

Catheter ablation of atypical atrial flutter: a novel 3D anatomic mapping approach to quickly localize and terminate atypical atrial flutter

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Abstract

Purpose This study aims to describe a novel method of High Density Activation Sequence Mapping combined with Voltage Gradient Mapping Overlay (HD-VGM) to quickly localize and terminate atypical atrial flutter.

Methods Twenty-one patients presenting with 26 different atypical atrial flutter circuits after a previous catheter or surgical AF ablation were studied. HD-VGM was performed with a commercially available impedance-based mapping system to locate and successfully ablate the critical isthmus of each tachycardia circuit. The results were compared to 21 consecutive historical control patients who had undergone an atypical flutter ablation without HD-VGM.

Results Twenty-six different atypical flutter circuits were evaluated. An average 3D anatomic mapping time of 12.39 ± 4.71 min was needed to collect 2996 ± 690 total points and 1016 ± 172 used mapping points. A mean of 195 ± 75 s of radiofrequency (RF) energy was needed to terminate the arrhythmias. The mean procedure time was 135 ± 46 min. With a mean follow-up 16 ± 9 months, 90% are in normal rhythm.

In comparison to the control cohort, the study cohort had a shorter procedure time (135 ± 46 vs. 210 ± 41 min, $p = 0.0009$), fluoroscopy time (8.5 ± 3.7 vs. 17.7 ± 7.7 min, $p = 0.0021$), and success in termination of the arrhythmia during the procedure (100 vs. 68.2%, $p = 0.0230$).

Conclusions Ablation of atypical atrial flutter is challenging and time consuming. This case series shows that HD-VGM mapping can quickly localize and terminate an atypical flutter circuit.

Keywords Atypical atrial flutter · Ablation · 3D anatomic mapping · Atrial fibrillation · High density activation sequence mapping

Abbreviations

AF	Atrial fibrillation
PAF	Paroxysmal atrial fibrillation
pAF	Persistent atrial fibrillation

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HD-	High Density Activation Sequence Mapping with
VGM	Voltage Gradient Mapping Overlay
aAFL	Atypical atrial flutter
LA	Left atrium
RA	Right atrium
CS	Coronary Sinus
LAT	Local activation timing
RAI	Roving activation interval
LVID	Low-V ID
ACT	Activated clotting time
ICE	Intracardiac echo
LSI	Lesion size index
FTI	Force Time Integral
RF	Radiofrequency
CAFÉ	Complex atrial fractionated electrograms

1 Introduction

Catheter ablation of drug refractory symptomatic atrial fibrillation (AF) has been shown to be an effective treatment [1–5]. While ablation of paroxysmal atrial fibrillation (PAF) has achieved a high rate of success with one procedure, ablation of persistent atrial fibrillation (pAF) with a single procedure has not been as successful. Recurrences in pAF patients can manifest as atypical atrial flutters (aAFL) which are difficult to treat medically [6–8]. This can occur if linear ablation lesion sets are delivered, during the index procedure [9–12]. Ablation of aAFL can be challenging with limited success and long procedural times [13–15]. In this multicenter, retrospective case series, we report a novel method with High Density Activation Sequence Mapping combined with Voltage Gradient Mapping Overlay (HD-VGM) with an impedance-based electroanatomic mapping system (EnSite Velocity, St. Jude Medical, St. Paul, MN, USA) to identify the highest voltage areas within the slowest zones of conduction. This method shows the critical zones of conduction that can be targeted for successful ablation.

2 Methods

2.1 Study population

The study population consisted of 21 consecutive patients (17 male and 4 female), presenting with 26 separate symptomatic, drug refractory, aAFL. All had a prior history of AF and had undergone at least one prior catheter or surgical ablation procedure for AF. The procedures were performed at three separate institutions by four different operators. Patients were only included if they had a stable tachycardia cycle length. The baseline characteristics of the study patients are described in Table 1.

The study population was compared to a historical cohort of 21 patients who had undergone an aAFL ablation prior to the use of HD-VGM and release of contact force catheters. The comparison cohort had undergone ablation with standard mapping methods and pacing maneuvers such as entrainment mapping. The control cohort had their procedures performed at the same three institutions by the same four operators as the study cohort. Baseline characteristics of the control cohort are described in Table 1; the procedure data is described in Table 2.

This study was approved by our local institutional review board.

2.2 Previous ablation procedures

All patients had at least one prior pulmonary vein isolation procedure (PVI) with either catheter-based or surgical ablation. Catheter-based procedures were performed with an ablation catheter of the operator's choice. Additionally, the operator performed, a mitral isthmus line, roof line and/or complex fractionated atrial electrogram (CAFÉ) ablation lesion sets at their discretion. Ablation lesions were limited to the left atrium (LA) for prior catheter-based procedures. The post-surgical patients had both left and right atrial ablations with a combination of RF and cryoablation.

2.3 Statistical analysis

All values are reported as mean \pm standard deviation. Study and control groups were compared using parametric (Student's *t* test) and nonparametric (Wilcoxon rank sum test) tests for continuous variables as appropriate and Fisher's exact test for categorical data (SAS Version 9.4, Cary, NC). A *p* value <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

2.4 Mapping and data collection

The 3D mapping system was set up with a coronary sinus (CS) electrogram as the mapping reference. The usual setup has been described previously [16]. The CS reference electrogram was selected based on the amplitude and consistency [17].

A multi-electrode spiral catheter (Reflection Spiral, St. Jude Medical, St. Paul, MN USA) with equally spaced electrodes (6.3 mm) was selected as the roving catheter (ROV) and configured to collect local activation timing (LAT) from all bipolar (or paired bipolar if interelectrode spacing was unequal) signals simultaneously. The signal detection of absolute peak (Abs peak) was used on the ROV. Abs peak is defined as the largest amplitude, either positive or negative, of the bipolar signal and coincides with the $-dv/dt$ on a unipolar signal. The near-field signal has long been defined in a unipole as the $-dv/dt$. This simply means that the near-field signal in a bipole is commonly defined as the Abs peak. In fact, the Abs

Table 1 Patient characteristics

Data	Results Study cohort	Results Control cohort	p value
Age	63 ± 5	62 ± 10	0.65
Male	17 (81%)	15 (71%)	0.32
LVEF	50% (±5)	56% (±10)	0.10
LA size	4.54 cm (±0.53)	4.46 cm (±0.69)	0.77
CHA ₂ DS ₂ -VASC score	1.4 (±1.7)	1.9 (±1.3)	0.25
DM	3 (14%)	5 (23%)	
HTN	3 (14%)	5 (23%)	
CAD	2 (10%)	2 (10%)	
CHF	1 (5%)	2 (9%)	
Prior ablation			
PVI only	5	7	
PVI + additional sites	11	12	
Surgical MAZE	5	2	
Mean days since index procedure	1254 (±1323)	1003 (±417)	0.11

