using both the racemate and single enantiomers of 293B (40, 57). This finding in oocytes was later supported by investigations using other chromanols which had significantly different effects on I_{Ks} and KvLQT1 (47). In this context, the binding region for chromanols was identified to be within the H5/S6 region of KvLQT1 (58).

The activity of 293B on the native I_{Ks} channel in guinea pig cardiomyocytes was comparable (IC₅₀ = 2.1 μM) to that measured in the *Xenopus* oocyte, indicating a link with cardiac activity. Furthermore, the selectivity to I_k, in guinea pig cardiomyocytes was proven. Thus, these novel structures were found to be selective $I_{\rm Ks}$ channel blockers. The activity and selectivity of 293B on native channels of guinea pig and human cardiomyocytes was investigated using the patch clamp technique on single cells. 293B strongly inhibited I_{Ks} although other ion currents such as the inward rectifier K⁺, Na⁺ and L-type Ca²⁺ currents were unaffected. The Ito in human ventricular myocytes was inhibited by 293B at an EC₅₀ of 24 μ M, showing 20-fold selectivity for I_{Ks}. 293B prolonged repolarization (APD on) in guinea pig and human ventricular myocytes to a similar fractional extent (~33%, 1 μM) and independent of the stimulation frequency (59). This was

in contrast to the measured reverse use-dependent AP

prolongation observed with the $\rm I_{\rm Kr}$ blocker dofetilide (59). The state-, frequency- and enantiomer-dependent block of the potassium channel I_{Ks} by 293B in *Xenopus* oocytes (60) and on the AP of rabbit ventricular myocytes (61) were investigated. The positive use dependency found in guinea pig (59) was not seen in the rabbit (61), possibly due to species differences. A further study using guinea pig ventricular myocytes investigated the timedependent block of 293B (62). The IC₅₀ value obtained was comparable to previously reported results (59) and a mathematical model for the 293B block was constructed. The blocking rate constant showed a linear function with 293B concentration, indicating a 1:1 binding stoichiometry (62). At a membrane potential of +80 mV, the blocking rate was 4 x 10⁴ M⁻¹s⁻¹ and the unblocking rate was 0.2 s⁻¹.

The activity of 293B on rabbit and porcine SA nodes was also investigated. In both cases, 293B blocked the $\rm I_{KS}$ in SA node with an IC $_{50}$ value of ${\sim}5~\mu M$ in the rabbit and $8.8~\mu\text{M}$ in pig. However, in the pig, the effect was much more pronounced as the I_{κ} in the porcine SA node is largely derived from I_{ks}. This seems to be in agreement with the marked effect of HMR-1556 on ventricular and atrial effective refractory period (ERP) found in the anesthetized pig. The effect on the SA node and, therefore, on rabbit heart rate, seems negligible (63-65).

The activity of chromanol 293B was also shown in a multicellular preparation. The transmembrane APD of guinea pig papillary muscles was measured after equilibration with 293B (10 µM), dofetilide and ambasilide and addition of isoproterenol (10 and 100 nM) (23). While the AP prolonging effect of dofetilide was reduced in the presence of isoproterenol, the effect of 293B was clearly increased (23). Measurement of the effect of 293B (1-100 μM) on transmural ECG and transmembrane APs from epi-, myo- and endocardial cells from arterially perfused wedges of canine left ventricle showed a dose-dependent prolongation of QT interval and APD₉₀ in the three cell types (66). There was no widening of the T wave, increase in the transmural dispersion of repolarization or TdP. In both experiments during the setting of enforced slow pacing and isoproterenol, the drug showed EADs which may simulate the conditions of LQT1-syndrome (23, 38, 66). These signs for proarrhythmia could be leveled off by additional application of β -blockers (66, 67).

An experiment in anesthetized dogs using a highly sophisticated mapping system demonstrated the interesting properties of these I_{ks} channel blockers in vivo (68, 69). Measurement of the regional differences of ERP in the canine heart via needle electrodes inserted in the left ventricle showed that chromanol 293B (10 mg/kg) led to a regional, uniform increase in local ERP while still preserving the transmural homogenicity of refractoriness (68). Furthermore, 293B had a more pronounced effect under faster rather than slower pacing rates and had a positive use-dependent effect on ERP, in contrast to the Ikr blocker dofetilide which showed negative use dependence in the same model (68, 69).