Table 2 Procedure data for study subjects

Patient	# of circuits	Index procedure	LA size (CM)	Location of circuit	Cycle length of flutter circuit	Total points taken	Total points used	Mapping time (min)	Ablation time (s)	Total procedure time (min)
1	1	PVI, CAFE	4.1	MI	247	1317	699	8:25	90	74
2	1	MAZE	4.4	LA roof	250	3368	775	10:00	30	63
3	2	PVI, CAFÉ, ROOF	3.5	LA roof	220, 280	1387, 1704	758, 847	10:00, 9:00	240, 150	193
4	1	CAFÉ, ROOF	4.5	RA	370	813	306	13:50	30	120
5	1	MAZE	4.5	MI	300	1398	630	13:00	30	120
6	1	PVI ROOF	4.5	MI	225	1453	592	7:12	120	180
7	1	PVI, ROOF	3.6	MI	340	1472	622	21:00	30	170
8	4	PVI, CAFÉ, ROOF	4.5	MI, LA roof, CTI, focal	220,210 200, 206	1172, 696, 880, 691	612,400, 500,296	13:00, 10:00,9:00 8:00	90, 90, 180, 240	360
9	1	PVI	3.1	Focal	240	1033	633	8:00	90	132
10	1	PVI, ROOF	4.2	Focal	245	1733	656	10:00	240	115
11	1	PVI, ROOF	4.5	MI	209	3619	1314	12:00	90	125
12	1	PVI	5.4	MI	215	1795	821	6:30	120	66
13	1	MAZE	4.5	RA	220	2463	1314	18:52	180	90
14	1	PVI, ROOF, CAFE	6.7	LA roof	270	8844	2162	11:00	120	111
15	1	PVI, ROOF	4.8	Focal	400	8474	1278	15:00	120	120
16	1	PVI, CAFE	4.5	Roof	260	1392	675	9:53	200	60
17	1	PVI	5.7	Roof	400	2215	1454	21:00	120	249
18	1	MAZE	5.9	LA antrum	310	8843	2684	20:00	571	259
19	2	MAZE	5.9	LA posterior wall	220/230	7508 2228	1705 458	15:00 6:00	526 526	159
20	1	PVI	3.6	Roof	220	9324	3353	18:00	407	200
21	1	PVI	4.4	Roof	240	2083	878	23:00	180	94

PVI pulmonary vein isolation, CAFÉ complex atrial fractionated electrogram mapping, ROOF roof line in LA connecting the PVI lines from RUPV to LUPV, MAZE combination of right and left atrial ablation with Cryo and RF energy, LA left atrium, RA right atrium, CTI cavotricuspid isthmus

peak appropriately identifies the near-field deflection even when multiple potentials are seen. The sensitivity was adjusted for the ROV to a maximum value of 10 mV to ensure the largest amplitude bipolar signal was selected, rather than the first signal in our roving activation interval (RAI). The RAI window was setup to include 95% of the cycle length of the tachycardia. For all patients, the entire cycle length was captured in the chamber of interest. Intracardiac signals were assessed for noise and a 60-Hz notch/noise filter was applied if 60 Hz noise was present. Interior and exterior projection values were set at 5 mm, rather than the default values of 15 mm. This keeps any intracavitary data from being used in the map. The interpolation value was also set to 5 mm, rather than the default value of 10 mm. With this setting, regions of

the 3D map containing missing LAT data was easily visible to the operator and targeted for further data collection.

After the data was collected with the multi-electrode spiral catheter, two methods of data interpretation were performed:

First, the EnSite mapping system was set to display all mapping points with only eight isochronal color bands in the following activation pattern: white → red → orange → yellow → green → light blue → dark blue → purple. Interpretation of the map is simplified with this limited color palate. Each color band represents equally spaced timing. Therefore, large and wide color bands represent fast conduction, while tightly spaced color bands represent slow conduction. The color sequence must follow this order. For instance, if there is an area of non-sequential coloring, this indicates that the electrical

Table 3 Procedure data for control subjects

Patient	# of circuits	Index procedure	LA size (CM)	Location of circuit	Total procedure time (min)	Successful ablation
1	1	PVI, ROOF, CAFÉ	4.7	MI	180	No (bidirectional block was not achieved)
2	2	PVI	4.0	Roof	270	No (bidirectional block was not achieved on roof, tachycardia was reinducible)
3	1	PVI, ROOF, MI CAFÉ	4.0	Focal—anterior wall	270	Yes
4		PVI	3.2	Roof, anterior wall	180	Yes
5		PVI, ROOF	6.0	Appendage, anterior wall	150	No (tachycardia could not be terminated)
6		PVI	3.4	Focal	150	Yes
7		PVI	4.7	Focal	210	Yes
8		PVI	4.8	MI, roof	180	Yes
9		PVI, ROOF	4.1	Anterior wall	210	Yes
10		PVI	4.7	MI	240	Yes
11		PVI, ROOF, MI, CAFÉ	4.6	MI	150	Yes
12		PVI, ROOF, CAFÉ	4.1	Posterior wall	210	Yes
13		PVI, ROOF	4.8	Roof	300	No (bidirectional block not achieved on roof. Patient also had recurrent MI flutter)
14		PVI, ROOF	5.6	MI, CTI	240	Yes
15		PVI	3.6	Roof	180	Yes
16		PVI	5.3	Multiple LA anterior wall circuits	180	No (unable to localize circuit)
17		PVI, ROOF	4.8	Appendage	180	Yes
18		PVI	5.6	Multiple LA anterior wall circuits	240	No (unable to localize circuit)
19		PVI	3.6	Roof	240	Yes
20		PVI, ROOF, MI	5.3	LA posterior wall, CTI, roof	240	No (unable to localize posterior wall circuit)
21		MAZE	4.8	Posterior wall	180	Yes

PVI pulmonary vein isolation, CAFÉ complex atrial fractionated electrogram mapping, ROOF roof line in LA connecting the PVI lines from RUPV to LUPV, MAZE combination of right and left atrial ablation with Cryo and RF energy, LA left atrium, RA right atrium, CTI cavotricuspid isthmus

activation, in that region, takes another route through the tissue to get to that location. With only eight colors to analyze, following the sequence of activation is simplified.

The second method of data interpretation that was performed was with the LVID setting in the Mapping Control Panel. Using the same data that was collected in method one, voltage values were annotated automatically on the EnSite system and stored for each LAT point. The Low-V ID (LVID) was selected with the nominal setting of 1.0 mV. With this setting, an area of voltage lower than 1.0 mV will display as gray on the 3D map, which signifies scar. In brief, the LVID identifies low-voltage zones in activation maps. If a collected LAT point has a peak-to-peak (P-P) value lower than the specified LVID value, that point will display as gray and not be included in the color-coded timing scale. This helps to eliminate LAT points collected that were baseline noise on the electrogram. By increasing the LVID to a higher voltage value, more of the mapping data appears as gray or “scar.” Similarly, by decreasing the LVID, more of the mapping data appears as active tissue and is used in the activation mapping. The LVID is dynamically adjusted until only the largest voltage area in the previously identified critical slow conduction zone is shown. A narrow channel of higher voltage then

becomes apparent in the slow conduction zone. After the target area was identified with HD-GVM, additional data points were obtained, in this identified area, with a 3.5-mm irrigated tip contact sensing ablation catheter (Tacticath catheter (St. Jude Medical, St. Paul, MN)). Points were only taken when contact force was greater than 10 g and less than 40 g. Collecting additional data points with the contact sensing catheter further defined the area targeted for ablation.

2.5 Patient management

Patients were brought into the cardiac electrophysiology laboratory (EP Lab) in a fasting state. All patients were in spontaneous aAFL at the time of the procedure. Antiarrhythmic medications were discontinued at least 48 h prior to the procedure. Amiodarone was discontinued 1 month prior to the procedure. Anticoagulant discontinuation was at the discretion of the operator. Patients underwent a pre-procedural CT scan and transesophageal echo if clinically indicated. All procedures were performed under general anesthesia. Intracardiac echo (ICE) was utilized for transseptal access and imaging in all LA procedures. Heparin was bolused to achieve an activated clotting time (ACT) of 300 s or greater prior to accessing

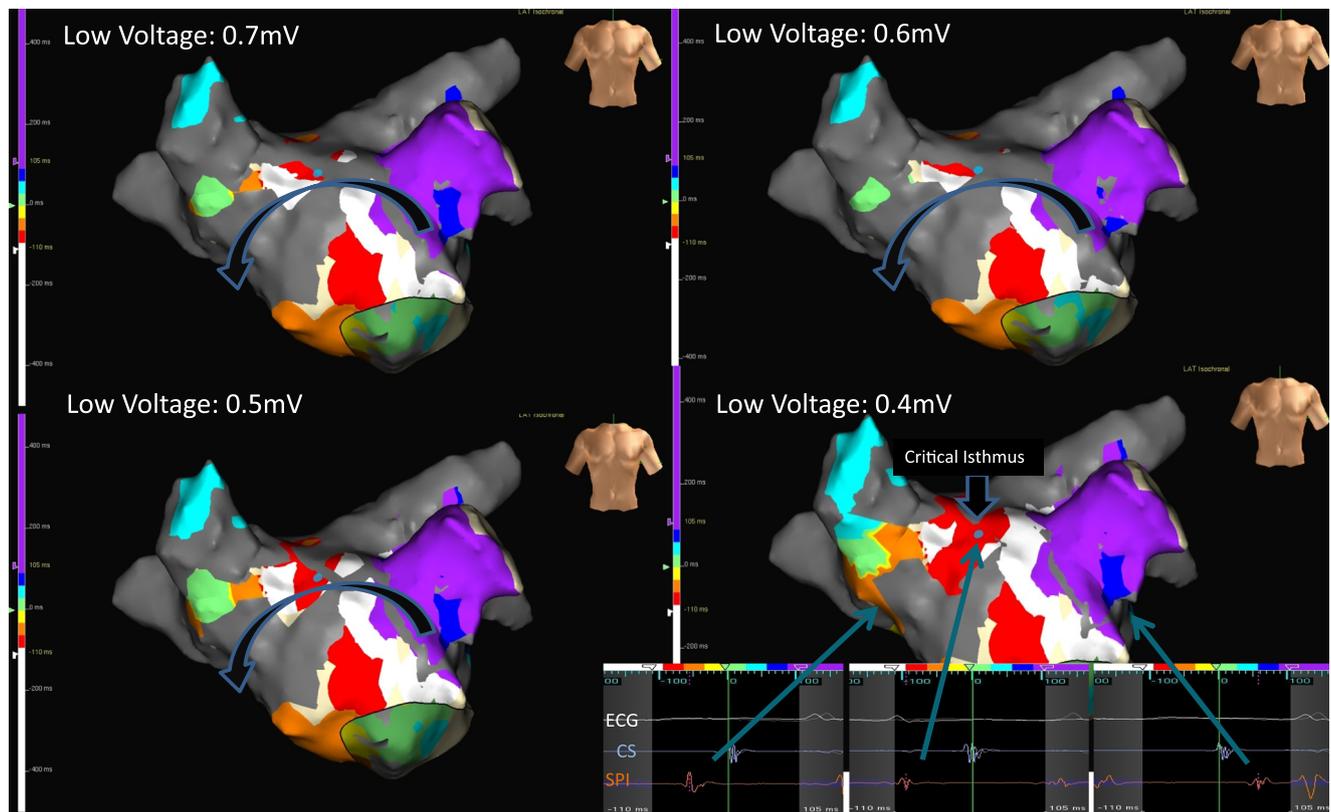


Fig 1 Anterior projection of the left atrium showing a left atrial flutter traveling counterclockwise around the mitral valve. There are different levels of low-voltage overlay values (Low-V ID) on each panel. The

value was dynamically adjusted until a channel or critical isthmus appears at 0.400 mV. The termination was annotated by the blue dot on the lower right panel. CS coronary sinus, SPL spiral catheter

the LA. A continuous infusion of heparin was employed to maintain an ACT greater than 300 s during the case. A decapolar CS catheter (Livewire, St. Jude Medical, St. Paul, MN, USA) was advanced and used as a reference during the case. Its location was shadowed to maintain a stable reference throughout. In LA cases, a fixed sheath (SL-1, St. Jude Medical, St. Paul, MN, USA) and a steerable transseptal sheath (Agilis, St. Jude Medical, St. Paul, MN, USA) were advanced into the LA. For RA cases, the ablation catheter was advanced without the aid of a sheath or with the use of an SR-0 sheath.

Using Ensite, geometries of the LA, RA, and pulmonary veins were acquired using a decapolar circular mapping catheter (Reflexion Spiral, St. Jude Medical, St. Paul, MN USA). This map was compared with the anatomy from the CT scan acquired prior to the ablation for a reference. In all patients with prior catheter or surgical ablation of the LA, the pulmonary veins were first evaluated. If electrical activity was noted in the veins, these areas were re-isolated with RF ablation. The aAFL was then evaluated with HD mapping as described above. Traditional methods to determine the site of activation such as entrainment mapping was not utilized.