The electrophysiological effects of 293B in the postinfarcted canine heart were investigated using the same method (70, 71). 293B ubiquitously prolonged local ERP in the infarcted, border and normal zones of these hearts, with the most marked effects seen in the infarct zone. A drug-induced transmural dispersion was not observed and again a positive use dependency could be measured (71). The prolongation of refractoriness in the ischemic myocardium was even more pronounced at a faster rather than slower heart rate and was homogenous throughout the intact ventricular wall (70, 71).

Comparison of 293B, L-735,821 (an I_{ks} channel blocker from MSD) and two I_{Kr} channel blockers in dog ventricular myocytes, multicellular right ventricular papillary muscle and Purkinje fiber preparations showed a slight frequency-independent increase in APD (~7%) following addition of 293B (10 μ M) and L-735,821 (100 nM). However, a marked (20-80%) lengthening of APD was observed with the I_{Kr} channel blockers which also showed a reverse frequency dependency (72). In vivo ECG recordings from intact anesthetized dogs indicated no significant effect of 293B (1 mg/kg i.v.), but this may be due to an insufficient dosage (72).

293B was further used to characterize the cardiac repolarization in Purkinje fibers of German shepherd dogs with the inherited syndrome of sudden death (73). The results of these investigations showed that Ike may be involved in this anomaly.

In the meantime, a chemical optimization program revealed novel and more potent compounds. Surprisingly, removal of the hydroxy group increased the activity of the chroman structures as demonstrated by IKS-142, which had an IC₅₀ value of 22 nM (74). A more potent compound with the chromanol structure, HMR-1556, was also found and profiled as a developmental compound at Aventis. HMR-1556 or (3R,4S)-(+)-N-[-3-hydroxy-2,2-dimethyl-6-(4,4,4-trifluorobutoxy)chroman-4-yl]-N-methylmethanesulfonamide is a close analog of 293B although with improved activity due to the trifluoro-butoxy side chain on the aromatic ring (74, 75) (Fig. 3).

Comparison of this prototype compound with the starting point, the K_{ATP} channel opener HOE-234, showed some remarkable differences. In the agonist series, electron withdrawing substituents on the aromatic ring such as cyano or sulfonyl groups were the most potent, while in the case of the I_{ks} channel blockers, electron donating groups such as alkoxy or benzyloxy were the most potent. Furthermore, for the I_{Ks} channel blockers, the stereochemistry on the C-4 nitrogen and on the C-3 hydroxy was opposite to the stereochemistry of the more active enantiomer for the K_{ATP} agonist (54, 74, 75).

HMR-1556 inhibits the potassium current of I_{Ks} channels expressed in Xenopus oocytes with an IC50 value of 120 nM (76). In contrast, 10 μM HMR-1556 had no effect or only slightly blocked the currents of the expressed K+ channels HERG, Kv1.5, Kv1.3 and Kir2.1, and the cationic current HCN2, indicating the selectivity of the compound (76). The opposite enantiomer (S-5557) was

Fig. 3. Chroman and chromanol I_{Ks} channel blockers.

about 5 times less active, inhibiting the I_{Ks} channel with an IC_{50} value of 0.56 μM (74, 75).

Studies using whole-cell patch clamping of isolated guinea pig ventricular myocytes revealed that HMR-1556 induced inhibition of the $I_{\rm Ks}$ current with an IC_{50} of 34 nM; other currents such as $I_{\rm Kr}$ and $I_{\rm K1}$, were only slightly blocked at a concentration of 10 μM . However, 10 μM HMR-1556 inhibited the transient outward current ($I_{\rm to}$) and the sustained outward current ($I_{\rm sus}$) in rat ventricular myocytes by 25 and 36%, respectively. The L-type Ca²+channel in guinea pig cardiomyocytes was blocked by 31% with 10 μM HMR-1556 (76), indicating a selectivity of about 300-fold over other ion channels.

Another study examining guinea pig right papillary muscles using the micropuncture technique at various pacing rates showed that in the frequency range of 0.5-7 Hz, HMR-1556 (1 μ M) caused a 19-27% prolongation of the APD $_{90}$. The prolongation of APD $_{90}$ was even more pronounced in the presence of isoproterenol (10 μ M), and was more pronounced at low pacing rates (47 and 35% at 0.5 and 1 Hz, respectively, *vs.* 25% at 7 Hz) (76).