Once areas of ablation were targeted, the TactiCath 3.5 mm catheter was placed through a long sheath and advanced into

the targeted chamber. Ablation lesions were delivered with the Ampere RF ablation generator (St. Jude Medical Inc., St. Paul, MN, USA) to achieve energy up to 25–35 W at 40 C for a maximum of 60 s in each location. Lesions in the posterior LA were limited to 25 W. All patients were in a spontaneous aAFL at the time of the procedure. If the tachycardia terminated, re-induction was performed with rapid atrial pacing down to 200 ms with and without isoproterenol from 5 to 20 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. If tachycardia was not induced, the ablation was considered successful. If a new tachycardia was induced, it was similarly targeted for mapping and ablation. A separate map was made for each arrhythmia that was induced. Linear ablation to form a complete line with block was not attempted. At the completion of the case, all patients were in sinus rhythm. All patients were observed overnight and discharged the next day. All patients had outpatient evaluations at 1 and 2 weeks post ablation. In addition, patients were seen at 3, 6, and 12 months post ablation. Additional follow-up was directed by clinical indications. For recurrences of PAF or aAFL, the arrhythmia was documented with an ECG and then a cardioversion was performed within 48–72 h for persistent episodes within the first 3-month blanking period. After the 3-month blanking period was completed, all patients had a 2 week continuous monitor. In accordance with the Heart

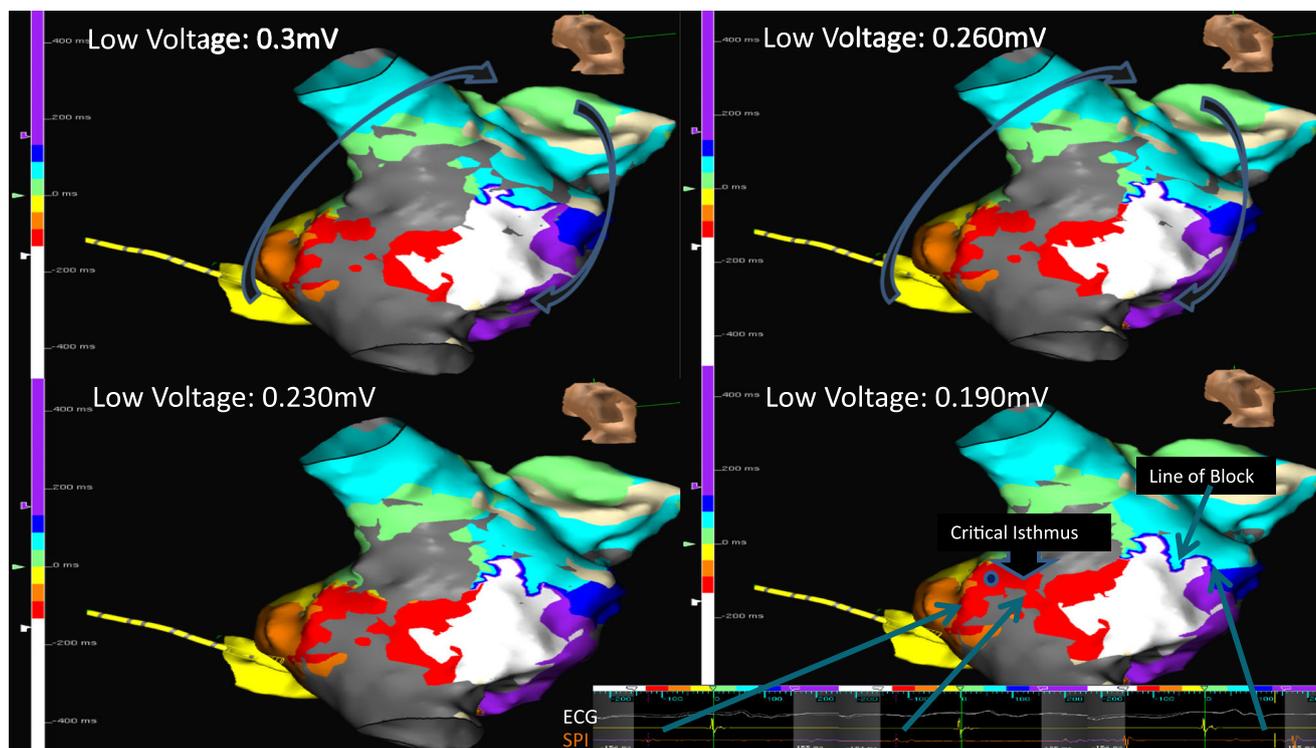


Fig 2 Right lateral projection of the right atrium showing a right atrial scar mediated flutter. The varying levels of Low-V ID are depicted on each panel. The value was dynamically adjusted until a channel or critical isthmus appeared at 0.190 mV. Note the line of block in the chamber in the lower right image. The light blue timing area is directly next to the

white timing area. This doesn't follow the color scheme and therefore represents an area of conduction block. At the critical isthmus (in the red area), there was phrenic nerve stimulation. Ablation with termination was annotated by the blue dot in the lower right panel

Rhythm Society guidelines, all patients were followed for 1 year with ECGs for documentation of any symptomatic episodes [18]. Anticoagulation was continued at least 3 months and then guided by the individual patient’s CHA₂DS₂-VASc score.

3 Results

A total of 26 different circuits were evaluated in 21 different patients. With this novel method of HD-VGM, the average time for collecting the mapping points and analysis was 12.39 (±4.71) min. An average of 2996 (+690) points of interest were collected and 1016 (±172) points were used to create and analyze the map. A critical isthmus was identified in all 26 circuits. Once this analysis was performed, the arrhythmias were targeted and successfully treated with 195 (±75) s of RF ablation energy. For two patients, the RF ablation time was significantly longer than the mean time as the critical isthmus was larger and adequate contact was difficult to obtain with the ablation catheter. The mean total procedure time was

135 (±46) min. All 26 of the flutter circuits were successfully terminated during the ablation. With a mean follow-up of 16 (±9) months (12/21 patients were greater than 1 year), 19/21 (90%) patients have remained in normal rhythm off antiarrhythmic medication. Of the two recurrences, one patient had a recurrence of an atrial tachycardia from the left atrial appendage, which was a different arrhythmia than the prior procedure. This was successfully ablated on a subsequent procedure. The other patient declined ablation and chose antiarrhythmic drug therapy. HD-VGM was used successfully to treat multiple flutters in both the RA and LA. Additionally, patients that have undergone both catheter and surgical ablation were successfully treated. There were no complications noted in this cohort Table 3.

In comparison to the control group that had previously undergone an aAFL ablation with traditional methods, the study cohort had a shorter procedure time (135 ± 46 vs. 210 ± 41 min, *p* = 0.0009), fluoroscopy time (8.5 ± 3.7 vs. 17.7 ± 7.7 min, *p* = 0.0021), and overall success in termination of the atypical atrial flutter during ablation (100 vs. 68.2%, *p* = 0.0230).

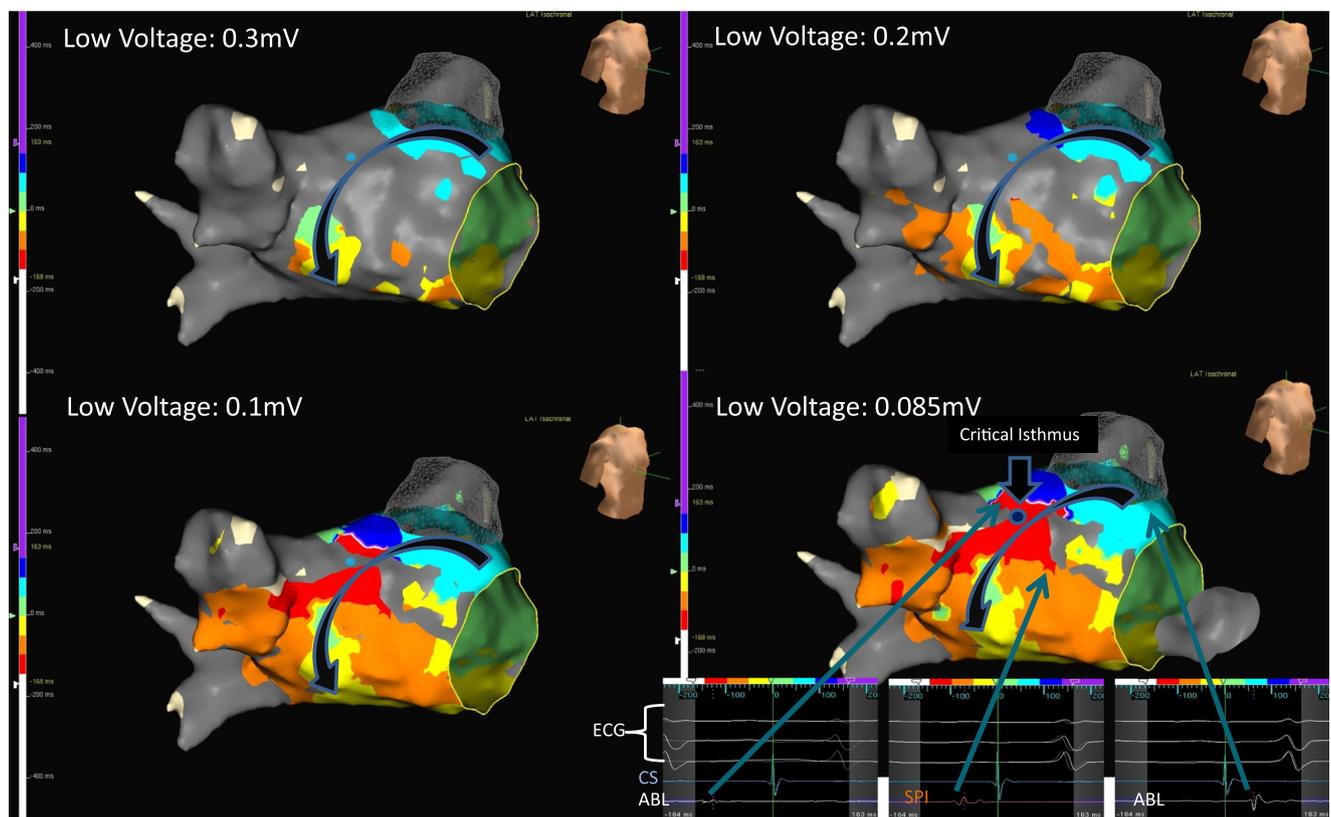


Fig 3 Right lateral projection of a left atrial flutter traveling counterclockwise around the mitral valve. Low-V ID thresholds cause any signals below that value to appear gray. This value was dynamically adjusted until a channel or critical isthmus appeared at 0.085 mV. The

critical isthmus is identified in the lower right panel. The termination was annotated by the blue dot on the lower right panel in the critical isthmus. ABL ablation catheter

4 Discussion

The HD-VGM method of mapping and interpretation is different than the currently accepted methods because it utilizes a voltage map overlaid on a local activation timing map. By combining both maps, the highest voltage within the critical slow zones of conduction can be rapidly identified and targeted for ablation. Using the Ensite 3D mapping system to create a high-density map of cardiac chambers has been demonstrated previously [19–21]. The combination of the voltage map overlaid on the activation map that has only recently been evaluated [22]. The comparison of the HD-VGM method to traditional mapping methods with procedure results, however, has not been previously described (see Figs. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7).

Identification of the location of the circuit was accomplished exclusively with a 3D mapping system that is currently widely available. No additional system upgrades are required to perform the HD-VGM. This novel method of HD-VGM acquired with a multipolar catheter also differs from more traditional methods of mapping because rapid collection of data points is collected without a significant amount of editing by the operator. The 3D anatomic mapping system is

capable of annotating each point appropriately without the operator editing the location of the timing caliper. This is done primarily by choosing the Abs peak of the bipolar electrogram on the ROV, rather than the onset or $-dv/dt$. The onset of bipolar electrogram activation and maximum $-dv/dt$ alone sometimes do not represent near-field activation due to limitations in both methods. By using the EnSite system's ability to detect a peak electrogram, there can be automated collection of data. If the $-dv/dt$ or onset was used; this would require beat-by-beat manual analysis by the operator. These improvements in the data collection allow for a more rapid construction of a 3D anatomic map. Compared to prior studies evaluating aAFLs, the total procedure time is significantly reduced [23]. In addition, compared to the prior 21 consecutive, historical patients that had aAFL ablation, there was a 75-min reduction in procedure time.

Another difference between HD-VGM and more traditional methods is the identification of the circuit of interest. Based on the simplified color scheme, the operator can easily determine the difference between active tissue channel within the circuit and passively activated tissue channels. The main method to determine if the circuit is active or passive is to identify all of the colors in the spectrum as a connected series.