Results from studies recording the monophasic AP in Langendorff-perfused guinea pig hearts showed that in spontaneously beating preparations, HMR-1556 (0.1 and 1 μ M) prolonged the mean APD $_{90}$ by 3 and 10%, respectively, with no further prolongation seen at concentrations of 10 μ M. The prolongation was much greater at low pacing rates (25% at 100 beats/min [bpm] and 13% at 150 bpm) than at fast pacing rates (9% at 350 bpm). The left ventricular pressure (LVP $_{\rm max}$) was not affected by 1 μ M HMR-1556, but was decreased by 15% with a concentration of 10 μ M. Other parameters such as heart rate and coronary flow were only slightly decreased with 1 μ M HMR-1556 (76).

Since safety is always an obvious concern when dealing with antiarrhythmic agents, HMR-1556 was investigated in an *in vitro* test model for TdP in isolated rabbit hearts (77). Results showed that HMR-1556 (10 μ M) prolonged the mean AP by 11-18%. Under low potassium/low magnesium and low pacing conditions, no EADs, a predictor of TdP, occurred. This is in clear contrast to the $I_{\rm Kr}$ channel blockers which show a high incidence of TdP in this model (78). Addition of isoproterenol also did not lead to EADs.

The effect of HMR-1556 (1 mg/kg i.v.) on the refracto-

ry period of the atrium and ventricle at various frequencies (100-180 bpm) in chloralose-anesthetized pigs was investigated. A pronounced prolongation was observed in the atrium (33-36%) and the ventricle (35-40%) which was independent of frequency. The prolongation could be described as neutral use-dependent (65).

Class III activity of HMR-1556 was further demonstrated *in vivo* in studies reporting dose-dependent prolongation of QTc in conscious telemetric dogs following oral treatment (3, 10, 30 mg/kg) (74).

Benzodiazepines

The second chemical class of $I_{\rm Ks}$ channel blockers reported are the benzodiazepines (Fig. 4). This class was discovered in a completely different way than the chromanols. L-365,260 was under development as a cholecystokinin-B (CCK-B) antagonist (79). Following a high oral dose (100 mg/kg), the QT time in dogs was markedly increased, prompting further investigation of this side effect (80). It was found that L-365,260 was a potent inhibitor of the I_{Ks} channel (IC₅₀ = 214 nM). The selectivity against I_{Kr} channel blockade ($IC_{50} = 5000$ nM) was good, but the main activity was the CCK-B antagonism with an IC₅₀ value of 2 nM (80). This was the starting point for a chemical optimization program with the goal of preserving or even enhancing I_{Ks} channel activity and minimizing the activity on the CCK-B receptor. The main variations were done on the substituent of the C-3 amine and replacement of the urea group with amides resulted in a new series of compounds with activity on the potassium channel. The prototypes were the phenyl-acrylic derivative (L-735,821) which was the first I_{ks} channel blocker published from this series (52), and the phenylacetyl derivative L-768,673, which was further investigated in vivo (80).

L-735,821 blocked the I_{Ks} channel in guinea pig cardiomyocytes with an IC_{50} value of 6 nM and was 250-fold more selective for this channel over I_{Kr} ($IC_{50} = \sim 1.5~\mu M$) (52). Furthermore, it had no effect on I_{K1} at concentrations < 10 μM although it blocked the L-type calcium current at > 0.3 μM . A special prepulsing protocol revealed that the block by the compound was time-, voltage- and use-dependent, suggesting that it affects the channel preferentially in the open state. L-735,821 increased the APD_90

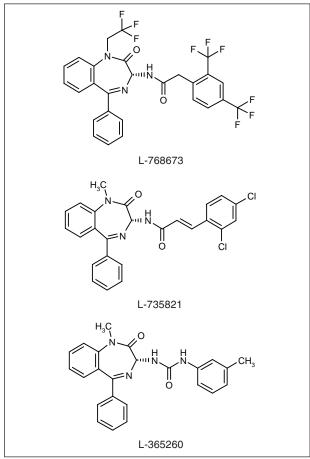


Fig. 4. Benzodiazepine I_{ks} channel blockers.

in a dose- and frequency-independent manner (52).

An interesting comparison of the selective I_{Ks} channel blocker L-735,821 (20 nM) with the selective I_{Kr} channel blocker MK-499 (200 nM) was performed in a study using rabbit Purkinje cells (81). Both compounds significantly lengthened the AP, but prolonged exposure of the cells to MK-499 resulted in the appearance of EADs, an indication of proarrhythmic effects. These negative effects were not seen with L-735.821.