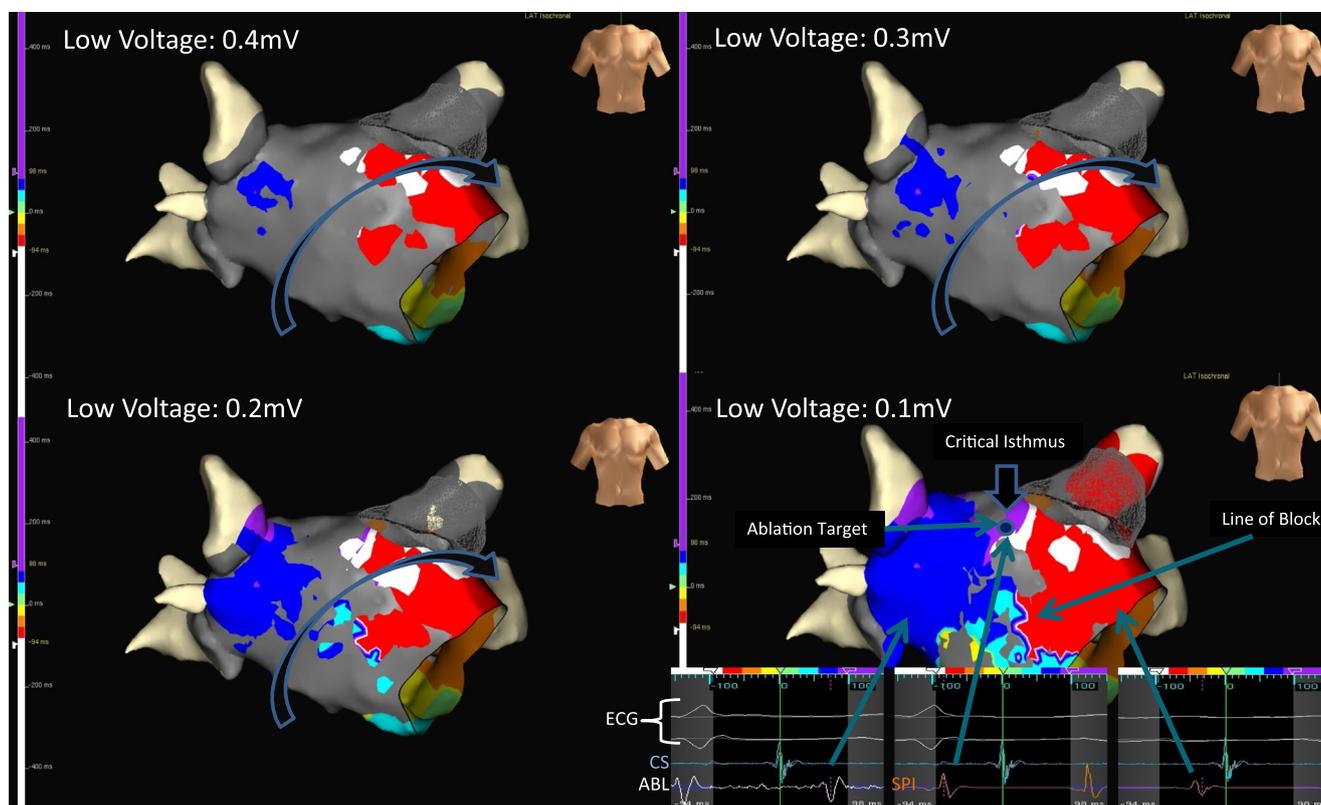


Fig 4 Anterior projection of a left atrial flutter traveling clockwise around the mitral valve. Low-V ID thresholds cause any signals below the set value to appear as gray. This value is dynamically adjusted until a critical isthmus appeared at 0.1 mV. The critical isthmus is identified in the lower right panel. This is clearly seen as the red is near the light blue.

This doesn't follow the color scheme and, therefore, represents an area of conduction block. From a previous ablation, there is a line of block on the anterior surface near the mitral. With ablation in the critical isthmus (white and purple narrow bands), the tachycardia terminated

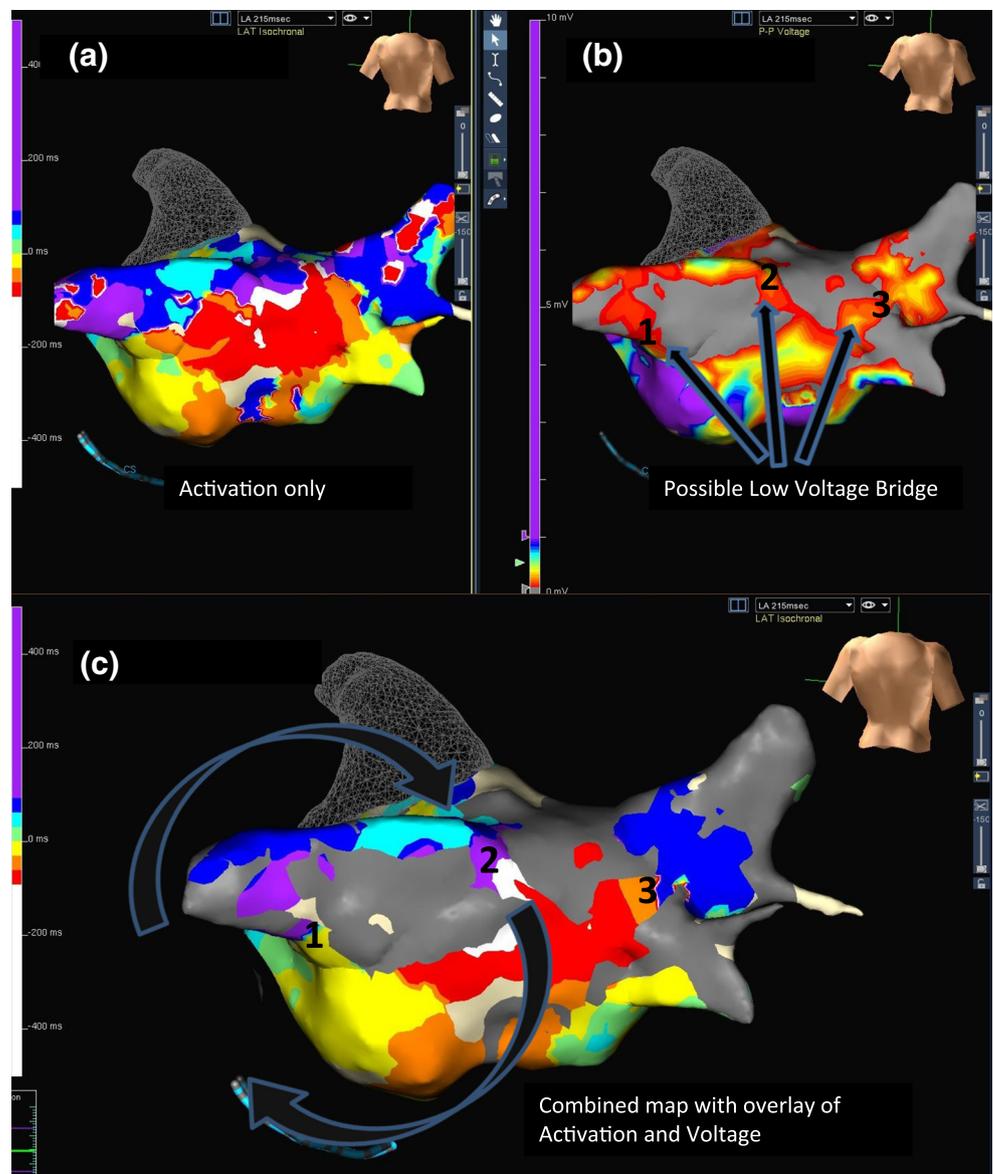
If the circuit is active, all of the colors in the activation sequence flow in order and the early and late areas meet. The critical circuit will have the pattern of White → Red → Orange → Yellow → Green → Light blue → Dark blue → Purple.

If an area of tissue is identified and does not have all of the colors in the spectrum, or if the colors are out of sequence, this must be via passively activating tissue or with two passive wave fronts colliding. These areas are, subsequently, not targeted for ablation. For instance, in Fig. 5c, area 1 is a passive area of conduction. The activation sequence does not follow the color sequence. Instead, the color sequence is White → Red → Orange → Yellow → Green → Purple. The transition from Green → Purple does not follow the designated activation pattern. Therefore, the border between Green →

Purple must be a line of functional block. Activation of the Purple area must be from adjacent areas in the anterior of the LA. Similarly, in Fig. 5c, area 3, the activation is from White → Red → Orange → Dark Blue. The transition from Orange → Dark Blue does not follow the designated activation pattern. Therefore, the border between Orange and Dark Blue must be line of functional block and the Dark Blue area is activated from adjacent areas in the anterior wall. These areas do not represent an area of focus for therapy.

The combination of the color scheme with the voltage map is a unique method. In Fig. 5b, there are three possible voltage bridges noted and labeled as areas 1, 2, and 3. If voltage was the only criteria used, all three could be targeted for ablation. As shown in panel c, ablation of area 2 only would lead to termination of the arrhythmia. Areas 1 and 3 would not

Fig. 5 Posterior view of LA of an atypical atrial flutter. **a** An activation only map that shows the tachycardia circuit traversing the roof. Using the data from **a** only, a roof line would be targeted, as this has the most color compression, indicating a slow zone. The tachycardia would terminate but with ablation of a larger area than is required. **b** A voltage map only. Using the data from this panel, three different voltage bridges could be targeted for ablation. Voltage bridges 1 and 3 would not terminate the tachycardia. **c** The overlay of activation and voltage. By combining both maps, the highest voltage area within the slow zone becomes apparent. Voltage bridge 2 has all the colors in sequence and can be targeted with minimal ablation. Panel **c** also shows why voltage bridge 1 and 3 would not terminate the tachycardia. These are high-voltage areas but the activation pattern does not follow color sequence



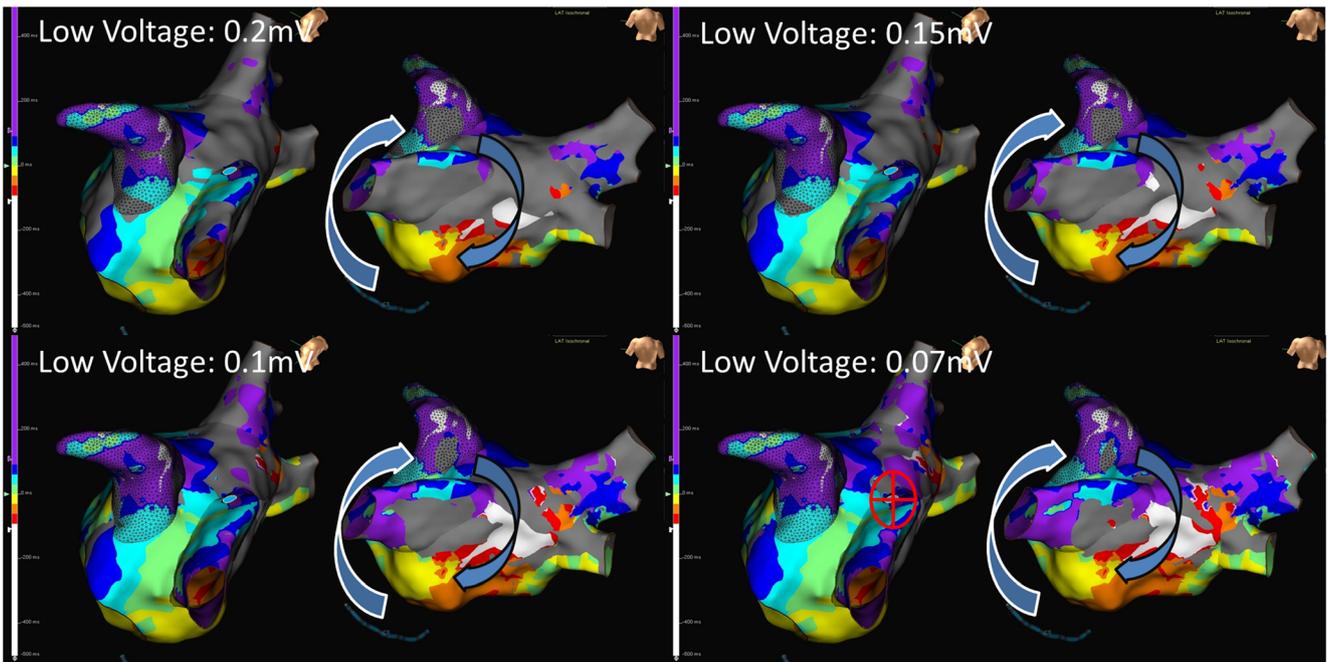


Fig. 6 The tachycardia was noted to travel around the left lower pulmonary vein to the mitral isthmus region. The mitral isthmus region had the most color compression and, therefore, was the slowest part of the

circuit. The shortest area of ablation, however, was the top of the left common vein between the vein and left atrial appendage. This area was targeted and successfully ablated

terminate the tachycardia as they are not part of the critical circuit. These areas do not have the necessary color sequence for successful ablation. For this reason, voltage mapping alone

may not correctly identify the area of termination. Figure 5a is an activation map only. With this map, the entire LA roof could be targeted and would successfully terminate the