In addition to enhanced activity, increased bioavailability and a longer half-life were also desirable. Under these premises, L-768,673 was chosen as a developmental candidate (82, 83). L-768,673 blocked the $I_{\rm Ks}$ channel in guinea pig cardiomyocytes with an IC_{50} value of 6 nM and was highly selective for this channel over $I_{\rm Kr}$ (IC $_{50}$ = $\sim\!6$ μ M). In addition, the activity at the CCK-B receptor was eliminated (IC $_{50}$ > 1000 nM). The bioavailability was 27% (methocel suspension) and 76% (oil-gelcap) and the half-life was an extraordinarily long 43 h in dogs and 47 h in rats (80).

Several *in vivo* experiments have been performed using L-768,673 with results further demonstrating the compound's I_{Ks} channel blocking properties. Class III activity was demonstrated following oral L-768,673 dos-

ing in conscious dogs which resulted in dose-dependent prolongation of the QT interval of up to 15% (80). Investigations on hemodynamic and electrocardiographic effects of the agent after i.v. administration to chloralose-anesthetized dogs revealed no significant effects of the agent on blood pressure, left ventricular pressure, PR time or QRS time (80).

In addition to investigations of the electrophysiological effects of the agent, the antiarrhythmic activity was also examined (84). In an anesthetized canine model of recent (about 8 days) anterior myocardial infarction, L-768,673 (0.003 and 0.03 mg/kg i.v.) significantly suppressed electrically induced ventricular tachyarrhythmias (VT) and reduced the incidence of lethal arrhythmias induced by myocardial ischemia (80 and 90% survival, respectively) (84). Remarkably, this efficacy was associated with only a modest increase in the QTc interval of 4-6%. $I_{\rm Kr}$ blockers require a 12-17% increase in QTc time to achieve a more than 50% reduction in the incidence of malignant ventricular arrhythmias.

In a conscious canine model of healed (approx. 4 weeks) anterior myocardial infarction, ventricular fibrillation (VF) was provoked by transient occlusion of the left circumflex coronary artery during exercise. Pretreatment with L-768,673 (0.03 mg/kg i.v.) prevented the ischemiaprovoked arrhythmias during exercise-induced high sympathetic tone in 5 of 6 animals previously susceptible to VF. Efficacy in this experiment was also accompanied by only a slight increase in the QTc interval of 7% (84). In this model, I_{Kr} blockers like d-sotalol were ineffective in preventing arrhythmias, presumably due to an attenuation of the effects of Ikr blockade in the setting of high heart rate and high sympathetic tone. (29, 30, 85, 86). L-768,673 has, therefore, shown activity as an antiarrhythmic drug for the treatment of ventricular arrhythmia and the prevention of sudden cardiac death (SCD). Reports of multikilogram synthesis for this agent (82, 83) suggest further development.

Benzamides

Recently, the structure of a novel \mathbf{I}_{Ks} channel blocker was published (53). The molecular target I_{Ks} was expressed in Xenopus oocytes and compounds from a screen which blocked the K⁺ current in these oocytes by > 50% were used as initial leads. These tetralones were represented by SQ-23791, with an IC $_{50}$ value at I $_{\text{Ks}}$ of 5 $\mu M.$ SAR studies led to a compound with a 40-fold selectivity for I_{Ks} although it also had affinity for other cardiac ion channels and certain CNS receptors. This effect was shown to be due to the pharmacophore essential to I_{Ks} affinity and as a result this series was unavoidably abandoned. SAR studies of SQ-23791 revealed two benzamides that had good activity at I_{Ks} but which were without activity at I_{Kr} , I_{Na} or I_{Ca} . Modification of the amine portion of the molecule revealed that branched alkyl amines were preferred and stereoselectivity was not high. Variation of the linker modifications showed that isosteric

Fig. 5. Benzamide I_{Ks} channel blocker.

ureas and oxazoles were inactive, but further modification of aryl substituents led to the synthesis of BMS-208782/208783 (IC $_{50}$ = 2 and 9 nM for the (*R*)- and (*S*)-enantiomers, respectively) (Fig. 5). Both had IC $_{50}$ values for inhibition of I $_{\rm Kr}$ of > 30 μ M, inhibition of I $_{\rm Ca}$ and I $_{\rm Na}$ of > 10 μ M, and no activity in CNS screens. BMS-208782 had a half-life of 3.5 h in dogs, with oral bioavailability of only 5% (53). Metabolism studies revealed that the butyl chain attached to the heterocyclic ring was a primary site for inactivation. To partially solve this problem, the chain was shortened and capped with a trifluoromethyl group. This improved bioavailability in dogs to 23%, but reduced affinity for the I $_{\rm Ks}$ channel to 40 nM. This program was said to be abandoned although a convincing reason was not given (53).

Drugs with I_{Ks} blocking activity as an additional effect

In addition to the structures described above which represent highly active and selective $I_{\rm Ks}$ channel blockers, there are also reports of compounds showing antagonistic activity on $I_{\rm Ks}$ as an additional effect. These compounds are shown in Table II but only a few will be mentioned. The most well-known compound with additional effects on $I_{\rm Ks}$ is azimilide (87). Although it blocks the $I_{\rm Ks}$

channel in guinea pig ventricular myocytes with an IC $_{50}$ value of 3 μ M (88), it is 7.5-fold more potent in blocking the I $_{\rm Kr}$ channel (IC $_{50}$ = 0.4 μ M) (88). At first glance, this dual action on both delayed rectifier channels seems intriguing. However, studies with azimilide showed that a combined blockade of I $_{\rm Kr}$ and I $_{\rm Ks}$ enhanced the arrhythmogenic effect of sympathetic stimulation (89).

Various barbiturates are also antagonists of the $I_{\rm Ks}$ channel with very high concentrations required to reduce the potassium flow half-maximally (90, 91). These concentrations may be achieved during anesthesia in the clinic.

Conclusions

During the last several years, three different structural classes have been found to be potent and selective blockers of the $I_{\rm Ks}$ channel. The respective prototypes of these three classes are HMR-1556, L-768,673 and BMS-208782. L-768,673 and HMR-1556 have exhibited activity in several in vitro and in vivo studies and L-768,673 in particular, which was active in a model of clinical SCD, proved the concept that I_{Ks} channel blockade is an antiarrhythmic principle (92). It was also remarkable that the I_{Kr} blockers failed in this model (85, 86). Furthermore, L-768,673 significantly reduced the incidence of lethal arrhythmias induced by myocardial ischemia in a canine model of recent myocardial infarction (84). Interestingly, this antiarrhythmic effect was seen in both cases with only a moderate increase in QTc (84). The electrophysiological mode of action of dose-dependently prolonging ERP or QTc was demonstrated in vivo with HMR-1556 in anesthetized pigs (65) and with both compounds in conscious telemetric dogs (74, 84).

As with all antiarrhythmic agents, there is always the concern of proarrhythmia. However, when HMR-1556 was investigated in a TdP model of isolated rabbit heart, it showed no negative effects and positively distinguished

Table II: Compounds	showing	antagonistic	activity on	I, as an	additional effect.

Compound	npound IC ₅₀ (I _{Ks}) Main activity		Ref.
Ambasilide	32 μΜ	Various ion channels	109
Azimilide	1-3 μM	I _{kr} channel blockade	88, 110
Barbiturates	0.26-0.56 μM	Anesthetic	90, 91
Cetirizine	1 mM	Antihistamine	111, 112
Clofilium	50 μM	Various ion channels	113, 114
Diphenhydramine	130 μM	Antihistamine	112, 115
Ebastine	0.8 μM	Antihistamine	112
Haloperidol	2.6 μM	Antipsychotic	116
Indapamine	100 μM	Diuretic	117
Propofol	250 μM	Anesthetic	90
Quinidine	∼50 μM	Various ion channels	118, 119
Tedisamil	2.5 μM	Various ion channels	120
Terfenadine	10 μM	Antihistamine	112, 115
Thiopentone	56 μM	Anesthetic	90
Triamterene	100 μM	Diuretic	121
Trioridazine	14 μM	Psychotropic	122

itself from the I_{Kr} channel blocker (77, 78). *In vivo* safety studies are still ongoing.

As mentioned above, there is evidence that I_{Ks} channel activity is increased under β -adrenergic stimulation (22) and increased β -adrenergic activity leads to malignant ventricular tachyarrhythmias (25-27). Thus, a blocker of these properties is highly attractive. An increase or preservation of AP prolongation during β -adrenergic activation is included in the class III antiarrhythmic profile and appears to be more desirable than the classic class III antiarrhythmic (I_{Kr}) compounds.

The collected data suggest that selective $I_{\rm Ks}$ channel blockers may be well suited to be new antiarrhythmic agents and we look forward to the first clinical trials with these agents.

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