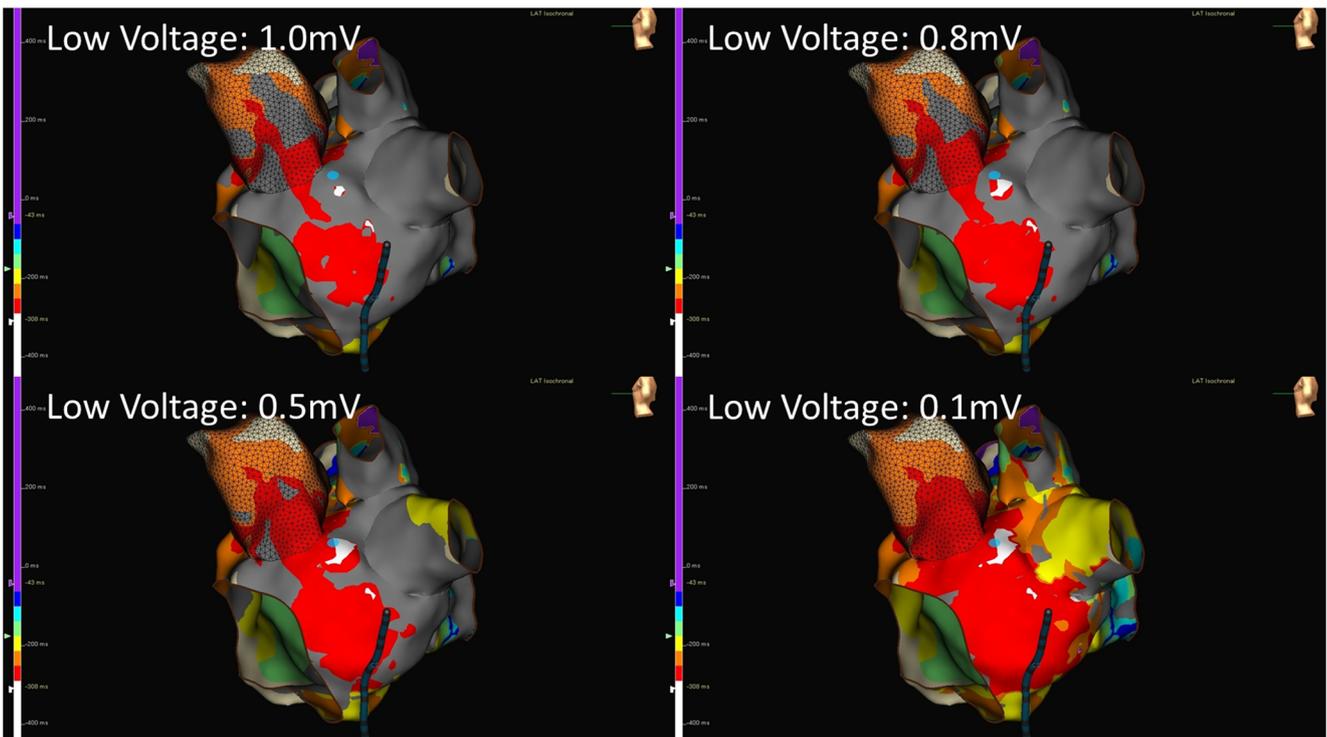


Fig. 7 A critical focal source appears in the 0.1 mV image. There is a focal area of white tissue located between the LA appendage and the left lower pulmonary vein. The focal white area is the earliest activation time

and is surrounded by red and then the remainder of the color sequence. This white area was successfully targeted for ablation

tachycardia but with more ablation lesions than are necessary. By combining both the activation map with the color sequence, as shown in panel c, the critical part of the circuit is easily identified and targeted for ablation. Once the active circuit is identified, voltage gradient mapping can be done to show the specific focus of the highest voltage areas within the slow conducting zones of the tachycardia.

Winkle et al. recently described a technique similar to HD-VGM, using high-density mapping with a combination of voltage and activation to map the entire flutter circuit [22]. Our study expands upon this concept, showing that the successful site of ablation is the high-voltage area within the slow zone of conduction. By focusing on the critical high-voltage area, within the slow zone, we were able to terminate the arrhythmia with minimal ablation lesions. If the entire high-voltage area is not ablated, the arrhythmia may reoccur. Our focus on this critical area within the slow zone is the likely the reason that our 1 year success rate was higher (90%) than in Winkle et al.'s prior study (61%). Additionally, we show for the first time improved procedural outcomes using high-density mapping as compared to traditional mapping. In this study, we show that total procedure time, fluoroscopy time, and RF application time were decreased compared to more traditional methods. This manuscript is also unique in that it describes the specific alterations to the Ensite system that are necessary for an electrophysiologist to perform high-density activation mapping. Increased utilization of the EnSite velocity system in this publication eliminate the need for manual edits of the data, leading to quicker identification of the circuit (12 vs. 20 min).

5 Limitations

The main limitation of this study is the small sample size of cases reviewed. Further studies with larger number of patients followed for a longer time period are necessary to confirm the feasibility of this technique.

Additionally, the 3D map's accuracy is contingent upon accurate contact voltage data. Most of the points not in contact can be excluded with interior projection value along with a proper LVID setting. It is essential to exclude premature beats, ventricular measurements, and catheter artifact. In addition, the data points were not analyzed manually by the operator. This was done to increase the speed of data collection and analysis. The trade-off for the increased speed is that errors in notation could have been made and accounted for in the 3D maps. While this is a more efficient way of collecting data, it is not automated such as other systems currently available. Also, as traditional methods to locate the flutter circuit, such as entrainment mapping, was not performed, validation of this method with currently accepted methods cannot be made. Another limitation is that the data from the historical cohort

of 21 patients was obtained prior to the release of contact sensing catheters.

6 Conclusion

Ablation of aAFLs is a challenging and frequently time-consuming procedure. This case series shows that this HD-VGM technique, which is currently commercially available, can be used to efficiently map and ablate these rhythms. Multiple operators at three different institutions were able to successfully ablate aAFL rapidly using this technique. With this method, procedure and fluoroscopy times can be reduced and acute success rates increased.

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Compliance with ethical standards This study was approved by our local institutional review board.

Conflict of interest Drs. Sundaram and Choe are on the speaker's bureau for St. Jude Medical. In addition, Drs. Sundaram and Choe have received a research grant from St. Jude Medical, Asia Division, to study the genetic basis of Brugada Syndrome in Cambodia. This conflict is not relevant to the article. N. Mullins and C. Boorman receive salary support from St. Jude Medical.

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